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**An Assessment of Contemporary Dining Out  
Behaviour: The Moderating Factors of Culture  
and Food Selection within Chinese Full-  
Service Restaurants in Shanghai, China**

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

**Doctor of Philosophy**

in

**Tourism and Hospitality Management**

at

**The University of Waikato**

by

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THE UNIVERSITY OF  
**WAIKATO**  
*Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato*

**2011**

## **Abstract**

Shanghai can be described as metropolitan, a gateway, a hub of international traffic and a multi-cultural city. Given these facts, it can be expected that the Shanghai population is comprised of people from not only different regions of China, but also from other countries. It is been asserted by many researchers (e.g. Bojanic and Xu, 2006) that culture affects one's dining behavior and people are subject to the influence of other cultures. Shanghai, as a place with a population of mixed cultural background, is therefore an ideal research subject for this study.

The main purpose of this study is to understand the dining out behaviour of Shanghai residents in Chinese full-service restaurants in Shanghai, China. This study seeks to understand how other cultures have integrated into the Shanghai culture and how that affects the dining habits of Shanghai people. The study proposes that different people are subject to different levels of acculturation. Past research in the hospitality field indicates that the level of acculturation may affect the food practices and preferences of an individual (Sukalakamala and Brittin, 2006; Maamoun et al, 2007; Kremmyda, et al., 2008). However, most studies about acculturation affecting food habits focus on how people adapt themselves when they move overseas (e.g. Chinese people living in the USA). Little attention has been attributed to studying acculturation within the same country, which is important since people may exhibit different behaviour even within the same culture (Chang, 1979). Therefore, it is the intention of this study to contribute to what is a gap in the literature.

This study collected 2103 responses from 42 Chinese full-service restaurants in Shanghai. Both qualitative and quantitative research methods were used in this study. The techniques that this study relied on to analyse the data included statistical computer software AMO S (structural equation modelling), CATPAC (artificial neural network software), SPSS 16.0 which was used for frequency analysis, descriptive analysis, independent sample *t*-test, one way ANOVA, factor analysis and cluster analysis.

Results indicate that culture is a strong predictor of Shanghai people's dining out behaviour, which includes their motives, restaurant choice, food choice and dining evaluation. It is also evident that Shanghai people are showing a growing awareness towards health food.

## **Acknowledgments**

This PhD adventure has been a long and rewarding journey, which I might not have been able to fully appreciate without the help of many people. I would like to take this opportunity and express my sincere gratitude to all the people who have supported me during this PhD study.

Firstly, I would like to especially acknowledge and thank Associate Professor Timothy Lockyer, my Chief PhD supervisor, who has been patient and offered me countless invaluable moments of advice. Tim not only helped me in my PhD study, but also encouraged me to attend conferences in Taiwan and Beijing, China that broadened my career options for the future. I would also like to thank Asad Mohsin, my second supervisor who was also my teacher when I studied dining out behaviour.

I would like to take this opportunity and express my appreciation to my examiners, Professor Tzung-Cheng (T.C.) Huan and Associate Professor Robert J. Inbakaran who agreed to review my PhD thesis. I am thankful for the efforts and time they spent examining my PhD, for their constructive comments, and of course, for finally determining that the thesis was of a standard to pass.

Finally, I would like to thank Shih-Shuo (Sam) Yeh for sharing his PhD study experiences with me, which allowed me to glimpse of the process of undertaking a PhD when I started to write my dissertation. I am also thankful for the continuous support of my family and my fiancé who have helped me throughout the entire PhD study.

Last but not least, I want to convey my deepest gratitude to my parents who sacrificed so much for me to complete this challenge. They have worked so hard to not only support me financially, but also their encouragement gave me the strength to continue with my studies.

To all of the above, thank you.

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# **Chapter One**

## **Introduction**

### **Introduction**

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the background and the research problem of this study. The chapter comprises four sections. The first section discusses the background of the study. The second section presents the research question and the research objectives. The third section briefly discusses the research framework, research hypotheses and the corresponding analyses conducted to prove the hypotheses. The final section presents the structure of the study.

### **Background of the Study**

The main purpose of this study is to understand the dining out behaviour of Shanghai residents in Chinese full-service restaurants in Shanghai, China. Dining out is a complex activity which can be examined from many perspectives such as leisure, hospitality, tourism, psychology, sociology, cultural study, anthropology and so on. Many different disciplines have been taken into consideration in studying dining out. This indicates both the importance and complexity of dining out. The complexity may be contributed to by considering the diverse needs of human beings and how a culture is developed. The word “culture” has been generally accepted as a set of shared or integrated knowledge, beliefs, and behaviour (Kroeber and Kluckhohn, 1952; Douglas, 2001). Therefore,

investigating cultural elements can help to address the nature of dining out behaviour for this study. One more thing to note is that culture is a guideline of human behaviour, not rules; therefore, it is not appropriate to assume all people behave the same way within the same culture. In fact, anthropologists such as Chang (1979) assert that eating habits are not necessarily homogeneous within the same culture or even within the same general food style. Therefore, the main reason for this study is to understand how culture affects people's dining out behaviour, specifically dining out motives and food selection when they dine out in a Chinese full-service restaurant. Since this study is undertaken in Shanghai, China, it is considered appropriate to examine the profile of Shanghai.

### **Background of Shanghai**

Shanghai is situated in the middle of the eastern Chinese coast at the mouth of the Yangtze River (Figure 1-1). It is one of the largest metropolitan cities in the world with 18.88 million people (Shanghai Statistical Yearbook, 2009b). The city is administered as a municipality of the People's Republic of China with province-level status. Due to the Treaty of Nanking in 1842, Shanghai became an open port for foreign trade and became the commerce centre between China and many other western countries. China has become a multinational hub and it has absorbed cultural characteristics from many different countries.



**Figure 1-1: The Map of China**

The economic boom of Shanghai was interrupted after the communist takeover in 1949 and the subsequent cessation of foreign investment. During 1990, economic reform in China had a positive impact on Shanghai's economy and today it is the largest port in the world (Shanghai Statistical Yearbook, 2009b). Shanghai's unique history and its position as a port have helped to make it a multi-cultural metropolitan city. This is evidenced through Shanghai's rich collection of buildings of different architectural styles alongside the bank of Huangpu River. The reason that these buildings are of different styles is because they were built by foreigners of different nationalities during the foreign concessions in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century.

Shanghai does not only attract people from overseas, but also people from other parts of China. The 2009 census showed that Shanghai's population is about 18.88 million of whom 13.71 million are officially registered as permanent residents (Shanghai Statistical Yearbook, 2009b). The remaining population are migrants who hold long-term residence, and most of them originate from the Anhui (安徽) province, the Jiangsu (江苏) province and the Zhejiang (浙江) Province (Shanghai Basic Facts, 2008). Most registered Shanghai residents are descendants of immigrants from the Jiangsu province and the Zhejiang province who speak a

dialect of Wu Chinese, which many migrants from the other parts of China do not speak. In fact, speaking the Shanghai dialect is an important part of Shanghai people's identity. It is interesting to see how Shanghai culture interacts with other cultures not only from overseas, but also from other parts of China. A detailed background of Shanghai is presented in Chapter Four.

### **Food Culture in China**

In examining the history of dining out in Chinese culture, it is noted that Chinese cuisine was traced back to the cultivation of rice and the production of noodles 4,000 years ago, both of which are important parts of Chinese cuisine even today. The use of chopsticks as eating tools was traced back to the Western Zhou dynasty (1046 BC – 771 BC), which is another unique characteristic of Chinese food culture. At the end of the Ch'in dynasty (221 BC – 206 BC) and the beginning of the Han dynasty (206 BC – AD 9), Chinese people began to notice different types of culinary practices from different parts of China (Roel, 2005) that have developed into different styles. These different culinary styles can be briefly categorised into the northern and southern styles where the northerners eat wheat based food and the southerners generally eat rice based food. The cultural differences between the northerners and southerners are not limited to food practices only, but also other life styles. These differences are illustrated in an old Chinese saying that states “Northerners ride and Southerners sail” (南船北马). Chinese food styles can be further categorised into the Four School classification, namely Lu ‘鲁’ (Shandong), Su ‘苏’ (Jiangsu), Chuan ‘川’ (Sichuan) and Yue ‘粤’ (Guangdong). The food experts of China also suggest an Eight School classification and a Ten School classification (e.g. Newman, 2004). The Eight School classification includes Lu

‘鲁’ (Shandong), Su ‘苏’ (Jiangsu), Chuan ‘川’ (Sichuan), Yue ‘粤’ (Guangdong), Xiang ‘湘’ (Hunan), Min ‘闽’ (Fujian), Wan ‘皖’ (Anhui) and Zhe ‘浙’ (Zhejiang). The Ten School classification includes Lu ‘鲁’ (Shandong), Su ‘苏’ (Jiangsu), Chuan ‘川’ (Sichuan), Yue ‘粤’ (Guangdong), Xiang ‘湘’ (Hunan), Min ‘闽’ (Fujian), Wan ‘皖’ (Anhui), Zhe ‘浙’ (Zhejiang), Beijing ‘京’ (Jing) and Shanghai ‘沪’ (Hu) cuisine. Both Figure 1-2 and Table 1-1 show the relationships between the Four, Eight and Ten school classifications. For example, Beijing cuisine is categorised as the Lu cuisine under the Four School classification, but also the Beijing cuisine style of its own under the Ten School classification.

**Table 1-1: the Four School Classification of Chinese Cuisine**

<b>Four School Classification</b>	<b>Places</b>
Lu (Shandong)	Beijing (Jing), Tianjin (Jin), North-eastern Liao, Shanxi (Jin)
Su (Jiangsu)	Jiangsu, Huaiyang, Anhui (Hui), Shanghai (Hu), Zhejiang (Zhe), Henan (Yu), Hubei (E)
Yue (Guangdong/Cantonese)	Chiuchow (Chaozhou), Hakka (Kejia), Fujian (Min), Hainan (Qiong), Hong Kong, Macanese, Taiwanese
Chuan (Sichuan)	Sichuan, Guizhou (Qian), Hunan (Xiang), Jiangxi (Gan), Shaanxi (Qin), Yunnan (Dian)

Source: Wikipedia the Free Encyclopaedia (2009a)



**Figure 1-2: Chinese Cuisine Classification**

- Yue Cuisine
- Su Cuisine
- Lu Cuisine
- Chuan Cuisine

The Two School classification generally uses the Yangtze River ‘长江’ as a divider to separate the northerners and southerners. The Jiangsu province and the Zhejiang province are separated by the Yangtze River. Although the cuisine styles of both provinces are classified as Su under the Four School Classification, their food style still possesses a certain level of difference. The fact that Shanghai’s main population is generally migrants from these two provinces and Shanghai is located in the proximity of the Yangtze River, means that one can expect Shanghai’s cuisine style to be a mixture of different cultures. Anhui, a province with a distinct cuisine style under the Eight School classification, is another major source of migrants to Shanghai. This suggests that Shanghai’s cuisine is also affected by the Anhui cuisine, or the Hui cuisine. The above discussion indicates that the Shanghai cuisine is a blend of many different cuisine styles being impacted by different cultures.

### **Selected Restaurants for the Study**

In the past, the food and beverage establishments in China were generally categorised into three types namely: ChaLou (茶楼), JiuLou (酒楼) and KeZhan (客栈). ChaLou is where people have tea and dim sum, a small portion of snack food which aims not to fill the stomach but to satisfy appetite. This type of food establishment still exists in China, especially in the Guangdong province (Canton). The second type is JiuLou where people have a regular meal, alcohol and other drinks. Nowadays, JiuLou as a Chinese full-service restaurant has become the most popular food establishment style in China, and plays an important role in Chinese food culture. The last category of food establishment is KeZhan, which provides rooms for people to stay overnight. It is obvious that KeZhan could be compared to a hotel. There are also other forms of food and beverage establishments. For

example, hot pot or BBQ restaurants which offer different types of food and dining experiences. Other examples include street outlets which offer people a localised and economic way of dining out. These restaurants reflect the Chinese culture. However, China, similar to many eastern countries, is influenced by Western civilisation. Therefore, a new type of dining has emerged which is fast-food dining. In the western cultures, fast food restaurants and dining have been around since the early 1900s (Shanghai Statistical Yearbook, 2009a). Fast-food restaurants in China are operated by both international franchises, such as KFC and McDonalds as well as local operators. The first McDonalds in mainland China was opened in 1990 in Shen Zhen. The idea of fast service and standardised cooking methods to serve food and beverage in China had to be adapted to meet local food preferences.

As there are many types of restaurant in Shanghai, China (for example, full-service restaurants, hotel-restaurants, fast-food restaurants, buffet, food courts, public house, tea house and supper clubs), it is not possible for this study to explore all these examples. This study targets the most popular food establishment style of Chinese full-service restaurants. It also examines the cultural differences, specifically cuisine style related issues, and their influence on people's dining out behaviour.

According to the Shanghai Statistical Yearbook (2009a), since over 75% of dining out in China takes place in Chinese full-service restaurants, it is paramount to Chinese food culture. The characteristics of Chinese full-service restaurants are Chinese food and beverage and no accommodation. Chinese full-service restaurants refer to restaurants that provide fine dining and delicacies to consumers. Such restaurants centralise and manifest the excellence of Chinese culinary skills as

well as the level of dining culture. They are also the perfect meeting place for people to socialise and hold celebrations. The consumers satisfy their need to eat, enjoy the dining culture and socialize at the same time. Therefore, regardless of the intense development of other dining selections, Chinese full-service restaurants still have their own market and cannot be substituted. Again, this study focuses on Chinese full-service restaurants in Shanghai only.

### **Summary**

The previous discussion reflects that China possesses rich food cultures that are heterogeneous within themselves. This study seeks to understand the food culture interaction within the same general culture and how it affects people's dining out behaviour. More detailed discussion of the Chinese food culture is covered in Chapter Three.

## **Main Research Purposes**

The main aim of this study is to understand the dining out behaviour of Shanghai residents in Chinese full-service restaurants in Shanghai, China. The reason for choosing Shanghai as the context of this study is because Shanghai is a city with a long history and is a multi-cultural, metropolitan city. This study accepts that other cultures have integrated into the Shanghai culture, and seeks to understand how this affects the dining habits of Shanghai people. The study proposes that different people are subject to different levels of acculturation. The word ‘acculturation’ is used to describe a foreigner adapting themselves to the local culture. Previous researchers in the hospitality field indicate that the level of acculturation may affect the food practices and preferences of an individual (Sukalakamala and Brittin, 2006; Maamoun et al, 2007; Kremmyda, et al., 2008). However, most studies about acculturation affecting food habits focus on how people adapt themselves when they emigrate to overseas (e.g. Chinese people living in USA). Little attention has been attributed to studying acculturation within the same country. As stated earlier, people of the same cultural origin may still exhibit different habits.

## **Research Question**

The purpose of this study is to examine the dining out behaviour of Shanghai residents in Chinese full-service restaurants in Shanghai, China. As stated above, this study shows that dining out behaviour is affected by culture and social background. The study seeks to understand how Shanghai culture affects outsiders’ dining out habits and how foreign cultures affect Shanghai’s culture, especially the

dining out culture. This study also seeks to determine if social class and dining event may affect people's food preferences. For example, expensive food may be a way for a businessman to "show off" and impress his/her guests and therefore, it is important to examine dining out motivation and food selection behaviour and the relationships between them. The question addressed in this research is:

What are the main determinants of Shanghai residents' dining out motivation and food selection behaviour in Chinese full-service restaurants in Shanghai, China?

The study is also interested in viewing the people's dining out behaviour in a multi-cultural environment and examines the role of social status in people's dining out behaviour.

This study uses both qualitative and quantitative research methods in a sequential manner. The reason for using the qualitative research method is to generate a new construct that is based on Chinese-society, which will be presented in Chapter Five as 'Methodology and Qualitative Research Design'. The findings of the qualitative research are then integrated within the literature review to construct the questionnaire for the main study.

## **Research Framework**

The research framework is a model that this study proposes to describe the dimensions of dining out behaviour and their interrelationships. The study theorises that past dining out experiences, cultural orientation and the socio-demographic

variables of the respondents affect their dining out motivation and consequently their food selection behaviour in Chinese full-service restaurants. The proposed model is presented in Figure 1-3 and is re-examined in Chapter Six.

Based on the research framework, the study proposes the following hypotheses.

The objectives and the corresponding hypotheses are listed as follows:

**Objective 1: Understanding factors that impact Shanghai residents' dining out motivation.**

H1: Dining out patterns impact Shanghai residents' dining out motivation.

H2: Cultural elements impact Shanghai residents' dining out motivation.

H3: Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents' dining out motivation.

**Objective 2: Understanding the relationship between dining out motivation and Shanghai residents' food selection behaviour.**

H4: Dining out motivation impacts food selection behaviour of Shanghai residents.

**Objective 3: Understanding the impact of cultural elements, socio-demographic variables and dining out behaviour to food selection behaviour.**

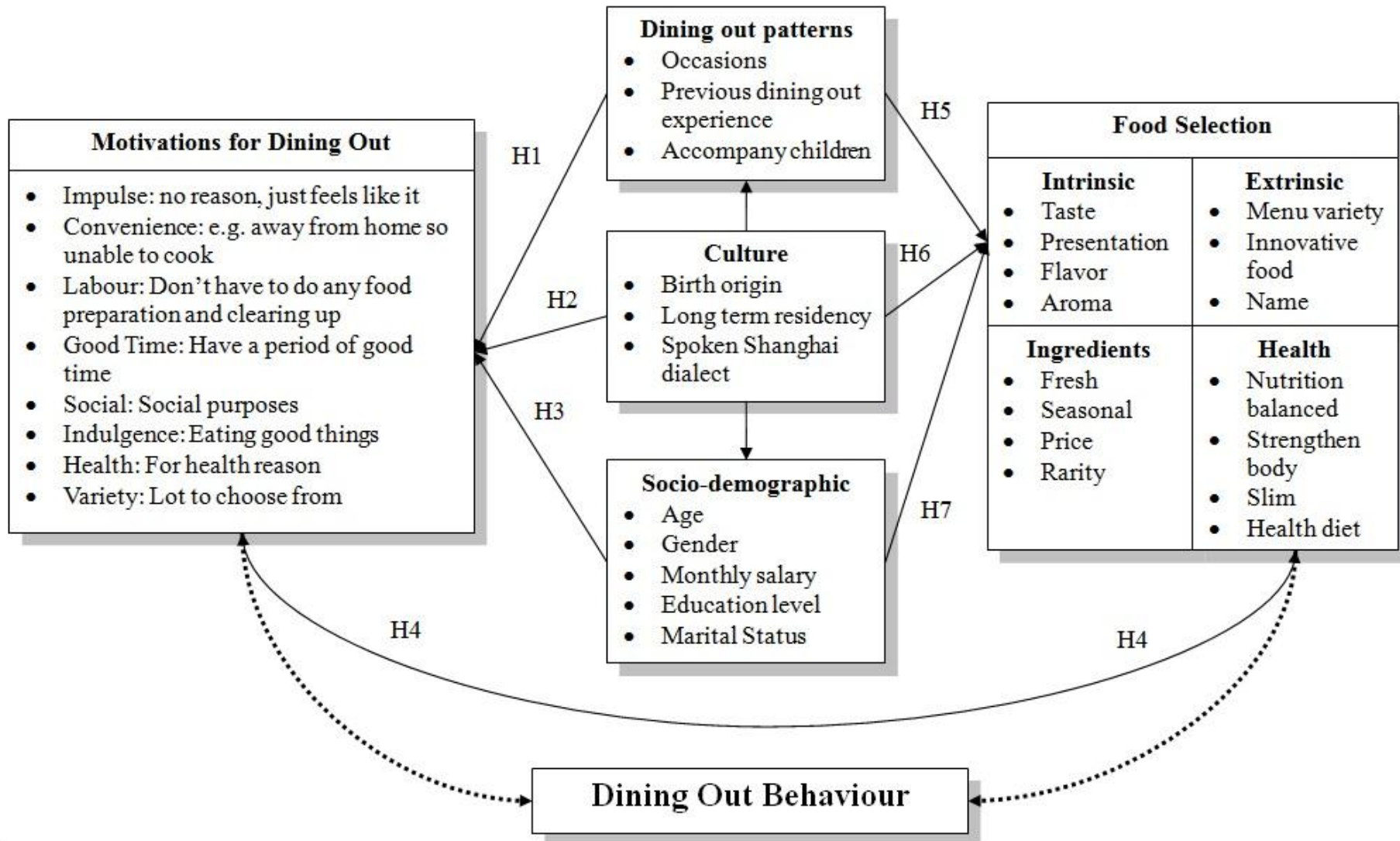
H5: Dining out patterns impact Shanghai residents' food selection behaviour.

H6: Cultural elements impact Shanghai residents' food selection

behaviour.

H7: Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents' food selection behaviour.

Figure 1-3: Research Framework



In order for the research to prove the various hypotheses and achieve the objectives, various analyses are conducted in Chapter Eight, 'The Relationship between Sample Characteristics and Dining Out Behaviour' and Chapter Nine, 'Cluster Results of Dining Out Behaviour'. The following section provides an overview of analyses and hypotheses.

The first two sections of Chapter Eight begin with 'Dining out patterns vs. dining out motives' and 'Dining out patterns vs. food selection behaviour'. These two sections of analyses are conducted to examine hypotheses H1 and H5 respectively, which are to understand the affect of dining status or dining out experiences to dining out motives and food selection behaviour.

The third section of Chapter Eight is separated into two parts which examine the affect of cultural orientation towards dining out motives and food selection behaviour, which are related to hypotheses H2 and H6 respectively. The study categorises the respondents into different groups based on their cultural orientation and then uses ANOVA to examine the dining out behaviour between different groups (in both motivation and food selection behaviour).

The fourth and fifth sections of Chapter Eight deal with hypotheses H3 and H7, which are to understand the affect of socio-demographic characteristics towards dining out motivation and food selection behaviour respectively.

In the final section of Chapter Eight, the study argues that many of the socio-demographic characteristics, including age, education level, occupation, and monthly salary, can be aggregated into an indicator of social status. Theoretically,

respondents with a higher educational level and monthly salary possess higher social status and consequently demand higher quality of food and service when they dine out. The study uses AMOS to examine the model fit of the proposed relationship.

The major part of Chapter Nine is cluster analysis where the study categorises the respondents into different groups based on their dining out motivation and food selection behaviour and then uses ANOVA analysis to examine the difference and similarity of the loyalty behaviour of each cluster group in order to understand the indirect relationship between dining out motives and food selection behaviour, which is hypothesis H4.

## **The Structure of the Study**

This section briefly outlines the structure of the study.

### **Chapter One: Introduction**

This chapter comprises four sections. The first section discusses the motive and the background of the study, which includes Chinese food culture in general and Shanghai history. The second section discusses the main research purpose. The third section states the research question. The final part of this chapter is the overview of the structure and summary of each subsequent chapter.

### **Chapter Two: Literature Review One: Dining Out Behaviour**

Chapter two as the first part of the literature review covers dining out behaviour, which is divided into five sections. As stated before, dining out is a complex activity that can be examined from many disciplines. Therefore, the study needs to examine dining out literature from different disciplines. The first section examines dining out from the hospitality perspective. The second section examines dining out from the sociology perspective. The third section discusses how to measure quality and expectation in the food and beverage industry. The final two sections discuss past studies on service quality evaluation, dining out motivation and food selection behaviour.

### **Chapter Three: Literature Review Two: Chinese Food Culture**

This chapter discusses the second part of the literature as the culture of China, specifically, its food culture. This part of the discussion is to assist the reader to understand Chinese food culture. Furthermore, it helps the questionnaire design for the main study. The chapter is divided into two sections. The first section discusses the history of China in terms of its cultural and ethnical development. The second section reviews the cuisine types in China. The classification of Chinese cuisine styles is still under debate, and as yet there is no accurate way to categorise Chinese cuisine styles. The focus of the discussion is not to find the best way to classify Chinese cuisine styles, rather to become familiar with the styles. The existence of different cuisine styles further emphasizes the point that differences can be found within the same culture.

### **Chapter Four: Literature Review Three: The Background of Shanghai**

Chapter Four reviews the third part of the literature review as the background of Shanghai, which serves two purposes. Firstly, it allows the reader to become familiar with the characteristics of Shanghai. Second, it explains why this study chooses Shanghai as its research target. The chapter is divided into three sections. The first part discusses the general background of Shanghai, including its location and demographics. The second part discusses some of the historical developments of Shanghai. The final part discusses dining out activities in Shanghai.

## **Chapter Five: Methodology and Qualitative Research Design**

Chapter Five discusses the results obtained from the pilot study based on qualitative research methods. The pilot study is conducted using both personal semi-structured interview and focus group. The data is then analysed by using the computer software CATPAC. The first part of this chapter focuses on using a mixed research method to provide answers to the research question of this study. The second part of this chapter presents the epistemology and ontology that this study adopts. The third part of this chapter briefly discusses the justification of using personal semi-structured interview and focus group in the qualitative pilot study. The final part explains how the qualitative survey is carried out along with the analysis of the data.

## **Chapter Six: Quantitative Research Design**

This chapter reports the justification of the research design of the quantitative based main study. The chapter is divided into two sections. The first section discusses the study's research framework, objectives and hypotheses. The second section reports the methods and techniques used in this study, including questionnaire design, sampling method, and analysis undertaken for the quantitative research.

## **Chapter Seven: Analysis One: The Description of Sample Characteristics**

Chapter Seven describes the characteristics of the sample, which helps the reader to gain a better understanding of the subject that has been studied. The chapter is organised into three sections. The first section analyses and reports the dining out patterns and behaviour of the sample. The second section deals specifically with the

cultural orientation of the sample and attempts to classify the sample into sub-categories based on their cultural orientation. The third part of this chapter describes the basic socio-demographic characteristics of the sample. The purpose of this chapter is to briefly describe the sample, and so no complex analysis is used.

### **Chapter Eight: Analysis Two: Data Analysis: The Relationship between Sample Characteristics and Dining Out Behaviour**

Chapter Eight analyses the data and reports the results, which includes examining the relationship of dining out patterns, cultural orientation and socio-demographic variables towards the dining out motives and food selection behaviour of the sample. The chapter is categorised into three sections. The first section examines the dining out motives and food selections of the sample. The second part examines the relationship between culture and dining out behaviour. The third part examines the relationship between socio-demographics and dining out behaviour.

### **Chapter Nine: Analysis Three: Cluster Results of Dining Out Behaviour**

Chapter Nine reports the results of the cluster analysis. The study uses this analysis on both dining out motives and food selection behaviour. The reason for using factor analysis is to categorise the respondents based on their dining out behaviour. The resulting cluster is then tested against willingness to dine out.

## **Chapter Ten: Conclusion and Discussions**

The final chapter concludes the study by re-examining the research objectives and hypotheses, which were reported in the first section of the chapter. As the main study is based on a deductively orientated quantitative method, hypotheses were made after a careful literature review and pilot study, but not before the main study. Hence, it is important for the study to see whether the results are consistent with the pre-determined research hypotheses. The second part of this chapter discusses the contribution of this study to relevant fields of study. The third part of this chapter makes recommendations to the food industry based on the findings of this thesis. Finally, this chapter discusses possible research directions that emerge from this study.

## **Chapter Two**

### **Literature Review One:**

#### **Dining Out Behaviour**

##### **Introduction**

The purpose of this chapter is to review and discuss the literature that is related to the study of dining out behaviour (specifically dining out motivation and food selection behaviour) in Shanghai, China. Dining out behaviour can be examined from different perspectives. From a customer's perspective, dining out is a form of leisure activity (Johns and Pine, 2002). From an academic point of view, dining out is categorised as a part of the hospitality industry (Wood, 1994; Wearne and Morrison, 1996) and in some studies it is amalgamated with a still more amorphous 'tourism' (Johns and Pine, 2002). Pettigrew and Charters (2006) acknowledge the connection between food and beverage to numerous disciplines including psychology, sociology and anthropology. There are also other researchers such as Douglas (1987) and Wallendorf (1993) who suggest that dining out behaviour are imbued with cultural meaning. To sum up the literature stated above, the study of dining out behaviour needs to be examined from different perspectives. This chapter reviews the multidisciplinary body of the literature relating to dining out behaviour, which emphasises the commonality and gaps between different schools of research.

The first section of the chapter reviews the concept of dining out behaviour from a hospitality perspective; the second section of the chapter reviews the concept of dining out behaviour from a sociological perspective; the third section of the chapter introduces the food quality evaluation and restaurant selection when people dine out in a restaurant; the fourth section of the chapter introduces service quality evaluation when people dine out in a restaurant; and the final section of this chapter introduces dining out behaviour in China.

## **Dining out Behaviour from a Hospitality Perspective**

This section reviews the literature that is relevant to dining out behaviour in the hospitality discipline. The section discusses the definition and nature of the hospitality industry, the definition and nature of food and beverage service and dining out behaviour from a hospitality perspective.

### **Definition and Nature of the Hospitality Industry**

There have been numerous attempts to define the word ‘hospitality’ and the debate still continues. This could be partially due to the complex mixture of different services that fall under the category of hospitality. Moreover, the term ‘hospitality’ is distorted by political and social-economic influences across both time and space (Brotherton, 1999). In a traditional sense, hospitality was a form of social duty and social control in which reciprocity was not given a monetary value (Heal, 1990). However, as a type of industry, modern hospitality is responsible for generating a substantial growth in national economies. Hence, the term hospitality

has shifted from a social obligation to a more commercially oriented term, according to Burgess (1982) who suggests the association between exchange and hospitality. This means that providing hospitality requires some form of return. Tideman (1983) explores the term hospitality from an economic point of view. His work states that the quantity and quality of service provided needs to be at a price acceptable to guests. In the contemporary literature of the hospitality industry, most researchers accept this as a type of economic exchange or commercial perspective. Jones (1996b) has suggested that hospitality is a mixture of hotel and catering services (i.e. provide accommodation for overnight sleep away from home and for people eating away from home). There seems to be a consensus in that modern hospitality researchers tend to agree with two things: (1) food and accommodation services are parts of the hospitality industry, and (2) It is a form of economic exchange where the host receives a reward for the services and products they provide. Brotherton (1999) also outlines the importance of human exchange in the hospitality industry. The hospitality industry is a very comprehensive topic that can be defined by its scope, mission and providers; the hospitality industry also has its unique characteristics that are different from manufacturing and other service industries. The hospitality industry includes commercial organizations that specialize in providing accommodation/lodging and/or, food and beverage, and/or other services (as in the airline industry, transportation) and products (Brotherton and Wood, 2000; Jones, 1996a).

The above discussion shows that hospitality is an aggregate term that encompasses many different types of services, which includes lodging, food and beverage, recreation, travel-related and transportation services (Lane and Dupre, 1997). In short, the hospitality industry offers a service to people who are away

from home. The phrase 'away from home' implies that the hospitality industry is closely intertwined with the travel/tourism industry and these two industries strongly affect one another. Food and beverage, as a part of the hospitality industry, is also closely aligned with the tourism industry. However, people who eat away from home are not necessarily triggered solely by travel, but also have other motivations such as leisure, which is a form of social activity. This is the reason that this study also examines dining out behaviour in relation to the sociology literature.

### **Definition and Nature of Food and Beverage Service**

According to the World Tourism Organization Annual Report 2009, in 2008, employment numbers in the hospitality industry around the world totalled over 500 million, of which the food and beverage industry exceeded 350 million employees. The largest section of food and beverage employees are in restaurants and bars, including hotels, resorts, and casinos. Food and beverage service as a part of the hospitality industry can be further divided into many sub-categories of service. These sub-categories include restaurants (Clark and Wood, 1999), food festivals (Yuan et al, 2005), pubs or coffee shops (Moore, 1996), airline (Raats and Mela, 1997; Worsley, 1980; Bell et al, 1981), supermarkets (Monteleone et al, 1998; Thomson and McEwan, 1988; Scriven and Mak, 1991) and so on.

As the goal of this study is to understand dining out behaviour within the food and beverage sector of the hospitality industry, the main focus is on the food service aspect of hospitality activity, such as restaurant products and services. In order to distinguish food service from other types of hospitality activities, it is vital to

understand its unique characteristics. As a form of hospitality activity, food service carries many characteristics that are similar to other types of hospitality activities. For example, the airline industry includes food and beverage in its services. Therefore, it is very difficult to separate food from other types of hospitality services and this magnifies the importance of food and beverage in the hospitality industry.

Considering the scope of this study, food and beverage service has been limited to fine dining among full service restaurants in exchange for profits. Both hotels and the airline services are excluded from this study because their main objective is to provide accommodation and transportation respectively. In addition, the nature of some food and beverage related operations tends to be more manufacturing rather than service oriented (e.g. food and drink manufactured for sale in supermarkets). These types of industries, although food and beverage related, are also excluded from this study.

### **Dining out Behaviour from a Hospitality Perspective**

The discussion above leads to two conclusions. Firstly, food and beverage service as a part of the hospitality industry can be further categorised into many different forms, but this study focuses specifically on dining out behaviour in Chinese full-service restaurants whose primary objective is to provide dining out experiences in exchange for profits. Secondly, the hospitality industry is closely related to the travel and tourism industry. However, travel is not the only the occasion that people dine away from home. Therefore, this study reviews dining out behaviour from other perspectives in later sections (Lockyer, 2005b).

Hospitality, as a part of the service industry, carries the four distinctive characteristics of the service industry: intangibility, inseparability, variability and perishability, and so does the food and beverage service industry. This section examines these four characteristics while making reference to dining out behaviour. The most obvious difference between the service industry and the manufacturing industry are these four characteristics. However, the service industry is not without tangible elements, particularly in the hospitality industry. For instance, restaurants cannot provide service without food, drink and a place to eat; hotels cannot provide service without rooms, beds, and other facilities. On the other hand, these tangible parts of the service industry also carry certain intangible elements. For example, an elegant restaurant can contribute to its guest feeling a high social importance. Therefore, it has been argued that the unique feature of service has made the measuring of service quality an abstract and elusive proposition (Parasuraman et al, 1985). Each of these characteristics is considered in more detail as follows.

### **Intangibility**

Most services primarily comprise an element of intangibility in that one is unable to assess the value gained until it has been experienced. For example, customers cannot receive any tangible benefits from an insurance service they acquired even after purchase, though it can be argued that the customer felt safer after the purchase. The only way to 'cash out' the benefits of insurance service is to have an accident. Most hospitality researchers agree that the hospitality industry is similar to the service industry in the way that their outputs are intangible

(Silvestro and Johnston, 1990). It has been suggested by Bebko (2000) that the intangible aspect of service characteristics presents a problem for service providers because it raises customers' expectations, and is therefore difficult to meet. Also, without a tangible product, customers usually rely on other peripheral qualities (price, brand, past experiences) to make a purchase decision.

However, it is the author's opinion that some of these statements are not entirely applicable in the food and beverage service industry. As stated before, the hospitality industry depends on a large number of tangible elements in order to provide their services (i.e. a hotel does not operate without its rooms and beds, restaurants cannot run without food, drink and place to dine). Some researchers argue that the tangible elements in the service industry are only to support its core service, but in the hospitality industry the tangible and intangible elements cannot be divided. A simple way to put this is a good service encounter cannot revive the negative impression caused by low-quality food. In fact, in many instances, the tangible elements play an important role in attracting customers and fuelling the intangible aspect of its qualities. For example, many dining out behaviours are triggered by business activities, which then require an appropriate place. The service, in the above discussion, is no longer elusive and consequently customers' expectations become clear. It can then be argued that the differences between the manufacturing and hospitality industries, particularly the food and beverage service industry, is that the former purchases and the latter rents. This view is actually supported by Ryan and Gu (2007) who state that it is an experience that is purchased – and the tangible components such as hotel accommodation are not actually purchased – rather what is purchased is a right of use for a period of time. These rented tangible components of service help to mitigate the elusive nature of

service and consolidate customers' expectations.

### **Inseparability**

The inseparability characteristic refers to the simultaneous occurrence of production and consumption in the service industry. Marketing researchers (Reisinger, 2001; Kolter et al, 2003) assert that in most hospitality service, both the service provider and the customer must be present for the transaction to occur. This view suggests that the contact or interaction between customer and service provider are part of the product. The employees' performance and attitude reshape customer perception of the experience and thus need to be taken into consideration when measuring the dining experience. In other words, if a customer in a bad mood comes to dine, any delicious food will taste less pleasant. Additionally, other guests sometimes also act as a part of the product. For example, a romantic restaurant with loud, noisy customers will reduce its perceived quality. This characteristic also means that the production/consumption cycle is very short. Consequently, mass production in the service industry is difficult because it requires a large number of guests and service providers to be present at the same time in the same place (Reisinger, 2001). Kolter et al (2003) also assert two implications of inseparability, which are that the customer must understand the service delivery system and also be trained for the co-production of service. In a restaurant for example, customers must understand how to read menus and how to order a meal; in addition, customers are required to know how to use service in a DIY (do it yourself) manner, such as servicing themselves in buffets or using the internet or telephone for making a reservation.

Since the above discussion concludes that the production of service in the food and beverage service industry requires co-production involving guests and service providers, the quality measurement then needs to factor in the contribution of all parties involved in service production.

### **Variability**

Due to the inseparable nature of service, the standard of service is highly variable. The high level of human interaction involved in the service production and transaction introduces unstable elements, which affects service quality. Additionally, customers can have different needs and requirements even though they are of similar socio-demographic background (Hope and Muhlemann, 1997) which makes each service transaction unique. Simultaneous production and consumption lower the quality control, and fluctuation of demand introduces an unstable element in the attempt to maintain a consistent level of service quality. Kolter et al (2003) also argue that past experience has a role to play in the variability nature of service quality. For example, customers who have had good experiences in the past with certain restaurants therefore demand the same quality of service for their next visit. Since service providers cannot control customers' emotions and customers play a part in service production, it can be argued that service providers are incapable of controlling at least a part of service quality. The variability of service quality is then unavoidable.

This may present a problem for this study, since there are so many unpredictable factors that may affect customers' pre, during and post dining out behaviour. Therefore, more dimensions and items need to be included in this study if one is

to truly understand how hospitality service quality is formed. For example, the tolerance level of respondents to other guests' behaviour is important in evaluating a respondent's perception of service quality. In other words, if a respondent can tolerate other guests' ill behaviour, it possesses less influence over the respondents' perception of service quality. All these issues need to be included in formulating the research framework for this study (Lockyer, 2007).

### **Perishability**

Service cannot be stored (Kolter et al, 2003). Once service expires, it cannot be converted into inventory and be sold at another time. For example, a hotel room that is unoccupied today cannot be sold tomorrow night. In a restaurant, a vacant seat at one time cannot be reserved for sale at another time. Researchers (Hope and Muhlemann, 1997) suggest that service perishability is a direct consequence of the intangibility of the service. As a result, yield management (Jauncey, Mitchell and Slamet, 1995) or capacity management (Lockwood, 1996) are often adapted to even out the fluctuations in demand and price setting used to generate maximum revenues. Additionally, a service transaction cannot be redone once the transaction is completed (Bateson, 1995). This means that once customers form their perception of service quality, it is difficult to ask them to re-evaluate. In the food and beverage service industry, some tangible aspects of components can be stored for a relatively longer period of time, such as food ingredients. However, the performance of a chef who is responsible for producing the meal cannot be stored. This also means that service quality is subject to changes due to the inconsistent performance of the service provider (e.g. fatigue may lower a service provider's performance and their ability to maintain the standard of service

production). Service perishability is important in formulating management strategies, but in the author's opinion, it is inconsequential for this study (Lockyer, 2007).

### **Summary**

The section discusses the nature of the hospitality industry and food and beverage service and makes reference to dining out behaviour. The above discussion argues that some of the characteristics of service are not one hundred percent applicable to dining out, such as variability. Although hospitality, and consequently food and beverage service, has been labelled as a type of service, it depends heavily on its tangible assets to elevate the level of service quality. This discussion aids understanding as to what constitutes a good dining out experience, which in turn has assisted in the food selection part of the questionnaire design.

The second observation that the study has made from this part of the literature is the complexity of dining out motives. Due to the close relationship between the hospitality industry and the tourism industry, dining away from home seems to be triggered mostly by travel from a hospitality point of view. However, there are other sources that can motivate people to go out and dine away from home, such as leisure activities (Featherstone, 1987), social events (Murcott, 1982), business events (Clough, 1979) and so on. This means that examining dining out behaviour from a hospitality perspective alone may not be adequate and that is why the study examines dining out behaviour from other perspectives as well. Nevertheless, hospitality and its closeness to tourism are helpful in building an understanding of dining out behaviour.

## **Dining out Behaviour from a Sociological Perspective**

The definition of hospitality has indicated that hospitality is a social obligation in a traditional sense. Although the hospitality industry nowadays is providing services that require monetary value in return, the fact remains that hospitality is a form of social activity. Therefore, this section is devoted to reviewing the sociological aspect of the dining out literature.

### **Dining out Behaviour from a Sociological Perspective**

Dining out has gradually become a popular activity in present society. One obvious reason is the changing family structures, such as both adult members working away from home and reduction of family size (McKenzie, 1982). However, Finkelstein (1989) argues that a restaurant attendance does not fully correspond to the above interpretation, since the working week does not appear to be the busiest time for restaurants. Some researchers (e.g. Barthes, 1975) also suggest physiological pleasure is the main contributor for the increase in choosing to dine out. However, this view does not address the issue of stresses caused by overindulgence, which is very common when dining out. The lack of explanation for the increase in dining out can be adequately interpreted from a sociological point of view. Sociologists (such as Finkelstein, 2004; Seymour, 2004) believe that people imbue dining out with more socially complex meanings. For example, when people dine out for a business purpose, the sophisticated decoration of the restaurant evokes the image of wealth and luxury, which can help to create pleasant social interaction between the diners. From the above example, one can see that people's motives and demands for dining out are shaped by social

meaning. In light of the above discussion, this study now examines dining out by categorising it into different types based on dining out motives.

Finkelstein (1989) categorises restaurants into three types based on their price, professionalism and dining out purpose. The first type is named “fête spéciale” (party special), which are restaurants with high costs and high reputation. Dining in this sort of restaurant is equivalent to saying ‘I can afford it’. The second category is “amusement”, which offers entertainment to its clients. The final category is “convenient”, which mostly comes in the form of restaurant chais (e.g. McDonald’s, Starbucks etc.). There are other ways to categorise restaurants, such as using flavour and taste to categorise as in the study of Bourdieu (1984). Although Bourdieu’s work is more related to emphasising taste, his work also confirms the importance of price and culture in terms of differentiating food. By viewing how researchers categorise restaurants (or food), it can be concluded that dining out is a highly varied activity. A person can take their client to a luxurious, fancy restaurant and enjoy the sophisticated decor and expensive food as a gesture of their wealth. On the other hand, one can go to a small food outlet to grab a quick bite. This also highlights the importance of the relationship between dining out motives and restaurants (and/or food) selection.

Since the above discussion has shown that it is appropriate to view dining out behaviour by categorising restaurants based on reasons for dining out, this study takes a similar approach for dining out in the Shanghai area.

### **The Forms of Dining Out**

According to the China Cooking Association (2009), different parts of China have

different forms of dining out behaviour, and some of these forms of dining out are unique to certain areas. For example, Cantonese people enjoy morning tea instead of breakfast. The time for morning tea is similar to breakfast but the content is similar to Dim sum. The research population of this study is Shanghai, China, therefore, a description of some of the forms of dining out in Shanghai follows.

### **Regular meals**

This refers to three regular meals each day. Breakfast usually starts at six o'clock or seven o'clock in the morning. Lunch is often between twelve and one o'clock and dinner starts anytime between six o'clock and eight o'clock in the evening. These customers are mostly motivated by 'convenience'. Also, this type of dining out might be on a daily basis, which means that people who dine out for this reason try to look for a restaurant with reasonable prices.

### **Festival events**

This refers to birthday party or other form of celebration. There is no pre-determined time for event types of dining out, but such events usually occur in the evening. Events such as weddings are slightly different from other events. This is because most people expect to get married only once in their lifetime and want it to be as perfect as it can be. This is a festival on an individual scale. In China, big festival events are often hosted by temples, which would then require professional catering services due to the scale of the event.

## **Social gatherings**

Social gatherings are sometimes triggered by the ‘impulse’ motive, which can happen anytime. There are also some types of social gatherings that are not motivated by impulse, such as a classmate reunion. This type of dining out can take place in any type of restaurant, depending on customers.

## **Business meals**

Business meals usually take place in the evenings and some happen during lunch time. Business meals are often related to the ‘status’ motive where high quality is expected. Therefore, business meals often take place at high quality restaurants.

## **Late night snacks**

A desire for a late night snack is often triggered by the ‘impulse’ motive. However, some people have these late night snacks on a daily basis. This happens to people who are working late night shifts as well as to people who have an active nightlife. This type of meal often takes place at a small food outlet or booth, with relatively low quality of decoration. However, some of these late night snack booths have very localised and unique recipes which appeal to local customers (Brotherton, 2002).

## **Summary**

The above discussion indicates this study can attempt to categorise restaurants in

Shanghai. The five dining out forms described above have indicated that different dining out motives require different types of restaurant. For example, people who dine out for a meal as a late night snack are only looking for convenience and something to fill their stomach. Sophisticated decoration and high quality food are not sought by this type of people. This means that using price and quality of restaurant is a valid method for categorisation (Finkelstein, 1989; Kevin, 2002). Another issue that needs to be taken into account when categorising restaurants is dining out occasions. The first type of motive is the basic need to fill one's stomach, such as late night snack. The second type of motive is the need to socialise. The third type of motive is the need for entertainment. The fourth type of motive is the need for prestige where the people carefully select a restaurant that can reflect their social status. This behaviour is equivalent to people purchasing a luxury vehicle as a means to show their wealth. This typology is similar to the tourist motivator theory proposed by McIntosh et al. (1995) who suggests four types of motives that can prompt tourists into taking a trip: (1) physical, (2) cultural, (3) interpersonal, and (4) status and prestige.

Although this study and other dining out literature attempts to categorise restaurants into different types, some of the borders between the categories are blurred. For example, people who dine out with a socializing purpose may look for a restaurant that provides entertainment. Therefore the tourism concept of multidimensional travel motives (for example, Pyo et al, 1989; Hall et al., 2003) can also be applied to dining out motives. The above discussion can also be referred to the previous sections, which assert that dining out can be triggered by many different types of motivation.

## **Restaurant Selection and Food Quality Evaluation**

The discussion in the previous sections has dealt with dining out motivation from a sociological perspective, which explains why people are interested in dining away from home. This asserts that people who dine out with different motives seek for an appropriate restaurant that can meet their requirement. This section discusses how people evaluate their dining out experiences from a sociological perspective.

Dining out is an activity that allows an individual to express what they consider to be personally pleasurable, socially appropriate and generally appealing (Finkelstein, 1989). From this statement, it is noted that dining out behaviour is not only influenced by personal likes and dislikes, but also reshaped by social and cultural values. One argument that has been made by sociologists (Finkelstein, 1989; Seymour, 2004) is that an individual's action does not necessarily reflect their own moral position for an individual's moral position may be altered by social and cultural rules. Fashion is an example; what people consider fashionable is mostly set by a few elite designers and market trends and an individual's freedom of choice can only be exercised within the fashion sense created by them. According to Seymour (2004), the above discussed concept also applies to how individuals determine what constitutes a good meal, which, in his opinion, is guided by cultural rules. The above argument leads to two interesting issues. Firstly, culture is an important variable in determining the criterion of food quality. This is especially true in the case of Chinese people. For example, people who are from Sichuan province are more likely to select spicy food while others (such as Shanghai people) have a different preference. Researchers such as Demory-Luce

et al., (2005) and Bojanic and Xu, (2006) explored the issue of culture and the acceptance of alien food. However, most of these researchers have attempted to study the culture of cross-nationals (e.g. eating habits of Chinese people in America). This study, on the other hand, looks at the cultural differences within a nation. The second important issue which has emerged from the above discussion is that the behaviour of other people may affect how an individual evaluates their dining out experience. For example, people who dine out for a meal in a high class restaurant may feel less satisfied with their food and service when an intoxicated guest dines next to them. It is important to consider this issue when measuring customer satisfaction in a restaurant. In previous research (Ennew and Binks, 1999; Hall et al, 2003; Kivela, Inbakaran and Reece, 2000) a people dimension was included when assessing customer satisfaction, but they mostly concentrated on restaurant employees rather than customers. Little attention has been paid to the behaviour of other diners. These two issues are incorporated into the research for this study (Lockyer, 2005a).

Further to the two issues stated above, the sociological perspective of dining out is an activity that people take in pursuit of a pleasurable experience, but what constitutes a pleasurable experience? According to the above discussion, different people have different personal preferences. For example, while TV is appreciated by diners in a local convenience restaurant, diners in a high class restaurant may find it too much of a distraction. From this example, one can see that people of different social classes react differently towards a same thing. One other fact can be observed, that diners tend to include more than just food when they evaluate their dining out experience. Elements that constitute a pleasurable experience may include food, dining environment, music, service providers, other guests and even

price. While most people tend to have the disposition of wanting a lower price, too low may make them feel cheap. The ability to purchase expensive materials may be a gesture to show one's wealth. Furthermore, it is commonly accepted that price is synonymous with quality. The above example shows that people's perception towards an object is very complex, which leads to cognitive and affective theory (e.g. Harding, et. al., 2004). This theory states that people's attitudes can be categorised into cognitive, which refers to the functional aspect of quality, and affective, which refers to the emotional aspect of feeling. This theory has been further elaborated by Aikman and Crites (2007) into five attitudes, which include positive affect (e.g., enjoy), negative affect (e.g., dislike), abstract cognitive quality (e.g., healthy, natural), general sensory quality (e.g., taste, smell), and specific sensory quality (e.g., salty, greasy). Although their work is based on the study of food specifically, they assert that the theory can be applied to any object. One also needs to relate the attitude theory above to the social and cultural influences discussed earlier, because some of the attitudes are governed by it. For example, Chinese people believe to eat different health food as 'Bu' (补) is the most important action during winter time to strengthen their body functions, however, this belief is not shared with people of other countries. 'Bu' (补) is a Chinese medicinal treatment which attaches great importance to climate, geographical and other factors, such as various supplements and foods on the human body.

## **Summary**

Some of the important arguments made in the above discussion are firstly it is important to consider the motives for dining out and the selection of restaurant

together in order to understand both more comprehensively. Secondly, when studying the quality of food and restaurant selection, it is important to factor in social and cultural influences. Thirdly, most past research has only included service providers when studying the people aspect of restaurant quality and has neglected the importance of other guests' behaviour. Finally, the quality of food can be evaluated with elaborated cognitive and affective theory.

## **Service Quality Evaluation**

The concept of service quality is originally only associated with products. There are a number of definitions of quality. Some researchers believe that quality is assessed by how well the products or services satisfy customers' needs (Juran, 1979). Some others have asserted that quality is the ability of products or services to perform tasks (Crosby, 1984). To measure the quality of a service is quite different from measuring product quality. This is because the characteristics of service are intangible, inseparable, variable and perishable (Kotler et al, 2003). Because of these characteristics, service quality is more about measuring the subjective perceptions of customers. In the food and beverage context, the quality of the food is judged by different customers who may have very different tastes. Moreover, researchers suggest that actual quality is calculated from the expectation of customers and their experience with the service (Crosby, 1984; Gronroos, 1984, Feigenbaum, 1983, Lockyer, 2005a).

### **Expectation and Performance**

Quality includes both the physical (technical) aspect and interactive (functional) aspect. The physical aspect is measured against the customer in an objective manner whereas the interactive aspect is that which is perceived by the customer, in a subjective manner (Gronroos, 1978; Lehtinen and Lehtinen, 1982). In the case of 'service quality', even the physical aspect of quality is likely to be based on the subjective perceptions of customers. For example, the physical aspect of food quality is assessed by the customer's individual taste and the interactive aspect of quality is measured by how the food is served. Since the measuring of

service quality has to depend on customers' subjective perceptions, it is important to understand customers' values. Some researchers (Parasuraman et. al., 1985) suggest that customers' perceptions of quality are formed by comparing their expectation of the service and their experience with it. Additionally, customers adjust their perceptions with past service experiences and incorporate the experience to form new expectations. This highlights the potentially problematic 'variability' nature of service quality. A decrease in the service performance will no doubt set back a customer's perception of service quality. On the other hand, an increase in the performance will add value to the customer's perception of the experience but it also may raise their future expectation.

The theory stated above is based on the confirmation and disconfirmation paradigm, which suggests that service quality is measured by the perception of customers' experiences with service and their expectations (Gronroos, 1984; Parasuraman et al, 1985). The expectation of the customers is formed by their own quality standards, which is affected by their past service experiences as well as in comparison with other alternative service experiences. Therefore, an increase of quality in food and beverage service not only boosts customers' experience, but may also be incorporated into future expectations, which makes the customer more difficult to satisfy. For example, a new customer, who is unaware of the quality of the food in a restaurant, gains a high quality of experience when served with very good food, as it is able to exceed his/her expectations. On the other hand, a customer who already knows the quality of food in a restaurant will know what to expect, which means the experience of very good food will only meet their expectations.

## **Service Quality and Customer Satisfaction**

Customer satisfaction is related to but different from service quality (Parasuraman et al, 1985; Mohsin, 2005). Crompton and Mackay (1989) suggest that service quality is the concern of the attributes of the service itself, whereas satisfaction is a psychological outcome emerging from experiencing the service. Researchers in the service-marketing field argue that satisfaction with the service is formed when customers actually experience the service. The quality on the other hand can be assessed by other means, such as media. For example, if the menu of the restaurant includes photos of the meal, customers can judge its quality without having to order it. However, they have to consume the meal to form their satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

The conceptualization and measurement of customer satisfaction and service quality are controversial topics in the service marketing literature. Gronroos (1984) states that service quality is an outcome of actual quality of service performance perceived by customers. Parasuraman et al, (1985), on the other hand, suggests that service quality is a positive or negative outcome that is produced by comparing service performance perceived by customers to their initial expectations. This is known as SERVQUAL, which is widely accepted by many service quality researchers. The theory of SERVQUAL by Parasuraman et al, (1985) initially established ten dimensions, which were then subsequently collapsed into five (Parasuraman et al,1988) tangible elements: reliability, response, capability, assurance, and empathy.

## **The Importance of Service Quality to the Hospitality Industry**

From the above discussion, it is generally accepted by the researchers that customer satisfaction and service quality are closely related but are not the same. This section examines the literature on the benefits of service quality to the hospitality industry, which provides more discussion on the differences between these two components. Parasuraman et al, (1985) offered four benefits that result from an emphasis on service quality, which were (1) productivity, (2) competition, (3) customer satisfaction and (4) loyalty.

### **1. Productivity**

Researchers (Deming, 1982; Crosby, 1984; Stewart and Johns, 1996) suggest that an improvement in quality leads to operational efficiency and a subsequent increase in productivity. The concept is that instead of fixing a mistake, it is more efficient to produce it correctly the first time. This also reduces the expenditure on inspection and recovery from mistakes. As stated in the discussion of the characteristics of service quality, once customers form their perception of service quality it is difficult to ask them to re-consider. In this sense, maintaining service quality is very important.

### **2. Competition**

Researchers (e.g. Brush, 1997) have regarded service quality as a key factor in differentiating service products and building a competitive edge. This is because most service organisations can match the look and feel of physical areas, such as facilities, equipment and menu, but quality of service differentiates them.

### 3. Customer Satisfaction

As discussed in the previous section, both service quality and customer satisfaction, while similar, are different concepts. Generally, customer satisfaction is based on perception and experiences of service quality. Parasuraman et al. (1985) believe that satisfaction is how a customer perceives the process and results of a service. Therefore, higher service quality contributes to higher customer satisfaction.

### 4. Loyalty

Many researchers (Nightingale, 1985; Bowen and Chen, 2001) assert that satisfaction leads to repeat purchase behaviour. From a relationship-marketing point of view, maintaining a current customer's loyalty is more profitable than expanding market share. As discussed above, service quality leads to satisfaction and consequently customer loyalty.

## **Dining Out Behaviour in China**

This section reviews dining out behaviour, particularly that which is practiced in China. A history of dining out is examined, followed by a discussion of the nature of dining out behaviour. Finally, dining out behaviour is considered with respect to the push and pull factor. The push and pull factor helps to explain the pre, during and post dining out behaviour of customers (Chen and Uysal, 2001; Kim and Richardson, 2003). The purpose of this part of the chapter is to help construct the dining out motivation part of the questionnaire.

## **The History of Dining Out**

As stated above, the hospitality industry has a strong relationship with the tourism industry and leisure activities. Initially in China, the hospitality industry aimed to provide service for travellers (Linda, 2008). In recent years, the aims of the hospitality industry have shifted to incorporate local customers. This change in the characteristics of customers also reflects the demands or needs of customers for dining out. The change of customers is due to factors such as, (1) an increase in the household income, (2) smaller family size, and (3) both adults are working and there is less time for household work. The increase in the number of local customers also means that the hospitality service has had to change to accommodate the different demands of this new customer type. In many Asian countries, dining out has become a major component of leisure activities, especially in countries or regions like Japan (Finkelstein, 1989), Taiwan (Shanghai Statistical Yearbook, 2009a), and China (Shanghai Basic Facts, 2008). Nowadays, many people enjoy dining out on a day-to-day basis. For example, Europeans often enjoy afternoon tea breaks, and the Cantonese enjoy morning tea almost every day. For these people, dining out is no longer just for feeding themselves, but also a time of relaxation and possibly for socialization. In China for example, teahouses are designed for socialising purposes where poker cards are provided to customers.

The above examples show that dining out behaviour is changing in both motivation and expectation. People are now dining out for different reasons and consequently expect different types of service to satisfy their needs. The push and pull factor will be discussed in a later section.

There was an increase of academic interest in food and eating behaviour during the 1980's (Worsley, 1980; Williams and Langron, 1984; Williams and Arnold, 1985). Initially, dining out attracted little attention and the main focus was about the household meal structure. There are however a few exceptions, such as Finkelstein (1989) who asserted that food is a subordinate of the meal experience. This means that a meal experience consists of more than just food, but also other components such as socialising opportunity, relaxation, good atmosphere and so on. Some dining out behaviour is even triggered by the desire to tour other exotic places of different cultures (i.e. Japanese restaurant or Western style restaurant in China; Chinatown in western countries).

### **Motivation for Dining Out**

As stated in the above discussion, there has been a shift in the nature of dining out behaviour including the motivation for dining out. Researchers have attempted to identify the basic reasons for dining out (Jones, 1996b; Lewis, 2006). Some of the motives suggested are similar across different studies while some are not. The following sections make a comparison.

Lewis (2006) studied food trend forecasting to 2012 and proposed seven reasons: (1) health, (2) convenience, (3) premium and indulgence, (4) ethnic influence, (5) 'free-from', (6) good vs. bad fats, and (7) bespoke foods. These terms will be elaborated as follows:

1. Health

The relationship between health and nutrition is now a widely debated and polemic subject around the world. The practice of food-as-medicine has a long history in China. This refers to not only the provision of nutritious value to human body, but also possesses healing power that cures certain sicknesses. As monthly income increases and general life-style upgrades, people become more concerned with their personal health.

2. Convenience

As mentioned before, many families now consist of working parents, which means they have less spare time to do any cooking. This also refers to travellers who are away from home and unable to make a meal.

3. Premium and indulgence

According to Lewis (2006), premium and indulgence products are not always mutually exclusive: indulgent food is not always sold at a premium and consumers do not view all premium products as indulgent. Lewis suggests that these two components are generally inter-related. Taste and texture are the major purchase influencers in the premium and indulgent food trend.

4. Ethnic influence

Ethnic cuisine is related to ethnic groups within a country. For example, there are now many Chinese, Korean, Indian and Japanese restaurants in New Zealand because of the large number of immigrants from these countries. Taiwan, on the other hand, does not have many Korean restaurants.

5. Free-from

This refers to foods that are made without certain ingredients, such as wheat, dairy, gluten and nuts. A part of this trend is due to the health concerns stated above, such as fat-free milk or sugar-free drinks.

6. Good vs. bad fats

Good fat refers to unsaturated fatty acids and the bad fats are saturated fatty acids. Saturated fatty acids are under strict legislation in Denmark, Canada and the United States. In Denmark for example, the use of saturated fatty acids was limited to 2% with legislation enforced in 2004.

7. Bespoke foods

This refers to food that will encourage consumers to customise or as a minimum, put their stamp on, a product to suit them as an individual. The food industry must be seen to be helping consumers to achieve personalisation. This trend is not unfamiliar in the manufacturing industry (e.g. people who only wear Nike shoes). However, this is a newly observed trend in the service sector and particularly the food and beverage industry.

In studying dining out motives, Jones (1996b) identified six reasons: (1) convenience, (2) variety, (3) labour, (4) status, (5) culture/tradition, and (6) impulse. Two of the motives are similar to Lewis' studies (Lewis, 2006), which are convenience and culture/tradition (ethnic influence).

1. Convenience

As mentioned before, travellers away from home may not be able to cook for themselves. In addition, some events cannot be hosted by an individual, who then has to rely on a food and beverage service provider.

2. Variety

People are stimulated by trying new foods or drinks in different environments and also because an individual may not be able to prepare some varieties of food.

3. Labour

This refers to people who want to enjoy having other people prepare, cook, serve and wash up for them. In the author's opinion, this motive is similar to convenience factors.

4. Status

People may choose to impress their guests for both personal and business reasons. In many countries, the business meal is an acceptable way of conducting business meetings or even striking a deal. In the United States, there is even a tradition for business breakfasts.

5. Culture/tradition

Eating is a part of cultural heritage and a manifestation of kinship. This motive is similar to the ethnic influence mentioned above.

## 6. Impulse

This is rather like saying that sometimes people have no particular reason for eating out. Impulse-buying behaviour is notable in certain businesses where customers will buy on pure impulse. This means that the previously mentioned motivation or occasions cannot fully cover all motives.

When studying dining out motives, Goldman (1993) suggested five reasons: (1) easy, (2) fun time, (3) nice meal, (4) convenience, and (5) satisfying a craving. Two of these motives are similar to one another, which are easy and convenience. Some of these motives are stated in other researchers' studies.

### 1. Easy

This means saving the time and effort of cooking at home by dining out. This is quite similar to the labour motive mentioned in Jones (1996a).

### 2. Fun time

This refers to a period of good time by dining out. This usually coincides with some special event such as a birthday party.

### 3. Nice meal

This is quite similar to the variety motives mentioned by Jones (1996a) which refer to the desire to eat something that individuals are unable to prepare themselves.

### 4. Convenience

This relates to providing a convenient way of feeding family members, each

operating on different schedules. This motive has been included in both studies mentioned above.

#### 5. Satisfying a craving

This is the most impulsive reason for dining out. It is especially important in the take-away and home delivery markets. This is also similar to the impulse motive reported by Jones (1996a).

From the summaries of the motives mentioned above, it is clear that dining out is not simply about eating food. There are also psychological and sociological reasons attached to dining out behaviour. It is notable that different researchers agreed on some of the motives, such as the convenience motive. Dining out in a restaurant is not a simple matter of survival, as it transforms the act of eating to a socially complex and meaningful activity. Lundberg (1984) proposed a concept of dining out which reflects Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory (Maslow, 1970). Dining out not only satisfies hunger, but also self-esteem, self-respect, self-confidence and prestige needs. This is especially true when people possess the means and time to dine out. The increase in the capability to dine out broadens the range of motives. Similarly, Jones (1996b) suggests social contact, status and curiosity are evoked in the act of dining out. In China, many dining out motives are also triggered by health needs.

Tourist motivation literature indicates that the examination of the motivation based on the concept of push and pull factors has been generally accepted (Crompton, 1979; Pyo et al, 1989; Uysal and Hagen, 1993). The concept incorporates the theory that tourists are 'pushed' by internal forces to travel and

'pulled' by the external forces of the destination attributes. Most of the push factors are intrinsic motives and include escape from personal/social pressures, social recognition/prestige, regression, novelty, thrill, social/bonding, self-esteem, and learning/discovery/curiosity (Crompton and McKay, 1997). This push motive is quite similar to the dining out motivation discussed in three of the studies mentioned previously. These demand-side push factors are closely related to Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory (Maslow, 1954) and Plog's psychographic theory (Plog, 1974), which helps to understand customers' decision-making processes. However, some researchers have argued that motivation is not destination specific. For example, customers are motivated by the need to feed themselves and choose to dine out, but any restaurant can satisfy this need. Therefore, a pull factor needs to be considered to understand the whole picture of dining out behaviour.

### **Attributes in the Dining out Experience**

Hospitality experience, specifically food and beverage service experience, is extremely broad and expectations vary from customer to customer. This is one of the difficulties in reaching a consensus on the definition of the hospitality product. Basically, it can be argued that the hospitality product consists of tangible and intangible components (Worsley, 1980). However, the tangible components, food for example, is not simply fulfilling the basic need caused by hunger but also other psychological needs, such as eating premium foods to reflect one's social status along with the elusive nature of intangible components. The hospitality product can also be described by its physical characteristics and the interpersonal skills that occurred during the meal service (McEwan and Thomson, 1988). This

view is consistent with Kotler et al. (2003) who suggest that hospitality service quality consists of an inanimate environment, contact personnel or service provider and visible components with two invisible components, such as organisation and system controlled things like capacity. Jones (1994) suggested that food and beverage service experiences are divided into 10 components, which include food, service, cleanliness and hygiene, décor, lighting, air conditioning, furnishings, acoustics, size and shape of room, clientele and price. However, it can be argued that many deficiencies exist in this form of classification. First of all, the components suggested are all tangible elements where the embedded psychological values do not surface. Using the food component as an example, this study has stated that food represents more than just a feeding purpose, but also includes self-esteem and other values. Similarly, the provision of air conditioning and furnishings reflects comfort as well as luxury (reflecting personal status). Secondly, although the food and beverage service experience has been broken down into 10 components, they are still mainly under the two dimensions suggested initially – food and environment. Finally, human contact components have been neglected. Johns and Howard (1998) found that the most commonly identified components are service, food, price/value, staff, environment, atmosphere, drink and location. Other researchers (Winston, 2004) suggest other convenience factors such as queuing time, parking, reservation systems, and so on along with an attempt to incorporate service quality attributes (Parasuraman et al, 1985; Gronroos, 1984) as part of the meal experience (Bojanic and Rosen, 1994). Jones (1994) describes the dining experience as a mixture of ‘food and beverage’, ‘the style of waiting staff’ and ‘physical attributes of the restaurant’. This view is similar to the research framework proposed in this chapter (food, restaurant, people and convenience factors), which will be

presented again in the discussion of research methods.

Food is the primary product of a restaurant, which represents more than just satisfying the need to fulfil hunger. Jones and Howard (1998) suggest that food quality is measured by its appearance, aroma, taste and texture. In light of the newly emerged health trends this research also includes health and food ingredients as part of food quality assessment. Food ingredients play a part in fulfilling other motivations. For example, the consumption of rare and expensive food ingredients portrays the image of a high social status and hence satisfies significance motives. In addition, according to Lewis (2006), personalisation is also a new trend in food and beverage service. Therefore, the 'theme' and 'style' of the food are also included in the food quality assessment.

Originally, the people component in meal experiences mainly referred to the service personnel's performance. This refers to the method that the food service is delivered to customers. This study also includes other guests as a part of people dimension. This is because these other guests help to form service quality and are a part of atmosphere. Additionally, the behaviour of guests and the style of the restaurant share a strong relationship. For example, a classic restaurant would expect their guests to behave graciously, and by doing so, customers that seek such a dining environment are attracted to that restaurant. On the part of the service personnel/provider, their behaviour also reflects the style of restaurant. The attitude, knowledge, interpersonal and communications skills of the service personnel are all important in measuring the quality of service.

The physical features of a restaurant are structure, decoration, hygiene,

atmosphere and theme. These components can be divided into functional, comfort and psychological requirements. For example, a physically comfortable sofa also needs to be designed with a comfortable appearance to provoke feelings of pleasure and relaxation.

These attributes of the food and beverage service experience can be viewed as pull factors, which are associated with the attractiveness of the restaurant perceived by potential customers who possess different motives. Tourism researchers (e.g. McKercher and Chan, 2005) have argued that the pull factor alone does not explain the whole picture of customers' pre, during and post visit behaviour. This view can be extended to the hospitality industry. For example, a Japanese restaurant can be an ideal dining place for those who are enthusiastic about Japanese culture or simply just because it is convenient, and thus the selection of a Japanese restaurant as a dining place does not, in itself, indicate the motive for the dining out.

The convenience factor, on the other hand, refers to those attributes that, while considered important by tourists, rarely act as an incentive to choose a specific destination, but the absence of these attributes can be a powerful deterrent (Bansal and Eiselt, 2004). For example, accessibility of a toilet does not motivate nor does it attract customers to choose a particular restaurant, but the absence of it may reduce the dining experience. Given that convenience is a major motivation (agreed by many researchers) for dining out, this dimension is included in this study. This may be an additional contribution to the literature of the food and beverage service industry as the past studies do not include this dimension.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter has reviewed dining out behaviour from both the hospitality perspective and the sociological perspective; the chapter has also reviewed restaurant selection and food and service quality assessment when people dine out, and finally, the chapter has introduced dining out in China. The above discussion in this chapter has incorporated research design, which will be further elaborated in Chapter Five and Chapter Six. The literature reviewed in this chapter predominantly looked at previous studies done in western societies. In order for this study to look at Chinese society, the study must examine the background of China, especially Shanghai, which will be carried out in the next two chapters.

## **Chapter Three**

### **Literature Review Two:**

#### **Chinese Food Culture**

##### **Introduction**

This chapter discusses the food cultures in China, which serves two purposes. Firstly, the discussion explains the research subject of China or more specifically Shanghai. Secondly, it helps with the questionnaire design for the study which involves Chinese food culture.

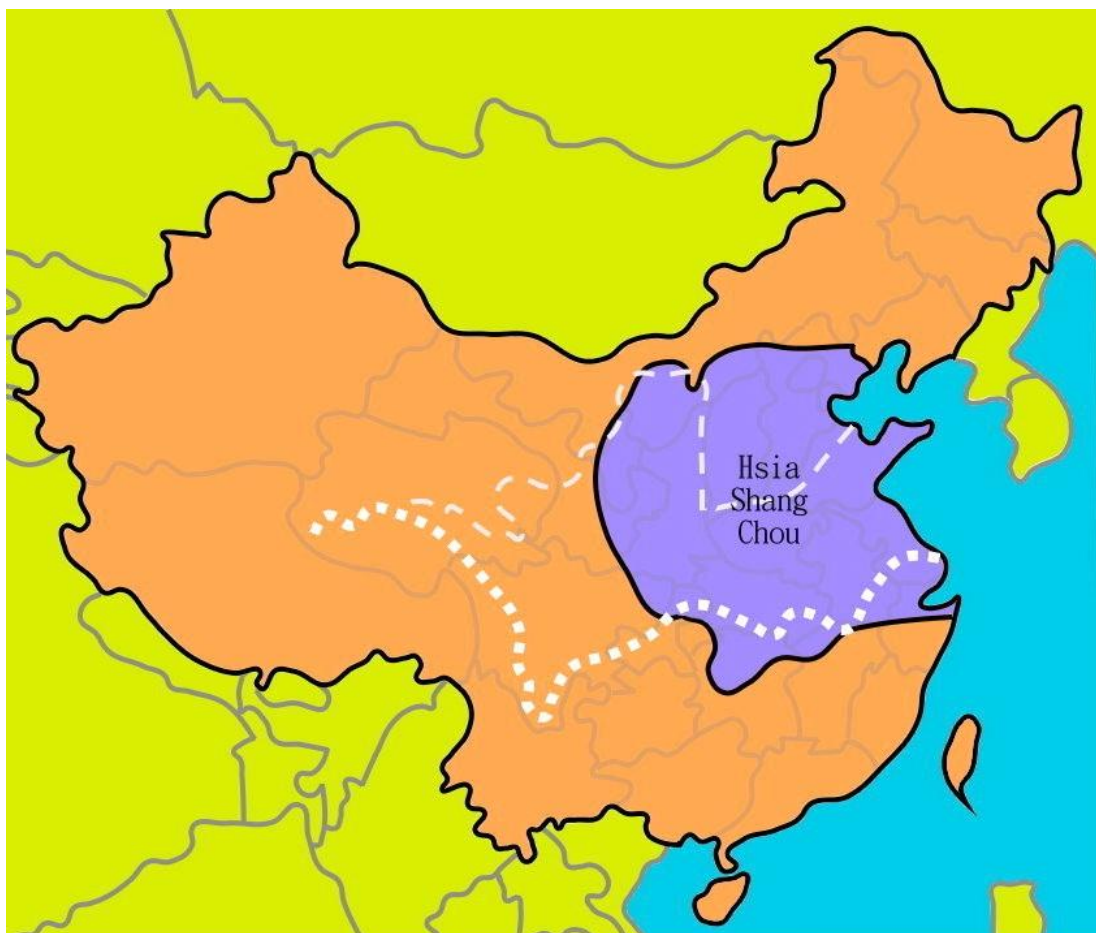
The chapter is organized as follows. The first section of the chapter reviews the history of China and Chinese cultures, specifically food culture. The second section of the chapter reviews the classification of Chinese cuisine styles, which has been briefly introduced in the Chapter One.

##### **Historical Review and its Relationship to Chinese Food**

###### **Culture**

The study of ancient China can be traced back to Peking Man (北京人), which is the Palaeolithic period of China. During this period, there are few written

documents regarding its history, so most of the knowledge is discovered through archaeological findings. Later, around 5000–3200 BC, China entered what the archaeologists called the Yangshao cultural period (仰韶文化). In this period, ancient Chinese people were merely tribal folk. Between 2100 BC to 221 BC, the Chinese culture moved into an empire (Slave society 奴隶制社会), which included three dynasties namely Hsia (夏, 2070 BC – 1600 BC), Shang (商, 1600 BC – 1046 BC), and Chou (周, 1046 BC – 256 BC). These three dynasties were founded at the centre of China's east coast (Figure 3-1) and the Chou dynasty expanded its territory towards the southern part of China (Chang, 1973).



**Figure 3-1: Approximate Territory of the Hsia, Shang and Chou Dynasty**

The territory of the Chou dynasty covered the eastern part of China. During 300 BC, approximately, the Chou dynasty started to lose power to its dukes who possessed territory and military forces of their own. Eventually the Duke of Ch'in (秦), originally a duke under the Chou dynasty, conquered all others and united China (Figure 3-2). During the Ch'in dynasty (221-206 BC) the emperor Qin Shi Huang (秦始皇) implemented a number of policies and constructed the Great Wall. The construction of the Great Wall was initially to defend against invaders from the north, but it also served as an ethnic divider. During the Ch'in dynasty and some of the later dynasties, tribes beyond the Great Wall were considered to be barbarians, which included many ethnic groups that were later considered part of the Chinese population. Ch'in's emperor also implemented policies such as a standardised measurement scale that further unified the cultures within its empire.



**Figure 3-2: Approximate Territory of the Ch'in Dynasty**

The Ch'in dynasty only lasted for approximately 14 years, mostly because Qin Shi Huang was a tyrant and the Ch'in dynasty was quickly overthrown after the death of the emperor. Again China became divided and the conflict resumed for a while until the Han dynasty (汉, 206 BC– AD 220) finally united the land under its banner. The founding of the Han dynasty is another milestone for the Chinese culture. In this period of time, China (the Han dynasty) still suffered with invaders from the north and southwest. These invaders were still considered barbarians who were of different ethnicity than the people of Han. Nowadays, the Han ethnicity constitutes the major proportion of the Chinese population.



**Figure 3-3: Approximate Territory of the Han Dynasty**

Next to follow was the Sung dynasty (宋, AD 960 – AD 1279) where other ethnic groups rose and forced the Sung dynasty (Han ethnic) to the southern part of China. Figure 3-4 shows that other forces occupied most parts of China, and all of them were of different ethnicities. Two of these forces were particularly important, one was Mongolia (蒙古) and another was Jin (金); these two ethnicities will be discussed in the next section. The important fact here is that during this period, much of the Han territory and its people were governed by rulers of other ethnicities (Campbell & Campbell, 2005).



**Figure 3-4: Approximate Territory of the Sung Dynasty**

In approximately AD 1162 – AD 1227, Genghis Khan (成吉思汗), a Mongolian leader, started to expand the empire. The empire did not stop conquering even after Genghis Khan's death and finally occupied land from the Black Sea to the Pacific Ocean. This empire, known as the Yuan (元) dynasty, also occupied China for almost a hundred years (AD 1271– AD 1368). This was the first time in Chinese history that the entire Han people were ruled by other ethnicities (Figure 3-5). However, Mongols did not implement any policy to impose their way of life upon their Han citizens and from the documentation of Mongol history in China it is noted that the Han people still considered Mongol's cuisine practice to be barbaric (Chang, 1973). Hence, although the two different cultures familiarized

with each other, both still found it difficult to accept the other.



**Figure 3-5: Approximate Territory of the Yuan Dynasty**

The Yuan Dynasty was overthrown by the Han people's rebellion and the Ming Dynasty (明, AD 1368–AD 1644) was founded. By 1644, civil war had broken out and the Ming Dynasty quickly fell to Li Tzu-ch'eng (李自成), a leader of a bandit army. At the same time, Manchu also invaded from the north and eventually defeated Li Tzu-ch'eng and took over the imperial palace. The Ch'ing Dynasty (清, AD 1644-1911) was founded, which was the second time in Chinese history that the Han people were ruled by another ethnicity (Figure 3-6). One thing to note here is that the Manchu people considered themselves as the

descendants of Jin (Figure 3-4). Unlike the Yuan Dynasty, the Ch'ing Dynasty implemented numbers of policies that attempted to integrate the Manchu and Han cultures. For example, in the early Ch'ing dynasty they implemented the hair style policy that forced all the Han people to shave their forehead and wear their hair in a plait at the back, which was the Manchu people's hair style. Also, Ch'ing's emperors recognized the value of the Han culture and started to appoint the Han people as officials, studying Han literature themselves. The famous banquet, Man Han imperial feast (满汉全席) was begun during this era. Kangxi (康熙皇帝), an emperor of the Ch'ing dynasty, initiated the first banquet on his 60<sup>th</sup> birthday to ease the conflicts between the Manchu and Han officials. After the Wuching Uprising, the Ch'ing dynasty was overthrown and the imperial chiefs were released outside the imperial palace. The Man Han imperial feast was then discovered by commoners. From the above discussion, it is noted that the Ch'ing dynasty caused significant influence in the course of Chinese culture including its food culture (Campbell & Campbell, 2005).



**Figure 3-6: Approximate Territory of the Ch'ing Dynasty**

There are two points that arise from the above discussion. Firstly, the discussion emphasises the comments made by Chang (1973) that differences existed within the same culture. Secondly, the majority of Chinese people consider themselves as Han people and throughout history, the Han people were ruled by two minority ethnic groups (Mongol and Manchu). During that time, a certain level of cultural interaction or integration occurred (Campbell & Campbell, 2005).

## **Classification of Chinese Cuisine Styles**

The purpose of this section is to discuss the various ways of classifying Chinese cuisines and further elaborate on the fact that even under the same culture people may still show a significant level of difference. As stated in Chapter One, there are three general methods to classify Chinese cuisines based on regions. However, Newman (2004) asserts that these classifications are subject to debate and the attempt to specify a cuisine to a particular region is questionable. In his opinion, the origin of Chinese cooking methods, ingredients, tastes and how foods are named often overlap. Therefore, this section discusses the classification of Chinese cuisines in two ways. Firstly, the section discusses each of the different cuisine styles, which emphasises the fact that dining practices are very different in the different parts of China. Secondly, the section discusses the reasons for the methods of classifying Chinese cuisines. The discussion can shed some light on the blurred area between each Chinese cuisine style.

### **Four School, Eight School and Ten School Classification**

Although the attempts to classify Chinese cuisine is still under debate (Newman, 2004), people who study Chinese food generally accept the Four School Classification. The Four School Classification specifies cuisine styles to regions of origin or practice. These four schools are: (1) Beijing (京), Shandong and the other northern food regions are known as Lu (鲁), (2) Shanghai (沪) and the other eastern cuisines are known as Su (苏), (3) Cantonese and the other southern foods are known as Yue (粤), and (4) Sichuan (川), Hunan (湘) and other western foods are known as Chuan (川), which refer to Table 3-1 and Figure 3-7. Based on these four schools, the Anhui cuisine and Zhejiang cuisine from the Su cuisine, the Fujian cuisine from the Yue cuisine and the Hunan cuisine from the Chuan cuisine are also cuisine styles in their own right under the Eight School Classification, therefore the Eight School Classification includes Lu ‘鲁’ (Shandong), Su ‘苏’ (Jiangsu), Chuan ‘川’ (Sichuan), Yue ‘粤’ (Guangdong), Xiang ‘湘’ (Hunan), Min ‘闽’ (Fujian), Wan ‘皖’ (Anhui) and Zhe ‘浙’ (Zhejiang). Based on the above two classifications, the Beijing cuisine and the Shanghai cuisine stand out on their own under the Ten School Classification, thus the Ten School classification includes Lu ‘鲁’ (Shandong), Su ‘苏’ (Jiangsu), Chuan ‘川’ (Sichuan), Yue ‘粤’ (Guangdong), Xiang ‘湘’ (Hunan), Min ‘闽’ (Fujian), Wan ‘皖’ (Anhui), Zhe ‘浙’ (Zhejiang), Beijing ‘京’ (Jing) and Shanghai ‘沪’ (Hu). One more thing needs to be noted here and that is Chinese people accept the Yangtze River as a divider for the southerners and northerners. One can see from Figure 3-7 that Chuan and Su regions are both divided by the Yangtze River. This suggests that while they are classified under the same cuisine styles, differences still exist. On the other hand, the Yellow River is the divider of southern China and northern China, which complicates the situation. The fact that differences can be found within the same

cuisine style makes one wonder why are they classified under same category in the first place. Perhaps this is the reason why Newman (2004) suggests that the concept of regional foods is, by its nature, vague and blurred. Aside from these questions, the above stated ways of classifying Chinese cuisine are still widely accepted by people who study Chinese food. This part of the discussion has only focused on describing the characteristics of each cuisine style. The details of each cuisine are discussed in the next sections (Chang, 1979; Anderson, 1990).

**Table 3-1: the Four School Classification of Chinese Cuisine**

<b>Four School Classification</b>	<b>Places</b>
Lu (Shandong)	Beijing (Jing), Tianjin (Jin), North-eastern Liao, Shanxi (Jin)
Su (Jiangsu)	Jiangsu, Huaiyang, Anhui (Hui), Shanghai (Hu), Zhejiang (Zhe), Henan (Yu), Hubei (E)
Yue (Guangdong/Cantonese)	Chiuchow (Chaozhou), Hakka (Kejia), Fujian (Min), Hainan (Qiong), Hong Kong, Macanese, Taiwanese
Chuan (Sichuan)	Sichuan, Guizhou (Qian), Hunan (Xiang), Jiangxi (Gan), Shaanxi (Qin), Yunnan (Dian)

Source: Wikipedia the Free Encyclopaedia (2009a)



**Figure 3-7: Chinese Cuisine Classification**

- Yue Cuisine
- Su Cuisine
- Lu Cuisine
- Chuan Cuisine

### **The Lu Cuisine (鲁菜)**

According to Newman (2004), the Lu cuisine includes the provinces of Beijing, Shandong, Hebei, Henan, Shanxi, Shaanxi, Ningxia and Gansu. While the inclusion of the first five provinces into the Lu cuisine is indisputable, the Shaanxi province, the Ningxia province and the Gansu province are not necessarily classified as the Lu cuisine in other sources (e.g. Wikipedia the Free Encyclopaedia, 2009a). This study adopts the latter view which suggests that the Lu cuisine originated from the Shandong province and spread its branches to Beijing, Tianjin and the North-eastern part of China.

Due to the proximity of the ocean, the Shandong cuisine uses a lot of seafood, including scallops, prawns, clams, sea cucumbers, and squid. The favourite meats for Beijing and nearby provinces are pork, duck and mutton. Regarding seasoning, the use of soy sauce and vinegar is very popular in the Lu cuisine, and the taste is somewhat salty to people from other regions. People in the Lu region also prefer flour products, such as steamed buns, instead of rice as the staple food in a meal. The variety of vegetables in the Lu cuisine is limited compared to the southern cuisines, which include cabbages, tomatoes, mushrooms and egg plants. Sea weed is also popular in the Lu cuisine. The reason that meat products seem to be more popular than vegetable products in the Lu cuisine is probably due to its climate, which only allows one crop season per year.

### **The Su Cuisine (苏菜)**

The Su cuisine originated from the Jiangsu province and extended to nearby areas, which includes the provinces of Zhejiang, Anhui, Henan and Hubei. Newman (2004) used China's eastern coast to define a region of cuisine. In Newman's

research, the Anhui province is excluded and the Fujian province is included with the Zhejiang province, the Jiangsu province and Shanghai. As stated before, the Zhejiang cuisine and the Anhui cuisine are cuisines in their own right under the Eight School Classification. Since Shanghai is surrounded by the provinces of Jiangsu, Zhejiang and Anhui and its citizens are descendents of migrants from these three provinces, one can expect the Shanghai cuisine to inherit characteristics from these three cuisines. Yet, these three provinces all possess their own culinary styles.

Despite the differences that exist within the same cuisine style, the Su cuisine is known for its sweet and sour taste. The Su cuisine uses a significant amount of sugar in cooking, which makes the food sticky. A famous cooking method called Hong Shao (红烧, red braised) is cooking by adding soy sauce and sugar.

Although this cooking method has been used by many areas of China, it originates from the Su cuisine specifically from the Wuxi region. The same cooking method used in other places often results in food dipped in a soup of soy sauce. In the Su cuisine, on the other hand, excess amounts of sugar used in the Hong Shao cooking method makes the soy sauce coagulate and condense into a semi-liquid, jelly like substance. The sour taste of the Su cuisine comes from the use of Qinjiang black vinegar named after the place of origin. The Su cuisine uses a wide range of grains, vegetables, sweet corn, sweet potatoes and beans. The provinces alongside the coast also use a lot of seafood in their cooking. Some of the inland provinces use lakes as a source for aqua food. The Su cuisine mostly relies on domestic animals as the source of meat products.

## **The Yue Cuisine (粵菜)**

Yue is another name for Canton (Guangdong). The Yue cuisine encompasses not only Canton, but also Hong Kong, Macau, the Fujian province, the Hainan province and Taiwan. The Fujian province, also known as Min, is a region with its own cuisine styles under the Eight School Classification. As stated before, some people believe that the Fujian cuisine belongs to another category of cuisine style, and there are differences between the cuisines of Fujian and Yue.

The Fujian cuisine particularly focuses on taste, known as xianwei(鲜味) in Chinese (Wikipedia the Free Encyclopaedia, 2009a). The Fujian cuisine is also known for its attention to soups. The taste of the Fujian cuisine can be divided into the northern and south-western. In the northern part of Fujian, foods are relatively sweet and sour similar to the Su cuisine. This is perhaps why Newman (2004) classifies them together. In the south-western part of the Fujian province, foods are slightly spicy. The Yue cuisine is well known for its dog and cat meat consumption. Despite controversy, the Yue cuisine goes to great lengths in preparing food and drink. This is why an old Chinese saying states “be born in Suzhou, grow up in Hangzhou, eat in Guangzhou, and die in Liuzhou”.

Guangzhou is a part of the Guangdong province and the above proverb suggests that Guangzhou is a place to enjoy great food. The ingredients used by Guangdong people in their cooking are extremely diversified. Any kind of meat can become a meal on a table, such as dogs and cats as stated above, beside the usual meat like pork, beef, chicken, and some exotic animals such as snakes, snails and ant eaters are also used in the cuisine. Moreover, the Cantonese do not just consume varieties of meats, but also eat organs and some unusual animal parts such as ducks' tongues and sharks' fins. As for the Cantonese seasoning, the

key word is balanced. They believe that seasoning and flavouring should be just the right amount and harmoniously mixed to avoid any overwhelming taste. The long eastern coastline and the fertile land in southern China afford a great variety of vegetables and seafood in the Guangdong province. Unlike the northern part of China, the Guangdong province has multiple growing seasons per year and the land is suitable for many types of agricultural products. These descriptions show the differences between the Min cuisine and the Yue cuisine, and yet according to some sources (such as Wikipedia the Free Encyclopaedia, 2009a) they are placed under same category.

### **The Chuan Cuisine (川菜)**

The Chuan cuisine originates from the Sichuan province, which is well known for its spicy-hot flavours. This cuisine has spread quite extensively and covers most western parts of China. From Figure 3-7, one can see the provinces that follow the Chuan cuisine (or similar) which includes the cuisines of Jiangxi, Hunan, Ganglia, Guizhou, Yunnan, Qinghai, Shaanxi, and Gansu. As stated before, the classification of the Shaanxi cuisine, and the Gansu cuisine in this category is debated.

There is an old Chinese saying that roughly translates as “Jiangxi people are not scared of chilli food, and Sichuan people are scared that the food is not chilli” (江西人不怕辣，四川人怕不辣). This anagram points out that the Sichuan people can withstand spicy food more so than people of other provinces. Most of the Chuan cuisine’s spicy flavour comes from the use of garlic and chilli peppers. The Sichuan people also like to use a special ingredient called Hoagie (花椒), also known as Sichuan peppercorns. The use of Hoagie creates a numb sensation on

people's tongue which allows them to better withstand the pungent flavour. The famous Malodour (麻婆豆腐) is created with such ingredients where the first Chinese character Ma (麻) means numb, and so its name reflects the true nature of the ingredient and consequently the Chuan cuisine. Newman (2004) suggests that the use of Hoagie is popular in the western regions. The assertion is not inaccurate, but only the Sichuan people enjoy an excessive amount of numbness. For example, the Hunan cuisine is a type of Chuan cuisine, but they do not share Sichuan people's love for the Hoagie. The Hunan cuisine, also known as the Xiang cuisine, is a category of its own under the Eight School classification. Since the Hunan cuisine is a member of the Chuan cuisine, one can expect a spicy hot flavour. However, the Hunan cuisine is known for being dry hot or purely hot (干辣). While the Sichuan people use peppercorns to introduce a numb sensation with their meal, the Hunan people like to simply enjoy flavours that are spicier by pure chilli content (Wikipedia the Free Encyclopaedia, 2009a).

### **The Reasons behind the Classification**

The section above discusses the cuisine styles in China. This section goes one step further and discusses the reasons for the cuisine School classification. There are many factors that may influence the formation of a cuisine style, such as geographical characteristics, climate, ethnicity and historical development. The historical aspect of discussion is in the first section of this chapter. This section focuses on the remaining elements.

## **Geographical and Climatic Factors**

There is an old Chinese saying that goes “near mountain eat mountain, near river eat river” (靠山吃山，靠水吃水). Of course one does not literally eat the mountain and the river, but uses them as a source for food. Geographical and climatic factors dictate the sort of food one can grow or get. For instance, regions alongside the eastern coastline of China consume a large amount of seafood because of their proximity to the ocean. Some of the inland provinces of China, such as the Hunan province, use lakes and rivers as a source for aqua food. Regions near the downstream of the Yangtze River prefer rice and river fish because the river provides fertile land and water based food. As stated before, the north-eastern part of China can only provide one crop season per year due to the climate and so have less agricultural products. The rivers can be more than a provider of food sources, they are also a means for transporting foods. Therefore, cuisines in regions alongside the two main rivers of China are more colourful. All these examples suggest that geographical and climatic factors can be important determinants of food availability.

Geography and climatic factors can also affect cooking methods. For example, most areas of the north-western part of China are highland and the air in those areas is thin, which means that the water boils at approximately 90 °C. It is then difficult to use boiling as cooking method for meat products, and consequently people in these regions resort to barbequing or grilling.

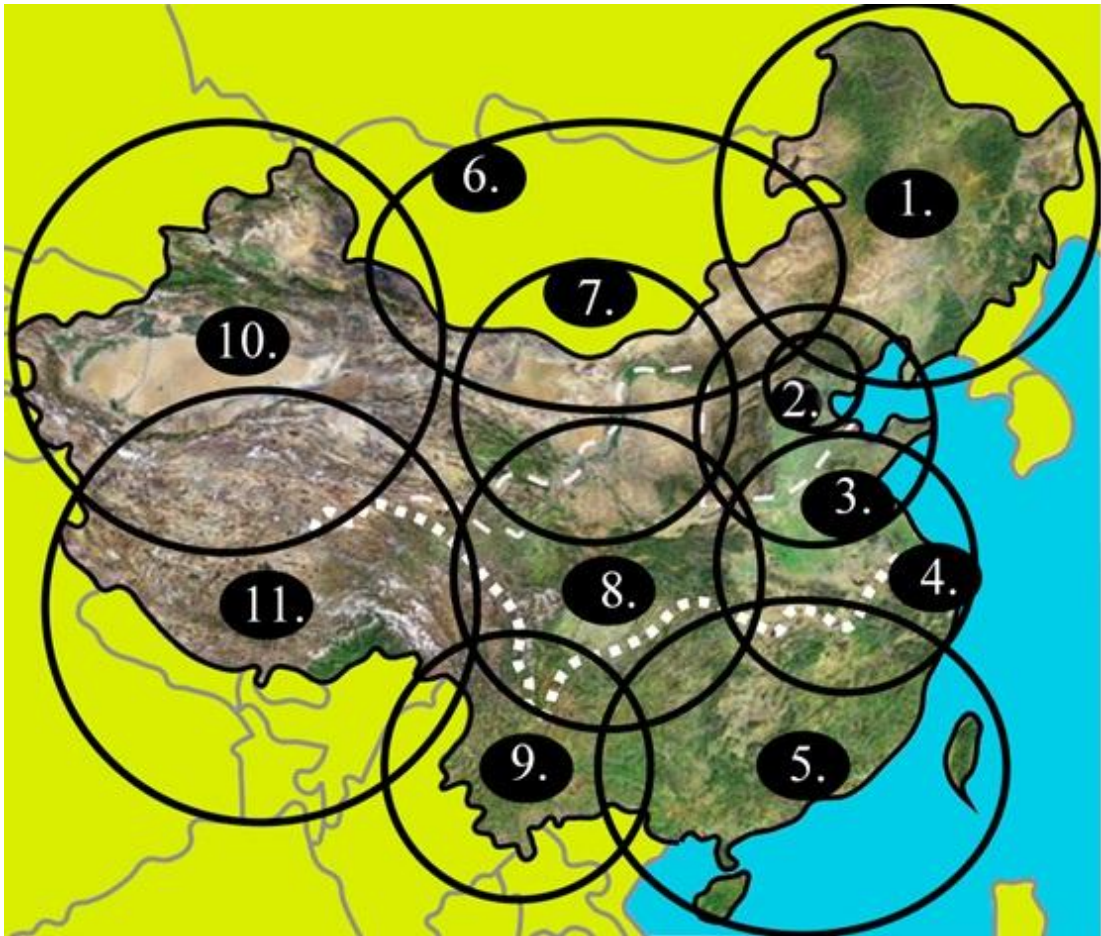
Geography and climatic factors can also have an affect on human body functions and consequently local people’s food preferences. The Sichuan province for example is surrounded by mountains which trap a lot of humidity. The high level

of humidity could cause certain discomfort or even sickness to humans, such as rheumatism and arthritis. Consuming hot and spicy food helps withstand the humid atmosphere and prevents such sicknesses. In fact, one of the concepts that this study tries to introduce to readers is “Bu”, which is a form of dietary therapy that strengthens body functions. The practice of Bu is slightly different from place to place depending on the environment and its effect on the human body.

Generally, provinces that are in proximity share similarities in their cuisine styles. However, when two adjacent provinces are significantly different in their geographical features, their cuisine styles are also different. For example, the Tibet highland is just west of the Sichuan basin, but the obvious differences between the geographical features leads to different culinary practices. The Zhejiang province and the Jiangsu province are another example. The previous discussion has already established that these two provinces’ cuisines, albeit both belonging to the Su cuisine, are potentially different. Some researchers (e.g. Zhao and Xiao, 2000) suggest that the Yangtze River plays a vital role in the differences between these two provinces. The Zhejiang province is located south of the river and uses the Su cuisine style, while the Jiangsu province, located north of the river, has absorbed some of the Lu cuisine style from the north. The above discussion suggests that geographical proximity, traffic convenience and so on, plays an important role in governing interactions between cultures. Therefore, Zhao and Xie (2000) have proposed another way to categorise the Chinese cuisine styles shown in Figure 3-8 which is based on the concept of Kulturkreis (cultural circle) initially proposed by Robert F. Graebner, an ethnologist (Graebner, 2009). As discussed, as geography is a strong determinant for cultural interaction, it makes sense to categorise culture based on geographical features. Of course, geography

is not the only factor in cultural development. One also needs to consider ethnicity and other issues, which will be discussed next as this section focuses on geography and climate.

Figure 3-8 shows 11 Kulturkreis (cultural circle), where most of the circles overlap one another. These Kulturkreis are named based on their geographical features or locations, which are: (1) North-eastern, (2) Beijing and Tianjin, (3) the Yellow River downstream, (4) The Yangtze River downstream, (5) South-eastern, (6) Central north, (7) The Yellow River mid-stream, (8) The Yangtze River mid-stream, (9) South-western, (10) North-western, and (11) Qinghai and Tibet highland. One can compare the relationship between the Four School Classification (Figure 3-7) and the 11 Kulturkreis (Figure 3-8) to gain a better understanding of Chinese cuisine styles. For example, Kulturkreis (1) and (3) are roughly made up what is known as the Lu cuisine in the Four School Classification. Kulturkreis (4) is equivalent to the Su cuisine of the Four School Classification. The fact the Kulturkreis (4) is overlapped with Kulturkreis (3) strengthens a previously made argument that the Jiangsu culinary practices are influenced by the Lu cuisine. Kulturkreis (5) can be divided into two parts, where the eastern part is basically regions of the Yue cuisine and the western is part of the Chuan cuisine. From Figure 3-8, one can clearly see that the Sichuan province, roughly situated in Kulturkreis (8), is distinctly different from the other Chuan cuisines in Kulturkreis (9) and part of Kulturkreis (5). Figure 3-8 provides alternative ways to examine the Chinese cuisine classification. By comparing different methods of classification, one can grasp a better understanding of Chinese food culture and cuisine types.



**(1) North-eastern, (2) Beijing and Tianjin, (3) the Yellow River downstream, (4) The Yangtze River downstream, (5) South-eastern, (6) Central north, (7) The Yellow River mid-stream, (8) The Yangtze River mid-stream, (9) South-western, (10) North-western, and (11) Qinghai and Tibet highland**

**Figure 3-8: Cuisine Styles Based on Kulturkreis**

One important issue needs to be stated again, which is that this study does not attempt to evaluate the validity of the cuisine classification methods. The main focus of the discussion here is that there is no way to clearly classify the Chinese cuisine styles and significant culinary differences exist within China. The reason that this study tries to discuss the cuisine classification from a geographical and climatic perspective is to provide alternative views that help broaden the understanding of Chinese cuisine styles. However, the adaptation of the concept of Kulturkreis implies that examining the cuisine styles from geographical

perspectives is not enough.

### **Ethnicity and Religion**

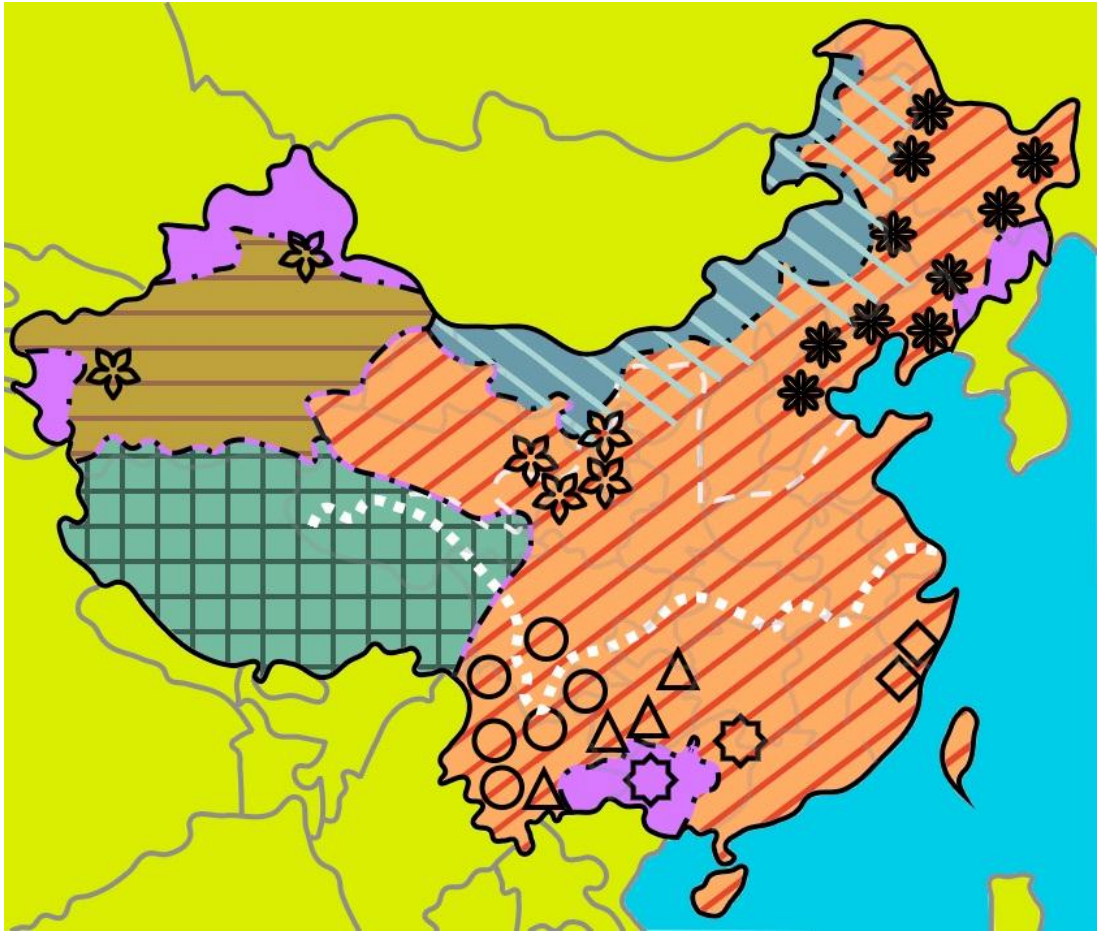
Throughout China, there are approximately 56 different ethnicities (Anderson, 1990). This study only discusses some of the ethnicities that are relevant to the classification of cuisine styles. The first ethnic group is called 'Han', which originates from the downstream area of the Yangtze and the Yellow Rivers (Figure 3-1). Therefore, one can see from Figure 3-9 that people around those areas are of 'Han' ethnicity. The majority of Chinese people are ethnically Han, so one can find Han people even beyond the Great Wall. However, the land beyond the wall is mostly inhabited by two ethnicities named 'Manchu' and 'Mongol'. As stated in the first section of this chapter, these two ethnicities both ruled the Han people and the whole of China at one time in history. In the southern part of China, specifically in the Yunnan province, there resides many ethnic minorities and the autonomous regions, which indicates that cultures in the Yunnan province are extremely diversified. The Western part of China can be generally categorised into two parts. People in the north western part of China, known as the Xinjiang province, are mostly ethnically Uyghur. In south western China (Tibet) and the Qinghai province highland there are people who are ethnically 'Tibetan'. By comparing Figure 3-8 and Figure 3-9, one can see that Kulturkreis and the ethnical classification do show a certain level of consistency. For example, Kulturkreis (1) circles north eastern parts of China where the inhabitants are mostly 'Han' or 'Manchu' people. Kulturkreis (10) and (11) are populated with 'Uyghur' and 'Tibetan' respectively. Kulturkreis (9), also known as the Yunnan province, are filled with ethnic minorities. One can only surmise that one people

of certain ethnicity settled into one place, geographical factors limited their movement and so they remain confined in one place. This is the reason why ethnicity is mostly geographically determined, and so is the people's behaviour. Take the northern and north-western part of China for example, the land in these places consists of deserts, highlands, and basins between highlands and mountains. The south eastern monsoon is blocked by the terrain and therefore the rainwater level decreases when one moves towards the west within these areas. Therefore, it is difficult to grow agricultural products in these places. The people in these regions have historically relied on nomadic activities for food, which implies two things. First, nomadic people consume meat more than vegetables. Second, nomadic people continuously migrate depending on the season to find warmer places and grassy fields for their herds. This shows that although Mongol and Xinjiang are of different provinces, their people share some similarities in their culinary practices.

The other important facts that need to be discussed are that ethnicity is not bound by administrative areas. For example, 'She (畲)' ethnicity people are scattered around south western parts of China. Although the main autonomous region for She is in the Zhejiang province, there are approximately 380,000 She people living in the Fujian province, 170,000 people stay in the Zhejiang province, 70,000 people are in the Jiangxi province, and 2,800 live in the Guangdong province (Anderson, 1990). The above discussion is also supported by some authors, for example, Newman (2004) believes that the Fujian province and the Zhejiang province share similar culinary practices. Perhaps the fact that they both host She people has some role to play in their similarity.

Religion is another strong determinant for culinary practices. People from Tibet and Qinghai for example (Kulturkreis (11) in Figure3-8), are influenced by Islam and so is their culinary practice, dining manner and the food they are prohibited to eat (e.g. pork). Buddhism is another example where religion affects people's dining habits. Buddhism is a widely accepted religion in China and its believers are prohibited to eat any kind of meat. Although not all Buddhism believers practice this rule, most of them will consume more vegetables than meat products.

The Four School Classification, the Eight School Classification and the Ten School Classification are based on administrative areas, but since religion and ethnicity transcend administrative areas, one can now begin to understand why the food researchers call the classification vague and blurred.



Icon	English	Chinese
	Han	汉
	Mongol	蒙
	Tibetan	藏
	Yao	瑶
	Uygur	维吾尔
	Ethnicity	

Icon	English	Chinese
	Manchu	满
	Hui	回
	Miao	苗
	She	畲
	Others	
	Provinces	

**Figure 3-9: Ethnicity Map of China**

## **Conclusion**

This chapter has summarised the history of China and Chinese food cultures. The chapter has also reviewed the classification of Chinese cuisine styles, geographical and climatic factors and ethnicity and religious factors. Chapter four as 'Background of Shanghai' will introduce the history of Shanghai, the cultural development of Shanghai, the food culture in Shanghai and dining out behaviour in Shanghai.

## **Chapter Four**

### **Literature Review Three:**

### **Background of Shanghai**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter reviews the background of Shanghai and explains why Shanghai has been chosen for this study. The chapter comprises three sections; the first section examines the general background of Shanghai; the second section introduces the historical development of Shanghai; the final section discusses dining out activities in Shanghai.

#### **The General Background of Shanghai**

Shanghai is the largest city in China (approximately  $6,128\text{km}^2$ ), with a population of 18.88 million people (Shanghai Statistical Yearbook, 2009) in its metropolitan area. Shanghai is the largest centre of commerce and finance in mainland China, and has been described as the “showpiece” of the world’s fastest growing major economy. This section presents the background of Shanghai which is relevant to this study and includes three parts (Alan & Zheng, 2002):

- (1) Geography and climate
- (2) Districts, and
- (3) Demographics of Shanghai

## **Geography and Climate**

Shanghai sits on the Yangtze River Delta on the eastern coast of China. The municipality as a whole consists of a peninsula between the Yangtze and Hang Zhou Bay, China's third largest island Chongming, and a number of smaller islands. It is bordered on the north and west by the Jiangsu province, on the south by the Zhejiang province, and on the east by the East China Sea. The city proper is bisected by the Huangpu River, a tributary of the Yangtze River. The historic centre of Shanghai, the Puxi area (浦西), is located on the western side of the Huangpu River, while a new financial district, the Pudong New Area (浦东新区), has developed on the eastern bank of the Huangpu River.

Shanghai has a humid, subtropical climate and experiences four distinct seasons. Shanghai outputs different agricultural products in each of its seasons. Furthermore, Shanghai's proximity to the ocean means it has access to seafood and other sea products. All these facts make Shanghai a place with a wide variety of food materials and an intriguing place for a food and culture related study.

## **Districts**

Shanghai was initially a town during 751 AD and in 1292 during the Yuan dynasty, elevated to a county status. Eventually Shanghai became a Municipality in 1854. It encompasses 18 county-level districts and one county, and includes 220 township-level towns and villages.

Shanghai is divided by a tributary of the Yangtze River named the HuangPu River (黄浦江) (Figure 4-1). On the west side of the river is the relatively old cultural centre of Shanghai named the PuXi area. In this area foreign concessions were

located during 1849-1943. Most of the government buildings and commercial areas are scattered across the PuXi area. For example, the city hall is in the HuangPu district (黄浦区), which is a sub-division of the PuXi area. A famous commercial area named the NanJing Road (南京路) is also situated within the HuangPu district. The PuXi area includes another eight districts called, LuWan (卢湾区), YangPu (杨浦区), HongKou (虹口区), ZhaBei (闸北区), PuTuo (普陀区), ChangNing (长宁区), JingAn (静安区) and XuHui (徐汇区). These nine districts are known as city centre of Shanghai. On the east side of the HuangPu River is the new financial district named Shanghai PuDong New Area (上海浦东新区), which was known as Chuansha (川沙) County until 1992. Since Shanghai is a city that operates at provincial level, some of the surrounding counties are assigned under Shanghai as county-level districts. Despite the fact that the PuDong New Area is characterised as the “new” district of Shanghai, it actually retains Shanghai’s traditional culture, while the PuXi area as the “old” district was influenced by foreign cultures during the concessions and exposed to more new ideas.

This study aims to assess the dining out behaviour of Shanghai residents in Shanghai full-service restaurants, but most of the restaurants that are surveyed are in the PuDong New Area and in the PuXi area. There are three reasons for concentrating the survey around the Shanghai city centre (the PuXi area) and the PuDong New Area. Firstly, Shanghai initially only consisted of the PuXi area. The other districts were assigned as parts of Shanghai much later (1988-2001). Secondly, the PuXi area and the PuDong New Area are more prosperous in terms of businesses and dining out activities. Concentrating efforts to survey these two areas allows the study to accumulate the required sample size in a relatively short

period of time. Thirdly, one of the aims of this study is to examine the effect of cultural influences. Since most of the historical and ethnic interactions happened in these two areas, they become the ideal places for this study. More information regarding the surveyed restaurants will be presented in Chapter Six.

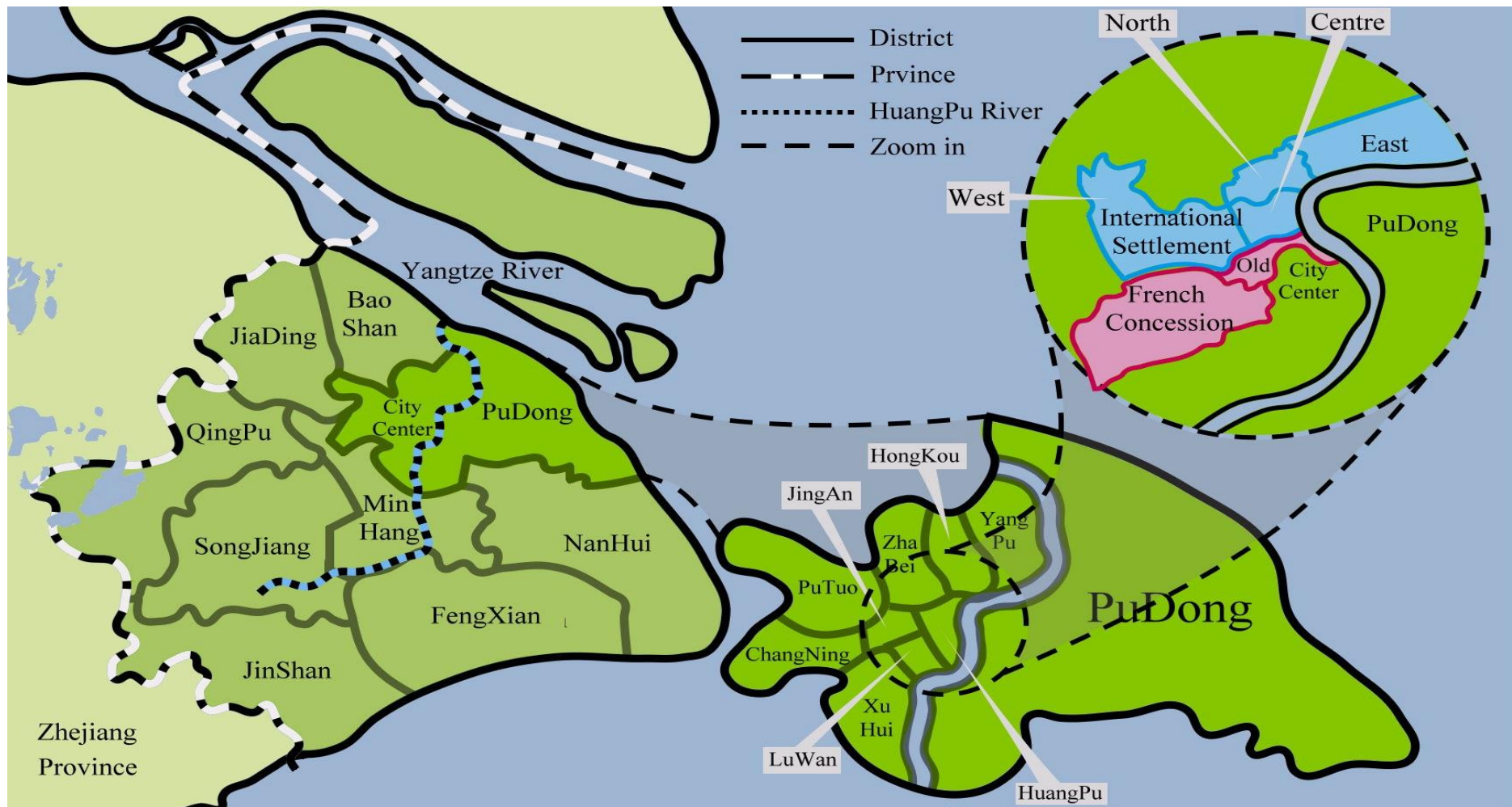


Figure 4-1: the Map of Shanghai

## **Demographics**

The population of Shanghai is approximately 18.88 million. As stated before, Shanghai is an international port and a place with enormous business potential hence it attracts a lot of migrants from different places. Due to the local law, many of these migrants hold the status of long-term residents; they are mostly from the Anhui province, the Jiangsu province and the Zhejiang province and account for approximately 28 percent of the total Shanghai population. There are also a considerable number of business people from Taiwan, Hong Kong and Macao.

Most of registered Shanghai residents are descendants of immigrants from the Jiangsu province and the Zhejiang province who speak a dialect of Wu Chinese, which many migrants from other parts of China do not speak. In fact, the ability to speak the Shanghai dialect is an important part of Shanghai people's identity. It is interesting to investigate how Shanghai interacts with other cultures not only from overseas, but also cultures from different parts of China.

Shanghai's male and female population is approximately even; males account for 51.4 percent, females for 48.6 percent of the population. About 70% of Shanghai's population are locally born permanent residents. Above 20% of the population is over 60 years old; approximately 48% of the total population is between the ages of 21-60 years old, and approximately 32% of the population is under 20 years old (Shanghai Statistical Yearbook, 2009b). The above demographic information was used to compare with the sample to ensure it represents the actual population. Table 7-4, Table 7-17 and Table 7-18 show that although the sample demographics do not entirely match the actual demographics, there is not a large variance.

## **Historical Development of Shanghai**

The economic capability of Shanghai was recognised even in ancient China as evidenced throughout the history of China. For example, the Cheng Huang Miao Temple (城隍庙) was constructed in Shanghai during 1602. This is usually reserved for a place with city status and rarely given to a town, which was the status of Shanghai at the time. During the Qing Dynasty, the emperor, Yongzheng

(雍正) even moved the customs office from the SongJiang (松江) area to Shanghai. This granted Shanghai exclusive rights for foreign trading. Due to the Treaty of Nanking (南京条约) in 1842, Shanghai became an open port for foreign trade and the commerce centre between China and many other western countries. Shanghai became a multinational hub and absorbed cultural characteristics from many different countries. The financial boom of Shanghai was interrupted after the Communist takeover in 1949 and the subsequent cessation of foreign investment. During 1990, the economic reform of China again gave a “jump start” to Shanghai’s economy and facilitated its development. Shanghai is now the largest cargo port and financial centre in the world (Shanghai Statistical Yearbook, 2009b).

### **Shanghai International Settlement (上海公共租界)**

It is important to discuss the foreign cultural influences in Shanghai. The origins of the Shanghai International Settlement can be traced back to the year 1849 when a united municipal council was created to serve the British, French and American foreign concessions in Shanghai, China. During the late Qing Dynasty, many foreign countries became established in Shanghai, specifically in the PuXi area. The French Concession was established in 1849 and expanded twice in 1900 and 1914 respectively, which covered the Xuhui district and the Luwan district. The Shanghai International Settlement was established in 1854 just the north of the French Concession. Initially the International Settlement was formed with the British south of the Suzhou creek in the HuangPu district and Americans in the north of the Suzhou creek. However, there were more than just these two countries which established their settlements in this area. One can see from the flag of the Shanghai International Settlement (Figure 4-2) that many countries’ settlements were established here. Furthermore, many Chinese migrated to the Shanghai International Settlement to avoid civil conflict or for better business opportunities. It is important to note that Shanghai is one of the few places that offered unconditional refuge to Jews around late 1920s to early 1930s. The Jewish refuge centre is roughly in the eastern part of the Shanghai International Settlement.

The Shanghai International Settlement ended in 1943 when the Sino-British Friendship Treaty was signed between Britain and the People's Republic of China. The French Concession, on the other hand, remained relatively unchanged under Communist rule.



**Figure 4-2: The Flag of the Shanghai International Settlement**

From the above brief historical review of the development of Shanghai, it is noted that Shanghai is an interesting place with diversified cultures and strong financial capabilities. Since culture is a determinant for dining out habits and financial capabilities are a trigger factor for dining out, one can expect Shanghai's dining activities to be influenced by many cultures.

## **Dining Out Activities in Shanghai**

The above discussion has presented the unique characteristics of Shanghai, such as the 'Shanghai International Settlement', and became the impetus for selecting Shanghai as the context for this study. This section focuses the discussion on dining out activities in Shanghai. Obviously, a place as huge and complex as Shanghai possesses rich commercial activities including dining out. It would not be possible to conduct the survey in each restaurant. This section not only discusses the dining out activities in Shanghai, but also uses the information to justify the selection of restaurants as survey spots. The section is divided into two

parts: the first part of this section deals with the concept of the restaurant district and describes the background of each restaurant district in Shanghai. The second part provides background for the forty-two restaurants that this study surveyed.

### ***Restaurant Districts***

The first thing that needs to be discussed is the concept of the restaurant district. The restaurant district is not an actual administrative district and its scope is often vague. It is simply a place where many restaurants are established. Restaurants, like other businesses, rival each other yet at the same time complement each other. For instance, if a person goes out for a meal but finds one restaurant is full, it is unlikely that this person would go to another location to find another restaurant, they would just look for another restaurant in the vicinity. Restaurants like businesses have tendency to open their establishments in a highly competitive area. Over time, the area becomes filled with restaurants and people generally accept it as the place to go for dining out. Shanghai's restaurant districts can be divided into five sectors as follows:

### **The HuangPu District**

In 2000, old HuangPu and the Nanshi district combined to form the New HuangPu district. It was so named for its proximity to the HuangPu River, which is also in the PuXi district where the city centre of Shanghai is. Because of its historical and financial importance, there are many commercial buildings and landmarks in this district. For example, the Bund is the name given to a section of road alongside the HuangPu River. The river provides nice scenery, but that is not all. Due to the foreign concessions, this area is filled with buildings of different architecture styles, which is known as “万国建筑博览群” roughly translated to ten-thousand countries' building exhibition. The scenery and cultural aspect makes it a place perfect to dine out and so there are many food and beverage establishments alongside the Bund.

Broadway Mansion, another famous landmark, is also located in the HuangPu district. It was built in 1935 and was the highest building of that era in Asia. It is located on the northern end of the Bund where HuangPu River and Suzhou Creek

meet. This was the first hotel established after 1949 and the founding of People's Republic of China.

Cheng Huang Miao Temple and YuYuan Garden (or Yu garden) is another famous place for dining out. As stated before, Cheng Huang Miao was built in 1602, and is the most important Taoism temple in Shanghai. YuYuan is adjacent to Cheng Huang Miao, and was built in 1577. It was initially a private garden during the Ming Dynasty. All the food establishments in these two areas are embedded in ancient buildings, which are a contrast to the modern nature of the Bund.

Nanjing Road is another place that can be considered as food district in Shanghai. Nanjing Road was initially known as Park Lane back in 1851. Later, it was extended twice in 1853 and 1865 and formally named Nanjing Road. In 2000, Nanjing Road was reconstructed as a pedestrian street. This 6 km street is the world's longest shopping district and the commerce centre of Shanghai. HuangHe (Yellow River) Road is another restaurant district worthy of mention. It is perpendicular to Nanjing Road, which is 755 meters in length. It was originally called Park Road during 1904 with the name changed to HuangHe Road in 1943. In 1930, an international hotel was established at the intersection of HuangHe Road and JingAn Road. Business, especially food and beverage, rapidly increased and gradually it became a restaurant district after 1980. It is now one of the “美食街” in Shanghai; roughly translated this means beautiful food street.

### **The XuHui District**

The Xuhui district, together with its neighbouring Luwan district, formed the French Concession back in 1849. One could reasonably expect this place to be exposed to foreign influences. For example, the centre of XuHui district is a historical place called XuJiahui, initially owned by an official of the Ming Dynasty and later donated to the Roman Catholic Church. Since then, this has been the centre for Catholics in Shanghai. Nowadays, XuJiahui and the surrounding areas are the main commercial areas of the district.

Xintiandi, or New World, is another place in the XuHui district. It is a pedestrian

only shopping, eating and entertainment area. The famous Shikumen lane, literally translated as stone gate lane, is located in Xintiandi, which is a narrow alley made up of restored classic Chinese brick buildings. Nowadays, this traditional alley is used for coffee shops, book stores and restaurants.

### **The JingAn District**

The JingAn district is almost at the central point of the PuXi district. It is probably the most densely populated area in Shanghai. The JingAn district is home to many of Shanghai's expatriates and one of the prosperous business districts. The famous JingAn Temple is situated inside this district. This temple was built in 247 A.D., renovated once during Song Dynasty, then during Qing Dynasty and more recently in 2008.

### **The PuDong New Area**

The PuDong New Area, also referred as PuDong New District, is a district with sub-provincial status. In 2009, the Nanhui district merged with the PuDong district, which makes it the largest district in Shanghai. The famous Lujiazui Finance and Trade Zone is located inside the PuDong District. Some of the tallest and most famous buildings are in this zone, such as Jin Mao building and Oriental Pearl Tower. This zone is directly across the HuangPu River from the Bund. The architectural styles of the buildings on both sides of the river are in complete contrast. The Lujiazui Finance and Trade Zone is probably one of the more expensive places to dine out in Shanghai.

### **The HongKou District**

The HongKou district is north of the HuangPu district. The famous Astor House Hotel, Broadway Mansions and Lu Xun Park are situated in this district. This district was also home to Japanese occupation Jewish refugees during the Second World War. Famous dining places are ZaPu Road, which is 1038 meters in length. ZaPu road is home to Shanghai's earliest entertainment establishments. Nowadays, ZaPu is one of the famous "beautiful food streets" in Shanghai.

## **Surveyed Restaurants**

As stated in the previous part of discussion, many restaurant districts and commercial centres are concentrated in the PuXi area and the PuDong New Area. This is one of the reasons that the surveyed restaurants were selected from these two areas. It is important to note that the surveyed restaurants were selected from a guide book produced by the Shanghai Tatler (2009). This book contains the best restaurants in Shanghai. However, there are far too many restaurants listed in the book to survey them all. Therefore, 42 restaurants were selected out of this book (see Appendix III). The process of restaurant selection will be presented in the Chapter Six as ‘Quantitative Research Design’.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter has briefly introduced the background of Shanghai, and has explained why Shanghai has been chosen for this study. The chapter has also introduced the historical development of Shanghai, including the unique characteristics of Shanghai as the ‘Shanghai International Settlement’, and finally, this chapter has discussed dining out activities in Shanghai, including restaurant districts and surveyed restaurants. Chapter Five is ‘Research methods and qualitative research’, and will briefly introduce the research methods and discuss the results obtained from the pilot study based on qualitative research methods, including semi-structured interviews and focus groups.

## **Chapter Five**

### **Methodology and Qualitative Research Design**

This chapter discusses the results obtained from the pilot study based on qualitative research methods. It involves both personal semi-structured interviews and focus groups. The purpose of the qualitative study is to generate hypotheses for further research and help the design of the questionnaire for this study, which will be discussed in the next chapter. Justification for using a mixed method approach is presented in this chapter.

This chapter includes four sections: the first section of this chapter focuses on using a mixed research method to provide answers to the research question for this study. The second section of this chapter presents the epistemology and ontology that this study adopts. The third section of the chapter describes the qualitative research design using personal interviews and focus groups, giving reasons for using these two techniques, recruiting participants for the research and recording of data; the last section of this chapter interprets the outputs of both the personal interviews and the focus groups.

#### **A Mixed Research Method**

The main purpose of this study is to understand the dining out behaviour of Shanghai residents in Chinese full-service restaurants in Shanghai. A mixed research method is used in this study considering the following advantages:

1. The strength of this study;
2. Use of the mixed research method helps to investigate the research question from different angles;
3. Use of different approaches helps to focus on a single process and confirms the data accuracy. This study is able to complement results from one type of research with another, thus attempting to gauge relevant important findings.

The intention is that the results can assist food and beverage industry operation/managers to understand the dining out behaviour of Shanghai residents.

Hence, the results are presented taking into account the following:

1. Generalisable Results

The results of this study need to be clear for operators in the food and beverage industry so they may understand and take advantage of the findings.

Furthermore, generalisable results also indicate that other researchers may replicate this study and target a different population or a different scope.

2. Chinese Cultural Orientation

As stated earlier, most of the research into dining out behaviour originates from or focuses on western societies. Therefore, it is one of the primary goals of this study to investigate what dining out behaviour is applicable to Chinese society and Chinese culture.

3. Respondents Defined

McIntosh et. al. (1998) suggests that the quantitative research method does not allow the researcher to understand how respondents define the nature of

service encounters. This point is partially related to the Chinese culture. On the other hand, it raises another interesting issue, which is that the quantitative research method is based on research design that is constructed by the researcher. Hence respondents can only choose from the options that the researcher has provided, which may not completely reflect their true perceptions.

The first criteria is ‘generalisable results’, which suggests the use of the quantitative research method, while the second and third criteria, ‘Chinese cultural orientation’ and ‘respondents defined’, imply the use of qualitative research methods. In tourism and hospitality research, it is not uncommon that researchers choose two paradigms that are based on contradicting ontological and epistemological views (Jennings, 2001). It is also not uncommon in tourism and hospitality studies that a mixed method research includes ‘unequal weights’ of both quantitative and qualitative components, or that they are conducted in either an integrated or separate manner (Greene, et. al. 1989; Greene, 1990; Punch, 1998). In this study, the mixed research method is adapted in a sequential and integrated manner with the quantitative research method as the main research tool and the qualitative research method as a supportive tool.

## **Paradigms**

A paradigm is ‘a basic set of beliefs that guides action, which also includes action taken in connection with a disciplined inquiry’ (Guba, 1990). According to Jennings (2001), tourism research has been dominated by a positivist paradigm. However, many researchers (e.g. Reilly, 1990; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1993;

Prebensen, 2007) have adopted a solely qualitative approach in their papers. Furthermore, many researchers (Jenkins, 1999; Pike, 2003; Pike and Ryan, 2004) combine both qualitative and quantitative approaches in attempts to obtain more meaningful results. All these facts mean that researchers adopt various types of the research methods in their studies. There is no agreement as to what is the best approach for a tourism and hospitality study, except that one should consider the research objectives when choosing the 'right' paradigm(s) (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Jennings, 2001).

The approach chosen by this study is comprised of two parts: (1) a qualitative pilot study, and (2) a quantitative method as a main study. These two methods are based on different paradigms, which are explained in this section.

### **Post-positivist Paradigm**

Post-positivism, is a philosophical term that can also be called post-empiricism, which is a meta-theoretical stance following positivism. In general, both these paradigms possess a similar realism ontology and objectivist epistemology. The positivist has been criticised for abstracting the facts through statistical procedures, which rarely reveals the actual truth underneath the reality. This is due to the ontological view of positivism that the 'truth' is quantified and measurable. The post-positivism assumption of reality is similar to positivism, but acknowledges the idea that reality can never be fully apprehended. The post-positivist recognizes the criticisms that have been made against traditional logical positivism and similar foundational epistemologies, but at the same time is also critical about what is seen as misconceptions about positivism itself. Unlike the traditional positivists, the

post-positivist does not view reality as unchallengeable, but as conjectural. The post-positivist believes that one can have strong foundations for asserting what they believe or conjecture. On the other hand, the post-positivist also acknowledges that these assertions can be modified or withdrawn depending on the results of further investigation. Post-positivism suggests that a good theory has the potential to provide reasoning and predict human behaviour, but may or may not correspond to truth (Greene, 1990).

On the epistemological level, post-positivism also shares similar ideas of objectivity, but with more critical views about the findings of inquiry and knowledge claims. Ryan (1995) suggests that the act of selection of a research method is an act of judgement, and is related to the way a problem is defined, which suggests that the objectivist epistemology is an 'unreachable ideal'. The post-positivist believes that the credibility of a research must be supported by objective evidence that is capable of withstanding tough criticism. In relation to this study, the above discussion mostly relates to the questionnaire design, which is an 'act of judgement' by the researcher and may possess a certain level of bias. The questionnaire design is based on two sources: (1) from previous research, where this researcher has argued that the western orientation may not apply to Chinese cases, and (2) from the qualitative pilot study, which may be challenged as the interpretation is based on this researcher's subjective mind. The validation and justification for these issues are addressed in the following sections.

At the methodological level, the post-positivist believes research needs to involve multiple approaches that examine reality from different perspectives instead of solely relying on statistical analysis. Consequently, the post-positivists utilise more

qualitative approaches in their studies to compensate the deficiency of the statistical analysis.

This study adopts the post-positivism paradigm for its ability to produce generalisable results, and the utilisation of qualitative components to ‘think outside the box’. The paradigm is ideal for the attempt to generate a research design that is based on a Chinese cultural orientation. However, the adaptation of two paradigms with views that are contradictory to each other raises the issue of the compatibility of results. The concept of ‘triangulation’ is introduced to improve the credibility of a study that involves qualitative components.

## **Triangulation and Trustworthiness**

According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994), there are five factors that can be used to describe the historical evolution of the research methodology. These ‘five factors’ include (1) traditional period, (2) modernistic phase, (3) blurred genres, (4) crisis of representation and (5) fifth moment. Although these five factors are different stages of development in the research methodologies, they are all still in operation and remain legitimate in various areas of study. The issue of trustworthiness and triangulation is not relevant to the traditional period, which is positivism orientated; along with the fourth factor and fifth factor, which rely heavily on the qualitative aspect of the research techniques. According to Decrop (1999), the issue of trustworthiness and triangulation only arises when researchers adopt the methodologies that are categorised in the second factor and the third factor, which includes post-positivism, interpretivism and constructivism. This study adopts the post-positivism paradigm, therefore it is required that this study provides evidence

to prove trustworthiness and discusses the methods implemented to achieve the triangulation.

### **Trustworthiness**

Lincoln and Guba (1985) have developed four precise criteria for assessing the trustworthiness for research that utilise both quantitative and qualitative methods. These criteria are discussed with relation to this study:

1. **Credibility (Internal Validity)**

Credibility refers to the truthfulness of a particular finding. As stated before, the inclusion of a qualitative component is to generate a Chinese culturally orientated research design, which includes different components compared to the western orientated research. For example, the concept of ‘*Bu*’, different table etiquette, and so on. Relying solely on a quantitative approach is clearly incapable of producing a desirable ‘Chinese-orientated’ result.

2. **Transferability (External Validity)**

Transferability means the applicability of the research findings to another setting or group. Obviously, the design specifically targets the Chinese population, and hence the result may not be applicable to western societies. Moreover, this study only attempts to collect data based on Shanghai residents, which means that the results only reflect the dining out behaviour of the targeted research population. This incapability is due to the limitation set by the researcher to prevent an over ambitious project, not because any deficiency in the research design. Therefore, the results are applicable to Shanghai and

can be used in other similar situations.

3. Dependability (Reliability)

The word dependability refers to the consistency and reproducibility of results. The human behaviour is ever changing, which means that the results obtained from this study may not be absolutely the same as the result obtained ten years later. However, it is possible to conduct a longitudinal study by comparing two sets of data collected in different periods of time. Also, the research design could be modified to survey different areas of China.

4. Confirmability (Objectivity)

Confirmability is to assess whether the findings are neutral in terms of their ability to reflect the informants and the inquiry, not the researcher's biases and prejudices. The role of a positivistic researcher is to remain objective and distance themselves from the research subjects. Post-positivism shares a similar epistemology, but questions the ability of a researcher to remain truly objective from what is being researched. As stated before, the actions taken by a researcher to choose a research method, define problems and select samples are acts of judgement by the researcher (Ryan, 1995), which implies that the possibility of bias and prejudice exists. Therefore, it is also the responsibility of this study to retain a certain degree of scepticism to the objectivity claim. The confirmability issue can be solved by using triangulation, which will be discussed below.

## **Triangulation**

The word ‘triangulation’ means that a single point is examined from three different and independent sources. Campbell and Fiske (1959) introduced this concept to validate multi-method research, which was later refined by researchers such as Webb et al. (1966) and Jick (1979) specifically to resolve the problem of mixing qualitative and quantitative methods. These researchers suggest that both methods, albeit based on contradicting views, should complement each other instead of rivalling one another. Triangulation refers to examining the same phenomenon or research question from more than one data source or perspective (Brannen, 1992). Using triangulation can help to minimise personal and methodological biases and enhances a study’s generalisability (Decrop, 1999; Oppermann, 2000). Oppermann (2000) further suggests the need of cross-linkages and systematic planning between two methods, or there can be limiting cross-validation of the results. Denzin (1978) distinguished four basic categories of triangulation: (1) data triangulation, (2) method triangulation, (3) investigator triangulation, and (4) theoretical triangulation. Data triangulation refers to using the same approach on a variety of data sources in a study to verify or falsify the result. Method triangulation means the use of multiple methods to study a single problem. Investigator triangulation involves different researchers interpreting the same data. Theoretical triangulation means using different disciplinary perspectives to study the same phenomena. This study adopts data, methods and investigator triangulation to ensure the reliability and credibility of the results. For the data triangulation section, this study used both personal interview and focus group in the pilot study to authenticate the findings, and questionnaire survey to the main study. For the method triangulation section, this study uses the computer software ‘CATPAC’ to examine the qualitative

data. The next section will describe the qualitative research design using both personal interviews and focus groups.

## **The Personal Interviews**

The personal interview is a commonly used research method and has two immediate advantages: (1) good response rates and (2) interviewers are able to interact or observe interviewees while they answer questions (Drew, Raymond & Weinberg, 2006). Some researchers suggest that the personal interview needs to be established on a 'mutual trust relationship between interviewers and interviewees' (Oakley, 1981). This method provides the researcher with substantial volumes of data which can be problematical to analyse and it can be difficult to prevent generalisations and bias in answers. However, it still is one of the most widely used qualitative research methods.

### **Definition of the Personal Interviews**

The personal interview is a qualitative research method and typically involves asking questions and hoping to receive answers from interviewees who are interviewed by interviewers (Robson, 2002). Many researchers describe the personal interview as being likened to a conversation (Benney and Hughes, 1970; Jenning, 2001). Dexter (1970) elaborates a little further and suggests that a personal interview is a conversation with purpose. The personal interview is a very widely used technique and can be grouped into many types. A commonly agreed typology distinguishes among the structured interview, the semi-structured interview and the unstructured interview (Jenning, 2001; Robson, 2002). The structured interview involves asking a set of questions in a predetermined order. It is often similar to a questionnaire interview where interviewees can only choose their answer from a small list of alternatives. The semi-structured interview requires interviewees to

discuss a few predetermined topics in any order which interviewers or interviewees feel comfortable with. The unstructured interview is often just two people having a conversation without any guidelines. The nature of the unstructured interview may, of course, result in the discussion deviating from the research topic. However, the unstructured interview allows the interviewees to answer the question much more flexibly than in the structured interview (Miller and Brabtree, 1999). The main reason for classifying the personal interview into three categories is because each category possesses its strengths as well as weaknesses, which means that one needs to consider the purpose of an interview before choosing the specific technique.

According to King (1994), there are five circumstances in which a qualitative research method such as the personal interview is most appropriate. According to his research, the personal interview can be used as an exploratory work before a quantitative study, or it can be used to validate a quantitative study that has been carried out. In this study, the personal interview results are used in both situations stated above. In other words, the personal interview results can aid the questionnaire design that is going to be used in the subsequent quantitative study and can also be used to confirm the findings of quantitative results. The semi-structured interview technique is used to accumulate as much information as possible and to keep within time constraints.

### **Advantages and Disadvantages of the Personal Interviews**

The main advantage of the personal interview is that the interviewer can adapt the questions as necessary, clarify doubt and ensure that the responses are properly understood, by repeating or rephrasing the questions. The interviewer can also pick

up nonverbal cues from the interviewee. Any discomfort, stress and problems that the interviewee experiences can be detected through frowns, nervous tapping and other body language, unconsciously exhibited by the person (Robson, 2002). This would be impossible to detect in a survey. Therefore a personal interview helps the interviewer to get the desired results. By reading the facial expression of the interviewee the interviewer can more easily understand what the interviewee wants to tell them.

The main disadvantages of the personal interview are the geographical limitations for distribution of the surveys and the vast resources needed if such surveys need to be done nationally or internationally. Given that the intention of this study is to assess the dining out behaviour of Shanghai residents in Chinese full-service restaurants, it is highly unlikely that interviewing just a few respondents would be able to provide satisfactory outcomes. The value of the personal interview is the ability to elicit factors or attributes that may not show in the survey questionnaires. Since most studies published in dining out behaviour come from western societies, it is likely that some of the issues that are specific to the Chinese cultures do not appear in the western studies. This suggests that the design of this study should not be based on the western literature only.

### **Selection of Participants for the Personal Interviews**

Patton (1990) asserts that there is no fixed rule regarding the sample size for qualitative research. Indeed, according to King (1994) one can conduct a primary study with interviewing only one respondent if one's study is about a particular phenomenon related to that certain participant. Based on King's guideline, the

sample size of one's study depends on the actual research population. This view is consistent with the suggestion of Jennings (2001). Frost and Braine (1967) suggest that one should be more concerned with data redundancy than to worry about an appropriate sample size. The term data redundancy refers to a point where respondents stop contributing new information, which according to Frost and Braine should happen after 20 to 40 respondents. This study aims to conduct about 20 personal interviews, which should provide enough information to achieve data redundancy. To accumulate the best possible information, this study also uses the focus group technique besides the personal interview. Details of focus group are discussed next in this chapter.

## **The Focus Group**

The focus group is a useful research technique that, according to researchers (Stewart & Shamdasnai, 1990), is appropriate at any point during the research but is particularly useful for exploratory research. The following section describes the nature of the focus group, which includes development of the focus group, the strengths and limitations of the focus group, along with the procedure and the reasons for adopting the focus group in this study.

### **History of The Focus Group**

According to Morgan (1997), the development of the focus group can be divided into three periods, as following:

1. The early stage of focus group development was carried out by academic and applied social scientists. The very first focus group research was traced back to the work of Paul Lazarsfeld and Robert Merton's study at Columbia University in 1941 (cited in Puchta & Potter, 2004) where they studied respondents' reactions to wartime radio broadcasts. The focus group for their study was used to understand how people evaluated and the criteria used for assessing the standard of wartime radio broadcasts.
2. The second period of the development of the focus group can be found in the marketing research carried out in the period between the Second World War and the late 1980s.

According to Puchta and Potter (2004), the use of the focus group between

1950 and 1980 was mostly within the field of the marketing research. The focus group was mainly used to generate new ideas or understand the subconscious motives hidden behind the consumption of different products. However, Morgan (1998) notes that few marketing researchers have published their procedures when using the focus group and thus fails to have the influence on the development of new procedures and uses for the focus group.

### 3. Recent research involving the focus group.

According to Morgan (1998), the application of the focus group in research in applied social science field helped to lead the focus group beyond the research of product marketing. Researchers such as Folch-Lyon et. al. (1981), Joseph et. al. (1984), and Knodel (1995), have used the focus group as a method in social science research.

The purpose of this historical review of the focus group is to show that this research technique has been applied in understanding how people evaluate certain products and is widely used in marketing research and social science research. The hospitality industry bears some of the characteristics of the service industry, and also falls under the marketing research criteria, therefore, the focus group as a research technique can also be used in hospitality research. Furthermore, dining out behaviour is a social activity and a study of human behaviour, which is within the field of social science. The focus group, as a research technique that has a long history of being applied in both marketing and social science study, is thus found be suitable for this study.

## **Strengths of Focus Groups**

According to Vaughn et. al. (1996), the focus group is conducted by a trained moderator who sets the stage with prepared questions or guidelines to elicit feelings, attitudes and perceptions about a selected topic from a group of participants.

Barbour and Kitzinger (1999) defines the focus group is a group discussion exploring a specific set of issues. Based on the above discussion, the strengths of using the focus group can be summarised as follows:

1. Requires relatively less time

The focus group interviews approximately 8 to 12 participants (Puchta & Potter, 2004) all at once, which enables the researcher to retrieve data from a group of respondents using less time compared to the personal interview.

2. Researchers are able to interact with participants

The focus group allows researchers to interact with participants directly, which enables the researcher to gain additional information. It also allows researchers to observe nonverbal responses which may carry information that supplements verbal responses.

3. Obtain large amounts of data in participants' own words

Researchers are able to obtain large amounts of often rich data in the respondents' own words by using the focus group.

4. Participants are able to interact with each other

The focus group allows respondents to interact with each other and build upon

the responses of other group members. For example, participants may agree or disagree on certain statements, and this leads to further discussion. This allows researchers to obtain data or ideas that might not have been revealed by using other research techniques. In the marketing or business context, the focus group is often used for brainstorming new ideas.

5. Easy to understand results

The results of the focus group can be easily interpreted because it is based on the casual conversation between participants and researchers.

### **Limitations of Focus Groups**

Aside from the above stated strengths of the focus group, this technique is not without some limitations. The main limitations are summarised below based on reviewing the works of Morgan (1997), Stewart and Shamdasnai (1990), Krueger (1994), Templeton, (1994), and Gibbs (1997), Morrison (1998).

1. Difficult to generalise the results

Due to the convenience sampling method of recruiting focus group participants and relatively smaller number of respondents, it can be argued that the results obtained by the focus group is difficult to generalise to the larger population.

2. Bias

The upside of the focus group is that a researcher can interact with participants and participants can interact with each other. However, this quality also

presents a negative side, which is potential bias. The bias may be the result of an inexperienced moderator's influence on participants' answers. Also, it could be the result of certain participants with strong personalities who dominate the discussion.

3. Large quantity of data which may have richness and depth

The open-ended nature of the focus group and the influence of many immediate situational factors generates a large amount of data. Although it is easy to understand an individual opinion, participants all express themselves differently. Therefore, it may be difficult to generalise and analyse the data.

4. Difficult to distinguish between an individual view and a group view

Groups sometimes appear more consistent than they are because individuals who disagree may choose to keep quiet.

The above discussion has introduced the strengths and limitations of the focus group, and this technique is only used to elicit primary information that can aid the main research. Due to the limitations of the focus group, the procedures of conducting the focus group meeting requires care. The following section discusses how the focus group has been conducted for this study.

### **Recruiting Participants**

Recruiting participants is a very vital component for the focus group to obtain desirable outcomes. According to Krueger (1994), there are some issues that need to be considered before recruiting participants for the focus group. The first thing

that needs to be done is to consider the main purpose of the research, the key topic, issues or problems about which information is needed. One can then decide how many participants are required and what types of participants are needed. One also needs to consider various practical issues, such as organising a time and place that is convenient for each participant. This next section presents a few of the considerations that were made in organising the focus groups conducted for this study.

#### 1. Pilot Focus Group

Litosseliti (2003) suggests that there are substantial benefits in conducting a pilot focus group prior to the actual session/s. Firstly, it allows the researcher to learn about the themes of the discussion and people's responses. Secondly, it helps to learn about the dynamics of the interactions between participants. Finally, it enables the researcher to make more informed decisions about the research design.

For the above reasons, this study also conducted a pilot focus group consisting of twelve respondents. The result of the pilot focus group suggested that a few changes would be needed: (1) the moderator (the researcher) should not provide too many opinions, or else the participants tend to just agree with the moderator's statements instead of providing their own views; (2) the researcher should provide photographs of dining places and meals to help participants generate more discussion. This is because people sometimes find it hard to describe things without something to refer to. Also, seeing the pictures can help them to remember the specific details of dining places or meals; (3) involve each person in the group. If participants are neglected too

long, they start to think about their own things instead of paying attention to the discussion.

## 2. Homogenous vs. Heterogeneous

Researchers who apply the focus group technique generally agree that participants should consist of people with certain common characteristics and similar levels of understanding of the topic (Morgan, 1997; O'Brien, 1993; Krueger, 1994). This is because people tend to be more open to those whom they perceive are similar. On the other hand, it is also important to include people with different characteristics to ensure the diversity of information (Gibbs, 1997; Litosseliti, 2003). It is then important for the focus group to consider the balance between similarity and difference.

## 3. Incentive

It is important to note here that all the participants were acquainted with the researcher prior the focus group. This was because participants felt more comfortable to divulge information to the researcher and the prior relationship helped the researcher know how to interpret participants' responses better. There were no monetary incentives given to the participants. However, the researcher did invite participants to dine out for two reasons: (1) to act as a form of incentive to the participants, and (2) to refresh participants' memory of the dining out experience.

## 4. Invitation

Researchers using the focus group as a research technique in their studies generally agree that the participants should not be given too much information

about the research details at the beginning of the focus group (Krueger, 1994; Litosseliti, 2003). This is because too much knowledge may affect participants' responses. For example, the discussion may be limited to what the researchers have presented in the invitation. Therefore, only basic information is given at the beginning of the focus group.

## **Pilot Study Analyses**

This section analyses the data collected via the semi-structured interview and the focus group along with reporting the outputs. The data is analysed by using the computer software package called 'CATPAC'. The reason for using computer software is to compensate the subjective interpretation of the researcher and 'difficult to generalise' nature of the qualitative research method.

### **CATPAC**

According to Woelfel (1998), CATPAC is a self-organizing artificial neural network that has been optimized for reading text. CATPAC is able to identify the most important words in a text and determine patterns of similarity based on the way they're used in text. It does this by assigning a neuron to each major word in the text. It then runs a scanning window through the text. The neuron representing a word becomes active when that word appears in the window, and remains active as long as the word remains in the window.

Technically, the pattern of connections among neurons is a complete paired comparison similarities matrix, and so lends itself to the most powerful and sophisticated of statistical analyses. Among these are the many clustering algorithms provided by CATPAC, as well as perceptual mapping provided by ThoughtView, and interactive clustering provided by Oresme.

The analyses of the data collected via both the personal interview and the focus group are performed by using CATPAC, which is able to produce tables,

Dendograms and a 'ThoughtView map' shown in Table 5-1 to Table 5-5 and Figure 5-1 to Figure 5-5 below. The procedure that the program takes to generate these tables and figures needs to be discussed here, because it involves a certain level of the researcher's subjective judgement. Firstly, the researcher chose exclusion words, such as 'I', 'me', 'do not' and some other frequently used words. Some excluded words are subjective, such as 'eat', 'prefer' and other food or perception related words. The main reason for excluding these words is because they appear too frequently and are associated with many other words. Secondly, words ending in, 'ed', 'ing', 'ful', 'ly' and so on, are all modified to match each other. For example, 'eating' and 'ate' are all reduced to 'eat'. Finally, the researcher did not change the parameter setting such as unique words, window size and slide side. These parameters affect how many unique words the software chooses, how many words it scans at a time, and how many word/s it slides on the next scan. The setting of these parameters may possess a minor influence on the results, and changing these parameters relies heavily on the experience of the researcher. After some experiments with different parameters, the researcher decided that the initial setting produced the most reasonable results.

### **Analysing the Results of Personal Interviews**

The qualitative results are analysed by using CATPAC. The personal interviews were conducted using a semi-structured format, where four pre-determined topics were introduced to participants to develop the discussions, such as:

1. What are the main reasons for you to dine out for a meal in a Chinese full-service restaurant?

The first topic is designed to understand what is/are the main reason/s for participants to dine out for a meal in a Chinese full-service restaurant. Due to the semi-structured nature of the personal interview, participants used their own words to express their opinions. This is potentially problematic in the process of quantifying the comments. For example, a comment such as ‘I do not know how to cook’ clearly refers to the inability to cook. However, a comment such as ‘I cannot cook as good as the chef can’ indicates both the inability to cook and desire to seek for food with good taste, good smell, good presentation and good quality. In the interpretation process, any comments that indicate more than one thing are considered as multiple comments. This process is then subject to the researcher’s personal judgement, which may vary by interpreter. The results of this interview topic have been summarised in Table 5-1, which consists of two values: (1) how many participants stated similar comments, and (2) overall frequencies of similar comments. The main reason for providing both values is to offer indications of different kinds of importance. For example, a comment that is stated by most participants but possesses lower frequencies may suggest that the comment is widely accepted as a reason for dining out but not a strong reason.

The results in Table 5-1 shows that 18 participants have made comments related to the different and wide range of food selections in a Chinese full-service restaurant when they dine out; similar comments have occurred 37 times. This suggests that range of food selection is a widely accepted reason to dine out, but only acts as a moderate incentive. Comments, such as ‘taste food’ and ‘easy’, are less popular, but arguably stronger reasons for dining out in a Chinese full-service restaurant. The reason that the researcher arrived at such a conclusion is because these comments

are stated by less participants, but with relatively higher frequencies.

**Table 5-1: Reasons for Dining Out**

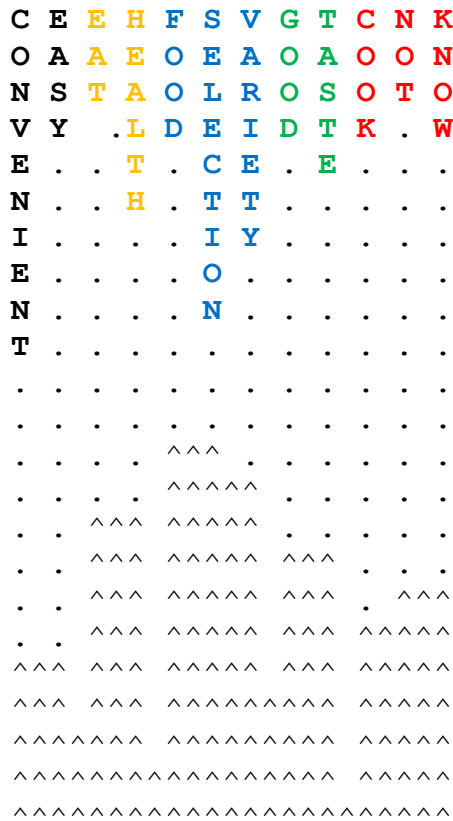
Comments	Participant	Frequency (times)
Different/variety of selection of food	18	37
Do not have time to cook	17	30
Do not know how to cook	16	15
Taste of food	12	32
Health reasons	10	15
Convenience	10	19
Easy	8	26
Do not want to cook	8	10
Just feel like dining out	6	9
Friends ask me to dine out	6	12
Business meals	4	4

A few issues require clarification. Firstly, the distinctions between the words ‘convenience’ and ‘easy’ are vague. The word ‘convenience’ generally refers to participants who are away from home and do not have a choice but to dine out in a restaurant (e.g. lunch time at work). However, the word ‘easy’ refers to participants who have a choice, but choose to dine out in a restaurant (e.g. too tired to cook). Secondly, because the interviewees generally consisted of young participants, there were fewer comments related to ‘business meals’. These results would be expected to be different if the participant sample was from a wider range of age groups.

The next step was to analyse the results of topic one (‘What are the main reasons for you to dine out for a meal in a Chinese full-service restaurant?’) by using the

Dendrogram analysis as shown below (Figure 5-1). The nature of the Dendrogram analysis is to count the most frequently used words and calculate the relationship between these words by examining the proximity of the words.

**Figure 5-1: the Dendrogram Analysis-Motivation for Dining Out**



Total Unique Words: 12

Window Size: 5

After some experiments with different parameters, the researcher decided to choose 12 unique words and window size 5 to produce the most reasonable results. The resulting Dendrogram contains certain similarities to the results in Table 5-1 that have been discussed above. For example, comments such as ‘KNOW’, ‘NOT’ and ‘COOK’ (the red group) are grouped together, which is consistent with the comment of ‘Do not have time to cook’ and the comment of ‘Do not know how to cook’ derived by the results in table 5-1. These comments are also closely related to

the comment ‘CONVENIENT’, which can explain the vague relationship between some of the comments. Some other reasons include ‘TASTE and GOOD’ (the green group), ‘VARIETY, SELECTION and FOOD’ (the blue group), ‘HEALTH and EAT’ (the yellow group) and ‘EASY’ (the black group), which were considered by the participants when they go out for a meal in a Chinese full-service restaurant.

2. What kind of food, ingredients, materials and other factors do you prefer/consider when you dine out for a meal in a Chinese full-service restaurant? And why?

Table 5-2 is the CATPAC content analysis of interview topic two (‘What kind of food, ingredients, materials and other factors do you prefer when you dine out for a meal in a Chinese full-service restaurant? And why?’). This was designed to help understand what kind of food, ingredients, materials and other factors the participants were more likely to consider when they dine out for a meal in a Chinese full-service restaurant. The comments can generally be categorised into three major types: (1) cuisine styles, (2) food quality, and (3) materials.

Table 5-2 shows that Chinese cuisine was the most popular style of cuisine amongst Chinese society; all of 20 participants made comments regarding Chinese style cuisine. Japanese-style cuisine, which 14 participants mentioned, is the second most popular cuisine followed by Taiwanese-style cuisine (8). Given that the personal interview was conducted based on Chinese participants, it is not surprising that Chinese style cuisine is the most popular.

The factor of ‘taste’ (35 times) was the most popular and frequently stated ‘food

quality' aspect in the comments, followed by 'presentation' (27 times), and 'smell' (14 times). The factor 'variety of food selection' was the second most important factor of 'food quality' (36 times), and based on its relatively high average frequency per participant, one can see that this was a strong element for people to consider when they dine out in a Chinese full-service restaurant. This suggests that one of the main reasons for people to dine out was to 'escape' boring, routine food. For the 'food material' aspect, the factor of 'chicken' (16 times) was the most popular food material amongst the participants, followed by the factors of 'pork' (19 times), 'fish' (24 times), 'other seafood' (17 times), 'beef' (11 times) and 'lamb' (6 times).

**Table 5-2: Preferred Food, Ingredients, Materials and Other Factors**

Comments	Participant	Frequency (times)	Comments	Participant	Frequency (times)
Chinese-style	20	39	Other seafood	8	17
Taste	18	35	Taiwan-style	8	15
Variety of food selection	16	36	Herb	8	14
Chicken	16	16	Ingredients	8	14
Pork	15	19	Smell	8	14
Health	14	29	Nutrition	6	10
Presentation	14	27	Spicy	6	10
Japanese-style	14	26	Cleanliness of food	4	9
Fish	12	24	Beef	4	11
Fresh food	8	17	Lamb	3	6

After some experiments with different parameters, the researcher decided to choose 16 unique words and a window size of 5 to produce the most reasonable results. The CATPAC Dendogram analysis of the results from interview topic two is below, which provides very similar findings compared to the analysis in Table 5-2 above as ‘Preferred Food, ingredients, materials and other factors when dining out in a Chinese full-service restaurant’.



cuisine and the 'TAIWAN' cuisine (the pink group) were more likely to be selected by the participants when they dined out. Figure 5-2 also indicates that 'SEAFOOD' products and 'FISH' (the yellow group) and 'PORK' and 'CHICKEN' (the black group) as 'food materials' were more likely to be eaten by the participants when dining out in a Chinese full-service restaurant.

One problem that needs to be noted here is that most participants used the name of the dish instead the materials (e.g. Japanese sushi instead of fish or seafood products), and as a result, the 'food material' category of comments does not appear in the Dendogram analysis.

### 3. How do you select a restaurant when you dine out?

The third interview topic is 'How do you select a restaurant when you dine out?'. The results of the topic three suggest some important determinants in the restaurant selection process, such as the quality of service, the quality of food, environment, atmosphere, and convenience etc. It is clear to see that the 'taste' (41 times) of food that restaurants provide was the most commonly accepted and most frequently stated determinant. There are also some non-popular comments, such as the factors of 'quantity of food' (37 times) and 'others decide' (14 times) involved in decision process. From the results in Table 5-3, one can conclude that the 'quality of food' (37 times), 'service' (38 times), 'physical evidence' (28 times), 'hygiene' (32 times) and 'ambience' (36 times) were the most powerful determinants in the restaurant selection when the participants dine out. The second most powerful determinants include the factors of 'feeling' (18 times), 'reputation' (25 times), and 'word of mouth/recommendations' (28 times). It is also clear to see that the convenience

factors, such as available car ‘parking’ (6 times) and ‘near home’ (8 times) were the weakest factors in determining the restaurant selection.

**Table 5-3: How to Select a Restaurant**

Comments	Participant	Frequency	Comments	Participant	Frequency
Taste	20	41	Others decide	8	14
Service	20	38	Quantity of food	7	12
Quality of food	20	37	Decoration	6	9
Physical evidence	20	28	Music	6	6
Hygiene	20	32	View	5	12
Ambience	19	36	Location	5	8
Smell	18	34	Near home	5	8
Feeling	18	18	Parking	4	6
Recommendation	17	28	Health	4	6
Reputation	17	25	Quick/Fast service	4	6
Attractive	9	16			

There are some issues that require clarification. Firstly, the comment of ‘physical evidence’ and the factor of ‘ambience’ are considered different in this study where the former refers to the tangible aspect (e.g. decoration) and the latter refers to the feeling aspect (e.g. elegant) of a restaurant. Secondly, many respondents use a variety of comments regarding different occasions. However, as a semi-structured interview, participants used various ways to express their perceptions about the influence of the occasion on restaurant selection. For example, a female participant stated that she wanted to look graceful in front of her boyfriend. Although this comment potentially suggests that ‘a romantic occasion’ impacts participant’s

restaurant selection, it also can be interpreted as ‘others decide’ influences a participant’s selection of restaurant. Finally, the researcher would like to strengthen the point again that frequency was only one aspect of importance. Those comments with low frequency may only mean that they are less obvious, not necessarily unimportant.

Figure 5-3 is the Dendogram analysis of interview topic three. After some experiments with different parameters, the researcher decided to choose 13 unique words and a window size of 5 to produce the most reasonable results. The words appearing in the Dendogram analysis are quite consistent with the analysis in the results shown in table 5-3. The food quality factors as the ‘PRESENTTION’ of food, the ‘SMELL’ of food and the ‘TASTE’ of food (the red group) were more important for the participants to consider when they dine out. The factors of ‘PHYSICAL’ and ‘EVIDENCES’ (the green group) are grouped together as tangible evidence of the restaurant, which are considered by the participants when they dine out. On the other hand, the factors of ‘AMBIENCE’, ‘HYGIENE’, ‘FEELING’, and ‘LOCATION’ (the black group) and the factors of ‘SERVICE’ and ‘QUALITY’ (the yellow group) are intangible factors of the quality of the restaurant that are assessed by the participants when they go out for a meal. The reputation of the restaurant and other people’s suggestions are also important for the participants to consider when they decide to dine out, evidenced by the results of ‘REPUTATION’ and ‘RECOMMENDATIONS’ (the blue group) as generated by CATPAC.



during movie’, and ‘travelling’ etc.

**Table 5-4: Influence Participants’ Decision to Dine Out**

Comments	Participant	Frequency
Away from home	20	36
Health food	19	33
<i>BU</i> (補)	19	23
A romantic meal	18	21
A social gathering meal	15	15
A meal with friends	15	15
Enjoy professional chef’s special dish	12	12
Enjoy somebody serving	12	12
Newly opened restaurants	10	10
A meal with family	10	10
No one to cook at home	9	12

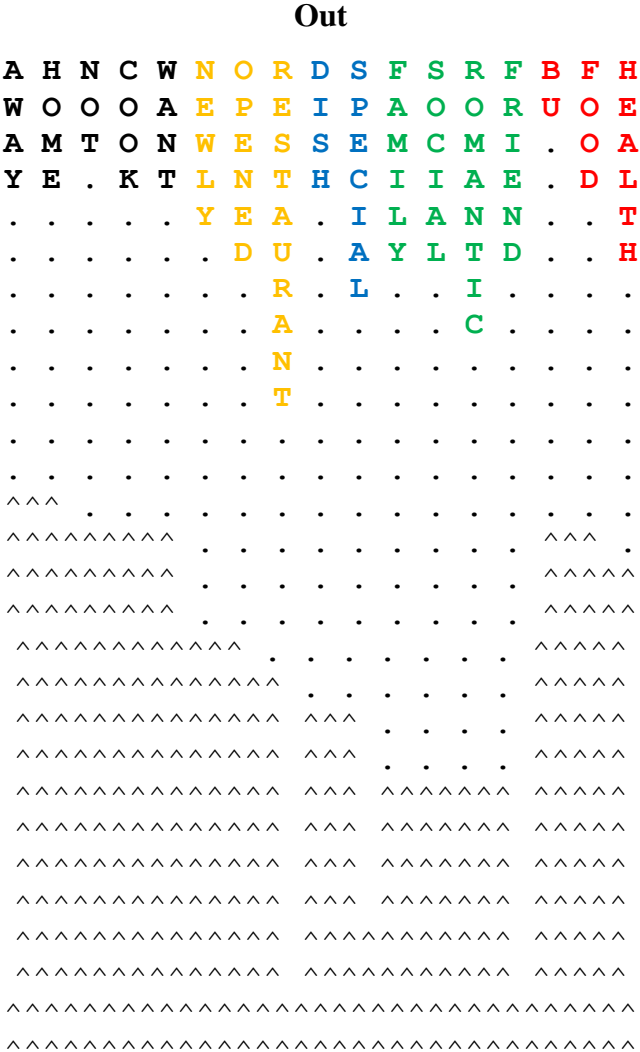
The factor of ‘Health food’ (33 times) and the factor of ‘BU’ (23 times), were also popular dining out influences especially during the winter time. Some of the obvious types of influence appear in Table 5-4 such as occasions, ‘a romantic meal’ (21 times), ‘a social gathering meal’ (15 times), ‘a meal with friends’ (15 times) and ‘a meal with family’ (10 times). The participants were also interested in the factor of ‘newly opened restaurants’ (10 times). Some skill based reasons also appeared in this table, such as ‘enjoy professional chef’s special dish’ (12 times).

Figure 5-4 is the Dendogram analysis of the fourth discussed topic of the factors which influence participants’ decision to dine out in a Chinese full-service restaurant. After some experiments with different parameters, the researcher

decided to choose 17 unique words and a window size of 5 to produce the most reasonable results. Again, some of the words that showed up in Table 5-4 above reappeared in this Dendrogram analysis. From this figure, it is clear to see the number of types of occasions for the participants to dine out. Furthermore, some groups suggest that when participants dine out for different occasions, they tend to consider different factors. For example, when the participants dine out in a Chinese full-service restaurant with their family, they are more likely to consider the factors that are related to health.

The results derived from the CATPAC Dendrogram analysis show a certain level of consistency. In Figure 5-4, the words of 'AWAY', 'HOME', 'NOT', 'COOK' and 'WANT' (the black group) are grouped together as the most powerful factors that influence the participants' decision to dine out in a Chinese full-service restaurant. Occasion is another powerful factor that can influence the participants' decision to dine out, such as a 'ROMANTIC' meal, a 'SOCIAL' meal, a meal with 'FAMILY' and a meal with 'FRIENDS' (the green group). Figure 5-4 also indicates that when the participants dine out in a Chinese full-service restaurant, they are more likely to decide to eat health related food, such as 'BU', 'HEALTH' and 'FOOD' (the red group). Some other influences such as, 'NEWLY', 'OPENED' and 'RESTAURANT' (the yellow group) and 'SPECIAL' and 'DISH' (the blue group) were considered by the participants when they dine out.

**Figure 5-4: the Dendrogram Analysis-Influence Participants' Decision to Dine**



Total Unique Words: 17

Window Size: 5

The above discussion of the personal interviews was used to design the questionnaire used for this study, and later compared with the findings of the questionnaire survey results.

## **Analysing the Results of the Focus Group**

The main reason for conducting the focus group was to brainstorm ideas and information from a group of participants. The main goal of the focus group was to allow the researcher to gain a brief understanding of the participants' perceptions about the dining out behaviour of Shanghai residents in a Chinese full-service restaurant, how they select a restaurant and why they select to dine out in a Chinese full-service restaurant.

The twelve participants of the focus group were selected from a pool of Chinese full-service restaurant managers or operators that the researcher is familiar with. The reason for selecting familiar participants for this study is because it is easier for the researcher to access them along with the fact that the researcher understands them which helped to minimize the possibility of misinterpretation. The down side is that the sample is arguably too homogeneous, which might affect the ability of the sample to represent the actual studied population. This is the reason that the study conducted a further survey using individual interviews.

The participants in the focus group were asked to provide their personal information individually so the participants could familiarise themselves with each other. The researcher then encouraged the participant to discuss the major issues as follows:

Dining out behaviour of Shanghai residents in Shanghai, how they select a restaurant when they dine out, and why they select to dine out in a Chinese full-service restaurant?

Instead of interviewing participants individually, the focus group interviews all participants together. This allows the participants to interact with each other in order to clarify individual positions (Jennings, 2001). The researcher also can encourage participants to debate if there are any disputes. The focus group is a very interesting technique because participants can hear each others' opinions, which can alter their initial perception. However, there are a few problems with using this method. There is a possibility that a certain individual could dominate the discussion. To ensure that this did not happen, the researcher needed to select the participants carefully. Firstly, the participants had to be willing to discuss the questions. Secondly, the researcher intervened if a person with a strong personality started to dominate the discussion. Furthermore, the participants of the focus group are only a small portion of the research population, which means there could be a possibility of bias. This can also be avoided by carefully selecting the participants.

The data collected via focus groups was analysed by using CATPAC, which produced a content result and a "thought map" shown in Table 5-5 and Figure 5-5 below.

After some experiments with different parameters, the researcher decided that the initial setting produced the most reasonable results. The unique words that were selected by the CATPAC software for the focus group analysis are shown in the Table 5-5 below.

The unique words selected from the focus groups were quite consistent with the interview results. Also consistent was the word 'taste' as the most frequently used

comment (58 times), which suggests that ‘taste’ of food in a restaurant is an irreplaceable attribute for success in the food and beverage industry. This is followed by the factors of food materials such as ‘seafood’ (51 times), the factors of the food quality as ‘attractive’ (36 times), ‘cleanliness’ of food (27 times), ‘smell of food’ (24 times), and the factors of cuisine styles, for example ‘Chinese-style’ cuisine (39 times) and ‘Japanese-style’ cuisine (27 times).

**Table 5-5: the Focus Group Results**

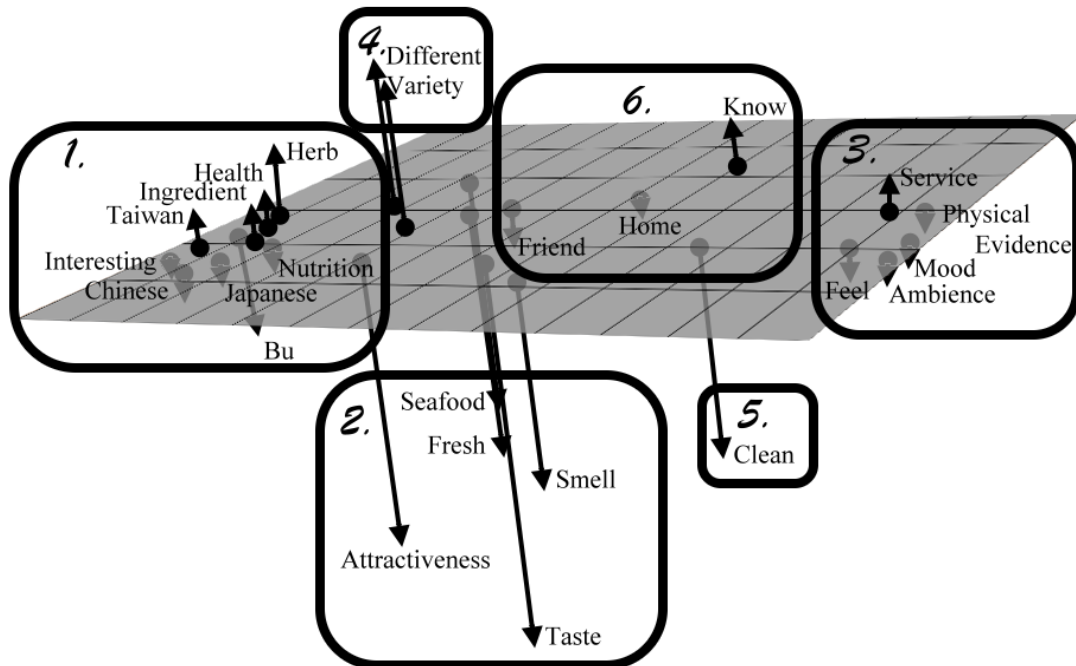
Unique Words	Frequency	Unique Words	Frequency
TASTE	58	SERVICE	19
SEAFOOD	51	FEEL	17
CHINESE-STYLE	39	HEALTHY	17
ATTRACTIVE	36	FRESH	15
MOOD	30	HOME	15
CLEANLINESS	27	TAIWAN-STYLE	15
JAPANESE-STYLE	27	HERB	14
INTERESTING	25	INGREDIENTS	14
SMELL OF FOOD	24	<i>BU</i> (補) (Chinese Health Diet)	13
AMBIENCE	23	KNOW	13
FRIEND	23	VARIETY SELECTION	12
NUTRITION	20	DIFFERENT	11
		PHYSICAL EVIDENCE	9

On the other hand, the focus group did produce additional results compared to the interview results. The participants in the focus group began to use affective comments, such as ‘mood’ (30 times) and ‘feel’ (17 times).

The next step was to analyse the results of the focus group by using CATPAC, which generated the Thought View Gram shown below (Figure 5-5), which counts the most frequently used words and calculates the relationship between these words by examining the proximity of the words.

By viewing Figure 5-5, one can immediately recognise six distinctive clusterings of words, some of which are relatively strong (e.g. group 1 and group 3), while others appear to be relatively weak (e.g. group 2 and group 6).

**Figure 5-5: Spatial Result – Focus group**



**Keys**

- 1. Health and Style
- 2. Food Quality
- 3. Physical Evidence and Affective Factors
- 4. Range of Choice
- 5. Cleanliness
- 6. Convenient

The main purpose for analysing these clusterings of words is to determine the underlying dimensions of these words, which can be used to aid and justify the questionnaire design. The discussions of each cluster of words follow:

#### 1. Health and Style

This cluster involves words such as ‘*Bu*’, ‘health’, ‘herb’, ‘nutrition’, ‘Chinese-style’, ‘Taiwan-style’, ‘Japanese-style’, ‘interesting’, and ‘ingredients’. As stated in Chapter Four, food therapy is a popular and commonly practised concept in Chinese food culture. The word ‘*Bu*’ is a Chinese term that describes using food to strengthen one’s body functions, which is often practised during the winter time. From Figure 5-5, it is clear to see that ‘*Bu*’ is grouped with words like ‘herb’, ‘ingredient’ and ‘nutrition’. Also grouped in this cluster are words, such as ‘Chinese-style’, ‘Taiwan-style’ and ‘Japanese-style’. It is not surprising that the factors of ‘Chinese-style’ and ‘Taiwan-style’ are closely related with ‘*Bu*’ related comments, since these two places follow the concept. The factor of ‘Japanese-style’, on the other hand, is also concerned with healthy dietary practices, but in a rather different way. For example, Japanese cuisine is likely to use fish that contains a high level of nutrition and ‘good fat’ as a cooking material. Although this study has made an association between ‘health’ and ‘style’ related comments, it is still unexpected that these two dimensions are grouped as one.

#### 2. Food Quality

This cluster of words includes ‘taste’, ‘smell’, ‘attractive’, ‘fresh’, and ‘seafood’. These words are mostly related to the quality of food, except the word ‘seafood’. One can surmise that the reason for ‘seafood’ to appear in this cluster is its close association with the word ‘fresh’. The cluster strength is relatively weak compared

to cluster 1. The possible explanation is that the ‘food quality’ comments can also be related to other dimensions, such as ‘health value’ (cluster 1) or ‘food hygiene’ (cluster 5), and so the words inside this cluster are stretched away from one another by the other clusters.

### 3. Physical Evidence and Affective Factors

This cluster of words includes ‘physical evidence’, ‘ambience’, ‘mood’, ‘feel’, and ‘service’. One can argue that this cluster is able to divide into two sub-groups, which are the physical evidence and affective factors. The main reason that these two dimensions are grouped together is that physical evidence is arguably the strongest contributor to the affective perceptions (e.g. elegant decoration and dining set, romantic environment). Also, the word ‘service’ can be found in this cluster, which can be explained by its ability to improve customers’ mood and feeling.

### 4. Range of Choice

This cluster only consists of two words: (1) different and (2) variety, which suggests the importance of the range of choice when people dine out for a meal in a restaurant. As a matter of fact, the interview results also indicate that one of the main reasons for participants to dine out is the ‘wide range of choice’ and ‘to have something they cannot cook’.

### 5. Cleanliness

This cluster is not actually a cluster for there is only one word that resides in it, which is ‘clean’. The reason that ‘clean’ stands by itself is probably due to the fact that clean may be associated to the ‘food quality’ as well as the ‘physical evidence quality’. Figure 5-5 supports this argument, because ‘clean’ is plotted between

cluster 2 as “food quality” and cluster 3 as “environment and affective factors”.

#### 6. Convenience

The words inside this cluster include ‘home’, ‘friend’ and ‘know’, which are scattered quite far apart from each other. Furthermore, these three words do not appear to possess thematic similarity that can be seen as an underlying premise. Although the researcher chose to select 25 unique words, it is possible to say that these three are not very meaningful in terms of providing a dimension. On the other hand, one can also argue that the word ‘know’ is associated with participants’ familiarity with restaurants, and ‘home’ indicates a restaurant close to home, which suggests an underlying dimension of ‘convenience’.

### **Comparing the Results of Personal Interviews and Focus Groups**

There are certain levels of consistency between the results of the personal interviews and the focus groups. For instance, the word ‘taste’ is frequently used in the data from both methods. Furthermore, the suggested dimensions derived from the results of both methods are relatively similar. There are however some differences, such as the fact that the use of affective comments in the focus group were more frequent than in the personal interviews. Also worthy of note is that interpreting the frequency count of word usage in the qualitative analysis requires extra caution, especially when utilising the computer software. For example, comments like ‘taste is important’ and ‘taste is NOT important’ can be counted as 2, despite the fact that the second opinion is a disagreement. The researcher can only interpret that ‘taste’ is an issue regarding the food quality. Without actually reviewing every ‘taste’ related comment, one cannot conclude whether it is

regarded as a positive or negative comment.

This chapter has relied heavily on computer software to analyse the qualitative data, which can provide relatively generalised results. On the downside, the computer software 'CATPAC does not reach the desired level of intelligence compared to a human being. Therefore, the software may misinterpret certain issues that might otherwise be considered important. Despite the limitation discussed above, the findings of this chapter do match the literature with the additional concept of '*Bu*'. The findings, along with literature, proved invaluable for aiding the questionnaire design, which will be presented in the next chapter.

## **Relating Pilot Study to the Quantitative Research Methods**

One of the reasons for conducting the qualitative research prior to the main study was to assist the research design of the main study. Therefore, it is important that this section discusses the relationships between the result of the pilot study and the research design of main study.

One thing that needs to be noted here is that the results of the qualitative survey are relatively disorganized compared to the results of the quantitative survey, because different respondents have different answers to each interview question. Therefore, the result is rather 'raw' and requires a certain amount of work before it can be incorporated into the research design. This is the reason that the qualitative research result works in conjunction with the literature in research design, which will be discussed later.

The study is based on the theory of push and pull factors. This theory is originally from another discipline, e.g. the tourism industry and consumer behaviour (refer to the literature in Chapter Two). However, the theory can also be applied to hospitality research and be used to explain dining out behaviour. Based on the theory, the study postulates that people are pushed by motivation to dine out and are pulled by the characteristics of a particular restaurant to make their decision. Based on this theoretical background, the study needed to design a questionnaire to obtain information regarding respondents' dining out motivation and their perception of restaurant/food selection. This part of discussion discusses these two parts of the questionnaire design, which is derived from the literature and the qualitative research results.

## **The Pilot Study and the Motivation Part of the Questionnaire**

The pilot study results suggest that the top 11 motives for dining out have been summarised in Table 5-1. These 11 motives can be categorised into: (1) range of choice, (2) lack of ability and time to cook, (3) taste, (4) convenience, (5) impulsive, (6) social reasons and (7) business purposes. In comparing the findings to the studies of Lewis (2006) and Jones (1996d) mentioned in Chapter Two, one can notice a certain level of resemblance. For instance, the literature concludes that one of the dining out motives is “convenience”. Furthermore, the “premium and indulgence” motive in Lewis’ study is similar to the “taste” comment in the pilot study. Moreover, according to Jones (1996), the “labour” motive is equivalent to “lack of ability and time to cook” of the pilot study, to a certain extent.

There are, of course, some differences between the pilot study findings and the literature. One distinct difference is that both Lewis and Jones mentioned certain cultural and ethnical aspects of dining out motives that are not present in Table 5-1. However, cultural and ethnical comments can be found in Figure 5-5, which are the results derived from the focus group part of the pilot study. Since the focus group was not designed specifically to examine respondents’ dining out motives, the study concludes that cultural and ethnical elements are a valid predictor for food selection, but not necessarily a part of the motivation dimension. This is the reason that in Figure 1-3, research framework, culture is separated from dining out motivation and exists as a dimension in its own right. In another words, this study postulates that culture is a factor that affects dining out motives, but is not one of the motives. The study believes this arrangement is much more meaningful than previous studies where culture is regarded as nothing more than another category of dining

out motive. However, one can argue that the culturally related dining out motive can be grouped with “wider range of choice”. Thus the past studies never really examined the role that “culture” played in dining out motivation and restaurant/food selection.

Despite the separation of “culture” from the dining out motive dimension, the conclusion is fairly similar to past studies. This study thus uses the results of the pilot study in conjunction with the literature to generate eight categories under the motive for dining out dimension, which are: (1) impulse, (2) convenience, (3) labour, (4) good time, (5) social, (6) indulgence, (7) health, and (8) variety (shown in Figure 1-3). The eight categories of motives are then further elaborated into 22 questions, which are contained in the section 4 of the questionnaire as follows (Table 5-6).

**Table 5-6: Motivation for Dining Out (Summary)**

Away from home and unable to cook
Have to work or study and unable to cook
To discuss business deals
To spend some quality time with my family
To spend some quality time with my friends
A restaurant's advertisement encouraged me to come
Eating something different from usual
Large selection of foods to choose from
Unavailability of specific equipment to cook specific dish
Celebration in a restaurant
Some foods are difficult to prepare
Some nutritious foods such as deep sea fish
I don't like washing dishes
I enjoy being relaxed
I enjoy the food of different regions
I enjoy being served
To try a newly opened restaurant
Just feel like dining out
Food as therapy (Bu)
Special features of a restaurant
Socialise with customers, partners or workmates
Restaurant has a special offer

### **The Pilot Study and the Food Selection Part of the Questionnaire**

This part of the pilot study was performed to understand how respondents select restaurants and food when they dine out. The results are shown in Table 5-2 and Table 5-3 for the food and restaurant selection respectively. From the results in Table 5-2 it can generally be concluded that respondents select food based on three categories: (1) food styles, (2) food quality, and (3) materials. From the results in Table 5-3 it can generally be concluded that respondents select a restaurant based on six categories: (1) food quality, (2) restaurant environment, (3), reputation, (4) convenience, (5) health, and (6) social reasons. As stated in the beginning of the section, the qualitative results are somewhat disorganised. One can see that many of the comments also appear in the analysis of Table 5-1, which aimed to examine dining out motives. For instance, convenience and health are both a part of the dining out motive dimension. Therefore, the study further organises the results in table 5-2 and Table 5-3 into three types namely: (1) food, (2) place, and (3) people, which is consistent with the literature in Chapter Two. Furthermore, some researchers (e.g. Harding, et. al., 2004) suggest that perceptions can be categorised into cognitive and affective. Therefore, the study divides the “food” dimension into intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of the food qualities. Also, the “environment” is further divided into ambience and the physical evidence as Figure 5-5 suggests. Finally, “people” can also be further divided into the restaurant personnel and other customers. These categories are then further elaborated into the 54 questions that appear in section 5 of the questionnaire as follows (Table 5-7a, b).

**Table 5-7a: Food Selection for Dining Out (Summary)**

The taste of food
The smell of food
The hygiene of food
The presentation/appearance of the food
The uniqueness of food
The freshness of food
The nutritious value of food
The herbal ingredients used in the food preparation
The level of calories the food contained
The level of carbohydrates the food contained
The level of protein the food contained
The level of vitamins the food contained
The level of fat the food contained
The level of minerals and microelements the food contained
The level of fibre the food contained
The level of carotene the food contained
The level of energy the food can provide
Food that can prevent common sickness
Food that can slow aging
Food that can maintain beauty
Food that can help maintain a slim body
Food that can nourish or regulate body back to harmony
I choose the food because it can nourish vitality
Food that can help the flow of Qi in one's body
I choose the food because it is good for heart
I choose the food because it is good for spleen
I choose the food because it is good for liver
I choose the food because it is good for lungs

**Table 5-7b: Food Selection for Dining Out (Summary)**

I choose the food because it is good for kidney
Dining place appeals to people that share similar social status
Expensive raw materials used
The food has exotic flavour
The food has special way of being served (hot pot, BBQ)
The food does not contain artificial ingredients
The food is not cooked with too much oil
The nice view outside the window of restaurant
The comfortable chairs in the restaurant
High quality lighting
High quality decoration
Good dining ambience
Good dining environment
Hygiene and cleanliness of restaurant
Attractive ornamental decoration
Nice background music
TV to watch
Skilled staff to provide good service
The staff has a nice manner
The staff is knowledgeable about the food
The staff explain things well
The staff dress appropriately
The staff can respond to my call quickly
The staff remember me
Nice place to have conversation with my friends
Other guests behave accordingly
The price of the meal is acceptable

## **Conclusion**

This chapter has discussed the results obtained from the pilot study based on qualitative research methods, including semi-structured interviews and the focus groups. The chapter has obtained useful information that helped with the design of the questionnaire for this study. Chapter Six as 'Quantitative Research Design' will discuss the research design that underpins this study with emphasis on the quantitative research component.

# Chapter Six

## Quantitative Research Design

### Introduction

This chapter discusses the research design that underpins this study with emphasis on the quantitative research component. The study primarily uses quantitative research tools with an intention to produce generalisable results that can offer insights to the managers/operators of the food and beverage industry in Shanghai. The literature shows that most researchers are from western societies, however a research design based on the literature from western societies may not be suitable for an application in eastern societies, especially in China. This involves additional methods such as phenomenology to enable the construction of new meanings that is based on the Chinese society. The nature of phenomenology is that it invites researchers to set aside previous knowledge and understanding (Husserl, 1997) and allow the phenomena to present itself (Crotty, 1996). The qualitative research component in the pilot study helped to generate a new construct that is based on the Chinese society as outlined in Chapter Five.

The first section of this chapter provides the research methodology of this study, including the research framework, research objectives, and research hypotheses. This chapter presents the research design and includes the methods implemented for the survey regarding the questionnaire design, the sampling method, and the analyses undertaken for the quantitative research. The results from the qualitative

research have been incorporated in the discussion in this chapter.

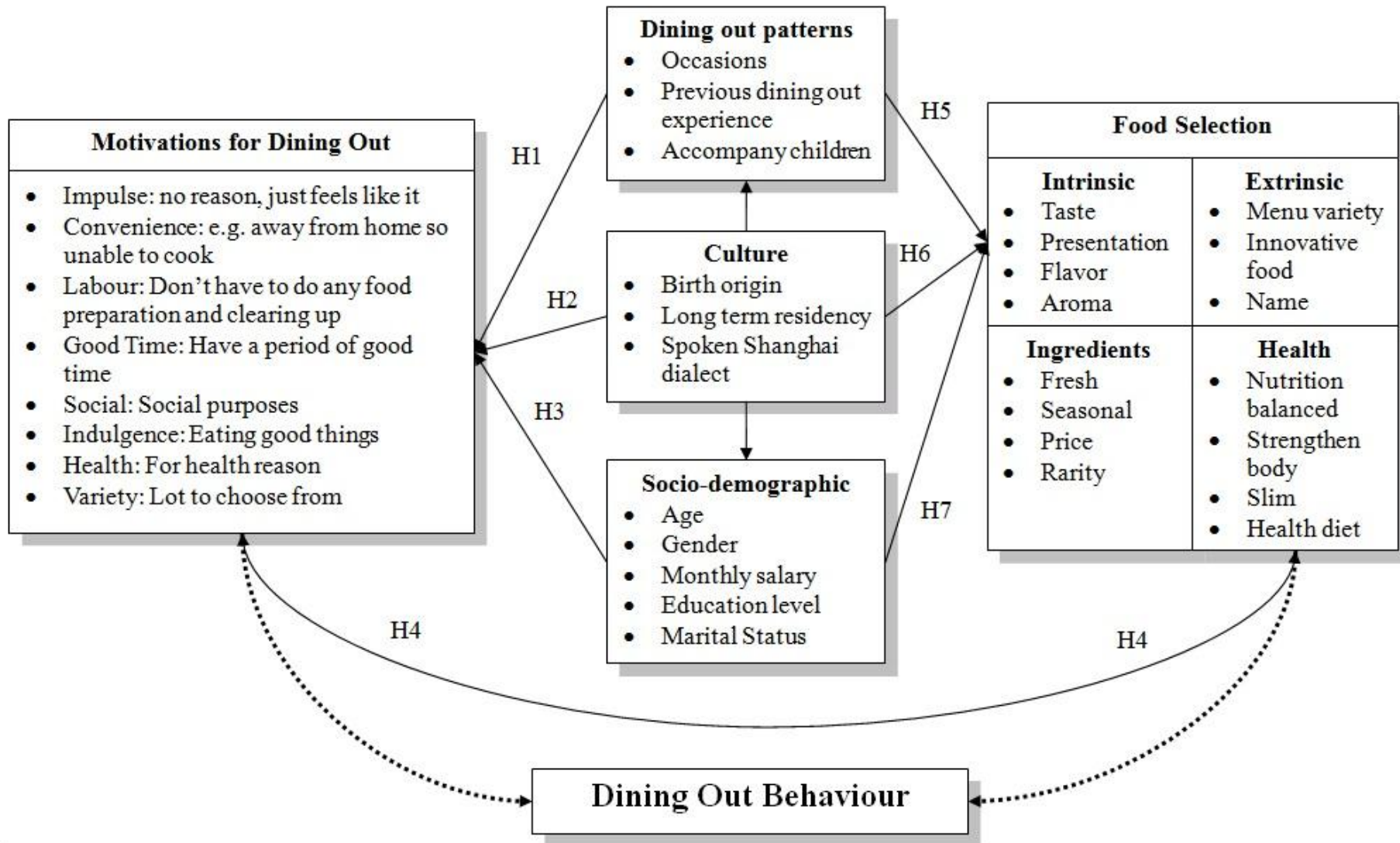
## **Research Framework, Objectives and Hypotheses**

In this section, the methodology is presented through the discussion of the research framework, research objectives and research hypotheses.

### **Research Framework**

As stated in Chapter One, this study is motivated by the desire to understand the dining out behaviour of Shanghai residents in Chinese full-service restaurants in Shanghai, China. Figure 6-1 shows the proposed relationships between the determinants and dining out behaviour. Based on the literature, the background of Chinese food culture and the pilot study (Chapter Two, Chapter Four and Chapter Five respectively), this study proposes the following model to be tested.

Figure 6-1: Research Framework



## **Research Objectives and Hypotheses**

The goal of this study is to understand the dining out behaviour of Shanghai residents in Chinese full-service restaurants in Shanghai. There are two research questions: (1) what motivates Shanghai residents to dine out? and (2) what sort of food do they like to select when they dine out in a restaurant? To answer these questions, the following research objectives and hypotheses are proposed.

### **Objective 1: Understanding factors that impact Shanghai residents' dining out motivation.**

H1: Dining out patterns impact Shanghai residents' dining out motivation.

H2: Cultural elements impact Shanghai residents' dining out motivation.

H3: Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents' dining out motivation.

### **Objective 2: Understanding the relationship between dining out motivation and Shanghai residents' food selection behaviour.**

H4: Dining out motivation impacts food selection behaviour of Shanghai residents.

### **Objective 3: Understanding the impact of cultural elements, socio-demographic variables and dining out behaviour to food selection behaviour.**

H5: Dining out patterns impact Shanghai residents' food selection behaviour.

H6: Cultural elements impact Shanghai residents' food selection behaviour.

H7: Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents' food selection behaviour.

The idea that this study proposes is that people's behaviour is governed by their social, cultural and economical background. These variables impact how often, and why people dine out. For example, as gender equality becomes more prominent in Chinese society, most families now have both parents/adults working, which implies having less time for preparing meals. As a result, more and more people dine out on a regular basis. Furthermore, this study hypothesizes that these variables and dining out motives impact people's food selection behaviour when they dine out in a restaurant. Evidence provided to support these hypotheses would enable this study to achieve its goal of understanding the dining out behaviour in Shanghai. In order to accomplish this goal, the research methods such as the questionnaire design, sampling, and the analyses are discussed.

## **Quantitative Research Methods**

This section presents the main research methods that are used in this study, which includes the questionnaire design, the sampling method and the analysis. The discussion of research methods is related to the research hypotheses and objectives.

### **Questionnaire Design**

The questionnaire for the main study was designed based on the literature, Chinese food culture and the pilot study. The questionnaire has five major parts: (1) dining out patterns; (2) cultural orientation; (3) personal background; (4) motivation for dining out; and (5) food selection. These parts correspond to the research framework that is shown in Figure 6-2, which indicates the proposed relationship between these parts.

## 1. Dining Out Patterns

This part of the questionnaire is designed to collect information about the occasions for which the respondents choose to dine out, and the frequency of their dining out. The main reason for the inclusion of occasions is because the literature and the results of the pilot study suggest that occasions impact how people perceive their dining out experiences or behaviour. Also, previous research (Noone et al, 2007; Kimes and Chase, 1998) in restaurant related fields also supports this claim. This information can be used to test against motivation and the food selection part of the information through tests of variance. The results will provide evidence to support or negate hypotheses H1 and H5.

## 2. Cultural Orientation

This section is designed to collect information that allows this study to classify the sample into different sub-groups based on their cultural orientation. As stated in Chapter Four, people from different parts of China have different cultural backgrounds and dining habits. Since the 19<sup>th</sup> century, Shanghai has become a multi-national hub of finance and business and also has attracted a lot of migrants, both nationally and internationally, which means that its food culture might be exposed to the influence of other cultures as well. The information collected in this section allows this study to capture these differences. Based on previous research such as Demory-Luce et al. (2005), and Bojanic and Xu (2006), this study designed culture-related questions to determine the level of acculturation of the respondents. It is believed that behaviour such as utilising local media and speaking the local dialect can be used to indicate how well a foreigner adapts himself to a local society. On the other hand, these indicators can also be used to measure the levels of exposure of a local resident to foreign cultures. From the

information collected, this study can classify the sample into sub-groups and use Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to test whether different ethnic groups possess different dining out motives and food selection behaviour. This part of the analysis will enable this study to support or negate hypotheses H2 and H6.

### 3. Personal Background

This part of the questionnaire is designed to collect basic social and demographical information about the respondents. The information can be used to analyse whether socio-demographic variables affect dining out behaviour including motives and food selection behaviour. This allows the study to support or negate hypotheses H3 and H7. Furthermore, these questions can also be used to describe the sample and compare it with the official statistics, thereby testing the degree to which the sample is thought to be representative of the Shanghai population.

### 4. Motivation for Dining Out

Motivation is elicited from eight dimensions that were generated from the literature discussed in Chapter Two. These dimensions include impulse, convenience, labour, good time, social, indulgence, health and variety. The questions in this part include a 7 point Likert scale in an attempt to investigate what is the strongest motive for Shanghai residents to dine out in a restaurant. As stated above, this pool of information can be used to test hypotheses H1, H2 and H3, which will enable the study to achieve its Objective 1. Also, this study will conduct a cluster analysis to classify respondents based on dining out motives, which can then be tested against food selection behaviour. This will allow the study to support or negate hypothesis H4 and Objective 2.

## 5. Food Selection Behaviour

Questions regarding food selection behaviour are generated from four dimensions, which have been discussed in Chapter Two. These dimensions include intrinsic, extrinsic, ingredients and health. As stated above, this pool of data can be used to support or negate hypotheses H4, H5, H6 and H7, which will allow the study to accomplish Objective 2 and 3. The study also uses factor analysis to evaluate whether the underlying dimensions derived from the data are consistent with the one proposed model which is derived from the literature (Chapter Two).

### **Sampling Method**

The questionnaire survey was administrated in full service restaurants in Shanghai. The researcher and other surveyors approached customers when they had finished their meal. This is because: (1) customers are not interrupted during their meal, and (2) customers have experience with the service and food in the restaurant. The questionnaire was only given to the customers who agreed to participate in the survey, and participants were given a discount for their meal as an incentive to participate. Some issues needed to be considered to ensure the ability of the sample to represent the actual research population. There are stated below:

#### 1. Selection of Survey Locations

This study intended to collect approximately 2,000 responses from 42 Chinese full-service restaurants in Shanghai. The 42 Chinese full-service restaurants selected include different types and styles, such as Shanghai Cuisine, Guangdong Cuisine, Zhejiang Cuisine etc, to allow the study to capture a broad selection of full-service restaurants to assess dining out behaviour. The sampling approach for

this study had a dual approach: The first step was to select the restaurants that this study intended to survey; the second step was to select samples from each restaurant, which is discussed next.

The 42 restaurants were selected from the PuDong New Area and the PuXi area of Shanghai. The study only focused on these two areas because of their historical and commercial value, which was discussed in Chapter Four. One of the reasons was that other districts, except the PuXi area, were assigned as parts of Shanghai in the late 1980s. One more thing that needs clarification here is the PuDong New Area that this study refers to is the old district. Since 2009, the NanHui district merged into the PuDong New Area. The reason for the study to use the old administrative borders is because the new one was established recently. The administrative borders may change overnight, but human behaviour usually does not. Hence the old border should work better considering that the goal of this study is to study human behaviour, specifically dining out behaviour. In Chapter Four, the discussion suggested a few places that are famous for their dining out and commercial activities, so this is where the researcher concentrated efforts. The reason for concentrating on popular dining out places was simply to ensure the size of the sample. Since these areas are the busiest and can undoubtedly attract people from all over Shanghai or even other places, it should be able to reasonably represent Shanghai's dining out trends. Table 6-1 shows where and how many restaurants were selected.

**Table 6-1: Restaurants in Each District**

Districts	No. of Restaurants
HuangPu (黄浦)	20
LuWan (卢湾)	6
JingAn (静安)	4
XuHui (徐汇)	8
PuDong (浦东)	4

The 42 restaurants were selected from a guide book produced by the Shanghai Tatler (2009). The guide book is thorough enough to provide details regarding the style of the restaurants. The study was then able to select restaurants that include most of the cuisine styles stated in Chapter Three. Table 6-2 below shows the selected restaurants and their cuisine styles. It is noted from the table below that Shanghai's top restaurants contain many cuisine types, which further strengthens the point that Shanghai possesses a complex and multi-cultural orientation. Selecting restaurants with different cuisine styles also strengthened the validity of the sampling because it ensured that most of Shanghai's restaurant types, in terms of cuisine styles, were included in the survey.

**Table 6-2: Restaurants and Associated Cuisine Types**

Cuisine Styles	No. of Restaurants (Refer to the Chapter Four)
Shanghai (沪)	16
Sichuan (川)	2
Zhejiang (浙)	1
Jiangsu (苏)	5
Beijing (京)	1
Shandong (鲁)	1
Hunan (湘)	1
Guangdong (粤)	15

2. Selection of Respondents

In theory, systematic sampling is the ideal way to choose participants because of its ability to provide each unit of the population being studied an equal chance of being included (Jennings, 2001). However, it is difficult for a field survey to adopt some of the systematic sampling methods. This is because systematic sampling methods require some ideas of what the actual population is in order to prepare a systematic generating process. For example, computer, lottery and name methods all require a list of all the members in the research population to generate a systematic sample list (Saeantakos, 1998). This was not viable for this study since the research population of this study is too large and might be difficult to identify. Further, this study also argues that systematic sampling is ‘wishful thinking’. If an identified person refused to participate, the researcher has no choice but to not use this person, which may affect the results. For example, with a mail survey, the initial mailing address is generated systematically but only a certain type of people, for example, the elderly population with more free time, is more likely to choose to return the survey. Therefore the attempt to involve every age group would be in vain. One way to surmount this problem is to adopt convenience sampling

methods while keeping certain selection criteria in mind. The pilot study suggested that people between the ages of 20 and 50 are more likely to dine out for a variety of reasons. Therefore, the main focus of the survey targeted this age group. Also, this study tried to maintain an equal number of male and female respondents. Furthermore, the researcher tried to spot the decision makers, if customers came as a group, and invite him/her to participate. Despite all the considerations made on the selection of participants, the sampling is still based on a convenience method.

### **Quantitative Analyses**

The main technique that this study relied on to analyse the data was statistical computer software SPSS 16.0. This section briefly describes the analyses that were undertaken and the reasons for them.

#### **1. Frequency Analysis**

This analytical method was considered helpful in describing the characteristics of the sample. This method is capable of providing some basic information, such as the frequency and percentage, which can be used to analyse part one (occasions) and part three (social demographics) of the questionnaire. The findings of the frequency analysis provide general understanding as to what the dining out population of Shanghai is.

#### **2. Descriptive Analysis**

Descriptive analysis allowed the researcher to calculate the mean and the standard

deviation, which was applied to all the Likert style questions. The findings of the descriptive analysis in part four (motivation) allowed this study to understand the strength of each dining out motive in Shanghai. The findings of the descriptive analysis in part five (food/restaurant selection) of the questionnaire allowed this study to understand the importance of each food selection criteria in determining the quality of food and the restaurant service. Furthermore, the descriptive analysis was also applied to part two to understand the cultural orientation of respondents.

### 3. Independent Sample *t*-test and ANOVA

These methods allowed the researcher to divide the sample into numbers of sub-groups based on certain variable/s and compare mean differences between each sub-group. For example, independent sample *t*-test can be used to test gender influence on the importance attributed to each dining out motive. The idea is to divide the sample into male and female groups, and calculate their means for the questions in part four (motivation) of the questionnaire. Thereafter, comparing the means of both male and female groups allowed the study to determine whether they possess significantly different motives. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) works in a similar manner, but the sample is divided into more than two groups. This is ideal for classification based on variables such as age groups, monthly income, etc.

### 4. Factor Analysis

Factor analysis allowed the study to summarise part four (motivation) and part five (food/restaurant selection) of the questionnaire into a few underlying dimensions. The dimensions were then compared to the initially proposed dimensions in an

attempt to confirm or disconfirm past findings.

#### 5. Cluster Analysis

Cluster analysis was used to classify the sample based on answering pattern for the questions in part two, part four and part five of the questionnaire. This means the classification is based on cultural orientation, dining out motives and food selection behaviour. The results in the culture cluster were further analysed by the ANOVA test. The findings of the cluster analysis were also helpful for the segmentation strategy.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter has provided the research framework of this study, research main objectives, and research hypotheses; and, this chapter has also presented the research design that includes the methods implemented for the survey regarding the questionnaire design, the sampling method, and the analyses undertaken for the quantitative research. The purpose of this chapter is to provide basic information about the methods used and the underlying concept of this study. Some of the details of the findings will be further elaborated during the analysis stage.

# **Chapter Seven**

## **Analysis One:**

### **Description of Sample Characteristics**

#### **Introduction**

The main purpose of this chapter is to describe the characteristics of the sample and it consists of three major sections. The first section introduces the dining out patterns of the sample. The second section of this chapters deals specifically with the cultural orientation of the sample and attempts to classify the sample into sub-categories based on their cultural orientation. The third section of this chapter describes the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample. These socio-demographic characteristics should, in theory, show an influence in the dining out behaviour (motives and food selection) of the respondents, which will be tested and described in the next chapter.

Before commencing the description of the sample some issues regarding the process of the survey need to be examined. Although the survey mainly relied on convenience sampling, measures are taken by the researcher to ensure the sample was representative of the population (i.e. Shanghai residents). Some issues are noted here, for example, people who dine out for a meal for business purposes mostly dine in a separate room in a restaurant, which makes accessing them difficult. They often have a prestigious social status, and are more likely to refuse to participate in the survey. As a result, the respondents who dine out for a meal with a 'business purpose' reported in this study may not fully reflect the actual situation. However, the overall sample size is large enough for subsequent analyses.

## Dining Out Patterns

This section reports the dining out patterns of the respondents, which includes (1) occasions for dining out, (2) frequencies of dining out and (3) whether children accompany the respondents.

### Occasions for Dining Out

Table 7-1 summarises the results of the selection of dining out occasions by the respondents when they dine out for a meal in a Chinese full-service restaurant. Listed in the first column of Table 7-1 are the dining out occasions, including ‘Dining out with friends’, ‘A business meal’, ‘Dining out with work colleagues’, ‘Dining out with children’, ‘A romantic meal’, ‘Celebration’, ‘Dining out with elders’ and ‘Impulse’. Listed in the second column of Table 7-1 are the numbers of respondents for each of the occasions. Listed in the third column of Table 7-1 is the percentage of the respondents for the occasions.

**Table 7-1: Occasions of Dining Out**

<b>Occasions</b>	<b>No.</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Dining out with friends	570	27.1
A business meal	314	14.9
Dining out with work colleagues	287	13.6
Dining out with children	253	12.0
A romantic meal	231	11.0
Celebration	161	7.7
Dining out with elders	152	7.2
Impulse	135	6.4
Total	2103	100.0

The results presented in Table 7-1 indicate that ‘Dining out with friends’ is the most common reason for dining out with 570 responses or 27.1 percent. The second most common dining out occasion is for ‘A business meal’ (314 responses or 14.9 percent), followed by ‘Dining out with work colleagues’ (287 responses or 13.6

percent), both of which are work related. As stated before, because the respondents dining out for a meal with a business reason were more difficult to approach, the results here may be under-reported.

The least popular common occasion is by 'Impulse' (135 responses or 6.4 percent); these are the customers who dine out for no specific reason. According to the literature, customers who are motivated by 'impulse' to dine out often visit a restaurant at a non-meal hour. Since this survey is conducted during the meal-hour, it is likely that the 'impulse' respondents would be under-represented. Another issue that is worthy of note is that people may dine out in a restaurant for multi-purposes, for which the questionnaire is not structured or designed to ask. The main reason for restricting the respondents to selecting one answer for each question is to avoid complicating the dataset.

### **Frequencies of Dining Out**

This section reports the frequencies of dining out for a meal in a Chinese full-service restaurant in the past three months as reported by respondents in this study. The first column of Table 7-2 lists the frequencies of dining out in the past three months, ranging from 1 time to 10 or more than 10 times. Listed in the second column of Table 7-2 is the numbers of respondents for each of the frequencies and the third column lists the percentage of respondents for each frequency of dining out.

**Table 7-2: Frequencies of Dining Out in the past Three Months in a Chinese Full-Service Restaurant (In Percentage Order)**

<b>Frequency</b>	<b>No.</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
5	443	21.1
4	348	16.5
6	233	11.1
3	189	9.0
7	183	8.7
2	169	8.0
8	157	7.5
10 or more	136	6.5
1	127	6.0
9	118	5.6
Total	2103	100.0

Table 7-2 indicates that most of the respondents reported dining out 5 times, 4 times and 6 times in a Chinese full-service restaurant in the past three months, with 443 responses, 348 responses and 233 responses or 21.1 percent, 16.5 percent and 11.1 percent respectively. On the other hand, there were only 118 respondents (5.6 percent) and 136 respondents (6.5 percent) who dined out for a meal in a Chinese full-service restaurant over 9 times in the past three months. There is a need to note that this study mainly focused on dining out behaviour in full-service restaurants in Shanghai, where the cost of products and service are relatively higher than other food establishments such as a fast food meals. It is almost impossible that anyone would be able to dine out in a Chinese full-service restaurant on a daily basis. Taking into account the above fact, it is reasonable to assume that 10 times or more of dining out in a Chinese full-service restaurant within a three month period can be classified as a very high frequency.

### **Accompanied by Children (under 18 years old)**

Table 7-3 combines the dining out occasions with whether or not the respondents are accompanied by children when they dine out in a Chinese full-service restaurant. The dining out occasions are listed in the first column of Table 7-3, with the respective answers of the respondents in the subsequent columns.

**Table 7-3: Accompanied by Children in a Chinese Full-Service Restaurant**

<b>Occasions</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>Total</b>
A business meal	-	314	314
Impulse	-	135	135
Dining out with children	253	-	253
Dining out with elders	-	152	152
Dining out with work colleagues	-	287	287
Dining out with friends	-	570	570
A romantic meal	-	231	231
Celebration	161	-	161
Total	414	1689	2103

The results in table 7-3 show that the majority of respondents do not take their children with them, except for the occasion of ‘Dining out with children’ (253 responses) and the occasion of ‘Celebration’ (161 responses).

## **Cultural Orientation**

This section introduces the cultural orientation of the sample, which is to assess the cultural origin of the respondents and how they adapt to local (Shanghai) culture. The main purpose of gathering information on the respondents' cultural background is to provide data that allow testing as to whether the cultural background affects dining out behaviour or not. Furthermore, as stated in Chapter Three regarding Chinese Food Culture, Shanghai is a place with mixed cultures, indicating that the people in Shanghai may possess a multi-cultural orientation. The responses to the cultural parts of the questionnaire are able to examine these issues.

The word 'acculturation' is used to describe foreigners adapting themselves to the local culture. Past research in the hospitality field indicates that the level of acculturation may affect the food practices and preferences of an individual (Sukalakamala and Brittin, 2006; Maamoun, Sucher & Hollenbeck, 2007; Kremmyda, et. al., 2008). Different individuals are subject to different degrees of acculturation (Kremmyda, et. al., 2008). In other words, a foreigner may choose to retain their original cultural orientation or adopt the local culture, or a mixture of both. Therefore, it is important to measure the level of acculturation of the respondents in this study. There are a number of studies which utilised different indicators to measure the level of acculturation. For instance, some researchers (e.g. Lv, et al, 2004) simply use the length of residency and language proficiency as acculturation indicators. Some other researchers (Satia, et al., 2001; Demory-Luce, et al., 2005) use food intake and media preferences to measure the level of acculturation. Certain researchers (Suinn, et al., 1987; Kim, et al. 1996) allowed the respondents to self-identify their level of acculturation. Most of these surveys have targeted Asian people (e.g. Chinese, Korean) in other countries (e.g. USA, Canada), or European people in Western societies. This makes some of the indicators easier to define. For example, Satia et al. (2001) uses food intake as an acculturation indicator, which has classified food into Chinese food and American food. It is easy

for people to distinguish between the above-mentioned two food types. This study, however, dealt with Chinese people who are from different regions around China where it may be slightly more difficult to classify food types. For example, it is considered by Chinese food researchers (Satia, et al., 2001; Demory-Luce, et al., 2005) that food from the provinces of Zhejiang and Jiangsu are highly similar to the food in Shanghai, while Shanghai people are less likely to accept the spicy food of those regions. It was difficult for the researcher to decide whether to group food from Shanghai with that of Zhejiang and Jiangsu or not for this study. The final decision was to separate the cuisines that allowed the test to examine whether some cuisine types share statistical similarities.

Therefore, this study includes the following as acculturation indicators:

- (1) Birth places of respondents
- (2) Language proficiency and media preferences
- (3) Cuisine preferences
- (4) Cooking method preferences
- (5) Food material preferences
- (6) Taste preferences

This section examines these seven indicators and whether they can or cannot be used to measure the level of acculturation in this study.

### **Place of Birth**

Table 7-4 summarises the places of birth of the respondents in this study. The different birth places for the respondents are listed in the first column of the table, which includes Shanghai, the Zhejiang province, the Fujian province, the Jiangsu province, the Sichuan province, the Shandong province, the Guangdong province, the Anhui province and the Hunan province. Listed in the second column and the third column of Table 7-4 are the numbers of respondents and the percentage of the respondents who were born in the place listed in the first column.

**Table 7-4: Birth Places of the Respondents**

<b>Birth places</b>	No.	Percentage
Shanghai (上海)	1590	75.6
The Zhejiang province (浙江省)	144	6.8
The Fujian province (福建省)	118	5.6
The Jiangsu province (江苏省)	61	2.9
The Sichuan province (四川省)	49	2.3
The Shandong province (山东省)	40	1.9
The Guangdong province (广东省)	38	1.8
The Anhui province (安徽省)	37	1.8
The Hunan province (湖南省)	26	1.2
Total	2103	100

The results in table 7-4 indicate that 75.6 percent of the respondents were originally born in Shanghai (1590 responses). Shanghai is similar to other places in China; it has its own dialect, its own culture and thus provides a barrier for the outsiders to fit in. Therefore, it is not surprising that most of the respondents were locally born. Given that this study intent was to conduct Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to test the influence of place of birth to dining out behaviour, it is ideal that the size of each sub-group is moderately similar to each other. The fact that the sample consisted of exceedingly more Shanghai-born respondents created a problem for the subsequent ANOVA test. Initially it was decided that one possible way to solve the above mentioned problem was to recode the data into, say Shanghai and non-Shanghai respondents. However, the differences between each non-Shanghai group could not be neglected. Therefore, the final decision was to commence the usual ANOVA test so the results can then be compared against other ANOVA test results, such as cuisine preferences.

## Language Proficiency and Media Preferences

Table 7-5 shows the language proficiency and the media preferences of the respondents in this study. The first column of the table lists the various factors of language proficiency and media preference, including ‘Speaking Shanghai Dialect’, ‘Speaking other Dialect/s’, ‘Speaking Foreign Language’, ‘Watch Shanghai local TV’, ‘Shanghai reading material’, ‘Watch TV programs of other provinces’ and ‘Other reading material’. The number of respondents, the mean value and the value of standard deviation are listed in the second and third columns respectively.

**Table 7-5: Language Proficiency and Media Preferences**

	Mean	Std. Deviation
<b>Language proficiency&amp; Media preferences</b>		
Speaking Shanghai Dialect	6.05	1.03
Speaking other Dialect/s	3.51	1.63
Speaking Foreign Language	2.37	1.53
Watch Shanghai local TV	5.49	1.48
Shanghai reading material	4.94	1.62
Watch TV programs of other provinces	5.27	1.26
Other reading material	4.67	1.71
Total		

Since the majority of the respondents are locally born, according to Table 7-4, it is not surprising that they are able to speak the Shanghai dialect fluently with a mean value of 6.05; compared with other factors, this is high. The mean value of ‘Speaking other dialect/s is relatively low, at 3.51. The ability to speak a foreign language (e.g. English, Japanese) is even lower, with a mean equal to 2.37. In terms of utilizing the media, the results show a high level of preference in both factors of ‘Watch of Shanghai TV’ and ‘Watch TV programs of other provinces’ with a mean value of 5.49 and 5.27 respectively. This is probably because most TV programs are broadcast in Mandarin instead of the regional dialects. The respondents indicated lower interest in both ‘Shanghai reading materials’ (mean=4.94) and ‘Other reading

materials' (mean=4.67), but still scored means above the mid-point scale of 4. As stated above, the intention of this study was to use these variables as indicators for measuring the level of acculturation, which will be discussed later.

### Cuisine Preferences

Table 7-6 illustrates the results of cuisine preferences of respondents in this study. The first column of the table lists nine different cuisine styles in China, including 'The Zhejiang Cuisine or (Zhe)', 'The Shanghai Cuisine or (Hu)', 'The Fujian Cuisine or (Min)', 'The Guangdong Cuisine or (Yue)', 'The Sichuan Cuisine or (Chuan)', 'The Jiangsu Cuisine or (Su)', 'The Anhui Cuisine or (Wan)', 'The Hunan Cuisine or (Xiang)' and 'The Shandong Cuisine or (Lu)'. The number of the respondents, the mean value and the value of standard deviation are listed in the second and third column respectively.

**Table 7-6: Cuisine Preferences**

<b>Cuisine styles</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
The Zhejiang Cuisine (Zhe)	5.36	1.57
The Shanghai Cuisine (Hu)	5.34	1.59
The Fujian Cuisine (Min)	4.89	1.64
The Guangdong Cuisine (Yue)	4.84	1.64
The Sichuan Cuisine (Chuan)	4.71	1.82
The Jiangsu Cuisine (Su)	4.66	1.72
The Anhui Cuisine (Wan)	4.54	1.51
The Hunan Cuisine (Xiang)	4.43	1.63
The Shandong Cuisine (Lu)	4.10	1.51
Total		

Given that most respondents are locally born, according to Table 7-4, it is not difficult to explain that the sample shows a high preference level towards the Shanghai cuisine (Hu) with a mean value of 5.34. The Zhejiang cuisine (Zhe) is the most preferable cuisine with a mean value of 5.36. This is also within the level of expectation since the Zhejiang cuisine is similar to the Shanghai cuisine. This table only displays the mean values and the values of standard deviation for each cuisine

preference. Further examination regarding using these variables for measuring acculturation will be discussed later.

### **Cooking Methods/Preferences**

Table 7-7 summarises the selection of the cooking methods of the respondents when they dine out for a meal in a Chinese full-service restaurant. Listed in the first column of Table 7-7 are the cooking methods, including ‘Pan and Wok cooked’, ‘Boiled’, ‘Steamed’, ‘Cold dish’, ‘Deep fried’ and ‘Roasted and smoked’. The number of respondents, the mean value and the value of standard deviation are listed in the second and third column respectively.

**Table 7-7: Cooking Methods Preferences**

<b>Cooking methods</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Pan and Wok cooked	5.52	1.37
Boiled	5.45	1.35
Steamed	5.44	1.50
Cold dish	4.12	2.07
Deep fried	2.77	1.76
Roasted and smoked	2.54	1.39
Total		

The results in table 7-7 show that the respondents who dine out in a Chinese full-service restaurant prefer the cooking methods of ‘pan and wok cooked food’, ‘boiled’, and ‘steamed’ with the mean values of 5.52, 5.45 and 5.44 respectively. On the other hand, the cooking methods ‘deep-fried’ and ‘roasted and smoked’ are less popular with respondents showing mean values of 2.77 and 2.54 respectively. The mean value of ‘cold dish’ is just above the mid-point of scale but the standard deviation is relatively high (2.07), which could suggest that the respondents possess very opposite opinions. Similarly, this data will be further examined to measure the level of acculturation.

## **Food Materials/Preferences**

Table 7-8 highlights the results of the analysis of the items regarding the food material preferences of the respondents in this study. The first column of the table lists the name of the different food materials, including 'Rice', 'Flour products', 'Tuber crops', 'Meat products' and 'Vegetables and Fruits'. The number of the respondents, the mean value and the value of standard deviation are listed in the second and third columns respectively.

The results in table 7-8 suggest that most of the respondents are more likely select rice as the favourite food with the mean value of 6.61. Compared with other factors, this is very high. On the other hand, the mean value of flour products is relatively lower with 4.26 and with the higher standard deviation value of 1.13, which could suggest that some respondents like flour products and some respondents do not. Most of the respondents do not like tuber crops (e.g. potato) as their main source of food intake with a mean value of 1.24.

In terms of meat products, chicken products are the most widely popular meat product for the respondents with a mean value of 6.74 in Table 7-8 followed by fish products (mean=6.49), egg products (mean=6.25), crustacean products (mean=6.00) and dairy products (mean=6.23). The mean values of meat products are all above 5.00 indicating high preferences except for goose products (mean=4.51), which scored just above the mid-point of scale 4.00.

In terms of vegetables and fruit products, the fresh fruit products are the most highly regarded food item with a mean value of 6.78, followed by the legume and phycomycete products with a mean value of 6.48 and 6.15 respectively. All vegetable products scored means above 5.00 indicating high preferences, except for dry fruit (mean=4.61), which scored above the mid-point of scale 4.00.

**Table 7-8: Food Materials Preferences**

<b>Materials</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Rice	6.61	1.01
Flour products	4.26	1.13
Tuber crops	1.24	0.46
<b>Meat Products</b>		
Chicken products	6.74	0.49
Fish products	6.49	1.49
Egg products	6.25	1.35
Dairy products	6.23	1.71
Crustacean products	6.00	2.00
Pork products	5.83	1.20
Beef products	5.8	1.11
Lamb products	5.55	1.04
Duck products	5.41	1.15
Goose products	4.51	1.36
<b>Vegetables and Fruits</b>		
Fresh fruits	6.78	0.86
Legume	6.48	1.21
Phycomycete products	6.15	1.81
Leafy vegetable	5.86	0.9
Flower vegetable	5.77	0.89
Fungus products	5.7	0.88
Edible tuberous	5.69	1.00
Gourd vegetable	5.45	1.21
Dry fruits	4.61	1.74
Total		

It is important to point out that the respondents are more likely to select edible tuberous products as a side dish with the mean value of 5.69, but not as the main food source with a mean value of 1.24. This is largely due to the significant differences between the Chinese and Western cultures.

### **Taste Preferences**

Table 7-9 summarises the results of the analysis of the taste preferences of the respondents in this study. The first column of the table lists five different tastes,

which includes ‘Sweet’, ‘Sour’, ‘Pungent or spicy’, ‘Salty’ and ‘Bitter’. The number of respondents, the mean value and the value of standard deviation are listed in the second and third column respectively.

**Table 7-9: Taste Preferences**

<b>Taste preference</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Sweet	5.13	1.18
Sour	5.12	1.17
Pungent or spicy	4.81	1.35
Salty	4.56	1.16
Bitter	3.00	1.84
Total		

The results in table 7-9 indicate that sweet and sour are the most preferred tastes with a mean value of 5.13 and 5.12 respectively. The level of preference for spicy food is 4.81 with a standard deviation of 1.35. This suggests that some respondents prefer this taste to others. The respondents showed a low level of preference towards bitter food with a mean value of 3.00, which is a common outcome in food therapy. Further cluster tests will be initiated to examine taste preferences in the following chapter.

This section has examined seven indicators, which include (1) Birth places of respondents, (2) Language proficiency, (3) Media preferences, (4) Cuisine preferences, (5) Cooking method preferences, (6) Food material preferences and (7) Taste preferences. The next section discusses whether these seven indicators can or cannot be used to measure the level of acculturation in this study.

## **Measuring the Level of Acculturation**

In order for this study to decide how to measure the level of acculturation, the above indicators have to be examined further to determine which of them are suitable for this study. If each respondent possesses a similar opinion about an indicator, then this study cannot use this indicator as a variable to classify the respondents and vice versa.

### **Birth places of respondents vs. Language proficiency and media preferences**

Table 7-10 summarises the relationship between the birth places of the respondents and their language proficiency and media preferences. The first column of the table lists the various factors of language proficiency and the media preference, including 'Speaking Shanghai Dialect', 'Speaking other Dialect/s', 'Speaking Foreign Language', 'Watch Shanghai local TV', 'Shanghai reading material', 'Watch TV programs of other provinces' and 'Other reading material'. From the second column to the tenth column are the mean values of the relationship between the birth places of the respondents, their language proficiency and media preferences. These birth places include 'the Guangdong province', 'the Shandong province', 'the Sichuan province', 'the Jiangsu province', 'the Zhejiang province', 'the Fujian province', 'the Hunan province', 'the Anhui province' and 'Shanghai' respectively. Listed in the last two columns of Table 7-10 are the F-value and Tukey results, which are produced by using analysis of variance.

**7-10: Birth Places of Respondents vs. Language Proficiency and Media Preferences**

Language proficiency and Media preference	Birth places of the respondents									F value	Tukey
	1 The Guangdong Province	2 The Shandong Province	3 The Sichuan Province	4 The Jiangsu Province	5 The Zhejiang Province	6 The Fujian Province	7 The Hunan Province	8 The Anhui Province	9 Shanghai		
	Mean										
Speaking Shanghai Dialect	5.34	5.08	5.16	5.28	5.28	5.35	4.96	4.92	6.32	28.50**	9>all
Speaking other Dialect/s	5.79	5.08	5.47	5.36	5.22	5.00	4.92	5.59	2.95	65.76**	all>9
Watch Shanghai local TV	5.42	6.05	5.35	4.56	5.05	5.47	5.62	4.32	5.59	4.21**	2>8; 9>4,8
Reading materials Shanghai	4.84	4.95	4.10	4.90	4.09	4.47	4.50	4.57	5.10	4.59**	9>5
No. of respondents	38	40	49	61	144	118	26	37	1590		
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level											
** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level											

The results show that the respondents who were originally born in Shanghai are able to speak the Shanghai dialect (mean=6.32) better than the respondents who were born in other provinces in China, especially compared with some respondents who were born in the Hunan and Anhui provinces with mean values of 4.96 and 4.92 respectively. The table also indicates that Shanghai born respondents are less capable of speaking other dialects (mean=2.95) than others. This means that language proficiency can be used to distinguish the level of acculturation as a cultural indicator. For example, a non-Shanghai born respondent who is able to speak fluent Shanghai dialect indicated that he/she has adapted to the Shanghai culture very well. All the variables with significant difference were then included in the process of measuring the level of acculturation.

### **Birth places of respondents vs. Cuisine preferences**

Table 7-11 illustrates the results of the relationship between the birth places of the respondents and their cuisine preferences in this study. The first column of the table lists nine different cuisine styles in China, including ‘The Zhejiang Cuisine or (Zhe)’, ‘The Shanghai Cuisine or (Hu)’, ‘The Fujian Cuisine or (Min)’, ‘The Guangdong Cuisine or (Yue)’, ‘The Sichuan Cuisine or (Chuan)’, ‘The Jiangsu Cuisine or (Su)’, ‘The Anhui Cuisine or (Wan)’, ‘The Hunan Cuisine or (Xiang)’ and ‘The Shandong Cuisine or (Lu)’. The second column to the tenth column summarises the results of analysis between the relationship between the birth places of the respondents and their cuisine preferences. The birth places of respondents in this study include ‘the Guangdong province’, ‘the Shandong province’, ‘the Sichuan province’, ‘the Jiangsu province’, ‘the Zhejiang province’, ‘the Fujian province’, ‘the Hunan province’, ‘the Anhui province’ and ‘Shanghai’ respectively. Listed in the last two columns of Table 7-11 are the F-value and the post-hoc test results (Tukey), which are produced by using analysis of variance.

**Table 7-11: Birth Places of Respondents vs. Cuisine Preferences**

Cuisine preferences	Birth places of the respondents									F value	Tukey
	1 The Guangdong Province	2 The Shandong Province	3 The Sichuan Province	4 The Jiangsu Province	5 The Zhejiang Province	6 The Fujian Province	7 The Hunan Province	8 The Anhui Province	9 Shanghai		
	Mean										
Guangdong cuisine (Yue)	5.68	1.75	1.94	5.41	5.34	5.64	2.12	2.03	4.97	36.78*	1,4,5>all
Sichuan cuisine (Chuan)	4.58	6.65	6.67	4.20	3.65	3.50	6.81	6.57	4.73	15.86*	2,3,7,8>all
Jiangsu cuisine (Su)	5.55	2.42	2.35	5.16	5.83	5.50	1.62	1.65	4.70	28.90*	1,4,5,6all
Zhejiang cuisine (Zhe)	5.84	2.28	2.37	5.54	5.83	5.75	2.15	2.08	5.57	46.30*	1,4,5,6,9>all
Fujian cuisine (Min)	5.84	2.28	2.37	5.54	5.83	5.75	2.15	2.08	4.95	31.54*	1,4,5,6,9>all
Hunan cuisine (Xiang)	4.97	6.58	6.63	4.70	4.41	4.25	6.62	6.38	4.22	16.16*	2,3,7,8>all
Anhui cuisine (Wan)	4.79	3.60	3.73	4.25	4.07	4.14	3.58	3.41	4.70	5.64*	9>5,8
Shanghai cuisine (Hu)	4.79	2.28	2.37	4.33	4.14	4.12	2.15	2.14	5.89	88.67**	9>all
No. of respondents	38	40	49	61	144	118	26	37	1590		
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level											
** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level											

By examining the post-hoc test (Tukey) in Table 7-11, a pattern emerges. Places of birth of the respondents can be classified into two groups: the first group includes the Guangdong cuisine (Yue), the Jiangsu cuisine (Su), the Zhejiang cuisine (Zhe), the Fujian cuisine (Min) and the Shanghai cuisine (Hu), which refer to the provinces of Guangdong, Jiangsu, Zhejiang, Fujian and Shanghai, and the second group include the Shandong cuisine (Lu), the Sichuan cuisine (Chuan), the Hunan cuisine (Xiang) and the Anhui cuisine (Wan), which refer to the provinces of Shandong, Sichuan, Hunan, and Anhui respectively. The results conclude that the first group and the second group possess very different preferences. Taking the Guangdong cuisine (Yue) as an example, the first group of respondents are more likely to choose this cuisine than the respondents in the second group. On the other hand, the second group has a higher preference towards the Hunan cuisine (Xiang) compared to the respondents in the first group. In addition, in terms of cuisine preferences, Shanghai born respondents have different preferences to the respondents who were born in other provinces, especially in the Zhejiang province and the Fujian province.

### **Birth places of respondents vs. Taste preferences**

Table 7-12 summarises the results of the analysis of the relationship between the birth places of respondents and their taste preferences in this study. The first column of the table lists five different tastes, which includes ‘Sweet’, ‘Sour’, ‘Pungent or spicy’, ‘Salty’ and ‘Bitter’. The second column to the tenth column lists the mean value of the relationship between the birth places of the respondents and their taste preferences. The birth places of respondents in this study include ‘the Guangdong province’, ‘the Shandong province’, ‘the Sichuan province’, ‘the Jiangsu province’, ‘the Zhejiang province’, ‘the Fujian province’, ‘the Hunan province’, ‘the Anhui province’ and ‘Shanghai’ respectively. The F-value of the analysis of variance is in the eleventh column and the result of the analysis of the post-hoc test as Tukey is in the last column.

**Table 7-12: Birth Places of Respondents vs. Taste Preferences**

Taste preferences	Birth places of the respondents									F value	Tukey
	1 The Guangdong Province	2 The Shandong Province	3 The Sichuan Province	4 The Jiangsu Province	5 The Zhejiang Province	6 The Fujian Province	7 The Hunan Province	8 The Anhui Province	9 Shanghai		
	Mean										
Sweet	5.63	2.28	2.37	5.23	5.38	5.33	2.15	2.08	5.35	95.54**	1,4,5,6,9>all
Sour	5.37	2.28	2.39	5.05	5.21	5.14	2.08	2.00	5.38	101.2**	1,4,5,6,9>all
Spicy	4.97	6.65	6.67	4.70	4.28	4.19	6.81	6.57	4.73	19.91*	2,3,7,8>all
No. of respondents	38	40	49	61	144	118	26	37	1590		
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level											
** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level											

The results in table 7-12 show the taste preferences are closely related to the cuisine preferences. For example, the Sichuan cuisine (Chuan) and the Hunan cuisine (Xiang) are similar to each other because they both have an extremely spicy taste. It is clear to see that the ANOVA test and post-hoc analysis shown in Table 7-12 is highly similar to those in Table 7-11. Firstly, the places of birth can be categorised into two groups based on taste preferences. These two groups are similar to the findings of Table 7-11. Secondly, Shanghai respondents are more likely to attribute a high mean for the sweet cuisine and are less likely to prefer the spicy cuisine. It is also clear to see that people's level of preference for salty and bitter food is consistent regardless of their places of birth. Therefore, bitter and salty taste preferences are not suitable to be used as indicators to measure the level of acculturation.

The above analysis and discussion suggests that people from different places of birth have very different cuisine and taste preferences, as well as different language proficiency and certain media preferences. Therefore, cultural origin affects an individual's language skill and preferences. However, one's cultural orientation is not only decided by the place of birth, but also is affected by other variables. For example, the length of stay in a foreign cultural environment (e.g. Satia, et al., 2001; Ayala, et al., 2008) may alter one's cultural orientation. Because of this, the researcher has used 'the length of stay in other places' as a variable to measure the level of acculturation in this study, along with the length of stay in other places vs. the language proficiency and media preferences, the length of stay in other places vs. cuisine preferences and the length of stay in other places vs. taste preferences. The length of stay in other places' has been divided into three sections:

- (1) A short period denotes roughly within 5 years as Group One
- (2) A medium period denotes a length of 6 to 10 years as Group Two
- (3) A long period denotes more than 10 years as Group Three

### **Length of stay in other places vs. Language proficiency and Media preferences**

Table 7-13 summarises the results of the analysis of the relationship between the length of stay of the respondents in other places, their language proficiency and media preferences in this study. The first column of the table lists the various factors of language proficiency and media preferences, including ‘Speaking Shanghai Dialect’, ‘Speaking other Dialect/s’, ‘Speaking Foreign Language’, ‘Watch Shanghai local TV’, ‘Shanghai reading material’, ‘Watch TV programs of other provinces’ and ‘Other reading material’. The mean values of the relationship between the length of stay of the respondents in other places, their language proficiency and media preferences are listed in the second column, the third column and the fourth column of Table 7-13 respectively. The F-value of the analysis of variance is listed in the fifth column and the results of the analysis of the post-hoc test as Tukey results are listed in the last column.

**Table 7-13: Length of Stay in Other Places vs. Language Proficiency and Media Preferences**

Language proficiency and Media preference	Length of stay in other places in China			F value	Tukey
	1 The Short Period Within 5 years	2 The Medium Period 6 – 10 years	3 The Long Period Over 10 years		
	Mean				
Speaking Shanghai Dialect	6.59	5.48	4.65	634.6**	1>2>3
Speaking other Dialect/s	2.45	4.63	6.31	1543.7**	3>2>1
Speaking Foreign Language	2.38	2.40	1.98	4.2*	all>3
Watch Shanghai local TV	5.54	5.51	5.01	7.2**	all>3
Reading materials Shanghai	5.10	4.77	4.48	15.6**	1>all
No. of respondents	1174	805	124		
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level ** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level					

The results in table 7-13 indicate that the respondents who stayed in other places for a longer period of time are more likely to be able to speak other dialects. On the other hand, the respondents who mainly stay in Shanghai can speak relatively better Shanghai dialect. The respondents who spend less time in other places are more likely to utilise Shanghai's media. Most of the acculturation studies examine immigrants of non-English speaking countries migrating to English speaking countries, such as Chinese or Korean immigrants in America (Suinn, et al., 1987; Kim, et al. 1996). Therefore, the TV programs and reading materials from the immigrants' own culture are distinctively different from those of their host countries. Because of this media usage becomes a valid indicator for measuring the level of acculturation. In this study however, most of the media is in a common Chinese language such as Mandarin and thus media usage is a less capable indicator in terms of assessing the level of acculturation. Furthermore, it is clear to see that most of the respondents cannot speak a fluent foreign language (e.g. English, Japanese). Therefore, foreign language proficiency as an indicator cannot be used to determine whether the respondents have absorbed any foreign cultures.

### **Length of stay in other places vs. Cuisine preferences**

Table 7-14 illustrates the results of the analysis of the relationship between the length of stay of the respondents in other places and their cuisine preferences in this study. The first column of the table lists nine different cuisine styles in China, including 'The Zhejiang Cuisine or (Zhe)', 'The Shanghai Cuisine or (Hu)', 'The Fujian Cuisine or (Min)', 'The Guangdong Cuisine or (Yue)', 'The Sichuan Cuisine or (Chuan)', 'The Jiangsu Cuisine or (Su)', 'The Anhui Cuisine or (Wan)', 'The Hunan Cuisine or (Xiang)' and 'The Shandong Cuisine or (Lu)'. Between the second column and the fourth column of Table 7-14 are the mean values of the relationship between the length of stay of the respondents in other places and their cuisine preferences. The last two columns of the table list the F-value of the analysis and the results of the analysis of the post-hoc test respectively.

**Table 7-14: Length of Stay in Other Place vs. Cuisine Preferences**

Cuisine preferences	Length of stay in other places in China			F value	Tukey
	1 The Short Period Within 5 years	2 The Medium Period 6 – 10 years	3 The Long Period Over 10 years		
	Mean				
The Guangdong cuisine (Yue)	4.99	4.68	4.48	12.4**	1>all
The Shandong cuisine (Lu)	4.04	4.21	3.94	3.9*	2>1
The Jiangsu cuisine (Su)	4.81	4.49	4.40	10.2**	1>all
The Zhejiang cuisine (Zhe)	5.57	5.15	4.79	26.3**	1>2>3
The Hunan cuisine (Xiang)	4.25	4.61	4.97	19.3**	all>1
The Anhui cuisine (Wan)	4.74	4.35	3.80	32.6**	1>2>3
The Shanghai cuisine (Hu)	5.81	4.92	3.62	178.9**	1>2>3
No. of respondents	1174	805	124		
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level					
** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level					

Table 7-14 illustrates that respondents who have stayed in other places in China for a longer period of time (over 10 years) are less likely to attribute a high level of cuisine preference to most cuisine types, such as the Guangdong cuisine with a mean value of 4.48, the Anhui cuisine with a mean value of 3.80 and the Shanghai cuisine with a mean value of 3.62. This is an unexpected result that the researcher has no explanation for, as there was a pre-assumption that people who spend more time in a place such as Shanghai would prefer to select the local cuisine such as the Shanghai cuisine (Hu). Therefore, from the results in table 7-14, it can be assumed that the length of stay is not a useful indicator to measure the cuisine preferences.

### **Length of stay in other places vs. Taste preferences**

Table 7-15 summarises the results of the analysis of the relationship between the length of stay in other places of the respondents and their taste preferences for this study. The first column of the table lists five different tastes, which includes ‘Sweet’, ‘Sour’, ‘Pungent or spicy’, ‘Salty’ and ‘Bitter’. The mean values of the relationship between the length of stay in other places of the respondents and their taste preferences are listed in column two, column three and the column four respectively. The last two columns of Table 7-15 list the F-value of the analysis and the results of the analysis of the post-hoc test as Tukey results respectively.

**Table 7-15: Length of Stay in Other Places. Taste Preferences**

Taste preferences	Length of stay in other places in China			F value	Tukey
	1 The Short Period Within 5 years	2 The Medium Period 6 – 10 years	3 The Long Period Over 10 years		
Sweet	5.35	4.91	4.44	57.6**	1>2>3
Sour	5.38	4.86	4.27	89.4**	1>2>3
Salty	4.61	4.54	4.08	12.1**	all>3
Spicy	4.73	4.90	5.01	5.5**	2>1
No. of respondents	1174	805	124		
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level ** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level					

The results in table 7-15 indicate that the respondents who have stayed longer in other places are more likely to accept spicy food with the mean value of 5.01 and are less likely to select sweet and sour tastes with the mean values of 4.44 and 4.27 respectively. This is consistent with the findings above and the Chinese food culture discussed in Chapter Four, which is that Shanghai people are more likely to choose sweet food and mostly dislike spicy food. The above statement is just a simple way to view Shanghai people's tastes. There are of course other detailed issues. While the length of stay in other places does not produce a good result in Table 7-14, it is useful in predicting people's taste preferences.

The above discussion indicates that the factor of 'the length of stay in other places' is not as efficient as the factor of 'place of birth' in terms of predicting food preferences, but both these factors affect the respondents' language proficiency. As stated in the beginning of this section, many researchers have used all sorts of indicators to measure level of acculturation and the results discussed above have shown that these indicators are valid in this study too. Therefore, this study used all the indicators available to measure the level of acculturation, which will be discussed in the next section.

## **Classifying the Respondents Based on Cultural Orientation**

In many food and acculturation studies (e.g. Lee, et al., 1999; Song, et al., 2004), researchers generally use the level of acculturation and cultural origin to divide their sample into three groups: (1) acculturate into local culture, (2) retain original culture, and (3) bicultural groups. This study attempted to do something similar by using two values: (1) the level of acceptance to Shanghai culture and (2) the level of acceptance to other cultures. The Shanghai born respondents can be divided into two groups: the group (1) Shanghai people who accept the local culture only, and the group (2) Shanghai people who absorb other cultural orientations; and the respondents who were born in other places are divided into three groups: group (3) outsiders who are acculturated into the Shanghai culture, group (4) outsiders who retain their own culture and group (5) outsiders who show bicultural orientation. In theory, group (2) as ‘Shanghai people who absorb other cultural orientations’ and group (5) as ‘outsiders who show bicultural orientation’ should be similar to each other, but this study proceeded with the classification as if they were different. Once the respondents had been classified, this study examined whether these two groups should be treated as one or remain separate.

As demonstrated in the previous section, the food cuisine of China can be separated into three types: (1) the Shanghai cuisine (Hu), (2) the Guangdong cuisine (Yue), the Jiangsu cuisine (Su), the Zhejiang cuisine (Zhe), the Fujian cuisine (Min), and (3) the Shandong cuisine (Lu), the Sichuan cuisine (Chuan), the Hunan cuisine (Xiang), and the Anhui cuisine (Wan). The first cuisine type (1) is similar to the second type (2), which have a more notable sweet taste. Both cuisine types are different to the third cuisine type (3), which has a more spicy taste in the food. Therefore, these three cuisine types and two taste preferences were assigned different weights when calculating the two values stated in the previous paragraphs. All the variables were filtered being given different weightings, and then the values calculated. The reason

for the weighting process is that some variables (e.g. the cuisine types) are closer to the Shanghai culture and some are not. The following section examines the relationship between cultural orientation and the variable of ‘birth places of respondents’.

Table 7-16 illustrates the relationship between cultural orientation and birth place of respondents in this study. The first column of the table is the name of the place where the respondents were born, which includes Shanghai, the Zhejiang province, the Fujian province, the Jiangsu province, the Sichuan province, the Shandong province, the Guangdong province, the Anhui province and the Hunan province. The second column of the table shows the respondents’ attitude towards the impact of the local culture (Shanghai culture). The third column of the table is the respondents’ attitude towards the impact of a bicultural orientation (both Shanghai culture and another culture). The respondents’ attitude towards the impact of the other culture is listed in the fourth column and the respondents’ attitude towards low cultural impact is in the fifth column of the table.

The results in table 7-16 indicate the respondents who exhibit bicultural orientation are mostly Shanghai respondents and those with a culture related to Shanghai. The respondents who were born in other places such as the Shandong province, the Sichuan province, the Hunan province, and the Anhui province showed no sign of adapting to Shanghai culture. Therefore, it was decided that the bicultural categories should be grouped as one regardless of the place of birth of the respondents. Four of the Shanghai born respondents had shifted towards other cultural orientations, which suggests a small portion of Shanghai born people do change their cultural orientation because of the time they stay in other places. There are 42 respondents who show low cultural orientation to both the Shanghai culture and the other cultures. This study tried running additional tests to explain why this group exhibited no clear cultural orientation, including examining whether they might be influenced by other foreign cultures (e.g. Western). However, this attempt did not yield any reasonable results that

can be used to explain the culture tendency of this group.

**Table 7-16: Cross Tabulation of Cultural Orientation vs. Birth Places of Respondents**

Birth places	Cultural orientation				Total
	Shanghai culture	Bicultural	Other culture	Low culture	
	Numbers				
The Guangdong province	4	29	5	-	38
The Shandong province	-	3	34	3	40
The Sichuan province	-	14	35	-	49
The Jiangsu province	12	37	8	4	61
The Zhejiang province	37	94	11	2	144
The Fujian province	46	60	6	6	118
The Hunan province	-	-	24	2	26
The Anhui province	-	4	28	5	37
Shanghai	1342	224	4	20	1590
Total	1441	465	155	42	2103

Although one group shows no clear cultural orientation, the results of other groups are still very meaningful. Therefore, in the next chapter, these groups will be used to examine whether cultural orientation affects the dining out motives and the food selection behaviour of the respondents and explain why one group shows no clear cultural tendency.

## Socio-Demographic Characteristics

The purpose of this section is simply to introduce the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample, including (1) gender, (2) age, (3) marital status, (4) monthly salary, (5) level of education, and (6) occupation. Further analyses will be available in the next chapter to examine whether socio-demographic variables affect the dining out behaviour of the respondents in a Chinese full-service restaurant.

### Gender

As indicated in Table 7-17 below, the sample consists of slightly more female respondents (55.8 percent) than male respondents (44.2 percent). Due to the convenience sampling method implemented in the survey, the results do not necessarily indicate that more females choose to dine out in a Chinese full-service restaurant in Shanghai than male respondents.

**Table 7-17: Gender**

<b>Gender</b>	No.	Percentage
Male	929	44.2
Female	1174	55.8
Total	2103	100.0

### Age

Table 7-18 summarises the age of the respondents in this survey, ranging from 20 or under 20 years old to over 60 years old. The results in the table indicate that the respondents are mostly between the ages of 31-40 years old (31.9 percent). There are also a considerable number of respondents between the ages of 41-50 years old (23.9 percent), 21-30 years old (21.7 percent) and 20 or under 20 years old (17.1 percent).

There are relatively fewer respondents between the ages of 51-60 (3 percent) and above 61 years old (2.4 percent).

**Table 7-18: Age**

<b>Age</b>	No.	Percentage
20 or Under 20	359	17.1
21-30	457	21.7
31-40	670	31.9
41-50	503	23.9
51-60	64	3.0
61 up	50	2.4
Total	2103	100.0

### **Marital Status**

Table 7-19 shows the Martial status of the respondents in this study. The results of indicate that there are significantly more married respondents (72.5 percent) than non-married (27.5 percent). This is probably due to the fact that the sample mostly consisted of respondents above 21 years old. Despite the big differences between the number of married and non-married respondents, the sample does possess a substantial number of non-married respondents (579 responses) and is therefore suitable for the use of independent sample *t*-test.

**Table 7-19: Martial Status**

<b>Marital status</b>	No.	Percentage
Married	1524	72.5
Not Married	579	27.5
Total	2103	100.0

## Monthly Salary

Table 7-20 shows the level of monthly salary of respondents in this study, ranging from \$2,000 RMB or less than \$2,000 RMB to over \$10,000 RMB. The results indicate that most of the respondents earned less than RMB 2,000 per month (35.9 percent). There are 706 respondents (33.6 percent) whose monthly salary is \$5,001-\$10,000 RMB per month, and 548 respondents (26.1 percent) report earning \$2,001-\$5,000 RMB per month. Only 93 respondents (4.4 percent) earned more than \$10,001 RMB or more per month.

**Table 7-20: Monthly Salary**

<b>Monthly salary</b>	No.	Percentage
under \$2,000 RMB	756	35.9
\$2,001- \$5,000 RMB	548	26.1
\$5,001- \$10,000 RMB	706	33.6
\$10,001 RMBup	93	4.4
Total	2103	100.0

## Level of Education

Table 7-21 summarises the level of education of the respondents in this study, including school leaving qualification, skilled/professional, tertiary education and postgraduate level. The results indicate that most of the respondents possessed tertiary education qualifications with 887 responses or 42.2 percent. Compared with others, this is large number; over 650 respondents have a professional certificate (31.1 percent); 377 respondents have school a leaving qualification (17.9 percent), presumably older respondents. There are also 187 respondents who possess a postgraduate qualification (8.7 percent).

**Table 7-21: Level of Education**

<b>Level of education</b>	No.	Percentage
School leaving qualification	377	17.9
Skilled/professional	655	31.1
Tertiary Education	887	42.2
Postgraduate	184	8.7
Total	2103	100.0

### Occupation

Table 7-22 summarises the occupation of the respondents in this study, including ‘self-employed’, ‘student’, ‘specialist’, ‘business manager/administer’, ‘office employee’, ‘educationist’, ‘physical worker’, ‘sales person’ and ‘retired person’.

**Table 7-22: Occupations**

<b>Occupations</b>	No.	Percentage
Self-employed	73	3.5
Student	689	32.8
Specialist	83	3.9
Business Manager/administer	555	26.4
Office Employee	375	17.8
Educationist	122	5.8
Physical worker	102	4.9
Sales person	76	3.6
Retired	28	1.3
Total	2103	100.0

The results in table 7-22 show that most of the respondents were students with 689

responses or 32.8 percent. Compared with other occupations, this is large. The number of business manager/administrators were also large with 555 responses or 26.4 percent. 375 respondents were office employees (17.8 percent). These two groups of respondents were presumably dining out in a Chinese full-service restaurant for a business purpose. This data partially confirms the findings shown in Table 7-1, which indicated that the most popular reasons/motives for dining out in a Chinese full-service restaurant were both 'dine out with friends' and 'a business meal'.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter has introduced the dining out patterns of the sample of this study and has described the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents in this study. This chapter has also introduced the cultural orientation of the respondents of this study and classified the respondents into five sub-categories based on their cultural orientation. The next chapter will examine the relationship of dining out patterns, cultural orientation and the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample towards the dining out motives and the food selection behaviour of the respondents of this study.

# **Chapter Eight**

## **Analysis Two:**

### **The Relationship between Sample Characteristics and Dining Out Behaviour**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter examines the relationship between dining out patterns, cultural orientation and socio-demographic characteristics towards the dining out motivation and food selection behaviour of the sample. This involves the application of statistical tests, including factor analysis, analysis of variance (ANOVA), independent sample *t*-test analysis and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) analysis. This chapter can be divided into four major sections: the first section of this chapter reports the results of the factor analysis of dining out motivation and food selection behaviour; the second section of this chapter introduces the relationship between the dining out patterns and both the dining out motivation and the food selection behaviour of respondents; the third section of this chapter introduces the relationship between the cultural orientation and both the dining out motivation and the food selection behaviour of respondents of this study; and the fourth section of this chapter introduces the relationship between the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample and the dining out motivation and the food selection behaviour of respondents. These four sections are categorised based on the study's hypotheses.

## **The Results of the Factor Analyses**

There are some reasons to conduct the factor analysis in this study. Firstly, for a survey to capture every aspect of dining out behaviour, it is important that the questionnaire of this study includes many questions that allow the collection of a substantial amount of data. However, the size of variables sometimes complicates things and makes interpretation difficult. This study encountered this problem when using the analysis of variance (ANOVA) to analyse the motivation of dining out and the food selection aspect of behaviour, which will be reported later in this chapter. There were too many initial variables that complicated the analysis and discussion. Therefore, the initial 22 motivational variables and 54 food-selection variables in the questionnaire have been reduced into six and eight underlying dimensions respectively to simplify the data and make it easier and clearer to interpret. This study thus has to show that the classification of 22 motivational variables and 54 food-selection variables into six and eight factors is valid. Secondly, the variables show a high level of correlation with each other, which indicates the respondents answered in a logical and consistent manner. The factor analysis can then be used to test the validity of individual variables and reduce the number of explanatory variables (Ryan, 1995). Thirdly, the initial questionnaire design is based on literature to elicit the variables. Using factor analysis can allow this study to compare its results with the past research.

### **The Factor Analysis of Dining Out Motivation**

This section uses factor analysis to categorise dining out motivation into a few underlying dimensions. Before commencing the factor analysis, it is common to examine the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin model (KMO) and Bartlett's test for the Sphericity to examine whether the sample is sufficient to conduct factor analysis. The KMO for dining out motivation items is 0.733, which is not an excellent score by some researchers' standards (Norusis, 1990) but adequate for the factor analysis

here (Ryan, 1995). Ideally, one would desire the value of KMO as close to 1 as possible, but any value above 0.7 is acceptable.

Most researchers use Eigenvalues as an indicator to determine the number of underlying dimensions in order to group the initial variables. In the case of dining out motivation, classifying the variables into six factors scored Eigenvalues of 1.33 and explained 77.48% of the variances. This means that the 6 underlying dimensions can successfully represent 77.48% of the original 22 motivational variables. This study also applied a reliability test to examine each factor and all their alpha values are above the acceptable range of 0.7, with factor one reaching a high alpha value of 0.9234. All these values are to indicate that the categorisation of the dining out motivation was statistically justified.

According to the results of both Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin model and the Bartlett's test, this study has proven that the factor analysis is legitimate and will move on to describe the components of each factor. Twenty-two dining out motivations are reduced to six underlying dimensions, which are listed in Table 9-1 as 'Rotated component Matrix of the dining out motivation'.

Table 8-1 reports the results of the factor analysis of the dining out motivation of respondents. The first column of the table lists the six underlying dimensions of the dining out motivation of respondents in this study, which includes: first factor: Special offer and impulse; second factor: Convenience and labour; third factor: Wide variety; fourth factor: Socialize and relaxation; fifth factor: Business purpose and sixth factor: Healthy diet. The factor loading values are listed in the subsequent columns.

**Table 8-1: Rotated Component Matrix of Dining Out Motivation**

<b>Factor One: Special Offer and Impulse</b>						
To try a newly opened restaurant	0.907	-	-	-	-	-
A restaurant advertisement encouraged me to come	0.848	-	-	-	-	-
Special features of a restaurant	0.839	-	-	-	-	-
Restaurant has a special offer	0.828	-	-	-	-	-
Celebration	0.811	-	-	-	-	-
Just feel like dining out	0.797	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Factor Two: Convenience and Labour</b>						
Don't want to wash dishes	-	0.863	-	-	-	-
Special equipment required to cook some special dishes	-	0.856	-	-	-	-
I enjoy being served	-	0.855	-	-	-	-
Work or study and unable to cook	-	0.830	-	-	-	-
Away from home and unable to cook	-	0.803	-	-	-	-
Difficult to prepare and/or cook	-	0.724	-	-	-	-
<b>Factor Three: Wide Variety</b>						
Eating something different	-	-	0.971	-	-	-
I enjoy food from different regions	-	-	0.879	-	-	-
Large selection of food	-	-	0.846	-	-	-
<b>Factor Four: Socialisation and Relaxation</b>						
Time with friends	-	-	-	0.965	-	-
Time with family	-	-	-	0.892	-	-
I enjoy being relaxed	-	-	-	0.775	-	-
<b>Factor Five: Business Purpose</b>						
A business meal	-	-	-	-	0.818	-
Socialise with customers, partners or workmates	-	-	-	-	0.783	-
<b>Factor Six: Healthy Diet</b>						
Nutritious food (deep sea fish)	-	-	-	-	-	0.895
'Bu' food therapy	-	-	-	-	-	0.859
<b>Eigenvalues</b>	4.97	4.13	2.72	2.51	1.39	1.33
<b>% of Variance</b>	22.58	18.78	12.36	11.40	6.31	6.06
<b>Cumulative %</b>	22.58	41.36	53.72	65.12	71.43	77.48
<b>Alpha</b>	0.9234	0.8956	0.8789	0.8523	0.8011	0.7947
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.						
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.						
Rotation converged in 6 iterations.						

The first column of the table lists the six underlying dimensions of dining out motivations of respondents in this study. The factor loading values are listed in the subsequent columns.

The results in table 8-1 indicate that factor one includes six motivational variables, which are 'To try a newly opened restaurant', 'A restaurant advertisement encouraged me to come', 'Special features of a restaurant', 'Restaurant has a special offer', 'Celebration', and 'Just feel like dining out'. The factor loading ranged from 0.907 to 0.797 and no double loadings were found (using the criterion of weight greater than 0.4). Most of these motivational variables are related to 'new' things or 'special' elements offered by a Chinese full-service restaurant. This suggests that the motivation located within this factor may share some similarity with 'novelty' motivation. However, these variables are not grouped with variables such as 'Large selection of food', which is also a 'novelty' motivation. Also, it is common in China that 'To try a newly opened restaurant' offers certain special discounts or gifts to attract customers. Advertisement is another method to announce special offers of a restaurant. Therefore, this factor is named as 'special offer and impulse' because the impulse dining out motivation is categorised in this factor.

The second factor also includes six variables, which are 'Don't want to wash dishes', 'Special equipment required to cook some special dishes', 'I enjoy being served', 'Work or study and unable to cook', 'Away from home and unable to cook', and 'Difficult to prepare and/or cook'. The factor loading ranged from 0.863 to 0.724 and no double loadings were found (using the criterion of weight greater than 0.4). These variables show similar characteristics of having the desire for someone to cook for respondents with different reasons. Therefore, the second factor is entitled 'convenience and labour'.

Factor three consists of three variables, which are 'Eating something different', 'I

enjoy food from different regions' and 'Large selection of food'. The factor loading ranged from 0.971 to 0.846 and no double loadings were found (using the criterion of weight greater than 0.4). One can conclude that the underlying theme of these variables is 'wide variety' of choice when the respondents dine out in a restaurant. With regards to the previous discussion on not grouping the novelty motivation with this factor, one can argue that wide variety does not necessarily mean novelty. What the researcher is trying to convey is that the respondents might have had all sorts of food before, but after a while they still find it appealing to try something they have not tried for a period of time. In addition, although a respondent can only choose one thing at a time, they still like the idea that they can choose from everything. Therefore, the third factor is entitled 'wide variety'.

Factor four consists of three variables that scored the factor loading range of 0.965 to 0.775. The variables are 'Time with friends', 'Time with family', and 'I enjoy being relaxed'. Two of these motivational variables are related to socialisation. Another variable, 'I enjoy being relaxed' in this factor appears to be slightly dissimilar to the other two variables. However, one can argue that the aim of both these two types of socialisation (friends and family) is to have fun and relax when the respondents dine out for a meal in a restaurant. This also explains why they are separated from business related socialisation, which is located in the next factor. Therefore, the fourth factor is entitled 'socialisation and relaxation'

As stated before, factor five is also a 'socialisation' related factor that includes two business-orientated variables, 'Business meal' and 'Socialize with customer, partners or workmates'. These factor loadings were 0.818 and 0.783 and no double loadings were found (using the criterion of weight greater than 0.4). Based on the discussion of factor 4 as 'Socialize and relaxation' above, one can conclude that business purpose dining out is not relaxed, but more akin to an obligation, which is different to socialising dining out with family and friends. Therefore, the fifth factor is entitled 'business purpose'.

The last factor includes two variables, which are ‘Nutritious food’ and ‘Bu food therapy’. These two variables scored a factor loading of 0.895 and 0.895 respectively and are both health-orientated dining out motivation in this study. Therefore, the last factor is entitled ‘Healthy diet’.

The dining out motivation variables that are used in the questionnaire have been derived from the literature and the results of the pilot studies. One of the issues that the researcher argues is that most previous food studies were related to a Western society-orientation, at least those published in popular journals. There is little research designed specifically to explore Chinese food trends, which the researcher believes is different from those of Western countries. Consequently, this study attempts to develop the research with additional insight from the qualitative pilot study that examined Chinese participants. Since the researcher has argued that Chinese food trends and Western food trends are different from each other, it made sense to compare the results of this study to other past studies that focused on Western countries. However, the results indicated that the motivation is actually not that different to those found in Western studies. For example, Jones (1996a) and Lewis (2006) both proposed ‘convenience’ as one a dining out motivation, which is also found in this study’s analysis. There are, however, some minor differences. For example, in this study ‘wide variety’ includes ‘food from different regions’, which is separated by the above mentioned two researchers. In addition, the ‘fun and relax’ motivation as suggested by researchers such as Goldman (1993) is grouped with casual socialisation variables in this study. It is not surprising that some of the variable groupings are slightly different from those in the past studies. After all, past studies suggest slightly different ways to categorise the variables. The dining out motivation dimensions that have been found in this study are similar to those found in the literature. One can argue that motivation from the push and pull theory is more of intrinsic need, which should be similar for all human beings regardless of culture or ethnical influences. The food selection aspect of behaviour, on the other

hand, is expected to be different, which will be discussed next.

An interesting fact to note is that the 'impulse' motivation suggested by Jones (1996d) and Goldman (1993) is grouped with 'special offer' type of variables in this study. Although the variable scored the lowest factor loading (0.797) in factor one, it does not show double loadings in any other factors, suggesting that it is situated in the right factor. Firstly, this study must admit there is some deficiency with regards to the study of 'impulse' dining out behaviour, which is not the focus of this study. Consequently, this study only includes one variable in dining out motivation, which means that it has no other similar variables to group with. However, the fact that the 'impulse' variable grouped so nicely with other 'special offer' type variables suggests that these variables do share similarity. In addition, the earlier chapters of this study discussed the fact that most respondents dine out with multiple motives; impulse may be may be a part of that. For example, a person may suddenly feel the need to dine out with their friends and start calling them. The behaviour discussed above can be categorised as both social and impulse dining out motivation. Since the impulse dining out motive can potentially mix with various other types of motivation, it might be more meaningful to compare the behavioural differences between 'impulse' and 'planned' dining out behaviour. This issue, however, is not the focus of this study and was not conceived prior to the survey. Therefore, the issues of 'impulse' dining out behaviour have not been fully explored with this study. It is natural that every study has its limitations and finding deficiency is certainly another way to contribute to the literature.

## **The Factor Analysis of Food Selection Behaviour**

This section discusses the results of the factor analysis of the food selection aspect of the variables. Again, KMO and Bartlett's test for the Sphericity are examined prior to carrying out the factor analysis. The KMO value obtained is 0.905, which suggests that the sample is adequate for the factor analysis.

This study uses Eigenvalues above 1 as an indicator as to how many factors need to be extracted. The results suggest that nine factors are appropriate, which score the Eigenvalues of 1.13 and explain 79.88% of the total variance. However, there are no variables that have a factor loading above 0.4, which means nothing is categorised in this factor. This result is rather unusual. However, given that other eight factors produce meaningful results, the researcher decided there was no need to rerun the test. Therefore, the Eigenvalues of eight factors is 1.57 and explained 77.80% of the variances. The alpha value of each factor was above 0.8660, which indicated a high level of reliability for each variable. Given that the initial questionnaire included 54 variables and it is difficult for the research to fit the results into one page, the results are separated into two tables (Table 8-2A and Table 8-2B) where the first table includes the first three factors and the second table includes the remaining five factors. All these eight factors are listed and are discussed as follows:

- (1) Environment
- (2) Beauty and energetic
- (3) Slows aging
- (4) Staff
- (5) Food essential
- (6) Ingredients
- (7) Unique and exotic
- (8) Other guests

**Table 8-2A: Rotated Component Matrix of Food Selection Behaviour**

<b>Factor One: Environment</b>						
High quality decoration	0.945	-	-	-	-	-
Good dining environment	0.940	-	-	-	-	-
Nice background music	0.934	-	-	-	-	-
Hygiene and cleanliness of a restaurant	0.932	-	-	-	-	-
Attractive ornamental decoration	0.921	-	-	-	-	-
High quality lighting	0.901	-	-	-	-	-
Good dining ambience	0.877	-	-	-	-	-
Nice view outside the window of a restaurant	0.874	-	-	-	-	-
Staff has a nice manner	0.738	-	-	0.451	-	-
Comfortable chair	0.727	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Factor Two: Beauty and Energetic</b>						
The level of Fat the food contained	-	0.917	-	-	-	-
The level of Calories the food contained	-	0.847	-	-	-	-
The level of Fibre the food contained	-	0.819	-	-	-	-
The level of Carbohydrate the food contained	-	0.813	-	-	-	-
Maintain beauty	-	0.809	-	-	-	-
The level of Carotene the food contained	-	0.805	-	-	-	-
Nourish or regulate body to harmony	-	0.794	-	-	-	-
The level of Vitamins the food contained	-	0.766	-	-	-	0.438
Slim body	-	0.752	-	-	-	-
Increase energy	-	0.733	-	-	-	0.460
Prevent sickness	-	0.673	0.609	-	-	-
The level of Protein the food contained	-	0.657	-	-	-	0.473
The level of Minerals & Microelements the food contained	-	0.627	-	-	-	-
<b>Factor Three: Slows Aging</b>						
Food is good for Heart	-	-	0.935	-	-	-
Food is good for Liver	-	-	0.920	-	-	-
Food is good for Spleen	-	-	0.920	-	-	-
Food is good for Kidney	-	-	0.913	-	-	-
Food is good for Lungs	-	-	0.889	-	-	-
Help flow of Chi	-	-	0.837	-	-	-
Vitality	-	0.461	0.707	-	-	-
Slows aging	-	0.480	0.522	-	-	-

Table 8-2A introduces the results of the first part of the factor analysis for the food selection behaviour of the respondents in this study. The first column of the table lists the first three factors of the food selection variables, including factor one: environment; second factor: beauty and energetic and third factor: slows aging. Factor loading values are listed in the subsequent columns.

The results in table 8-2A indicate that the first factor consists of ten variables that include 'High quality decoration', 'Good dining environment', 'Nice background music', 'Hygiene and cleanness of a restaurant', 'Attractive ornamental decoration', 'High quality lighting', 'Good dining ambience', 'Nice view outside the window of a restaurant', 'Staff has nice manner' and 'Comfortable chair'. All these variables have a factor loading ranging from 0.945 to 0.727. All these variables are related to the environmental aspects of a restaurant except for one variable: 'staff has a nice manner'. Although it was unexpected to find this variable in factor one, the variable shows a double loading in factor four as 'Staff' with the value of loading 0.451 by using the criterion of weight greater than 0.4. This means that the variable also shows a certain level of similarity to factor four, which is reasonable since factor four is mostly about restaurant staff. Therefore, the first factor is entitled 'environment'.

Factor two of Table 8-2A consists of thirteen variables that score factor loadings ranging from 0.917 to 0.627. These thirteen variables are 'The level of fat the food contained', 'The level of calories the food contained', 'The level of fibre the food contained', 'The level of carbohydrate the food contained', 'Maintain beauty', 'The level of carotene the food contained', 'Nourish or regulate body to harmony', 'The level of vitamins the food contained', 'Slim body', 'Increase energy', 'Prevent sickness', 'The level of protein the food contained' and 'The level of minerals and microelements the food contained'. The variables in this factor can be divided into two types, namely function and components of food. In terms of function, the factor includes variables such as 'Maintain beauty' and 'Slim body', which are beauty

functions, and 'Prevent sickness' and 'Increase energy', which are health aspects. In terms of components, the factor includes variables, such as 'The level of fat the food contained', 'The level of calories the food contained', 'The level of fibre the food contained' and so on, which are also beauty and health related variables. Therefore, the second factor can be named 'beauty and energetic'. It is important to note that some of the variables in this factor scored double loadings in factor three as 'Slows aging' and factor six as 'Ingredients'. The variable of 'Prevent sickness' also shows a loading of 0.609 in factor three. Three of the variables show double loadings in factor six, which are 'The level of vitamin the food contained' (loading=0.438), 'Increase energy' (loading=0.460) and 'The level of protein the food contained' (loading=0.473).

Factor three consists of eight variables, which are about food that strengthen the function of internal organs as 'Food is good for heart', 'Food is good for liver', 'Food is good for spleen', 'Food is good for kidneys' and 'Food is good for lungs'; increasing vitality is 'Help flow of Chi', 'Vitality' and 'Slows aging'. This factor is similar to factor two as both of these factors are health related. The major difference between these two factors is that factor two is more 'beauty' related and factor three is more 'slows aging' orientated. Two variables, 'Vitality' and 'Slows aging', show double loadings in factor two with a loading value of 0.461 and 0.480 respectively, which is understandable since these two factors are similar to each other and 'Slows aging' is a 'Beauty and energetic' related variable. Therefore, the third factor is entitled 'slows aging'.

Table 8-2B reports the results of the second part of the factor analysis of the food selection behaviour in this study. The first column of the table lists the other five factors of the food selection behaviour variables, which includes the fourth factor: staff; the fifth factor: food essential; the sixth factor: ingredients; the seventh factor: unique and exotic and the eighth factor: other guests. The factor loading values are listed in the subsequent columns.

**Table 8-2B: Rotated Component Matrix of Food Selection Behaviour**

<b>Factor Four: Staff</b>									
TV to watch	-	-	-	0.853	-	-	-	-	-
Skilled staff to provide good service	-	-	-	0.845	-	-	-	-	-
Staff dress appropriately	0.544	-	-	0.734	-	-	-	-	-
Staff explain well	0.577	-	-	0.701	-	-	-	-	-
Staff is knowledgeable about the food	0.411	-	-	0.701	-	-	-	-	-
Staff remember me	0.559	-	-	0.678	-	-	-	-	-
Staff respond to my call quickly	0.622	-	-	0.672	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Factor Five: Food Essential</b>									
The Smell of food	-	-	-	-	0.929	-	-	-	-
Hygiene of food	-	-	-	-	0.830	-	-	-	-
The Taste of food	-	-	-	-	0.814	-	-	-	-
The Freshness of food	-	-	-	-	0.771	-	-	-	-
The Presentation/appearance of food	-	-	-	-	0.755	-	-	-	-
<b>Factor Six: Ingredients</b>									
The Nutritious value of food	-	-	0.416	-	-	0.773	-	-	-
Herbal ingredients	-	-	-	-	-	0.767	-	-	-
No artificial ingredients	-	-	-	-	0.430	0.687	-	-	-
Not cooked with too much oil	-	-	-	-	-	0.686	-	-	-
Expensive raw materials used	-	-	-	-	-	0.432	-	-	-
<b>Factor Seven: Unique and Exotic</b>									
Exotic flavour food	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.892	-	-
The uniqueness of food	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.887	-	-
Special serving food (BBQ, hot pot)	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.799	-	-
<b>Factor Eight: Other Guests</b>									
Nice place to have conversation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.757	-
Other guests behave accordingly	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.733	-
Customers share similar social status	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.595	-
Eigenvalues	15.07	8.27	5.73	4.12	3.11	2.24	1.91	1.57	1.13
% of Variance	27.91	15.31	10.61	7.62	5.75	4.14	3.54	2.90	2.08
Cumulative %	27.91	43.22	53.83	61.45	67.20	71.35	74.89	77.80	79.88
Alpha	0.9706	0.9706	0.9706	0.9521	0.9339	0.9043	0.8713	0.8660	
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.									
a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.									

The results in table 8-2B indicate that factor four consists of seven variables, including ‘TV to watch’ ‘Skilled staff to provide good service’, ‘Staff dress appropriately’, ‘Staff explain well’, ‘Staff is knowledgeable about the food’, ‘Staff remember me’, and ‘Staff respond to my call quickly’, which score factor loadings ranging from 0.853 to 0.672. The variables in this factor are all ‘restaurant staff’ related, except for the variable of ‘TV to watch’. Five of the ‘restaurant staff’ related variables also showed double loadings in factor one as ‘Environment’, which suggests that factor one and factor four show a close relationship to each other. Therefore, the fourth factor can be entitled ‘Staff’.

Factor five consists of five variables that are related to the basic qualities of food in a restaurant, which includes ‘The smell of food’, ‘Hygiene of food’, ‘The taste of food’, ‘The freshness of food’ and ‘The presentation/appearance of food’. The factor loading ranges from 0.929 to 0.755 and no double loadings were found in this factor (using the criterion of weight greater than 0.4). The factor is therefore entitled ‘food essential’.

Factor six consists of five variables which are related to the ingredients used in the cooking process and nutrition. These five variables are ‘The nutritious value of food’, ‘Herbal ingredients’, ‘No artificial ingredients’, ‘Not cooked with too much oil’ and ‘Expensive raw materials used’. Two of these variables show double loadings in factors three as ‘Slows aging’ and five as ‘Food essential’, which are both ‘The nutritious value of food’ with the loading value of 0.416 and ‘No artificial ingredients’ with the loading value of 0.430. Factor six, therefore, is partially a health and partially a food essential related factor, which can be entitled ‘Ingredients’.

Factor seven includes three variables, which are ‘Exotic flavour food’, ‘The uniqueness of food’ and ‘Special serving food (BBQ, hot pot)’, scoring a factor loading of 0.892, 0.887 and 0.799 respectively. These variables share a

characteristic of being different and therefore the factor is entitled 'Unique and exotic'.

Factor eight consists of three variables, including 'Nice place to have conversation', 'Other guests behave accordingly' and 'Customers share a similar social status', which are all related to the behaviour of other guests. The factor loading ranges from 0.757 to 0.595 and no double loadings were found in this factor (using the criterion of weight greater than 0.4). The factor is therefore entitled 'Other guests'.

According to literature, the preconceived dimensions for food selection are food (Taylor & Edgar, 1996), place (Mennell, 1985; Finkelstein, 1989; Hjalager and Antonioli, 2000) and people (Bagozzi and Burnkrant, 1980). The results obtained in this study are similar to the preconceived three dimensions but have been divided into more details. For example, the people dimension has been divided into 'staff' and 'other guests' in this study. The food dimension has been separated into more details, which includes 'beauty and energetic', 'slows aging', 'food essential', 'ingredients', and 'unique and exotic'. These food aspect factors are quite consistent with the dimensions proposed in the research framework shown in chapter six as 'Research design', which includes 'intrinsic', 'extrinsic', 'ingredients', and 'health'. The preconceived intrinsic dimension of food quality is equivalent to the 'food essential' factor identified by the analysis. The preconceived extrinsic dimension is similar to the combination of 'unique and exotic' in the food selection factors and 'wide variety' in motivational factors. The ingredients factor needs no further elaboration except that it is a mixture of 'health', 'food essential' and perhaps 'worthiness' factors. For example, some of the expensive food materials are considered to have the ability to strengthen the human body function, but people may consume it for other reasons, such as making themselves feel important. The health dimension shown in the research framework is divided into two parts for factor analysis, which are 'beauty and energetic' and 'slows aging'.

Since the research design of this study was based on the literature review and pilot study one, the researcher concluded that the result was similar to past studies with more detailed emphasis on health issues.

## **Dining Out Patterns vs. Dining Out Behaviour**

The dining out behaviour of the respondents here refers to the current behaviour of the respondents who dine out in a Chinese full-service restaurant. Dining out patterns, on the other hand, refers to (1) occasions for dining out, (2) frequency of dining out in the past three months in a Chinese full-service restaurant, and (3) accompanied by children.

## **Dining Out Patterns vs. Dining Out Motivation**

The following tests were designed to analyse whether dining out patterns possessed any influence on the dining out motivation of the respondents. The initial questionnaire design involved 22 dining out motivation items. For further clarification, the researcher decided to run the test against the underlying dimensions that represent these 22 items. These 22 items have been categorised into 6 underlying dimensions using factor analysis as follows:

### **Factor One: Special offer and Impulse (Six motivations)**

- To try a newly opened restaurant
- A restaurant advertisement encouraged me to come
- Special features of a restaurant
- Restaurant has a special offer
- Celebration
- Just feel like dining out

### **Factor Two: Convenience and labour (Six motivations)**

- Don't want to wash dishes

- Special equipment required to cook some special dishes
- I enjoy being served
- Work or study and unable to cook
- Away from home and unable to cook
- Difficult to prepare and/or cook

**Factor Three: Wide variety** (Three motivations)

- Eating something different
- I enjoy food from different regions
- Large selection of food

**Factor Four: Socialize and relaxation** (Three motivations)

- Time with friends
- Time with family
- I enjoy being relaxed

**Factor Five: Business purpose** (Two motivations)

- A business meal
- Socialise with customers, partners or workmates

**Factor Six: Healthy diet** (two motivations)

- Nutritious food (deep sea fish)
- 'Bu' food therapy

This section consists of three parts: the first part of this section is the relationship between the dining out occasions and the dining out motivation of the respondents, the second part is the relationship between the frequencies of dining out and the dining out motivation and the third part of this section is the relationship between whether the respondents are accompanied by children or not and the dining out motivation of the respondents who dine out for a meal in a Chinese full-service restaurant.

### **Occasions for Dining Out vs. Dining Out Motivation**

The 'occasions for dining out' part of the questionnaire was designed as a single choice question and was meant to be different from the dining out motivation part of the questionnaire. Although the occasions for dining out appear to possess a high degree of similarity to the dining out motivation, the researcher has attempted to examine whether a single dining out occasion can have multiple motives or not. For example, a respondent who dines out with elders and with children may be triggered by both family reasons and health reasons. Therefore, this part of the first section conducted the analysis of variance (ANOVA) to examine the relationships between the occasions for dining out and dining out motivation.

Table 8-3 summarises the relationship between the occasions for dining out in a Chinese full-service restaurant and the motivation of dining out, which refers to the first hypothesis (H1) as 'Dining out patterns impact Shanghai residents' dining out motivation'. The first column of the table lists the motivation of dining out, which includes (1) Special offer and impulse; (2) Convenience and labour; (3) Wide variety; (4) Socialisation and Relaxation; (5) Business purpose; and (6) Healthy diet. From the second column to the ninth column are the mean values of the relationship between dining out motivation and dining out occasions, and these occasions include 'a business meal', 'impulse', 'dining out with children', 'dining out with elders', 'dining out with colleagues', 'a romantic meal' and 'celebration'. The F-value of the analysis of variance is listed in the tenth column and the results of the analysis of the post-hoc test are in the last column.

**Table 8-3: Occasions for Dining Out vs. Dining Out Motivation**

Motivation Factor Analysis	Dining Out Occasions								F- value	Tukey
	1 A business meal	2 Impulse	3 Dining out with children	4 Dining out with elder	5 Dining out with colleagues	6 Dining out with friends	7 A romantic meal	8 celebration		
	Mean									
Special Offer and Impulse	4.54	4.84	4.66	4.72	4.69	4.83	3.92	4.25	25**	all>7
Convenience and Labour	4.69	4.79	4.48	4.81	5.08	4.79	4.79	4.99	8**	5>all
Wide Variety	4.47	4.87	4.83	4.70	4.75	4.96	4.96	4.50	9**	6,7>1,8
Socialisation and Relaxation	4.08	4.78	5.10	5.01	4.87	4.82	4.09	4.83	132**	3,4,6,8>7
Business Purpose	5.69	4.80	5.40	4.63	5.41	4.71	4.39	4.25	52**	1,5>2,4,6,7,8
Healthy Diet	5.06	5.16	5.37	5.00	5.25	4.61	4.87	5.13	19**	3>1,4,6,7
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level ** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level										

The results in table 8-3 indicate that respondents attribute a different level of importance to various dining out motivations in this study (i.e. all items show significance). The results indicate that the respondents who dine out for a romantic occasion are less likely to be motivated by the first factor as ‘special offer and impulse’. This is logical since most people desiring to have a romantic meal usually require to plan ahead and arrange things such as flowers, romantic music and so on.

The second factor ‘Convenience and labour’ includes ‘away from home and unable to cook’ and ‘work or study and unable to cook’ and these two are associated with the respondents’ incapability to cook. Therefore, it is not surprising that the respondents who dine out with colleagues (group 5) show a significantly higher mean value than other groups. This is very common in Chinese society, where people are too busy to prepare a meal and so are more likely to dine out in a restaurant within the vicinity of their work place. The fifth factor ‘Business purpose’ includes ‘socialise with customers, partners and workmates’ and ‘a business meal’; for these two motivations, the respondents in group 1 ‘dining out for a business meal’ and group 5 ‘dining out with colleagues’ have higher mean values than the other groups of respondents. These results can also be explained because the first factor is both work and convenience related and the fifth factor is both social and business related. From the discussion above, one can generally conclude that work related motivational factors can be divided into two categories of (1) convenience and (2) socialisation.

The third factor ‘Wide variety’ includes ‘large selection of food’, ‘I enjoy food from different regions’ and ‘eating something different’. The results in Table 8-3 show that the respondents who dine out for the occasions of ‘dining out with friends’ and ‘a romantic meal’ are more likely to attribute high importance to this motivational factor with the mean values of 4.96 and 4.96 respectively. The respondents who dine out based on the occasion of ‘impulse’ also show high regard for the third factor (the mean value of 4.87). The results suggest that the respondents who dine out for the occasions of ‘a romantic meal’, ‘dining out with friends’ and ‘impulse’ are more attracted towards having a large selection of diversified food varieties in a Chinese full-service restaurant.

The fourth factor ‘Socialisation and Relaxation’ includes ‘time with family’, ‘I enjoy being relaxed’ and ‘time with friends’. The main reason for discussing this factor is

because it seems to share a certain level of similarity where both are non-business related social dining out motivations. The results in table 8-3 indicate that the respondents who dine out for a romantic meal are less likely to score high mean values for this factor (mean=4.09). This is easy to understand since people who dine out for a romantic purpose do not want anyone else to be included in their occasion.

Finally, the results in table 8-3 show that all respondents are concerned with the sixth factor as 'healthy diet', especially those who dine out with their children.

The purpose of this part of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) is only to show that the occasions for dining out can be used to understand the motivation for dining out, thus gaining a clear indication of what the respondents really want (the part of hypothesis H1 as 'dining out patterns impacts Shanghai residents' dining out motivation'). The results also clearly reveal that respondents dine out for multiple purposes. For example, people go out for a business meal with their family, which suggests that the dining out is triggered by both family bonding and business motivation. The next part of the first section discusses the relationship between the motivation of dining out and the frequency of dining out in a Chinese full-service restaurant.

## Frequency of Dining Out vs. Dining Out Motivation

Table 8-4 summarises the relationship between the frequencies of dining out in the past three months in a Chinese full-service restaurant and the motivation of dining out, which refers to the first hypothesis (H1) as ‘Dining out patterns impacts Shanghai residents’ dining out motivation’. The first column of the table contains six dining out motivational factors in a Chinese full-service restaurant which are same as in Table 8-3. The mean values of the frequencies of dining out follow in the next four columns. Listed in the last two columns of are the F-value and the post-hoc test results (Tukey), which are produced by using the analysis of variance.

**Table 8-4: Frequencies of Dining Out vs. Dining Out Motivation**

Motivation Factor Analysis	Frequencies of dining out				F- value	Tukey
	1 Low Frequency 1-3 times	2 Medium Frequency 4-5 times	3 High Frequency 6-7 times	4 Very High Frequency 8 or more times		
	Mean					
Special Offer and Impulse	4.66	4.58	4.44	4.70	5**	4>3
Socialisation and Relaxation	4.50	4.41	4.41	4.31	3*	1>4
Business Purpose	4.94	4.89	4.95	5.15	4**	4>1,2
Healthy Diet	5.30	4.90	5.01	5.00	3*	1>2
Convenience and Labour	-	-	-	-	-	-
Wide Variety	-	-	-	-	-	-
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level						
** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level						

By comparing the F-value of the analysis of variance of Tables 8-3 as ‘Occasions for dining out vs. Dining out motivation’ and Table 8-4 as ‘Frequency of dining out vs. Dining out motivation’, one can immediately determine that the level of significance of ‘Frequency of dining out vs. Dining out motivation’ is lower than the level of significance in Table 8-3. This means that the frequency of dining out is not as strong for ‘occasions for dining out vs. Dining out motivation’ in terms of predicting the respondents’ dining out motivation. Despite the above fact, the results of ‘frequency of dining out vs. the motivation of dining out’ show there are only 4 motivational factors

scoring probability value lower than 0.05, denoting the significance.

The respondents who dine out with 'very high frequency' (8 times or more) tend to attribute a high level of importance to factor one 'Special offer and impulse' and the third factor 'Business purpose' with mean values of 4.70 and 5.15 respectively. These two factors are both related to work or convenience purposes, which can suggest that the work related motivational factors, are most likely to motivate people into dining out on a frequent basis.

On the other hand, the respondents who dine out on a low frequency basis (1-3 times) are more likely to attribute high importance to non-business related social motivational factors, such as 'Socialisation and Relaxation' and 'healthy diet' with mean values of 4.50 and 5.10 respectively. This suggests that the respondents who dine out on a high frequency basis are less likely to dine out for social gatherings.

Compared with Table 8-3, the results in table 8-4 are less significant. Although some significance has been noted, the 'Frequency of dining out' does not appear to be a good indicator for predicting the respondents' dining out motivation in a Chinese full-service restaurant. Therefore, the results in Table 8-4 do not fully support the hypothesis that 'frequency of dining out can affect the motivation of dining out of the respondents' (part of hypothesis H1 as 'dining outstatus impacts on Shanghai residents' dining out motivation'). The following part of the first section discusses the relationship between the dining out motivation and one of the dining out patterns as 'accompanied by children' in this study.

### Accompanied by Children vs. Dining Out Motivation

Table 8-5 summarises the analysis of the results of the dining out motivation of the respondents and whether they dine out in a Chinese full-service with their children or not, which refers to the first hypothesis (H1) as ‘Dining out patterns impact Shanghai residents’ dining out motivation’. The first column of the table lists six motivational factors for dining out of the respondents in a Chinese full-service restaurant which are same as in Table 8-3, with the respective answers of the respondents in the subsequent columns. The last column is the *t*-value of the results of the independent sample *t*-test analysis.

**Table 8-5: Accompanied by Children vs. Dining Out Motivation**

Motivation Factor Analysis	Accompanied by children			<i>t</i> -value
	Yes		No	
	Mean			
Convenience and Labour	4.68	<	4.82	-2.541*
Socialisation and Relaxation	5.00	>	4.27	15.288**
Healthy Diet	5.28	>	4.92	6.037**
Special Offer and Impulse	-	-	-	-
Wide Variety	-	-	-	-
Business Purpose	-	-	-	-
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level ** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level				

The results in table 8-5 show three motivational factors scored a probability value lower than the significance level of 0.05. Some of the results are very easy to interpret. For example, one of the results showed that the respondents who dine out with their children are less likely to attribute high importance to the motivational factor of ‘Convenience and labour’ (mean=4.68 vs. mean=4.82). As previously discussed, this motivational factor is largely associated with adults busy with work and having no choice but to dine at a nearby restaurant, which explains why they are less likely to be accompanied by children. The respondents who are accompanied by children are more

likely to show interest in other types of social activities, such as the motivational factors of 'Socialisation and Relaxation' and 'Healthy diet' (means=5.00 vs. mean=4.27, mean=5.28 vs. mean=4.92 respectively).

The results of the analysis also indicated that other non-significant motivational factors are still meaningful. For example, the motivational factor of 'Business purpose' showed an insignificant difference between the respondents, which can be interpreted that this motivational factor is common to every respondent regardless of whether they are accompanied by children or not. This result confirmed the findings and discussion for Table 8-3, which suggests that some people bring their children to a business event.

The results in table 8-5 indicate that the dining out pattern as 'accompanied by children' affects the level of importance that the respondents attribute to some of the dining out motivations. Therefore, one can conclude that the presence of children can affect motivation (the part of hypothesis H1 as 'dining outstatus impacts on Shanghai residents' dining out motivation'). The next section of this chapter discusses the relationship between the dining out patterns and the food selection behaviour of respondents in a Chinese full-service restaurant.

## **Dining Out Patterns vs. Food Selection Behaviour**

The following tests were designed to analyse whether dining out patterns possess any influence on the respondents' food selection behaviour. The initial questionnaire design involved 54 food selection items. For further clarification, the researcher decided to run the test against the underlying dimensions that represent these 54 items. These 54 items have been categorised into 8 underlying dimensions using factor analysis as follows:

### **Factor One: Environment** (Ten variables)

- High quality decoration
- Good dining environment
- Nice background music
- Hygiene and cleanliness of a restaurant
- Attractive ornamental decoration
- High quality lighting
- Good dining ambience
- Nice view outside the window of a restaurant
- Staff has nice manner
- Comfortable chair

### **Factor Two: Beauty and Energetic** (Thirteen variables)

- The level of Fat the food contained
- The level of Calories the food contained
- The level of Fibre the food contained
- The level of Carbohydrate the food contained
- Maintain beauty
- The level of Carotene the food contained
- Nourish or regulate body to harmony
- The level of Vitamin the food contained
- Slim body
- Increase energy
- Prevent sickness
- The level of Protein the food contained

- The level of Minerals & Microelements the food contained

**Factor Three: Slows aging** (Eight variables)

- Food is good for Heart
- Food is good for Liver
- Food is good for Spleen
- Food is good for Kidney
- Food is good for Lungs
- Help flow of Chi
- Vitality
- Slows aging

**Factor Four: Staff** (Seven variables)

- TV to watch
- Skilled staff to provide good service
- Staff dress appropriately
- Staff explain well
- Staff is knowledgeable about the food
- Staff remember me
- Staff responds to my call quickly

**Factor Five: Food essential** (Five variables)

- The Smell of food
- Hygiene of food
- The Taste of food
- The Freshness of food
- The Presentation/appearance of food

**Factor Six: Ingredients** (Five variables)

- The Nutritious value of food
- Herbal ingredients
- No artificial ingredients
- Not cooked with too much oil
- Expensive raw materials used

**Factor Seven: Unique and Exotic** (Three variables)

- Exotic flavour of food
- The Uniqueness of food
- Special serving of food (BBQ, hot pot)

**Factor Eight: Other guests** (Three variables)

- Nice place to have conversation
- Other guests behave accordingly
- Customers share similar social status

This section consists of three parts, the first being the relationship between the dining out occasions and the food selection behaviour of the respondents; the second part is the relationship between the frequencies of dining out and the food selection behaviour and the third part of this section is the relationship between whether the respondents are accompanied by children or not and the food selection behaviour of the respondents who dine in a Chinese full-service restaurant.

**Occasions for Dining Out vs. Food Selection Behaviour**

Table 8-6 summarises the relationship between the dining out occasion and the food selection behaviour of the respondents, which refers to the fifth hypothesis (H5) as ‘Dining out patterns impact Shanghai residents’ food selection behaviour’. The first column of the table lists the eight dimensions of food selection behaviour of respondents, which include (1) Environment, (2) Beauty and Energetic, (3) Slows aging, (4) Staff, (5) Food essential, (6) Ingredients, (7) Unique and Exotic, and (8) Other guests. The mean values of the relationship between food selection behaviour and the occasion of dining out are listed in the second column to the ninth column. The F-value of the analysis of variance is in the tenth column and the results of the analysis of the post-hoc test as Tukey results are in the last column.

**Table 8-6: Occasions for Dining Out vs. Food Selection Behaviour**

Food Selection	Occasions for dining out								F-value	Tukey
	1 A business Meal	2 Impulse	3 Dining Out with Children	4 Dining out with elder	5 Dining out with colleagues	6 Dining out with friends	7 A romantic meal	8 Celebration		
	Mean									
Environment	4.85	4.43	4.92	5.28	5.07	4.17	5.13	4.52	38.9**	4,7>all
Beauty and energetic	5.23	5.21	5.47	5.18	5.33	5.05	5.10	5.07	5.3**	3,5>6,7,8
Slows aging	5.49	5.09	5.78	5.26	5.57	5.00	5.20	5.14	23.3**	1,3,5>all
Staff	5.16	3.83	4.61	4.87	4.62	4.00	5.05	4.37	73.5**	1,7>2,8
Food essential	5.72	4.43	5.55	5.25	5.54	5.22	5.58	5.49	28.6**	1,7>all
Ingredients	5.11	4.17	5.24	4.77	5.00	4.41	4.78	4.66	37.2**	1,3>all
Unique and Exotic	4.54	4.67	4.69	4.86	4.63	4.93	5.03	4.74	11.7**	6,7>all
Other guests	3.97	4.16	4.91	4.51	4.61	4.61	4.87	4.45	22.2**	3,4,5,6,8>1,2,7
No. of respondents	314	135	253	152	287	570	231	161		
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level ** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level										

The results in table 8-6 indicate that the respondents from group 4 'dining out with elders' and group 7 as 'a romantic meal' (mean=5.28 and mean=5.13 respectively) are most likely to score a high level of importance for the food selection behaviour of 'environment'. Since the 'environment' factor includes items such as 'comfortable chairs', and 'hygiene & cleanliness', it is understandable why the respondents who dine out with elderly family members show a high concern for these standards. The fact that the respondents who dine out for 'a romantic meal' show a high regard for 'environment' can also be easily interpreted, because the factor of 'environment' contains items like 'good environment' and 'nice background music'. These items are all essential for couples to enjoy a romantic meal. The respondents in group 6 'dining out with friends' scored the lowest mean value for 'environment' (mean=4.17).

The second food selection factor is 'beauty and energetic'. Beauty and energetic are different attributes, but sometimes these two attributes possess characteristics that overlap each other. For example, some people want a 'slim body' for beauty reasons, and at the same time, loss of excessive weight enables one to feel more healthy and energetic. The results showed in Table 8-6 indicate that all the respondents, despite the occasion, showed a high level of importance towards 'beauty and energetic' (all having mean value above 5.00). For the different occasions, the respondents who dine out with children attribute the highest level of importance to the factor of 'beauty and energetic'. The result is slightly unexpected since one could expect older people to show a higher concern for food that keeps them 'energetic'. The respondents who dined out for the reasons of 'dining out with friends', 'a romantic meal' and 'celebration' scored the lowest mean values (mean =5.05, mean=5.10, and mean=5.07 respectively). Both occasions of 'a romantic meal' and 'celebration' were non-frequent in nature, which can suggest that people who do not dine out very often could show relatively less concern for the reason of 'beauty and energetic'. This is also probably because of their desire to indulge themselves once in a while.

The third factor is 'slows ageing', which is related to the previous factor 'beauty and energetic', but is separated by statistical analysis. Since factor two 'beauty and energetic' and factor three 'slows aging' are similar to each other, their results also show a certain level of similarity. For example, the respondents who dine out with children show a high concern for food that 'slows aging', and similar to the analysis of the

second factor, the respondents who dine out with the elderly show relatively lower interest as compared to group 3 'dining out with children' and group 5 'dining out with colleagues'.

The fourth factor of food selection is 'staff', which includes items that are related to the manner and efficiency of staff members in Chinese full-service restaurants (i.e. service quality). The results of the table indicate that the respondents who dine out for 'a business meal' and 'a romantic meal' show a higher concern for this factor with the mean values of 5.16 and 5.05 respectively. This result is expected since business people often want someone to serve them as recognition of their social status. As for the romantic couple, one can only surmise that they want the co-operation of staff to create a perfect event. The respondents who dine out based on the reason of 'impulse' showed the lowest mean for this factor (mean =3.83).

The fifth factor is 'food essential', which refers to the most basic criteria that is used to assess food quality, including 'the taste of food', 'the smell of food' and 'the presentation of food'. Most of the respondents in this analysis attributed a high level of importance to this factor (mean above 5.00), except for the respondents who dine out based on 'impulse' with the mean value of 4.43. Similar to the previous factor of 'staff', the respondents who dine out for 'a business meal' and 'a romantic meal' are more demanding with regards to the food quality in restaurants.

The sixth factor is the 'ingredients' that are used in the preparation of the meal, which also relates to the quality of the food and the healthiness of the food. For example, this factor includes items such as 'herbal ingredients', 'no artificial ingredients' and 'not cooked with too much oil'. On the other hand, the factor also includes the items of 'expensive raw materials used', which to a certain extent relates to the healthiness of food as well as introducing a 'price' element to this factor. The respondents who dined out for 'a business meal' scored the second highest mean (mean=5.11) compared to others, implying that they also care about health and they like expensive food that signifies their prestigious social status. The group of respondents who scored the highest mean for this factor are those who dine out with children (mean=5.24), which can suggest that adults are concerned about the health and diet of their children, especially in China, because of only one child in a family. On the other hand, the group

of respondents who scored the lowest mean for this factor are the ones who dine out based on 'impulse' (mean=4.17). In fact, this group scored low mean values for almost every factor, except the factor of 'beauty and energetic' (mean=5.21). This can suggest that people who dine out based on an impulsive decision do not possess any clear motivation or criteria for selecting food. An observation is made in light of this result that perhaps the main concern for people who dine out on 'impulse' is convenience. In fact, Table 8-3 'Occasions for dining out vs. Dining out motivation' shows findings that support this argument, indicating that the strongest motivation for 'impulse' dining out behaviour are 'do not want to wash dishes' and 'I enjoy being served' (mean=5.10, and mean=5.36 respectively). Furthermore, 'impulse' respondents also scored the highest mean values for the motivational item of 'Bu food therapy' with a mean value of 5.04, which is consistent with the result in Table 8-6 where they showed a high importance for 'beauty and energetic' and 'slows aging' (mean=5.21 and mean=5.09 respectively).

The seventh factor is 'unique and exotic' quality of food, which includes the items of 'exotic flavour food', 'uniqueness' and 'special way of serving food'. The item of 'exotic flavour food' often refers to food from other countries or at least from other provinces of China. This matter will be further elaborated in a later chapter regarding the influence of culture on dining out behaviour. Results indicate that the respondents who dine out for the occasions of 'dining out with friends' and 'a romantic meal' are most likely to attribute a high level of importance to the 'unique and exotic' factor. The respondents who dine out for 'a business meal' are less likely to show a high interest in 'unique and exotic' food, though the mean is still above the mid-point of scale 4.

Presumably, certain unique and exotic features are deemed inappropriate in a formal occasion such as a business meal. For example, a 'special way of serving food' includes BBQ and hot pot, which is a popular DIY (do it yourself, implying customers cook the food by themselves) way of dining out in China, but may not be appropriate for some occasions.

The final factor is 'other guests', which seeks to find out whether the respondents are concerned about other guests' behaviour disturbing their own. The results indicate that the respondents who 'dine out with children' (with the mean value of 4.91) are most likely to be mindful about this factor, especially compared to business meal respondents with the mean value of 3.97. It is surprising that business meal respondents attribute

such low mean values for this factor, since it is presumed that they need to discuss important business matters. In China however, business people often dine in an isolated room of a restaurant when they dine out, which separates them from the other guests. To dine in an isolated room is, of course, more expensive but offers them the privacy they require. Therefore, it is possible that other guests' behaviour has had no affect on them in the past and they are not aware of what it is like in a noisy environment.

In conclusion, it is evident that occasion is a strong factor that affects the respondents' dining out behaviour (both motivation and food selection). These results support the part of hypothesis H5 that argues 'Dining out patterns impact Shanghai residents' food selection behaviour'.

## Frequencies of Dining Out vs. Food Selection Behaviour

Table 8-7 introduces the results of the relationship between the frequencies of dining out in the past three months in a Chinese full-service restaurant and the food selection behaviour of respondents, which refers to the fifth hypothesis (H5) as ‘Dining out patterns impact Shanghai residents’ food selection behaviour’. Eight food selection dimensions are listed in the first column, which include (1) Environment, (2) Beauty and Energetic, (3) Slows aging, (4) Staff, (5) Food essential, (6) Ingredients, (7) Unique and Exotic, and (8) Other guests. The mean values of the relationship of low frequencies of dining out (less than 3 times in the past three months) and the food selection behaviour, the mean values of the relationship of medium and high frequencies of dining out (over 3 times in the past three months) and the food selection behaviour of respondents are listed in columns three, four and five respectively. Listed in the last two columns of Table 8-7 are the F-value and the post-hoc test results (Tukey), which are produced by using analysis of variance.

**Table 8-7: Frequencies of Dining Out vs. Food Selection Behaviour**

Food Selection	Frequencies of dining out				F-value	Tukey
	1 Low Frequency 1-3 times	2 Medium Frequency 4-5 times	3 High Frequency 6-7 times	4 Very High Frequency 8 or more times		
	Mean					
Slows aging	5.37	5.20	5.38	5.34	4.64	1,3>2
Food essential	5.38	5.31	5.42	5.52	3.56	4>2
Ingredients	4.85	4.65	4.85	4.81	6.13	all>2
Other guests	4.66	4.41	4.70	4.46	9.01	1,3>2,4
Environment	-	-	-	-	-	-
Beauty and energetic	-	-	-	-	-	-
Staff	-	-	-	-	-	-
Unique and Exotic	-	-	-	-	-	-
No. of respondents	485	791	416	411		
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level						
** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level						

The results in table 8-7 show four food selection factors that score a probability value

lower than 0.05 (i.e. indicating significance). All the significant results such as ‘slows aging’, ‘food essential’, ‘ingredients’ and ‘other guests’ show that the respondents who dine out with ‘medium frequency’ are most likely to attribute a low level of importance to these four factors. The respondents who dine out with ‘low frequency’ (1 – 3 times) and ‘high frequency’ (6 – 7 times) in a Chinese full-service restaurant are more likely to show high mean values for these four factors. Despite the relativities of high and low scores, all the means are above the mid-point scale of 4.00.

The results in the table suggest that the ‘frequency of dining out’ as a factor is less valid than the factor of ‘occasions for dining out’ in terms of determining respondents’ food selection behaviour. Therefore, this part of hypothesis H5 is not fully supported by the results.

## Accompanied by Children vs. Food Selection Behaviour

Table 8-8 summarises the analysis of the results of the food selection behaviour of the respondents and whether they dine out in a Chinese full-service with their children or not, which refers to the fifth hypothesis (H5) as ‘Dining out patterns impact Shanghai residents’ food selection behaviour’. The first column of the table lists the name of the food selection dimension, which includes (1) Environment, (2) Beauty and Energetic, (3) Slows aging, (4) Staff, (5) Food essential, (6) Ingredients, (7) Unique and Exotic, and (8) Other guests. The positive answer, ‘Yes’, as given by respondents is listed in the second column and the negative answer, ‘No’, is in the fourth column. The *t*-value of the independent sample t-test analysis is listed in the last column.

**Table 8-8: Accompanied by Children vs. Food Selection Behaviour**

Food Selection	Accompanied by children			<i>t</i> -value
	Yes		No	
	Mean			
Beauty and energetic	5.32	>	5.16	2.638**
Slows aging	5.53	>	5.25	5.199**
Food essential	5.52	>	5.36	2.734**
Ingredients	5.01	>	4.70	5.714**
Other guest	4.73	>	4.49	4.514**
Environment	-	-	-	-
Staff	-	-	-	-
Unique and Exotic	-	-	-	-
No. of respondents	414		1689	
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level				
** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level				

The results in table 8-8 indicate that there are three food selection dimensions scoring probability values above 0.05, which means no statistically significant results can be found for these three factors. In another words, whether or not children accompanied the respondents does not change their perception about ‘environment’, ‘staff’ and ‘unique and exotic’.

For those factors that show a significant difference (i.e.  $p < 0.05$ ), all the *t*-values are

positive, which means that the respondents who are accompanied by children when they dine out in a restaurant are more likely to feature a higher mean value for most of the food selection factors than those who are not accompanied by children. The factors of 'ingredients' and 'slows aging' scored the highest and second highest *t*-value ( $t=5.714$  and  $t=5.199$  respectively), suggesting that the respondents who dine out with children pay more attention to health related factors. The *t*-value for 'other guests' is also high ( $t=4.514$ ), suggesting that the respondents who dine out with children are more concerned about other guests' behaviour in a restaurant, presumably because they do not want to be bothered.

Table 8-8 above shows that when accompanied by children, the respondents' food selection behaviour was affected to some extent, especially with regards to health related factors. The results in table 8-8 also support the part of the hypothesis H5 which is 'Dining out patterns impact on Shanghai residents' food selection behaviour', indicating that hypothesis H5 is partially accurate.

## **Summary**

From all the analyses and discussion above, one can conclude that 'occasions for dining out' is the most efficient way to predict respondents' dining out behaviour (for both motivation and food selection behaviour) compared to the factors of 'frequency of dining out' and 'accompanied by children'. This means that hypothesis H1 'dining out patterns impact Shanghai residents' dining out motivation' and H5 'dining out patterns affect Shanghai residents' food selection behaviour' are not fully supported by the results of the analysis in this study. Albeit the hypotheses H1 and H5 are not entirely accurate, the above discussion helps to achieve the part of research objectives one and three, which are 'understanding factors that impact Shanghai residents' dining out motivation' and 'understand the impact of cultural elements, socio-demographic variables and dining out behaviour to food selection behaviour' respectively. The next section of this chapter discusses the relationship between cultural orientation and dining out behaviour of the respondents in this study.

## Cultural Orientation vs. Dining Out Behaviour

This section discusses the relationship between cultural orientation and the dining out behaviour of the respondents. As stated before, the target research population for this study is in Shanghai, China. Shanghai is a large city with a considerable number of immigrants from other provinces of China and a place that attracts a great deal of international business. Consequently, Shanghai incorporates many different cultures from various places. The analysis and discussion in this section is an attempt to understand whether the incorporation of different cultures affects Shanghai residents' dining out behaviour or not. In order to accomplish this point, the study includes a number of factors that can help indicate the respondents' cultural orientation. These factors are listed as following:

- (1) Respondents' language proficiencies and media preferences
- (2) Cuisine preferences
- (3) Length of stay in Shanghai and other places.

Using these factors, the study is able to calculate two values: (1) the level of Shanghai cultural orientation, and (2) the level of other cultural orientation.

Using these two values and the birthplace of the respondents, the study has classified the respondents into five groups, as shown in Table 8-9 as cultural orientation clusters. For ease of discussion, each group has been assigned a name. The group of Shanghai born respondents who show strong, pure Shanghai culture orientation is named '*Assimilator*', which means that they assimilate outsiders. The group of respondents who were Shanghai born but show signs of other cultural orientation higher than the Shanghai cultural orientation are named '*Absorber*', suggesting they absorb outside cultures as well. The respondents who are non-Shanghai born but show high Shanghai cultural orientation are named '*Acculturator*' which suggests that they are acculturated into the local culture when they immigrate to Shanghai. The non-Shanghai born respondents with a high level of original cultural orientation are named as '*Retainer*', suggesting that they retain their original culture. The final group of respondents are

people who show a high level of both cultural orientations, thus is named as *‘Bicultural’*

**Table 8-9: Cultural Orientation Clusters**

	<b>Shanghai Born</b>	<b>Non-Shanghai Born</b>
<b>Shanghai Culture Orientated</b>	Assimilator	Acculturator
<b>Other Culture Orientated</b>	Absorber	Retainer
<b>Two Culture Orientation</b>	Bicultural	

These five groups are used to conduct the analysis of variance (ANOVA) with dining out motivation and food selection behaviour. The results of the analysis allow the study to understand how cultural elements impact the respondents’ dining out behaviour in Shanghai. This in turn examines the hypotheses H2 and H6 respectively, which are:

H2: Cultural elements impact Shanghai residents’ dining out motivation.

H6: Cultural elements impact Shanghai residents’ food selection behaviour.

The next part of this section discusses the relationship between cultural orientation and the dining out motivation and the food selection behaviour of the respondents in Shanghai.

### **Cultural Orientation vs. Dining Out Motivation**

Table 8-10 summarises the relationship between the cultural orientation and the dining out motivation of the respondents in a Chinese full-service restaurant, which refers to the second hypothesis (H2) as ‘Cultural elements impact Shanghai residents’ dining out motivation’. The first column of the table lists the motivators of dining out for this study, which includes (1) Special offer and impulse; (2) Convenience and labour; (3) Wide variety; (4) Socialisation and Relaxation; (5) Business purpose; and (6) Healthy diet. The mean values of the relationship between the dining out motivation and the cultural orientation of the respondents are listed in between the columns two and the column six.

The F-value of the analysis of variance is in the seventh column and the results of the analysis of the post-hoc test as Tukey is in the last column.

**Table 8-10: Cultural Orientation vs. Dining Out Motivation**

Motivation Factor Analysis	Cultural orientation					F- value	Tukey
	1 Retainer	2 Acculturator	3 Absorber	4 Assimilator	5 Bicultural		
	Mean						
Special Offer and Impulse	4.85	4.79	4.48	4.64	4.52	5**	1,2>4,5
Convenience and Labour	4.65	4.08	4.06	4.81	4.82	7**	1,4,5>2,3
Wide Variety	4.47	4.18	4.48	4.93	4.75	11**	4,5>1,2,3
Socialisation and Relaxation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Business Purpose	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Healthy Diet	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
No. of respondents	144	39	50	674	1154		
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level ** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level							

The results of the table indicate that three out of the six dining out motivational factors are significantly affected by the cultural orientation of the respondents. The ‘Retainer’ (group 1) shows a higher likelihood of dining out on the motivational factors of ‘Special offer and impulse’ and ‘Convenience and labour’ with mean values of 4.85 and 4.65 respectively. On the other hand, the ‘Retainer’ group is less likely to dine out on the motivational factor of ‘Wide variety’ with the mean value of 4.47. From these results, one can see a pattern where the first group of respondents, ‘Retainer’, is more likely to dine out for necessity rather than for leisure reasons.

The second group of the respondents as ‘Acculturator’ is less motivated by the motivational factors of ‘Convenience and labour’ and ‘Wide variety’ with a mean value of 4.08 and 4.18 respectively. They are, however, happy to dine out for ‘Special offer and impulse’ with the mean value of 4.79.

The third group of the respondents as ‘Absorber’ shows a significantly lower interest in

dining out for the motivational factor of 'Convenience and labour' with a mean value of 4.06. On the other hand, the fourth group (Assimilator) and the fifth group (Bicultural) show signs of similar dining out motivation compared with the third group of the respondents as 'Absorber'. For example, they are both highly likely to dine out for the reasons of 'Convenience and labour' and 'Wide variety', and are less likely to dine out for the motivational factor of 'Special offer and impulse'.

Based on the above discussion, the study can conclude that the respondents of different cultural orientation show some differences in their dining out motivation. The results thus only partially support hypothesis H2 as 'Cultural elements impact Shanghai residents' dining out motivation'.

## Cultural Orientation vs. Food Selection Behaviour

Table 8-11 summarises the relationship between the cultural orientation of the respondents of this study and food selection behaviour in a Chinese full-service restaurant, which refers to the sixth hypothesis (H6) as ‘Cultural elements impact Shanghai residents’ food selection behaviour’. The first column of the table lists the dimensions of the food selection behaviour of respondents, which are (1) Environment, (2) Beauty and Energetic, (3) Slows aging, (4) Staff, (5) Food essential, (6) Ingredients, (7) Unique and Exotic, and (8) Other guests. The mean values of the relationship between the cultural orientation of respondents and the food selection behaviour are in the second column to the sixth column. The F-value of the analysis of variance is in the seventh column and the results of the analysis of the post-hoc test as Tukey results are in the last column.

**Table 8-11: Cultural Orientation vs. Food Selection Behaviour**

Food Selection	Cultural orientation					F-value	Tukey
	1 Retainer	2 Acculturator	3 Absorber	4 Assimilator	5 Bicultural		
	Mean						
Beauty and energetic	5.20	5.33	4.72	5.13	5.25	4.1	1,5>3
Slows aging	5.10	5.33	4.76	5.32	5.34	5.6	4,5>3
Food essential	5.25	5.67	5.00	5.38	5.45	3.9	2,5>3
Ingredients	4.53	4.92	4.16	4.77	4.81	7.5	2,4,5>3,1
Environment	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Staff	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Unique and Exotic	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other guests	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
No. of respondents	144	39	50	674	1154		
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level ** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level							

The results in table 8-11 show that cultural orientation significantly affects four food

selection factors, which are: 'beauty and energetic', 'slows aging', 'food essential' and 'ingredients'. From the table, it is clear to see that group 3 of the respondents as 'Absorber' was less likely to consider these factors when selecting food or assessing food quality. The fifth group of respondents as 'Bicultural' and the fourth group of respondents as 'Assimilator', on the other hand, showed a high level of concern for these four food selection factors. The 'Acculturator' group respondents showed significantly higher concern for the factors of 'food essential' and 'ingredients' compared to the grouped respondents of 'Absorber'. The results suggest that hypothesis H6 as 'Cultural elements impact Shanghai residents' food selection behaviour' is primarily supported with the evidence that the study possesses because not all the items found significant differences.

## **Summary**

This section has discussed the relationship between cultural orientation and the dining out behaviour of the respondents. The results of the analysis indicate that the dining out motivation and food selection behaviour of respondents are impacted by cultural elements. The relationship between socio-demographics and dining out behaviour is discussed in the following section.

## **Socio-Demographics vs. Dining Out Behaviour**

This section consists of two parts, (1) the relationship between socio-demographic characteristics and dining out motivation; and (2) the influence of socio-demographics to the food selection behaviour of the respondents in this study. The characteristics of socio-demographics include gender, age, marital state, monthly salary, education level and occupation.

### **Socio-Demographic characteristics vs. Dining out Motivation**

This part of the analysis examines the influence of socio-demographic characteristics on the dining out motivation of the respondents, which seeks to support the hypothesis H3 as ‘Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents’ dining out motivation’.

#### **Gender vs. Dining Out Motivation**

Table 8-12 summarises the relationship between the gender of the respondents and the motivation of dining out in a Chinese full-service restaurant, which refers to the third hypothesis (H3) as ‘Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents’ dining out motivation’. The first column of the table lists the motivation for dining out of respondents, including (1) Special offer and impulse; (2) Convenience and labour; (3) Wide variety; (4) Socialisation and Relaxation; (5) Business purpose; and (6) Healthy diet, with the respective answers of respondents in the subsequent columns. The *t*-value of the analysis is in the last column.

The results in table 8-12 show only one out of six motivational factors that score probability values lower than 0.05 (i.e. significant differences), which means that gender is a weak predictor to measure the respondents’ attitude towards the motivation to dine out.

**Table 8-12: Gender vs. Motivation of Dining Out**

Motivation Factor Analysis	Gender			t-value
	Male		Female	
	Mean			
Convenience and Labour	4.88	>	4.73	3.376**
Special Offer and Impulse	-	-	-	-
Wide Variety	-	-	-	-
Socialisation and Relaxation	-	-	-	-
Business Purpose	-	-	-	-
Healthy Diet	-	-	-	-
No. of respondents	929		1174	
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level ** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level				

The results of the table show that the male respondents are more likely to attribute a high importance to the motivational factor of ‘Convenience and labour’, which is a work related motivational factor. One can argue that since China is still a male dominated society, males have more opportunities of being out and away from home. The results shown in Table 8-12 provide partial evidence to support hypothesis H3 as ‘Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents’ dining out motivation’, which means gender is not an efficient way to predict dining out motivation. However, those motivations that show significant differences suggest that the male and female respondents possess slightly different dining out motivations presumably due to the different social roles they play. To test whether the above assumption is accurate, the study will analyse motivation vs. occupation later in the section.

## Age vs. Dining Out Motivation

Table 8-13 summarises the relationship between dining out motivation and the different age group of the respondents, which refers to the third hypothesis (H3) as ‘Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents’ dining out motivation’. The first column of the table is the motivation of dining out in a Chinese full-service restaurant, including (1) Special offer and impulse; (2) Convenience and labour; (3) Wide variety; (4) Socialisation and relaxation; (5) Business purpose; and (6) Healthy diet. The mean values of the relationship between the age groups of the respondents and the dining out motivation are in the second column to the seventh column. The last two columns of the table are the F-value of the analysis and the results of the analysis of the post-hoc test respectively.

**Table 8-13: Age vs. Dining Out Motivation**

	Age groups						F-value	Tukey
	1 20 or Under	2 21-30	3 31-40	4 41-50	5 51-60	6 61 or Above		
	Mean							
<b>Motivation</b>								
Special Offer and Impulse	4.87	4.29	4.73	4.52	4.34	4.68	17**	1,3,4>2,5
Convenience and Labour	4.72	5.05	4.85	4.61	4.31	4.76	13**	2>1,3,4,5
Wide Variety	4.72	4.81	4.81	4.71	5.16	4.68	3*	5>1,4
Socialisation and relaxation	3.78	4.40	4.20	4.83	5.44	6.32	172**	6>all
Business purpose	4.30	4.31	5.60	5.20	4.89	5.02	105**	3>all
Healthy diet	4.65	4.65	5.05	5.29	5.42	6.12	40**	6>all
No. of respondents	359	457	670	503	64	50		
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level								
** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level								

By observing the results in table 8-13, one can immediately realise that all the motivational factors are significantly affected by the age group of the respondents (i.e.  $p < 0.05$ ). As the different age groups denote the different phases of the life stages of the respondents, one can understand that age is also a determinant for some of the socio-demographic characteristics, such as occupations, marital status and so on. For example, it is logical to assume that most of the respondents who are 20 or less than 20 years old should still be in a school as a student. Therefore, some of the results that

show significant differences in this analysis may be affected by other variables. For example, young people are less likely to become motivated by the factor of 'Business purpose' to dine out because they are probably still a student. In other words, the results of the table are not free from the influence of other variables, such as occupation, marital status and so on. Thus, this study argues that although Table 8-13 shows promising results, it would be even more meaningful if the results were compared with other tests (e.g. occupation vs. dining out motivation) to obtain a better interpretation and a clearer view of what actually influences the dining out motivation.

At this stage, the study interpreted the results of the age groups vs. dining out motivation alone, but tried to enhance understanding by connecting the age groups as a variable to other socio-demographic variables.

The results indicate that the respondents whose age are between 51 and 60 years old were less likely to dine out for the motivational factor of 'Convenience and labour' with a mean value of 4.31. One reason for this could be that the respondents are presumably retired and hence, work-related reasons no longer affect their dining out behaviour. The study can test this later when analysing occupation vs. dining out motivation. The other possible reason may be that the older generations are more likely to dine at home rather than in a restaurant. The cultural issues that this study attempted to investigate are cultures that are based on geographical categorisations. However, the researcher did not consider that people growing up in different time period may also behave differently due to the way they were brought up, the information they were exposed to and so on. For example, older people are more likely to listen to classical music, while younger generations probably prefer to choose rock 'n roll. Therefore, this study may not have the opportunity to test whether growing up in different cultural generations affects people's dining out behaviour.

The results in table 8-13 also indicate that the respondents whose age is 20 or under 20 years old scored the lower mean values for the motivational factors of 'Convenience and labour' and 'Business purpose' with the mean value of 4.72 and 4.30 respectively. It is understandable that young respondents show less or no need for a work-related meal.

The older respondents tend to show higher interest in dining out for the motivational

factor of 'Socialisation and Relaxation' with the mean value of 6.32. Compared to the mean values of the younger respondents ('Socialisation and Relaxation' with the mean values of 3.78 and 4.40 respectively), this is larger. The fact that the older respondents, especially those aged between 51 and 60 years or over, show a lower likelihood of dining out for work related reasons and a higher likelihood for social dining out may be due to the fact that they are more likely to be retired.

The older respondents in Table 8-13 also showed a high likelihood for health related motivation of dining out with the mean value of 6.12. The fact that the older respondents are more concerned with health may be attributed to two reasons. Firstly, they have a higher need for health maintenance and so are more conscious about it. Secondly, the older generations grew up with a different cultural background than the younger respondents, which educated them to be more health orientated. As stated before, the study does not include research design that allows testing for different generations, which may be something worth studying further.

The current discussion suggests that the age group of respondents is a strong predictor of people's dining out motivation, which supports the part of the hypothesis H3 as 'Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents' dining out motivation'. However, as stated before, the study can benefit more by examining the relationship between the age group and other socio-demographic characteristics.

## Marital Status vs. Dining Out Motivation

Table 8-14 summarises the relationship between the marital status of the respondents and their dining out motivation. The first column of the table shows the motivation of dining out in a Chinese full-service restaurant, including (1) Special offer and impulse; (2) Convenience and labour; (3) Wide variety; (4) Socialisation and Relaxation; (5) Business purpose; and (6) Healthy diet. The mean values of the relationship regarding married respondents and non-married respondents' attitudes towards dining out motivation are listed in the second column and the fourth column. The last column of Table 8-14 lists the *t*-values of the analysis of independent sample *t*-test.

**Table 8-14: Marital Status vs. Dining Out Motivation**

Motivation Factor Analysis	Marital status			<i>t</i> -value
	Married		Non-married	
	Mean			
Special Offer and Impulse	4.56	<	4.68	-2.212*
Socialisation and Relaxation	4.56	>	4.02	13.704**
Business Purpose	5.17	>	4.42	11.938**
Healthy Diet	5.16	>	4.52	11.859**
Wide Variety	-	-	-	-
Socialisation and Relaxation	-	-	-	-
No. of respondents	1524		579	
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level				
** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level				

The main reason for this test is arguable. Marriage signifies a person entering another stage of the life, which leads to changes in behaviour including dining behaviour. Since marital status is related to children, the study also compares the results in table 7-3 as 'Accompanied by children in a Chinese full-service restaurant' and the results in table 7-19 as 'Marital status'. The results of these two tables show different patterns, indicating that the results of marital status are not affected by 'children' as a variable, and vice versa.

The results in table 8-14 indicate that the married respondents are more likely to dine out for the reasons of 'Socialisation and Relaxation', 'Business purpose', and 'Healthy diet'. The married respondents are generally older than non-married, thus they tended to score higher mean values for the motivational factors of 'Business purpose' and 'Healthy diet' with mean values of 5.17 and 5.16 respectively. Furthermore, the married respondents need to support their family and so are more likely to dine out for a work-related meal as 'Business purpose'. Non-married respondents are more likely to dine out in a restaurant for 'Special offer and impulse'. Again, the non-married respondents tend to be younger and so the results in Table 8-14 may be influenced by other social-demographic variables such as age.

In conclusion to the above discussion, although significant differences in the analysis can be found in Table 8-14, marital status as a variable may not be a good predictor for dining out motivation. This part of the hypothesis H3 as 'Socio-demographic variables affect on Shanghai residents' dining out motivation' is thus not completely supported by the results.

## Monthly Salary vs. Dining Out Motivation

Table 8-15 summarises the relationship between the monthly salary of the respondents and the dining out motivation, which refers to the third hypothesis (H3) as ‘Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents’ dining out motivation’. The first column of the table lists the motivation of dining out of the respondents in a Chinese full-service restaurant, including (1) Special offer and impulse; (2) Convenience and labour; (3) Wide variety; (4) Socialisation and Relaxation; (5) Business purpose; and (6) Healthy diet. The mean values of the level of monthly salary of the respondents and their dining out motivation are in column two to column five respectively. The F-value of the analysis of variance is in the fifth column and the results of the analysis of the post-hoc test as Tukey results are in the last column.

**Table 8-15: Monthly Salary vs. Dining Out Motivation**

Motivation Factor Analysis	Monthly salary \$RMB				F- value	Tukey
	1 2,000 or Under	2 2,001- 5,000	3 5,001- 10,000	4 10,001 or Above		
	Mean					
Convenience and Labour	4.83	4.81	4.79	4.39	6**	all>4
Socialisation and Relaxation	4.14	4.59	4.49	4.95	44**	4>all
Business Purpose	4.21	5.35	5.44	5.28	187**	all>1
Healthy Diet	4.70	5.05	5.25	4.95	33**	all>1
Special Offer and Impulse	-	-	-	-	-	-
Wide Variety	-	-	-	-	-	-
No. of respondents	756	548	706	93		
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level ** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level						

As stated before, some of the socio-demographic characteristics may share certain levels of inter-relationship, which means they may affect each other. Monthly salary is one of those characteristics, which in theory is affected by other characteristics such as age, the level of education and occupation. The study examines these variables independently in this section and later compares the relationship between these characteristics.

The results in table 8-15 indicate that two motivational factors are not significantly affected by the characteristic of monthly salary. These motivational factors are 'Special offer and impulse' and 'Wide variety', which indicate that the respondents' earnings do not affect these three dining out motivation.

The fourth group of respondents (monthly salary over RMB 10,001 or above) shows a relatively lower likelihood of being motivated by 'Convenience and labour' with a mean value of 4.3, but do show a high interest for the motivational factor of 'Business purpose' with the mean value of 4.28. Although these two motivational factors are all work related, the results suggest that the first motivational factor is more akin to convenience and the latter motivational factor is more related to socialisation. However, according to Table 8-15, the results of these two motivational factors show a higher mean value. Again the respondents who earn less salary are potentially younger, which suggests it is possible that age can better explain the situation.

The respondents who earned a higher salary also scored higher mean values for the socialisation motivational factor with a mean value of 4.95 because wealthier respondents may possess more disposable income and hence show a higher interest in socialising through dining out. As noted before in Chapter Seven, dining out in a full-service restaurant is an expensive proposition and thus may deter people with limited financial means from wanting to dine out in a full-service restaurant. In fact, the respondents opted for the 'Relaxation' motive as being similar to socialisation motivation, which suggests that the respondents earning lower salaries do not see dining out in a full-service restaurant as a form of relaxation.

The results of the table also show that the respondents who earn lower monthly salaries scored lower mean values for the motivational factor of 'Healthy diet'. This motivational factor reveals a possible fact that perhaps the main purpose of dining out in a restaurant for the respondents with a lower monthly salary is to fill their stomach rather than eat healthy food. Again, the characteristic of age may play an important role in this particular issue because respondents who earn lower monthly salaries are more likely to be young people.

The results of the analysis and discussion of Table 8-15 provides partial evidence to support the hypothesis H3 as 'Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents' dining out motivation'. The results clearly indicate that the characteristic of monthly salary affects the respondents' dining out motivation. Again, one can see from the discussion that the differences attributed to monthly salary are sometimes related to the characteristics of age and occupation. Further discussion will be initiated later.

## Level of Education vs. Dining Out Motivation

Table 8-16 summarises the results of the analysis of variance of the relationship between the level of education of the respondents and their dining out motivation. The first column of the table lists the motivation for dining out in a Chinese full-service restaurant, including (1) Special offer and impulse; (2) Convenience and labour; (3) Wide variety; (4) Socialisation and Relaxation; (5) Business purpose; and (6) Healthy diet. The mean values of the relationship between the respondents with different educational background and their dining out motivation are listed in column two to column five. Listed in the last two columns of Table 8-16 are the F-value and the post-hoc test results (Tukey), which are produced by using analysis of variance.

**Table 8-16: Level of Education vs. Dining Out Motivation**

Motivation Factor Analysis	Level of education				F- value	Tukey
	1 School leaving qualification	2 Skilled certificate	3 Tertiary	4 Post graduate		
	Mean					
Special Offer and Impulse	4.73	4.59	4.52	4.72	5**	1>3
Convenience and Labour	4.73	4.91	4.76	4.64	5**	2>all
Socialisation and	4.21	4.48	4.37	4.80	20**	4>all
Business Purpose	4.46	4.99	5.09	5.27	28**	all>1
Wide Variety	-	-	-	-	-	-
Healthy Diet	-	-	-	-	-	-
No. of respondents	377	655	887	184		
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level						
** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level						

Since the level of education largely dictates the occupation and consequently the monthly salary, it is reasonable to hypothesise that the results in table 8-16 possess a certain level of similarity to Table 8-15. Indeed, the results of these two tables show similar patterns. For example, the respondents with the higher educational background (presumably earning a higher salary) showed higher motivation in dining out for both ‘Socialisation and Relaxation’ and ‘Business purpose’ with the mean values of 4.80 and 5.27 respectively, which is consistent with the results showed in Table 8-15.

On the other hand, the respondents with a lower level of educational background

(presumably young and low salary) scored higher mean values for the motivational factor of 'Special offer and impulse' with a mean value of 4.73. Although the details in the post-hoc test in Table 8-15 and Table 8-16 were slightly different, a pattern of similarity can be detected. Therefore, one can conclude that the results in table 7-16 as 'educational level vs. dining out motivation' are not free from the influences of other socio-demographic characteristics.

As stated before the research design did not collect data regarding culture derived from different generations. At this point, one can also raise a question as to whether the level of educational background also contributes to cultural differences. Regardless of the possible deficiency of the research design, the researcher needed to ensure the researched topic was narrowed to a specific issue that produced a focused result. It is often dangerous for a researcher to be over ambitious and include all sorts of details that may result in blurring the focus and quite possibly irritate respondents by an overly long questionnaire. Despite the above discussion, the hypothesis H3 as 'Socio-demographic variables affecton Shanghai residents' dining out motivation' appears to be accurate from the results in table 8-16.

## Occupations vs. Dining Out Motivation

Table 8-17 summarises the results of the variance analysis of the relationship between the occupations of the respondents and their dining out motivation, which refers to the third hypothesis (H3) as ‘Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents’ dining out motivation’. The first column of the table lists the motivation of dining out of respondents in a Chinese full-service restaurant, including (1) Special offer and impulse; (2) Convenience and labour; (3) Wide variety; (4) Socialisation and Relaxation; (5) Business purpose; and (6) Healthy diet. The mean values of the relationship between the respondents’ occupations and their dining out motivation are listed in the second column to the tenth column of Table 8-17. Listed in the last two columns of the table are the summaries of F-value and the post-hoc test results (Tukey). In Table 8-17, the coding of the socio-demographic characteristic of occupation is different from others such as age, monthly salary and the level of education that are sorted in a sequential manner. This means comparing the results of occupation to others’ results may be complicated.

First of all, there is one out of six motivational factors that show no significant difference, which is ‘Wide Variety’. This means that the respondents with different occupations show similar attitudes towards this motivational factor.

The results in table 8-17 indicate that the second group of respondents as ‘Students’ is another distinct group of respondents who behave significantly differently from other groups of respondents. For example, the second group of respondents shows significantly less interest in the motivational factors of ‘Business purpose’ (mean=4.10) and ‘Socialisation and Relaxation’ (mean=4.08). On the other hand, they score a high mean value for the motivational factor of ‘Convenience and labour’ (4.89), which is similar to the results in Table 8-15 ‘monthly salary vs. dining out motivation’ and the results in table 8-13 ‘age vs. dining out motivation’. The second group ‘Students’ also shows significantly lower interest in the health related motivational factor ‘Healthy Diet’ with a mean value of 4.65.

**Table 8-17: Occupations vs. Dining Out Motivation**

Motivation	Occupations									F-value	Tukey
	1 Self employe d	2 Students	3 Specialist	4 Business manager	5 Office Employee	6 Educationist	7 Physical worker	8 Sales person	9 Retired		
	Mean										
Special Offer and Impulse	4.37	4.54	4.45	4.62	4.77	4.63	4.57	4.59	4.39	2*	5>2
Convenience and Labour	4.84	4.89	4.37	4.91	4.81	4.55	4.43	4.58	4.07	9**	2,4,5>6,7,9
Socialisation and Relaxation	4.89	4.08	4.66	4.51	4.46	4.69	4.71	4.34	5.75	28**	9>all
Business Purpose	5.12	4.10	5.06	5.62	5.51	4.83	4.72	5.67	5.04	102**	all>2
Healthy Diet	5.22	4.65	5.04	5.12	5.12	5.25	5.05	5.17	6.07	16**	9>all
Wide Variety	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
No. of respondents	73	689	83	555	375	122	102	76	28		
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level ** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level											

The eighth group of respondents 'Sales persons' show a significantly higher interest in the dining out motivational factor of 'Business purposes' with a mean value of 5.67. From the above discussion, one can conclude that the eighth group of respondents shows higher motivation in business related dining out. This is not unexpected since they require such socialisation opportunities to boost their chances of sales and to build long-term relationships with clients. However, the respondents in the eighth group also show a lower tendency to view dining out as a relaxation activity with a relative mean value of 4.34.

The results shown in Table 8-17 indicate the ninth group of respondents ('Retired') shows less interest in dining out for 'Convenience and labour', which is reasonable since they are no longer affected by work or study. However, they also show a high interest in dining out for 'Business purpose' (mean=5.04), which may suggest that retired Chinese people are still active in business fields. Retired respondents in this study also show a high interest in socialising with friends and family through dining out, which is consistent with the 'age' test that shows older respondents having a higher tendency of dining out for these two motivations. Retired respondents also show a higher interest in 'Healthy diet' with the mean value of 6.07, which may be partially influenced by the socio-demographic characteristic of age. These results show that retired respondents are in almost absolute contrast to the second group of respondents, namely students. Again, one cannot dismiss that age and growing up in a different generation may play an important role in this matter.

These are the majority of interpretations derived from the results in table 8-17 as 'Occupations vs. Dining out motivation'. One can also make an assumption from Table 8-17, that some groups of respondents (those with different occupations) show similar patterns in answering these motivational questions. To understand the relationships between the answering patterns of the different groups of respondents, the study employed correlation analysis to test the validity of the assumption.

Table 8-18 summarises the results of the correlation analysis between the occupations of the respondents in this study. The significant values of the analysis are listed in column two to column ten. The results in table 8-18 help to explain the results in table 8-17 better.

**Table 8-18: Pearson Correlation (2-tailed)**

Occupations	Occupations								
	1 Self-employed	2 Student	3 Specialist	4 Business manager	5 Office employee	6 Educationist	7 Physical worker	8 Sales person	9 Retired
1. Self-employed	1.000	-0.063	0.470*	0.642*	0.499*	0.449*	0.115	0.562*	0.369
	1.000	0.782	0.027	0.001	0.018	0.036	0.610	0.007	0.091
2. Student		1.000	-0.085	0.129	0.171	0.164	0.222	0.023	-0.456*
		1.000	0.706	0.569	0.446	0.465	0.321	0.919	0.033
3. Specialist			1.000	0.595*	0.662*	0.731*	0.727*	0.751*	0.332
			1.000	0.004	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.131
4. Business manager				1.000	0.933*	0.312	0.215	0.914*	-0.082
				1.000	0.000	0.158	0.336	0.000	0.717
5. Office employee					1.000	0.456*	0.350	0.934*	-0.174
					1.000	0.033	0.110	0.000	0.439
6. Educationist						1.000	0.679*	0.458*	0.398
						1.000	0.001	0.032	0.067
7. Physical worker							1.000	0.389	0.305
							1.000	0.074	0.168
8. Sales person								1.000	-0.036
								1.000	0.873
9. Retired									1.000
									1.000

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

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

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The results of the correlation analysis in Table 8-18 indicate that the answering patterns of the ninth group of respondents as ‘Retired’ show no correlation to all other groups of respondents except the second group, ‘Students’, which confirms the argument made above which is ‘the motivation of dining out of the respondents who have retired are in almost absolute contrast to the second group of the respondents namely ‘students’ in Table 8-17’. One can also see that the first group of respondents as ‘self-employed’ shows a correlation to almost every other group that identifies ‘a business purpose’ for dining out. The third group as ‘specialist’ respondents also shows a high correlation to all other groups except the second group as ‘Student’ and the ninth group as ‘Retired’. An interesting fact is that specialist is one of the only two groups that show a correlation to the seventh group as physical workers. To explain why the respondents of the groups of specialist, educationist and physical workers show similarity in their answering pattern, the study needs to refer to Table 8-17 as ‘Occupations vs. Dining out motivation’. The results of the table indicate that while the seventh group of

respondents as 'physical workers' does not score strongly for business related motivation compared to the third group as 'Specialist', the seventh group still shares similar concerns for convenience-related motivation. From Table 8-17 and Table 8-18, the study is able to conclude that respondents with certain occupations show a certain level of similarity in their dining out motivation in a Chinese full-service restaurant. For example, the occupations of 'self-employed', 'specialist', 'business manager', 'office employee' and 'sales person' all depend on a business meal to advance their businesses and careers. The groups of respondents of 'Student' and 'retired' are two of the groups that behave distinctly differently from other groups and from each other.

## **Summary**

From the above discussion, one can conclude that respondents with a different socio-demographic background show different motivations for dining out, which can generally be divided into four major types: (1) students, young generations, lower monthly salary and unmarried, (2) business required, relatively high monthly salary, (3) physical workers and (4) retired respondents, less monthly salary and older generations. Therefore, hypothesis H3 is supported by these results, which argues that socio-demographic characteristics can affect the respondents' dining out motivation. The relationship between the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents and their food selection behaviour will be discussed in the next section.

## **Socio-Demographic Characteristics vs. Food Selection Behaviour**

This section examines the influence of the socio-demographic characteristics to the food selection behaviour of the respondents in this study, which seeks to support hypothesis H7 as ‘Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents’ food selection behaviour’. The initial 54 food selection criteria questions have been categorised into 8 underlying dimensions for the test. The results of the analyses of gender vs. food selection behaviour, age vs. food selection behaviour, marital status vs. food selection behaviour, monthly salary vs. food selection behaviour, level of education vs. food selection behaviour and occupation vs. food selection behaviour are also discussed.

### **Gender vs. Food Selection Behaviour**

Table 8-19 summarises the results of the analysis of the independent sample *t*-test that aims to examine the relationship between gender and food selection behaviour, which refers to the seventh hypothesis (H7) as ‘Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents’ food selection behaviour’. The first column of the table lists the food selection dimensions, which includes: (1) Environment, (2) Beauty and Energetic, (3) Slows aging, (4) Staff, (5) Food essential, (6) Ingredients, (7) Unique and Exotic, and (8) Other guests. The mean values of the comparison of the male and female respondents’ food selection behaviour are listed in the second column and fourth column. The last column of the table is the *t*-values of the results of the analysis

The results in table 8-19 indicate that the male and female respondents possess similar views to most of the criteria for food selection except for three, which are ‘environment’, ‘beauty and energetic’, and ‘slows aging’. It is easy to understand that female respondents pay more attention to the ability of food to make them younger and more beautiful. Female respondents also pay significantly more attention to dining environment quality. However, the level of significant difference ( $p < 0.023$ ) is relatively low compared to the other two criteria.

**Table 8-19: Gender vs. Food Selection Behaviour**

Food Selection	Gender			t-value
	Male		Female	
	Mean			
Environment	4.65	<	4.77	-2.281*
Beauty and energetic	4.33	<	5.88	-48.202**
Slows aging	5.22	<	5.37	-3.411**
Staff	-	-	-	-
Food essential	-	-	-	-
Ingredients	-	-	-	-
Unique and Exotic	-	-	-	-
Other guests	-	-	-	-
No. of respondents	929		1174	
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level				
** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level				

This analysis helps to explain hypothesis H7 as ‘Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents’ food selection behaviour’, where the result shows that different genders possess a different view on some food selection behaviour, but not all. The criterion shows the significant differences can be logically understood, which means that the result is important, especially when one of the *t*-value reached -48.202. Therefore, although not all the food selection criteria are affected by the characteristic of gender, the researcher still believes that gender is an important predictor for the food selection behaviour of respondents.

## Age vs. Food Selection Behaviour

Table 8-20 summarises the results of the analysis of variation that examines the relationships between age groups and food selection behaviour of respondents in this study, which refers to the seventh hypothesis (H7) as ‘Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents’ food selection behaviour’. The first column of the table lists the food selection dimensions, which includes (1) Environment, (2) Beauty and Energetic, (3) Slows aging, (4) Staff, (5) Food essential, (6) Ingredients, (7) Unique and Exotic, and (8) Other guests. Between the second column and the seventh column of the table are the mean values of the relationship between the different age groups and the food selection behaviour of the respondents. The F-value of the analysis of variance is in the eighth column and the results of the analysis of the post-hoc test as Tukey is in the last column.

The results in table 8-20 indicate that all food selection behaviour is significantly affected by the age groups of the respondents. This means that the respondents with different ages consider different things when assessing the quality of a dining out place and food.

**Table 8-20: Age vs. Food Selection Behaviour**

Food Selection	Age groups						F-value	Tukey
	1 20 or Under	2 21-30	3 31-40	4 41-50	5 51-60	6 61 or Above		
	Mean							
Environment	3.97	4.74	4.76	5.14	4.80	4.86	47.3**	all>1
Beauty and energetic	4.57	5.19	5.14	5.55	5.89	6.04	54.0**	all>1
Slows aging	4.20	5.14	5.42	5.86	6.03	6.50	214.5**	6>all
Staff	3.91	4.40	4.71	4.90	4.23	4.31	52.1**	4>all
Food essential	4.63	5.04	5.71	6.11	4.97	3.14	251.6**	4>all
Ingredients	4.01	4.33	4.87	5.43	5.23	5.42	153.3**	all>1
Unique and Exotic	4.79	4.88	4.68	4.90	4.80	3.72	22.1**	all>6
Other guests	4.37	4.46	4.33	4.90	4.72	5.08	21.0**	1,2,3>4,6
No. of respondents	359	457	670	503	64	50		
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level								
** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level								

The respondents whose age are 20 or under 20 years old show significantly less interest in the food selection factor of ‘environment’ (mean=3.97). This is easy to interpret since teenagers are triggered by impulse (like ‘just feel like dining’) and the convenience reason to dine out (refers to Table 8-13 as ‘Age vs. Dining out motivation’) in a restaurant, which suggests availability is more important than any other quality. However, the respondents (20 or under 20 years old), show high interest in the factor of ‘unique and exotic’ (mean=4.79), which confirms the results in Table 8-13 where this group showed a high interest in food from other regions. The second group of respondents who were between 21 and 30 years old and the third group who were between 31 and 40 years old behave similarly to the respondents under 20 years old except that the former two groups scored mean values relatively higher than the latter group. The results in table 8-20 also indicate that the fourth group of respondents (age between 41 and 50) scored the highest mean values for almost every food selection dimension of this study, except for the dimensions of ‘beauty and energetic’ (mean=5.55) and ‘slows aging’ (mean=5.86). The respondents in group 4 attributed a higher mean value for the ‘food essential’ dimension (mean=6.11) especially compared to age group 6 (mean=3.14).

The respondents in the fifth group and the sixth group attributed the highest mean values for the dimensions of ‘beauty and energetic’, ‘slows aging’ and ‘ingredients’, which are all health related criteria. The respondents in the sixth group showed a high concern to ‘other guests’ behaviour’, but low mean values to ‘food essential’ and ‘unique and exotic’ dimensions.

From the above analysis and discussion, one can conclude that respondents with different age groups possess different views regarding the selection of food when they dine in a restaurant. This also supports the part of the hypothesis H7 as ‘Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents’ food selection behaviour’.

## Marital Status vs. Food Selection Behaviour

Table 8-21 shows the results of the analysis of the independent sample *t*-test for the relationship between the married and unmarried respondents' attitudes toward food selection behaviour in a Chinese full-service restaurant, which refers to the seventh hypothesis (H7) as 'Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents' food selection behaviour'. The first column of the table lists the food selection dimensions, which includes (1) Environment, (2) Beauty and Energetic, (3) Slows aging, (4) Staff, (5) Food essential, (6) Ingredients, (7) Unique and Exotic, and (8) Other guests. The mean values of the relationship between the married and unmarried respondents' attitudes toward the food selection behaviour in a Chinese full-service restaurant are in the second column and the fourth column of the table. The *t*-value of the analysis of Table 8-21 is listed in the last column.

**Table 8-21: Marital Status vs. Food Selection Behaviour**

Food Selection	Marital status			<i>t</i> -value
	Married		Non-married	
	Mean			
Environment	4.88	>	4.29	10.675**
Beauty and energetic	5.35	>	4.77	11.442**
Slows aging	5.61	>	4.50	25.701**
Staff	4.68	>	4.14	10.743**
Food essential	5.60	>	4.85	15.555**
Ingredients	5.01	>	4.12	19.965**
Other guests	4.58	>	4.42	2.925*
Unique and Exotic	-	-	-	-
No. of respondents	1524		579	
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level				
** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level				

The results show that marital status as a socio-demographic characteristic scored significant differences to all food selection behaviour dimensions, except the dimension of 'unique and exotic'. This means that the married respondents are more concerned with the quality of products and service when they dine out in a Chinese full-service restaurant. Since the results of the analysis of respondents accompanied by children when they dine out in a restaurant also show high mean values to most food selection

dimensions (refer to Table 8-8 as ‘Accompanied by children vs. food selection behaviour), one can make the assumption that the results of the marital status vs. food selection behaviour are partially affected by the presence of children. Furthermore, since the characteristic of marital status is an indicator of different life stages and age groups, it is possible that age also affects the results in Table 8-21.

Although most of the food selection behaviour dimensions show significant differences to each other, the above discussion suggests that the age as a characteristic may dictate the results of ‘marital status vs. food selection behaviour’. Therefore, this part of the hypothesis H7 as ‘Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents’ food selection behaviour’ is partially accurate.

## Monthly Salary vs. Food Selection Behaviour

Table 8-22 summarises the results of the analysis of variance of the relationship between the respondents' monthly salary level and their food selection behaviour when they dine out in a Chinese full-service restaurant, which refers to the seventh (H7) hypothesis as 'Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents' food selection behaviour'. The first column of the table lists the name of the food selection dimensions, which include (1) Environment, (2) Beauty and Energetic, (3) Slows aging, (4) Staff, (5) Food essential, (6) Ingredients, (7) Unique and Exotic, and (8) Other guests. Between the second column and the fifth column of the table are the mean values of the relationship between the level of monthly salary and the food selection behaviour of respondents. The F-value of the analysis of variance is in the sixth column and the results of the analysis of the post-hoc test as Tukey is in the last column.

**Table 8-22: Monthly Salary vs. Food Selection Behaviour**

Food Selection	Monthly salary \$RMB				F-value	Tukey
	1 2,000 or Under	2 2,001-5,000	3 5,001-10,000	4 10,001 or Above		
	Mean					
Environment	4.40	4.82	4.90	5.28	34.9**	4>all
Beauty and energetic	4.91	5.36	5.36	5.22	29.0**	all>1
Slows aging	4.76	5.47	5.69	5.77	145.4**	3,4>2,1
Staff	4.19	4.55	4.80	5.03	55.0**	3,4>2,1
Food essential	4.89	5.27	5.91	6.28	176.0**	4,3>1,2
Ingredients	4.24	4.77	5.26	5.28	170.4**	3,4>2,1
Unique and Exotic	4.80	4.69	4.79	4.97	3.8**	4>2
Other guests	4.37	4.55	4.66	4.85	11.2**	all>1
No. of respondents	756	548	706	93		
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level						
** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level						

Table 8-22 indicates that respondents with different monthly salaries attribute different levels of importance to various food selection behaviours. Generally, respondents in group 1 (monthly salary under RMB 2,000) scored the lowest means for all criteria compared to respondents in other groups. Respondents in group 1 earn monthly salaries

lower than others, they are young and probably students. Since Table 8-20 as 'Age vs. Food selection behaviour' has already established that young respondents score lower means than older respondents, it is logical to assume age and monthly salary possess a strong correlation. This argument has been presented many times in this study and will be examined later.

Respondents in group 4 (RMB 10,001 or above) scored the highest means to most criteria especially for 'food essentials' (mean=6.28). One can then conclude that respondents with a higher salary are more demanding in the quality of food, services and dining environment than other respondents.

This part of analysis and discussion is an evidence to support part of hypothesis H7 as 'Socio-demographic variables impacts Shanghai residents' food selection behaviour'. Again, monthly salary shows a high relationship to age, level of education and occupation, which will be examined further later.

## Level of Education vs. Food Selection Behaviour

Table 8-23 summarises the results of the analysis of variation that examines the relationships between the level of education and food selection behaviour of the respondents in this study, which refers to the seventh hypothesis (H7) as ‘Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents’ food selection behaviour’. The first column of the table lists the food selection dimensions, which includes (1) Environment, (2) Beauty and Energetic, (3) Slows aging, (4) Staff, (5) Food essential, (6) Ingredients, (7) Unique and Exotic, and (8) Other guests. Between the second column and the fifth column of the table are the mean values of the relationship between the level of education and the food selection behaviour of the respondents. The F-value of the analysis of variance is in the sixth column and the results of the analysis of the post-hoc test as Tukey is in the last column.

**Table 8-23: Level of Education vs. Food Selection Behaviour**

Food Selection	Level of education				F-value	Tukey
	1 School leaving qualification	2 Skilled certificate	3 Tertiary	4 Post graduate		
	Mean					
Environment	4.26	4.79	4.77	5.10	28.9**	4>all
Beauty and energetic	4.82	5.17	5.30	5.51	25.0**	all>1
Slows aging	4.55	5.40	5.44	5.84	109.3**	4>all
Staff	3.92	4.58	4.66	4.95	63.9**	4>all
Food essential	4.80	5.36	5.55	5.93	69.2**	4>all
Ingredients	4.34	4.80	4.84	5.14	34.5**	4>all
Unique and Exotic	4.83	4.66	4.78	5.03	9.9**	4>all
Other guests	4.43	4.71	4.34	5.08	31.6**	4>all
No. of respondents	377	655	887	184		
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level						
** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level						

The results shown in Table 8-23 indicate that respondents with a higher level of education appear to attribute high means for all food selection criteria, which is similar to the results in table 8-22 as ‘monthly salary vs. food selection behaviour’. Since level of education partially dictates occupation and subsequently monthly salary, it is

understandable that the results in table 8-22 and Table 8-23 show a similarity. In most of the past studies that include socio-demographic variables, researchers tended to include almost every possible variable such as age, gender, education, monthly salary and occupation. The socio-demographic part of the questionnaire design is a standardised form of questioning; however no one has seemed to question the meaning and usefulness of the questions. As this study has repeatedly mentioned in the above discussion, it is conceivable that 'age' signifies life stages and 'level of education' often dictates 'occupation' and subsequently 'monthly salary'. As each of the tests show such a high level of similarity, the series of socio-demographic tests becomes somewhat like a repeated test and yields nothing new. Therefore, this study proposes that some of the socio-demographic variables are interrelated to each other and an underlying factor can be found. For example, monthly salary, level of education and occupation can be categorised into an underlying dimension of 'social status'. This assumption will be examined later in this chapter.

## Occupations vs. Food Selection Behaviour

Table 8-25 summarises the results of the analysis of variation that examines the relationships between the occupations of respondents and food selection behaviour of respondents in this study, which refers to the seventh hypothesis (H7) as ‘Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents’ food selection behaviour’. The first column of the table lists the food selection dimensions, which includes (1) Environment, (2) Beauty and Energetic, (3) Slows aging, (4) Staff, (5) Food essential, (6) Ingredients, (7) Unique and Exotic, and (8) Other guests. Between the second column and the tenth column of the table are the mean values of the relationship between the occupations of the respondents and the food selection behaviour of the respondents. The F-value of the analysis of variance is in the eleventh column and the results of the analysis of the post-hoc test as Tukey are in the last column.

The results in table 8-24 show that the occupations of the respondents significantly affect their food selection results in table. The pattern is similar to the result of Table 8-17 as ‘occupations vs. dining out motivation’. For example, group 2 ‘Student’ and group 9 ‘Retired’ respondents behave differently compared to respondents in other groups and to each other.

Respondents in group 1 as ‘self-employed’ show significantly higher interest in the ‘food essential’ aspect of quality with a mean score of 5.81, which is only lower than groups 6 as ‘educationist’ and group 8 as ‘sales person’ with mean score of 5.82 and 5.83 respectively. Group 1 also scored a high mean for ‘environment’ (mean=5.18), ‘beauty and energetic’ (mean=5.45), ‘slows aging’ (mean=5.88) and ‘ingredients’ (mean=5.21). However, all other groups except group 2, scored highly for factors of ‘beauty and energetic’, ‘slows aging’ and ‘ingredients’. Thus, one can see that most respondents placed a high level of concern to these factors. Group 2 ‘students’ scored the lowest mean for almost every factor, except for ‘unique and exotic’ (mean=4.84, rank=1). One can see that students or young people still seek for novelty when they dine out. To examine whether each group of respondents behave differently or similarly in terms of food selection, the study conducted a correlation analysis shown in Table 8-25.

**Table 8-24: Occupations vs. Food Selection Behaviour**

Food Selection	Occupations									F-value	Tukey
	1 Self employed	2 Students	3 Specialist	4 Business manager	5 Office employee	6 Educationist	7 Physical worker	8 Sales person	9 Retired		
	Mean										
Environment	5.18	4.35	4.67	4.88	4.93	4.97	4.69	4.97	4.75	14.8**	1,4,5,6,8>2
Beauty and energetic	5.45	4.86	5.27	5.32	5.38	5.42	5.23	5.18	6.50	18.4**	9>all
Slows aging	5.88	4.66	5.65	5.64	5.55	5.70	5.25	5.57	6.32	71.9**	3,5,8>2;1,4,6,2,7;9>2,3,4,5,6,7,8
Staff	4.77	4.14	4.78	4.76	4.81	4.48	4.25	5.03	4.17	26.1**	1,3,4,5,8>2,7
Food essential	5.81	4.84	5.78	5.70	5.72	5.82	5.07	5.83	4.21	58.2**	all>9
Ingredients	5.21	4.18	5.01	5.10	5.05	5.02	4.64	5.01	5.50	56.3**	1,4,5,6,9>2,7
Unique and Exotic	4.82	4.84	4.66	4.81	4.75	4.76	4.47	4.72	4.29	3.8**	2,4>7,9
Other guests	4.67	4.40	4.73	4.70	4.65	4.25	4.15	4.59	4.61	6.4**	4,5>2,6,7
No. of respondents	73	689	83	555	375	122	102	76	28		
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level ** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level											

From Table 8-25 as ‘Person correlation (2-tailed)’, the study can conclude that respondents in group 2 as ‘student’ and group 9 as ‘retired’ show no correlation to other groups and each other, which confirms the discussion above. All other groups on the other hand, show significant correlation, suggesting the respondents are behaving in a similar manner in terms of food selection. There are a few groups that show significant, but relatively lower correlation, which are group 7 ‘physical workers’ to ‘specialist’ (Pearson=0.824) and ‘sales person’ (Pearson=0.789). This suggests that although physical workers show correlation to other groups, the correlation is not as strong as the others.

**Table 8-25: Pearson Correlation(2-tailed)**

Occupations	Occupations								
	1 Self- employed	2 Student	3 Specialist	4 Business manager	5 Office employee	6 Educationist	7 Physical worker	8 Sales person	9 Retired
1. Self-employed	1.000	0.487	0.924**	0.976**	0.971**	0.979**	0.938**	0.918**	0.530
	1.000	0.221	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.177
2. Student		1.000	0.509	0.549	0.539	0.593	0.617	0.393	0.222
		1.000	0.197	0.159	0.168	0.121	0.103	0.335	0.597
3. Specialist			1.000	0.980**	0.968**	0.899**	0.824*	0.935**	0.417
			1.000	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.012	0.001	0.304
4. Business manager				1.000	0.989**	0.966**	0.904**	0.935**	0.480
				1.000	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.001	0.229
5. Office employee					1.000	0.970**	0.915**	0.954**	0.458
					1.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.254
6. Educationist						1.000	0.954**	0.904**	0.484
						1.000	0.000	0.002	0.224
7. Physical worker							1.000	0.789*	0.688
							1.000	0.020	0.059
8. Sales person								1.000	0.246
								1.000	0.556
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).									
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).									

## Summary

The discussion in this section concludes that hypothesis H7 as ‘Socio-demographic variables affecton Shanghai residents’ food quality assessment’ is partially accurate; this argues that socio-demographic variables affect the respondents’ food selection behaviour. Some of the variables, such as age and occupation, are much stronger predictors than the other variables. Furthermore, some of the variables are interrelated and affect each other. The next section will explore this issue in more detail by introducing a new argument that some socio-demographic variables can be used to determine respondents ‘social status’, which influences dining out behaviour.

## The Relationships in the Social Status Model

This study uses structural equation modelling (SEM) to test the theory that some of the socio-demographic variables are interrelated to each other by using AMOS, which integrated to form an unobserved variable 'social status'. AMOS is a practical and flexible software package that helps researchers to test research hypothesis via statistical means. The best thing about AMOS is that it allows researchers to literally draw their models in the computer and allows the software to test the validity of their models. The ease of use opens a possibility for the researchers to try many different ways to construct their models and see which produces the best result. Therefore, although AMOS is said to be a confirmatory tool that allows researchers to test the validity of their models, it can also be an exploratory tool that allows researchers to explore other possibilities. Since the researcher did not conceive the idea of 'social status' in the research design stage of the study, the researcher did not propose any model that describes 'social status'. Therefore, the researcher employed the exploratory aspect of AMOS to analyse the situation. The following table is felt to be the best result, both statistically and logically.

Table 8-26 summarises the results of analysis of the social status model. The second column of the table lists the value of root mean square residual (RMR); the third column lists the value of goodness of fit index or (GFI), the fourth column of the table lists the indexed value of adjusted goodness of fit or (AGFI), and the last column lists the value of parsimony goodness of fit or (PGFI).

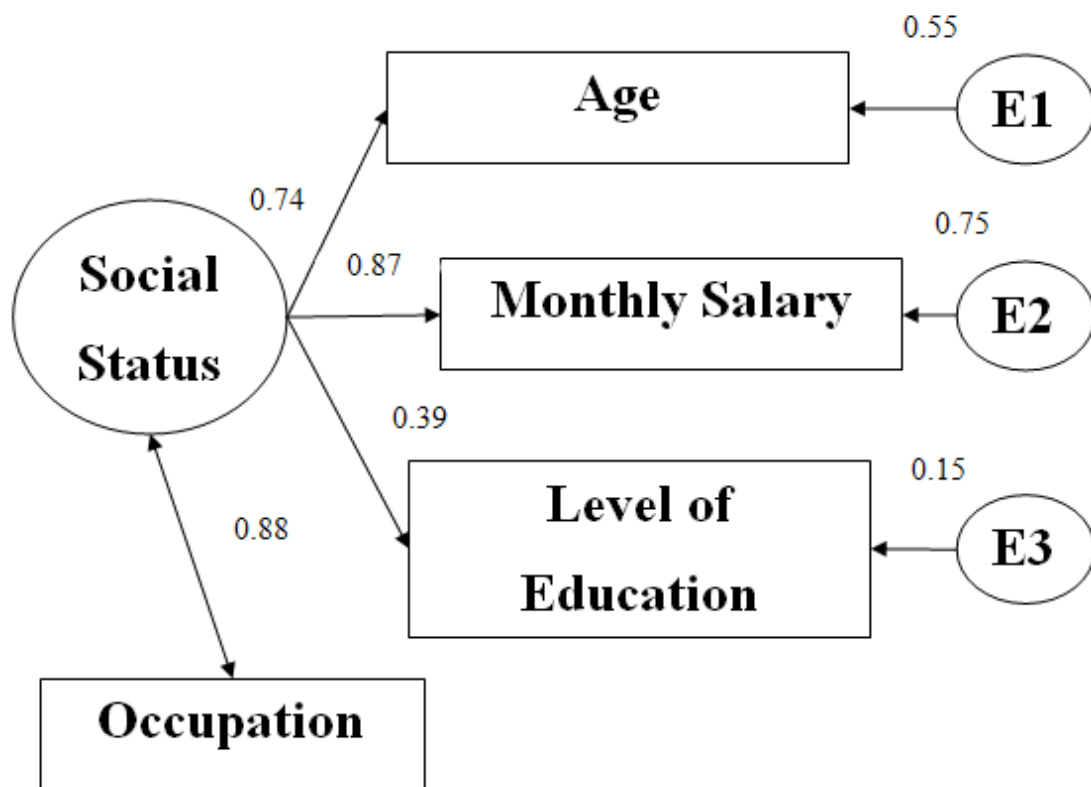
**Table 8-26: RMR and GFI of Social Status**

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	0.047	0.981	0.903	0.196
Saturated model	0.000	1.000	-	-
Independence model	0.923	0.534	0.223	0.320

The GFI (goodness-of-fit index) in Table 8-26 is 0.981, which is near 1 and means the model is functioning. The RMR score is 0.047, which is relatively close to a perfect fit of zero. The AGFI (adjusted goodness of fit index) and PGFI (parsimony

goodness-of-fit index) are another two indicators that are based upon GFI but take into account the degrees of freedom for testing the model (Arbuckle, 2006). All these indexes show that the model is functioning from a statistical point of view.

Figure 8-1 as ‘social states’ is the proposed model for describing the interrelations between certain socio-demographic variables. The value 0.88 situated at the bi-directional arrow that links ‘social status’ and ‘occupation’ together indicates the correlation between these two variables. The values near the uni-directional arrows links ‘social status’ to ‘age’, ‘monthly salary’, and ‘level of education’ and is a standardised regression weight. The values above the square boxes of ‘age’, ‘monthly salary’, and ‘level of education’ are their squared multiple correlation.



**Figure 8-1: Social Status Model**

The squared multiple-correlation is an indicator that shows the proportion of variance that is accounted for by its predictor. This means that monthly salary, with a squared multiple correlation of 0.75, possesses the highest correlation to ‘social status’

compared to 'age' and 'level of education'. In simple terms, change in 1 of 'social status' will result in a change of 0.75 of monthly salary. Since 'social status' shows a strong correlation to 'occupation', it is not difficult to see the relationships between these three variables (social status, monthly salary and occupation). Level of education, on the other hand, possesses a poor correlation to all other variables including 'social status'. This means that 'level of education' does not significantly contribute to a person's social status. This is not difficult to understand since education is just a way to secure a better occupation and salary, but by itself does not increase the social status significantly. Also, education level may possess different weights in different eras. In other words, earning a college degree 20 years ago may possess more significance than having a Masters degree today. Due to these facts, it is not surprising that 'level of education' did not correlate highly with other variables.

Based on the discussion above, one can conclude that social status is mostly dependent upon monthly salary and occupation. Level of education shows a correlation with monthly salary and occupation, but it does not increase social status by itself. Therefore, the assumption that these socio-demographic variables are interrelated with each other is accurate, but not all of them increase social status.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter has examined the relationship of dining out patterns, cultural orientation and socio-demographic characteristics towards the dining out motivation and food selection behaviour of the sample. Firstly, this chapter introduced the relationship between the dining out patterns and both the dining out motivation and the food selection behaviour of the respondents; secondly, this chapter introduced the relationship between the cultural orientation and both the dining out motivation and the food selection behaviour of the respondents of this study; and thirdly, this chapter introduced the relationship between the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample and the dining out motivation and the food selection behaviour of the respondents; and finally, this chapter has discussed the relationship of social status by using AMOS. Chapter Nine, 'Cluster Results of Dining out Behaviour' will categorise the dining out motivation and food selection behaviour of respondents into a few underlying dimensions by using factor analysis and cluster analysis.

## **Chapter Nine**

### **Analysis Three:**

#### **Cluster Results of Dining Out Behaviour**

##### **Introduction**

This chapter reports the results of cluster analysis using SPSS. The main reason for using cluster analysis is to categorise the respondents based on their dining out behaviour, in order to understand the indirect relationship between dining out motivation and food selection behaviour based on hypothesis H4 'Dining out motivation impact food selection behaviour of Shanghai residents'.

The first section of this chapter reports the results of the cluster analysis of dining out motivation. The second section of this chapter describes the cluster analysis results of food selection behaviour. The last section of this chapter uses structural equation modelling (SEM) to test the theory that some unobserved motivational and food selection variables are interrelated.

##### **Cluster Analysis Results**

As stated before, cluster analysis allows this study to categorise the respondents based on their psychological profile. The result of cluster analysis thus becomes an important reference for practitioners in marketing segmentation and positioning. In this section, the study uses dining out motivation and food selection behaviour to cluster the respondents through the K-means cluster method, also known as quick cluster analysis. The next step for this study is to

ensure that the respondents are accurately allocated to the right clusters, which can be achieved by using discriminant analysis. After that, this study examines the relationship between the cluster and overall dining out behaviour.

### **The Cluster Analysis of Dining Out Motivation**

This section focuses on the classification of respondents based on their dining out motivation. As stated above, the K-means cluster analysis is chosen as it is a convenient and fast way to conduct the cluster analysis. The major advantage of using the K-means cluster is that it allows the researcher to indicate how many clusters to classify. However, it also became a problem when the researcher justified the choice, which is the reason for conducting discriminant analysis. Initially, the researcher tried to classify respondents into 4, 5, 6 and 7 clusters. The 5-cluster and 4-cluster were the most logical results. However, when discriminant analysis was applied, the results of the 5-cluster seemed poorly identified with no clear centroid and the cases were scattered in other clusters. Therefore, 4-cluster was selected as the final result, which takes 21 iterations.

For ease of reading, this study uses different fonts to make the results more readable (shown in Table 9-1 as 'Cluster of dining out motivation'). The first cluster consists of 369 respondents where the means for all motives are below 5. One can immediately determine that the dining out motives for this cluster are relatively weak compared to other clusters. The motives that scored comparatively higher means were 'time with family', 'Bu food therapy', 'time with friends', and 'business meal' (mean=4.96, mean=4.76, mean=4.72 and mean=4.62 respectively). This suggests that socialisation and health related motives still might encourage the respondents of this cluster to dine out. Therefore, the first cluster of respondents can be named as 'purely socialising'.

**Table 9-1: Cluster of Dining Out Motivation**

Clusters  Motivation	1 Purely socialized	2 Convenient	3 Always Dining out from home	4 Business orientation
Away from home & unable to cook	3.76	5.36	5.47	3.48
Work or study & unable to cook	3.73	5.55	5.69	3.49
Business purpose	4.62	3.58	5.17	5.21
Time with family	4.96	4.36	4.50	4.62
Time with friends	4.72	4.24	4.34	4.40
A restaurant advertisement encouraged me to come	3.50	3.01	5.02	5.15
Eating something different	4.33	4.96	4.91	4.77
Large selection of food	4.40	5.08	4.99	4.79
Special equipment required to cook some special dishes	3.59	5.10	5.14	3.78
Celebration	3.93	3.61	5.26	5.17
Difficult to prepare and/or cook	3.58	5.05	5.01	3.60
Nutritious food (deep sea fish)	4.49	4.49	4.82	4.55
Don't want to wash dishes	4.11	5.36	5.46	4.14
I enjoy being relaxed	4.48	3.90	4.02	4.12
I enjoy food from different regions	3.85	4.67	4.51	4.37
I enjoy being served	4.39	5.60	5.65	4.40
To try newly open restaurant	3.65	3.23	5.32	5.30
Just feel like dining out	3.62	3.15	5.04	4.85
'Bu' food therapy	4.76	4.66	5.15	4.92
Special features of a restaurant	3.66	3.18	5.33	5.45
Socialize with customer, partners or workmates	4.35	3.63	5.00	5.20
Restaurant has special offer	3.81	3.13	5.17	5.31
No. of Respondents	369	354	850	526

The second cluster consists of 354 respondents. Compared to the other three clusters, this is the only cluster that scored a mean lower than the mid-point of scale 4 for 'business purpose' with the mean of 3.58. The means for 7 motives are greater than 5.00, including 'Away from home and unable to cook', 'Work or study and unable to cook', 'Large selection of food', 'Special equipment required to cook some special dishes', 'Don't want to wash dishes', 'Difficult to prepare

and/or cook' and 'I enjoy being served'. These motives are mostly related to convenience and labour, which is factor two shown in Table 9-1 as 'Rotated component matrix of dining out motivation'. In addition, the fact that this cluster featured a mean of 3.90 for 'I enjoy being relaxed' indicates that respondents do not view dining out as a form of leisure activity. One can then conclude that respondents in this cluster mostly seek to feed themselves while away from home and are unable to cook. Therefore, the second cluster of respondents can be named as 'convenient'.

The third cluster is the largest cluster with 850 respondents and scored means above 4 for all dining out motives. This group shows a relatively higher interest in dining out for business related motives as 'business meal' with mean score of 5.17 and socialize with customers, partners or workmates' with mean score of 5.00 compared to other forms of socialisation as 'time with family' (mean=4.50) and 'time with friends' (mean=4.34). In addition, this cluster attributed the highest mean for certain motives, such as 'Bu food therapy' and 'Just feel like dining out', (mean=5.15 and mean=5.04 respectively). Therefore, the third cluster of respondents can be named as 'always dining out from home'.

The fourth cluster consists of 526 respondents. This cluster shows a high interest in business related dining out and less need for convenience and labour related motives. This cluster attributed the highest means for motives such as 'special features of a restaurant' and 'restaurant has special offer' (means=5.45 and mean=5.31 respectively). Furthermore, this is one of the two clusters that attributed a mean above 4 for 'just feel like dining out'. Therefore, the fourth cluster of respondents can be named as 'business orientation'

Table 9-2 is a summary of discriminant analysis, which shows if the respondents are correctly allocated into the four clusters presented above. The footnote of Table 9-2 indicates that 95.3% of the cases were correct. On close examination,

cluster one is the least accurately classified and still has an accuracy of 94.3%. Therefore, the researcher is confident that the four-cluster result is appropriate.

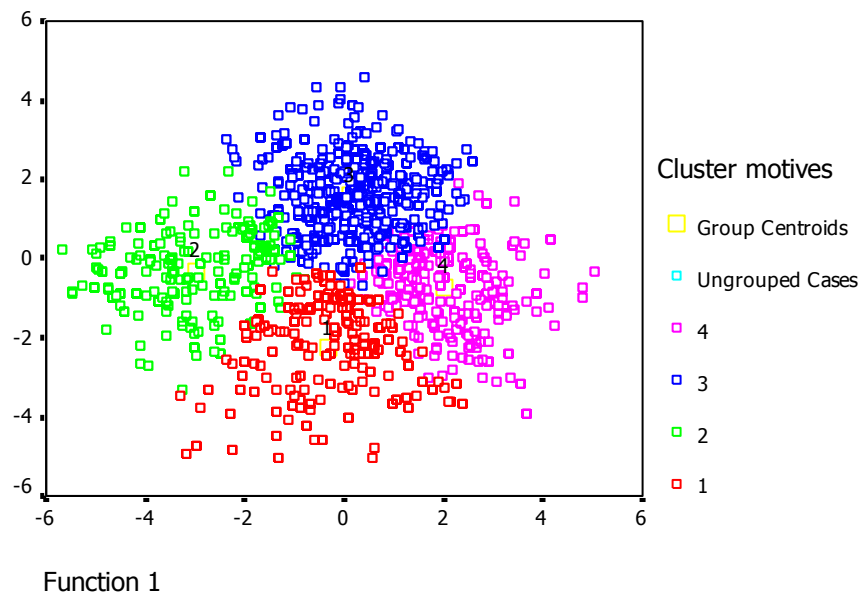
**Table 9-2: Classification Results of Dining Out Motives**

		1 Purely socialized	2 Convenient	3 Always Dining out from home	4 Business orientation	Total
Count	1 Purely socialize	348	2	0	19	369
	2 Convenient	9	339	6	0.0	354
	3 Always Dining out	8	4	811	27	850
	4 Business orientation	4	0	19	503	526
%	1 Purely socialize	94.3	0.5	0.0	5.1	100.0
	2 Convenient	2.5	95.8	1.7	0.0	100.0
	3 Always Dining out	0.9	0.5	95.4	3.2	100.0
	4 Business orientation	0.8	0.0	3.6	95.6	100.0
95.3% of originally grouped cases correctly classified.						

Figure 9-1 below is another result from discriminant analysis, which provides a visual representation that allows the researcher to examine the accuracy of respondent allocation. From this figure, one can see that the centroid of each cluster is properly allocated in the centre of each group, and there are no ungrouped cases. Most of the cases are grouped quite closely together around the centroid of their group, indicating a high level of coherence. Cluster 1 (bottom group) however, possesses some cases that drift relatively far away to the lower edge, which explains why the accuracy is the lowest (94.3% in Table 9-2) compared to the other three clusters. Overall, the result still indicates that the

respondents have been properly allocated into each cluster and each cluster shows a high level of similarity amongst themselves and distinct from other clusters.

Figure 9-1: Canonical Discriminant Functions  
Dining Out Motives



The study has established that cluster analysis is a valid way to classify respondents based on their attitudes and the next step is to test whether respondents of different clusters behave differently. Table 9-3 below presents the relationship between the motivational cluster and loyalty behaviour. The first column of the table lists the four loyalty behaviours of the respondents, which includes ‘Willingness to come again’, ‘Recommend this restaurant to others’, ‘This restaurant is my top choice’ and ‘Willing to overcome obstacles to come’. The mean value of the relationship between the motivational cluster and loyalty behaviour is listed in the second column to the fifth column. The F-value of the analysis of variance is listed in the sixth column and the results of the analysis of the post-hoc test are in the last column.

The results in table 9-3 indicate that respondents in different motivational clusters

possess relatively similar attitudes or behaviour to ‘price of meal is acceptable’ and ‘dining out frequency in past three months’. Respondents in cluster two as ‘convenient’ appear to show low motivation for ‘willingness to come again’, ‘recommend restaurant to others’ and ‘this restaurant is my top choice’ compared to other clusters. Based on the discussion on Table 9-1, one can conclude that cluster two as ‘convenient’ dine out because of necessity and not for fun. This can explain why cluster two shows such a low level of loyalty to a restaurant. Cluster two also shows a relatively higher mean for ‘willing to overcome obstacles to come’ (mean=4.54 and rank=2). Since cluster two dines out because of necessity, it is more of ‘having to overcome obstacles’ rather than ‘willing to’ overcome obstacles.

**Table 9-3: Motivational Cluster vs. Loyalty**

Motivational Clusters	Cluster				F value	Tukey
	1 Purely socialize	2 Convenient	3 Always Dining out	4 Business orientation		
	Mean					
Willingness to come again	5.20	4.74	5.14	5.14	34.9**	All>2
Recommend this restaurant to others	5.50	4.90	5.73	5.77	65.4**	3,4>1,2
This restaurant is my top choice	4.91	4.13	4.84	4.68	20.4**	All>2
Willing to overcome obstacles to come	4.13	4.54	4.98	4.05	51.8**	All>4
No. of respondents	365	354	842	520		
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level						
** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level						

## **The Cluster of Food Selection Behaviour**

This section focuses on the classification of respondents based on their food selection behaviour. A similar procedure will be followed to classify the respondents and to justify the process of classification. The result of discriminant analysis indicates that results from the 4-cluster and 5-cluster produce the highest level of allocation accuracy (93.5%) compared to results from the 6-cluster (90.9%) and 7-cluster (91.0). Cluster one and two of the 5-cluster results overlap each other, indicating that these two clusters show a high level of similarity and should be classified as one. Consequently, the 4-cluster result was chosen as the final cluster result. As there are so many food selection variables and it is difficult to fit all results onto one table, the researcher reorganised the results into table 9-4A and 9-4B. Table 9-4A contains variables that are related to the criteria of assessing food quality. Table 9-4B contains variables that are related to ingredients used, ways of serving, staff performance, other guests' behaviour and environment of a restaurant. Although the results have been separated into two tables for clarity purposes, the result should be interpreted together.

**Table 9-4A: Cluster of Food Selection Criterion**

	1 Good and healthy food	2 Tasty food and nice conversation	3 Good food and environment	4 Dining out enthusiast
The Taste of food	5.45	5.15	5.34	6.09
The Smell of food	5.11	5.01	5.22	5.89
Hygiene of food	5.27	4.97	5.25	6.05
The Presentation/appearance of food	5.13	5.11	5.21	5.57
The Freshness of food	4.99	4.92	5.04	5.67
Nourish or regulate body to harmony	5.99	4.75	4.01	5.83
The level of Calories the food contained	5.45	4.12	3.46	5.31
The level of Carbohydrate the food contained	6.04	4.50	4.07	6.09
The level of Protein the food contained	6.00	4.61	4.52	6.23
The level of Vitamins the food contained	6.14	4.85	4.51	6.24
The level of Fat the food contained	5.83	4.34	3.61	5.52
The level of Minerals & Microelements the food contained	5.80	4.76	4.58	5.89
The level of Fibre the food contained	5.52	4.28	3.78	5.21
The level of Carotene the food contained	5.57	4.64	4.03	5.45
Increase energy	6.18	4.72	4.52	6.31
Prevent sickness	5.86	4.74	4.46	6.04
Maintain beauty	5.80	4.80	4.41	5.69
Slim body	5.74	4.69	4.50	5.81
Slows aging	5.33	4.34	4.39	5.57
Vitality	5.43	4.41	4.26	5.66
Help flow of Chi	5.26	4.44	4.55	5.77
The food is for Heart	5.58	4.80	4.91	6.11
The food is for Spleen	5.61	4.81	4.92	6.14
The food is for Liver	5.38	4.60	4.74	5.88
The food is for Lungs	5.31	4.47	4.70	5.89
The food is for Kidney	5.57	4.80	4.93	6.06
No. of Respondents	584	388	537	574

**Table 9-4B: Cluster of Food Selection Criterion**

	1 Good and healthy food	2 Tasty food and nice conversation	3 Good food and environment	4 Dining out enthusiast
Expensive raw material used	4.44	3.65	4.24	5.06
No artificial ingredients	4.63	3.99	4.30	5.41
Not cooked with too much oil	4.98	4.59	4.77	5.55
The nutritious value of food	5.09	4.18	4.37	5.71
Herbal ingredients	4.97	4.10	4.25	5.69
Exotic flavour food	4.67	4.66	4.76	4.94
Special serving food (BBQ, hot pot)	4.64	4.64	4.86	5.06
The Uniqueness of food	4.63	4.64	4.76	4.93
Skilled staff to provide good service	4.55	4.41	4.99	5.11
Staff has a nice manner	4.11	2.71	4.84	5.64
Staff is knowledgeable about the food	4.51	2.97	4.78	5.85
Staff explain well	4.45	3.12	4.87	5.61
Staff dress appropriately	3.95	2.94	4.52	4.94
Staff respond to my call quickly	4.59	3.15	5.15	5.94
Staff remember me	4.10	3.15	4.59	4.97
Nice place to have conversation	4.79	4.69	4.91	4.88
Other guests behave accordingly	4.31	4.45	4.76	4.71
Customers share similar social status	4.19	3.46	4.15	4.85
High quality decoration	4.31	3.14	5.00	5.63
Good dining environment	4.11	3.01	4.85	5.44
Nice background music	4.41	2.71	5.09	5.81
Hygiene and cleanliness of a restaurant	4.60	2.97	5.21	5.83
Attractive ornamental decoration	4.57	3.41	5.11	5.66
High quality lighting	4.55	3.09	4.95	5.83
Good dining ambience	4.52	3.27	5.19	5.52
Nice view outside the window of a restaurant	4.20	2.86	4.87	5.49
Comfortable chair	4.10	3.51	4.82	5.22
TV to watch	4.11	3.75	4.47	4.61
No. of Respondents	584	388	537	574

Cluster one consists of 584 respondents who showed means above the mid-point scale of 4 for all food selection criteria except for the variable of ‘staff dress appropriately’ (mean=3.95). Also it is interesting to note that this cluster attributed higher means (above 5) for all the variables in Table 9-6A except for the variable of ‘the freshness of food’ (mean=4.99). On the other hand, in Table 9-6B, only ‘the nutritious value of food’ scored a mean above 5 by this cluster. One can see that respondents in cluster one place food quality above other qualities, such as environment and people. Therefore, the first cluster of respondents can be named as ‘Good and healthy food’.

Cluster two consists of 388 respondents, which is the smallest cluster to compare with others. This cluster shows a similar pattern compared to cluster one in that they all scored higher means for variables in Table 9-6A and relatively lower means for variables in Table 9-6B. This cluster only scored means above 5 for three variables, which are ‘the taste of food’, ‘the smell of food’ and ‘the presentation/appearance of food’ (means=5.15, 5.01 and 5.11 respectively). One can immediately see that all the variables are ‘food essential’ qualities. A point to note here is that all clusters show a high level of importance towards the ‘food essential’ aspect of quality. Furthermore, despite the fact that this cluster attributed means lower than 4 for many variables in Table 9-06B, two variables, ‘nice place to have conversation’ and ‘other guests behave accordingly’, scored means above 4, with mean score of 4.69 and 4.45 respectively. Therefore, the second cluster of respondents can be named as ‘Tasty food and nice conversation’.

Cluster Three consists of 537 respondents. The respondents in this cluster attributed means above 4 for most variables except some variables that are related to a slim body, such as ‘the level of calories the food contained’, ‘the level of fat the food contained’ and ‘the level of fibre the food contained’ (means=3.46, 3.61

and 3.78 respectively). It is interesting to note that they showed a relatively high concern for the variable of 'slim body' (mean=4.50). This cluster also attributed means above 5 for 'food essential' and some of the 'environment' variables. Therefore, the third cluster of respondents can be named as 'Good food and environment'.

Cluster Four consists of 574 respondents and high means (above 5) were attained for most of the variables. This cluster attributed means lower than 5 for some variables, which are mostly about other guests' behaviour, which include 'other guests behave accordingly' with mean score of 4.71 and 'customers share similar social status' with mean score of 4.85. Therefore, the fourth cluster of respondents can be named as 'Dining out enthusiast'.

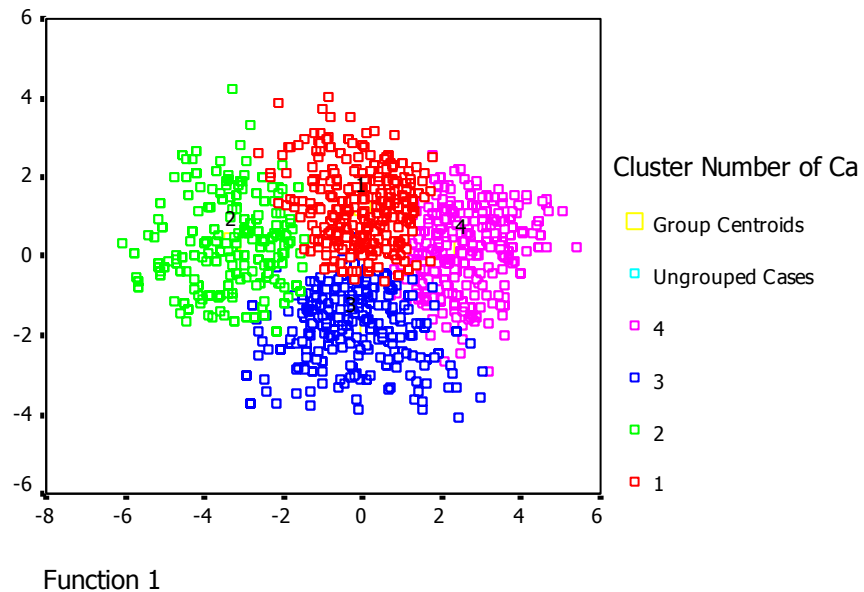
Table 9-5 is a summary of discriminant analysis, which shows if the respondents are correctly allocated into the four clusters presented above. The footnote of Table 9-5 indicates that 93.5% of the cases have been correctly classified into the 4-cluster result, specifically the respondents in cluster two, which has a value of 98.2% indicating they are accurately allocated.

**Table 9-5: Classification Results of Food Selection Criterion**

		1 Good and healthy food	2 Tasty food and nice conversation	3 Good food and environment	4 Dining out enthusiast	Total
Count	1 Good and healthy food	533	12	22	17	584
	2 Tasty food and nice conversation	2	381	5	0	388
	3 Good food and environment	9	14	500	14	537
	4 Dining out enthusiast	24	0	16	534	574
%	1 Good and healthy food	91.3	2.1	3.8	2.9	100.0
	2 Tasty food and nice conversation	0.5	98.2	1.3	0.0	100.0
	3 Good food and environment	1.7	2.6	93.1	2.6	100.0
	4 Dining out enthusiast	4.2	0.0	2.8	93.0	100.0
93.5% of original grouped cases correctly classified.						

Figure 9-2 below shows the canonical discriminant functions of food selection criteria that indicate the distribution of the cases of each cluster. The figure indicates that the cases of each cluster have been properly allocated around their centroid. Some of the cases of cluster three can be found situated inside the other three clusters but nothing significant was out of place. The groupings of the cases of each cluster are also showing high levels of coherence. Figure 9-2 and Table 9-5 indicate that the choice of a 4-cluster result is the optimal choice.

Figure 9-2: Canonical Discriminant Functions  
Food Selection Criterion



Again, the resultant clusters were tested against loyalty behaviour; results are shown in Table 9-6 below. The result indicates that clusters based on food selection behaviour possess a significant influence towards loyalty. The first column of the table lists the six loyalty behaviours of the respondents, which includes 'Price of meal is acceptable', 'Willingness to come again', 'Recommend this restaurant to others', 'This restaurant is my top choice' and 'Willing to overcome obstacles to come', 'Dining out frequency in past three month'. The mean value of the relationship between the food selection cluster and loyalty behaviour is listed in the second column to the fifth column. The F-value of the analysis of variance is listed in the sixth column and the results of the analysis of the post-hoc test are in the last column.

**Table 9-6: Food Selection Cluster vs. Loyalty**

Food Selection Cluster	Cluster				F value	Tukey
	1 Good and healthy food	2 Tasty food and nice conversation	3 Good food and environment	4 Dining out enthusiast		
<b>Loyalty</b>	Mean					
Price of meal is acceptable	5.54	5.26	5.27	5.57	9.6**	1,4>2,3
Willingness to come again	5.17	4.44	4.75	5.75	579.3**	4>all
Recommend restaurant to others	5.67	5.12	5.68	5.63	27.7**	all>2
This restaurant is my top choice	4.80	3.97	4.50	5.35	74.2**	4>all
Willing to overcome obstacles to come	4.63	3.81	4.24	5.26	91.8**	4>all
Dining out frequency in past three month	5.27	4.93	5.34	5.28	2.6*	3>2
No. of respondents	582	386	531	566		
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level						
** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level						

Cluster two as ‘tasty food and nice conversation’ showed the lowest loyalty compared to all other groups although most loyalty variables still scored means higher than 4. There are two variables that scored means just below 4, which are ‘this restaurant is my top choice’ and ‘willing to overcome obstacles to come’ (mean=3.97 and mean=3.81 respectively).

Cluster four, ‘dining out enthusiast’, scored the highest means for all loyalty variables except for ‘dining out frequency in past three months’. From the loyalty test results of cluster two and four, one can see that the higher the importance of food selection, the higher the respondent loyalty will be. Therefore, cluster two attributed a low level of importance for a lot of food selection variables and hence also showed a low level of loyalty. Cluster four showed a high enthusiasm for all food selection variables and displayed a high level of loyalty.

Respondents in cluster one as ‘good and healthy food’, who are more concerned about health than others, would be more tolerant towards price and obstacles and

show a higher likelihood of returning to the same restaurant. Cluster three as ‘good food and environment’, on the other hand, is relatively different from cluster one in terms of the above-mentioned behaviour. One can then conclude that healthy food is more capable of retaining customers than good environment.

This section of the chapter has introduced the cluster analysis results of dining out motivation and food selection behaviour. This section has also used ANOVA as an analysis method to examine the difference and similarity of loyalty behaviour for each cluster group. The next section presents the results of the analysis of structure equation modelling (SEM) in order to understand the indirect relationship between dining out motives and food selection behaviour toward the level of loyalty, which is hypothesis H4 as ‘Dining out motivation impact food selection behaviour of Shanghai residents’.

## Structural Equation Modelling

This section uses structural equation modelling (SEM) to understand the indirect relationship between dining out motivation and food selection behaviour, which is the hypothesis H4 as ‘Dining out motivation impact food selection behaviour of Shanghai residents’. This section is organized as follows. The first part of the section discusses the relationship between the dining out motivation and the frequency of dining out as loyalty behaviour. The second section discusses the relationship between food selection behaviour and willingness to come again.

### Dining out Motivation vs. Frequency of Dining Out

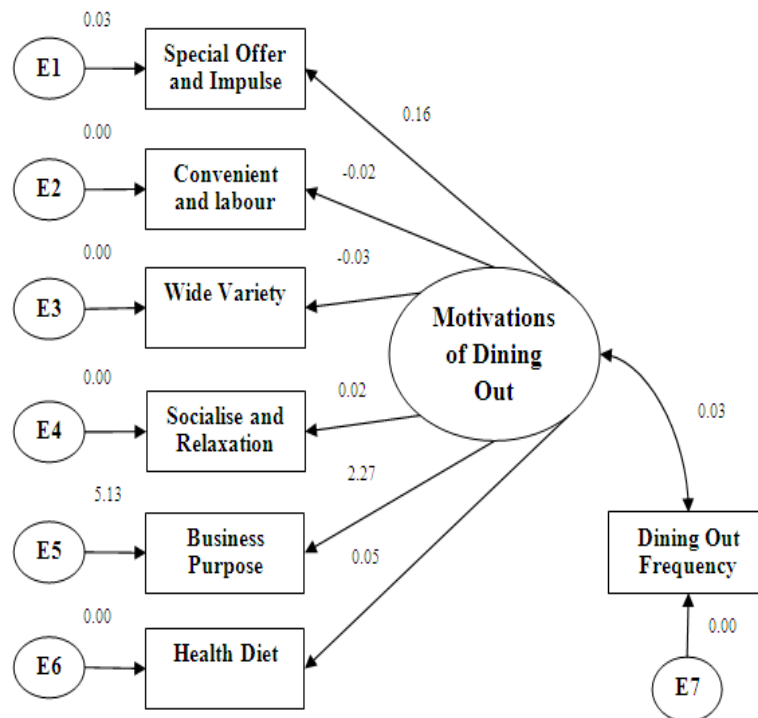
The first equation that this study intended to test is the causal relationship between dining out motivation and the frequencies of dining out. This study has been operating under the assumption that dining out is a multi-purpose based behaviour, and consequently one should be able to assess the frequency through motivation using the following formula:

$$F = f\left(\sum I_{i\dots n}\right)$$

Where

F is the frequency of dining out in a Chinese full-service restaurant in the past three months

$\sum I_{i\dots n}$  is the aggregate score of attributes  $i\dots n$  assessed for the dining out motivation



**Figure 9-3: Structural Equation Modelling -  
Motivation of Dining Out vs. Frequency of Dining Out**

The test results are shown in Figure 9-3 above. Due to the existence of at least one missing value in the dataset, AMOS was unable to compute standard measurement of ‘goodness of fit’. Therefore, GFI and RMSEA were examined to ensure the model fits. The result of CFI equals 0.646, which is close to the criterion of 0.6 suggested by Bagozzi and Yi (1988). The RMSEA of the model equals 0.08, which is close to the ‘perfect fit’ of 0.05. The results of Figure 9-3 indicate that dining out frequency is mainly determined by the motivational factor of ‘Business purpose’.

**Table 9-7: SEM of Dining out Motivation vs. Frequency of Dining Out**

	Estimation	S.E.	C.R.	P
Motivation → Healthy Diet	0.662	0.237	2.798	0.005
Motivation → Business Purpose	37.651	75.906	0.496	0.620
Motivation → Socialise	0.219	0.129	1.704	0.088
Motivation → Wide Variety	-0.361	0.167	-2.158	0.031
Motivation → Convenient Labour	-0.231	0.140	-1.645	0.100
Motivation → Special Offer	2.253	0.684	3.293	***
Motivation → Frequency	1.000			

When examining the regression weights of the variables, the results confirm that ‘business purpose’ is strongly related to dining out frequency with the value of 2.27 (Figure 9-3). Table 9-7 shows that when frequency increased by 1, the corresponding level of ‘business purpose’ was increased by 37.651. The second strongest determinant for dining out frequency is ‘special offer and impulse’, which scored an estimation of 2.253.

### **Food Selection Behaviour vs. Willingness to Come Again**

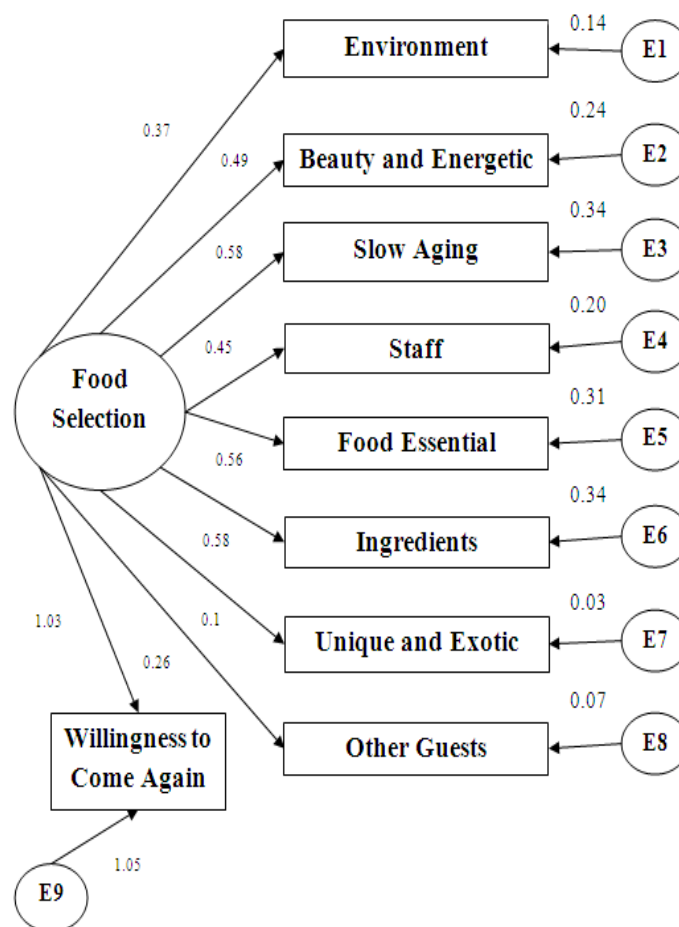
The second model that this study wishes to test is the relationship between food selection and the loyalty behaviour factor as ‘Willingness to come again’. The result is shown in Figure 9-4 below, which scored GFI of 0.787 and RMSEA of 0.144. These values indicate that the model fit is not as good as Figure 9-3, but good enough to convince the researcher to accept this hypothetical model. The reason for not attempting to get a better model fit is to avoid manipulating the result. In other words, this study is trying to examine whether something that makes sense is statistically accurate instead of creating a statistically sound model that doesn’t make sense. The formula is shown below:

$$R = f\left(\sum I_{i...n}\right)$$

Where

R is willingness to revisit by the consumers

$\sum I_{i...n}$  is the aggregate score of attributes  $i...n$  assessed for food selection behaviour



**Figure 9-4: Structural Equation Modelling - Food Selection Behaviour vs. Willingness to Come Again**

The result indicates that ‘slows aging’ is the main contributor for respondents’ willingness to revisit a same restaurant, followed by ‘food essential’ and ‘ingredients’. The ‘unique and exotic’ variable is the most unimportant contributor

to repeat visitation. This result is consistent with the researcher's personal knowledge and confirms the importance of 'healthy food' in Chinese dining out behaviour.

**Table 9-8: SEM of Food Selection vs. Willingness to Come Again**

	Estimation	S.E.	C.R.	P
Food Selection → Staff	0.638	0.028	22.471	***
Food Selection → Food Essential	0.804	0.028	28.976	***
Food Selection → Environment	0.597	0.033	18.231	***
Food Selection → Other guests	0.403	0.032	12.535	***
Food Selection → Unique Exotic	0.190	0.025	7.740	***
Food Selection → Beauty Energetic	0.729	0.029	25.086	***
Food Selection → Slows aging	0.811	0.026	30.660	***
Food Selection → Ingredients	0.800	0.026	30.373	***
Food Selection → Repeat Visitation	1.000			

The results of the cluster analyses conducted above suggest that the respondents show different levels of loyalty behavior for different dining out motives and different food selection behaviour. For example, the respondents who dine out for a convenience purpose are less likely to recommend the restaurant to others. This is understandable since they are driven by necessity to dine out instead of desire. For another example, the respondents who enjoy tasty food and nice conversation are less loyal to a particular restaurant. This result is logical since nice conversation is provided by one's dining companion, not the restaurant. Therefore, the study concludes that the respondents' dining out motives and food selection behaviour indirectly affect their dining out loyalty.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter has introduced the results of factor analysis and cluster analysis by using SPSS. This chapter has also discussed the relationship between dining out

motivation and the frequency of dining out; and the relationship between food selection behaviour and the level of loyalty by using structural equation modelling. The conclusions and recommendation will be discussed next.

# **Chapter Ten**

## **Discussion and Conclusion**

### **Introduction**

The final chapter of this study presents the results derived from both the quantitative and qualitative analyses. The first part of this chapter re-examines the research framework and hypotheses that have been mentioned in Chapter Six. It examines whether the results are consistent with the research hypotheses. The second part of this chapter discusses the main contributions of this study to relevant fields of study. The third part of this chapter makes recommendations to the food and beverage industry based on analysis results. Finally, this chapter discusses possible research directions that emerge from the study.

### **Research Purpose Review**

The aim of this study was to understand the dining out behaviour of Shanghai residents in Chinese full-service restaurants in Shanghai, China. There were two main focuses: Firstly, the study included many health related elements in the questionnaire, of which many were specifically focused on Chinese dietary beliefs. A review of the literature revealed that most of the food related behaviour studies were conducted in Western countries, and were mostly conducted through scientific methods. For example, the following: Giff and Harrison (1972), about nutrition; Cheshire (2002), studying herbs; Demory-Luce et al. (2005) studying acculturation and weight gain of Chinese-American children; Weiss and Munoz-Furlong (2008) studying food allergy reaction caused by dining out. Many of these studies, even one that studies Chinese dietary practices, are conducted in

the Western world by non-Chinese researchers. Chinese dietary habits mostly rely on folklore and ancient knowledge. Therefore, it is conceivable that Chinese dietary behaviour is very different from the Western world, and therefore a Western perspective may not be able to fully interpret Chinese dietary behaviour. The inclusion of cultural elements is also very important in this study. Shanghai is a multi-cultural city that attracts migrants from different provinces in China and other countries as well. The research question that this study aimed to answer is “what are the main determinants of Shanghai residents’ dining out motivation and food selection behaviour?” This question can be further elaborated into three objectives, which are: (1) understanding factors that affect Shanghai residents’ dining out motivation, (2) understanding the relationship between dining out motivation and Shanghai residents’ food selection behaviour, and (3) understanding the influence of cultural elements and socio-demographic variables to food selection behaviour. These objectives can be achieved by supporting or disproving the research hypotheses.

## **Reflection on Research Framework, Objectives and**

### **Hypotheses**

The deductive nature of this research suggests that the hypotheses were proposed first and examined later. The study theorised that dining out status, cultural orientation and socio-demographic variables affect people’s dining out motivation and consequently food selection behaviour. In order to test the validity of this theory, seven hypotheses were examined.

### **Results that Support or Negate the Hypotheses**

*H1: Dining out patterns impact Shanghai residents’ dining out motivation.*

This study has observed three types of dining patterns, which are: (1) dining

out occasions, (2) frequency of dining out and (3) accompanied by children (Refer to Table 8-3 (page 219), Table 8-4 (page 222) and Table 8-5 (page 224) respectively).

The results in Chapter Eight indicated that the respondents dined out for multiple purposes. For example, people may go out for a business meal with their family. Also, the results showed that dining out frequency had a relationship to dining out motives. Furthermore, the results also concluded that the presence of children can affect dining out motives.

These results show that hypothesis H1 is primarily accurate. In Table 8-3 'Occasions of Dining out vs. Dining out Motivation', one can clearly see that all dining out motivational factors were significantly affected by the dining out occasion. For example, the motivational factor of 'Socialization and Relaxation' is relatively high when respondents dine out for 'celebration'. This suggests that respondents often celebrate certain events to increase their social bond. There were other examples that can be found in Table 8-3 to support hypothesis H1, such as respondents who dine out for 'a romantic meal' were less likely to score a high mean in the motivational factor of 'Socialization and Relaxation', because when people dine out for a romantic meal, they do not want others to be included in their occasion.

In Table 8-4 'Frequencies of Dining out vs. Dining out Motivation', only four motivational factors were found to be significant. Therefore, the study concludes that frequency of dining out is less valid in predicting dining out motivation than the occasions of dining out. Despite the above facts, the results showed some meaningful and interesting findings. For example, respondents who dined out more frequently (8 times or more) were often motivated by the occasion of 'Special Offer and Impulse'. Work related meals such as 'Business Purpose', was also a strong reason for high dining

out frequency. Therefore, the relationship between dining out frequency and dining out motivation is valid.

In Table 8-5 ‘Accompanied by Children vs. Dining out Motivation’, only three motivational factors were found with  $p$ -value less than 0.05. These facts lead the study to conclude that ‘accompany children’ is a less valid predictor for dining out motives than dining out occasion. However, the results in table 8-5 are still meaningful and logical. For example, the respondents who dine out for a meal with a work related motivational factor such as ‘Convenient and Labour’ were less likely to bring their children. Conversely, the respondents with children were more likely to dine out for social events such as ‘Socialization and Relaxation’.

Based on the above discussion, the study is able to conclude that the dining out occasion is the best predictor for dining out motives, compared to the factors of frequency of dining out and accompanied by children. However, frequency of dining out and accompanied by children can also affect dining out motives to a certain extent. Therefore, hypothesis H1, ‘Dining out patterns impact Shanghai residents’ dining out motivation’ is supported by the research results.

*H2: Cultural elements impact Shanghai residents’ dining out motivation.*

The results in Chapter eight indicate that respondents of different cultural orientation show some differences in their dining out motives. In Table 8-10 ‘Cultural Orientation vs. Dining out Motivation’, only three motivational factors were found significantly different. The results in table 8-10 thus partially support hypothesis H2. Cultural orientation however, possesses an influence over respondents’ cuisine preferences, taste preferences, and food material preferences. To further elaborate the above statement, the study examined some interesting findings from Table 8-10. For example, the first

group of respondents as ‘retainer’ (the non-Shanghai born respondents with a high level of original cultural orientation) is more likely to dine out for a meal with the work related motivation ‘Convenient and Labor’. Because retainers were identified as non-Shanghai born respondents, the study can conclude that they moved to Shanghai because of work or to run a business. However, one can see in this case that the relationship between culture and dining out motives is indirect. Therefore, the results of this study only partially support hypothesis H2.

*H3: Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents’ dining out motivation.*

The socio-demographic variables include gender, age, marital status, monthly income, occupation and educational level. The results show that gender and marital status were not good predictors of respondents’ dining out motives. Age, monthly income, occupation and educational level, however, were good predictors for dining out motivation. Also, these socio-demographic variables were influenced by each other, which makes interpretation difficult. For example, the respondents with a higher educational level were more likely to have a higher monthly income (Refer to Table 8-12 (page 245), Table 8-13 (page 246), Table 8-14 (page 249), Table 8-15 (page 251), Table 8-16 (page 254), Table 8-17 (page 257) and Table 8-18 (page 259)).

In Table 8-12 ‘Gender vs. Motivation of Dining out’, one notes that only one motivational factor was significantly affected by the socio-demographic variable of gender, which is ‘Convenient and labour’ and that is the most important work related motivational factor. One can argue that since China is still a male dominated society, males have more opportunities of being out and away from home. Therefore, the results in table 8-12 partially support hypothesis H3.

Table 8-13 'Age vs. Dining out Motivation' indicates that all dining out motivational factors were significantly affected by age. For example, older respondents (whose age is between 30 and 50) were more likely to dine out for a meal with business related motives. Also, older respondents were more concerned with health issues. Therefore, the study can conclude that age is an important determinant for dining out motives. The age group of the respondents was a strong predictor of people's dining out motivation and the results in table 8-12 entirely support hypothesis H3.

Table 8-14 'Marital Status vs. Dining out Motivation' indicates that four motivational factors were significantly affected by the marital status of respondents. There are some findings worth mentioning. For example, non-married respondents were more likely to dine out than married respondents because of the reason of 'Special Offer and Impulse', which includes 'To try a newly opened restaurant', 'A restaurant advertisement encouraged me to come' and 'Special features of a restaurant'. This result is reasonable in modern Shanghai society where younger generations have more time for leisure activities and they were more likely to try something new. Another interesting example is that married respondents were more health conscious. One can interpret that once people enter a married stage of their life, they become more responsible and thus require a knowledge of how to cook and be mindful of the health of their family. Therefore, marital status may not be a very good predictor for dining out motivation and the results in table 8-14 only partially support hypothesis H3.

Table 8-15 'Monthly Salary vs. Dining out Motivation' indicates that four motivational items were significantly affected by the monthly salary of respondents. The results in table 8-5 show that wealthier respondents were more likely to be motivated by the factor of 'Socialization and Relaxation',

including 'time with family', 'time with friends' and 'I enjoy being relaxed'. On the other hand, less wealthy respondents whose monthly salary is under RMB 5,000 were more likely to dine out for a meal in a restaurant with the reason of 'Convenient and Labour'. Therefore, the factor of monthly salary may not be a good predictor for dining out motivation and the results in table 8-15 only partially support hypothesis H3.

Table 8-16 'Level of Education vs. Dining out Motivation' indicates that four motivational factors were significantly affected by the level of education. It can be argued that the level of education is highly correlated with monthly salary, thus it is not surprising that the results in table 8-15 and Table 8-16 are fairly similar. For example, the respondents who have had a higher level of educational background were more likely to be motivated by family or friend bonding to dine out in a restaurant, aligned to the motivational factor of 'Socialization and Relaxation'. Therefore, the level of education may not be a good predictor for dining out motivation and the results in table 8-16 only partially support hypothesis H3.

Table 8-17 'Occupations vs. Dining out Motivation' indicates that five out of six motivational factors were significantly affected by the socio-demographic variable of occupation. Again, it can be argued that occupation is highly associated with the variables of the level of education and monthly salary, thus it is not surprising that Table 8-15, Table 8-16 and Table 8-17 show fairly similar results. Therefore, the factor of occupation may not be a good predictor for dining out motivation and the results in table 8-17 only partially support hypothesis H3.

Based on the above discussion, this study can conclude that hypothesis H3 is primarily accurate. However, some variables such as age and monthly salary were stronger predictors to dining out motivation than other

social-demographic variables.

*H4: Dining out motivation impacts food selection behaviour of Shanghai residents.*

The study cannot establish any direct link between dining out motivation and food selection behaviour. There was, however, evidence that suggested these two dimensions were indirectly related. For example, both motivation of dining out and food selection behaviour can be used to predict the loyalty of respondents (Table 9-3 (page 284) and Table 9-6 (page 292)). Also, motivation of dining out can influence the 'Frequency of dining out' which can also influence food selection behaviour in a Chinese full-service restaurant (Figure 9-3 (page 295) and Figure 9-4 (page 297)).

*H5: Dining out patterns impact Shanghai residents' food selection behaviour.*

The results indicate that the occasions of 'dining out' and 'accompanied by children' were strong factors that affected respondents' food selection behaviour. Dining out frequency, on the other hand, is less valid than dining out occasions and accompanied by children in terms of determining respondents' food selection behaviour (Refer to Table 8-6 (page 229), Table 8-7 (page 234) and Table 8-8 (page 236)).

Table 8-6 'Occasions of Dining Out vs. Food Selection Behaviour' indicates that all food selection factors were significantly affected by occasions of dining out. For example, respondents who dined out for 'a romantic meal' or 'dining out with friends' were more likely to be motivated by the item of 'unique and exotic'. Another good example is that respondents who dine out with family were more health conscious. Therefore, the occasion of dining out is a good predictor for food selection behaviour and the results in table 8-6 fully support hypothesis H5.

Table 8-7 'Frequencies of Dining Out vs. Food Selection Behaviour' indicates that only four out of eight food selection factors were significantly affected by the frequency of dining out, including 'slows aging', 'food essential', 'ingredients' and 'other guests'. The results showed that the respondents who dine out with 'low frequency' (1 – 3 times) and 'high frequency' (6 – 7 times) in a Chinese full-service restaurant were more likely to show high mean values for these four factors. Despite the relativities of high and low scores, all the means were above the mid-point scale of 4.00. Therefore, the factor of frequency of dining out is not a very good predictor for food selection behaviour and the results in table 8-7 only partially support hypothesis H5.

The results in table 8-8 'Accompanied by Children vs. Food Selection Behaviour' indicate that the respondents accompanied by children were more health conscious. For example, the respondents who dine out with their children pay more attention to the food quality and selected materials and ingredients. On the other hand, the respondents without children were more likely to select the factor of 'unique and exotic'. Because only two of the six variables showed a significant difference, the factor of accompanied by children may not be a good predictor for food selection behaviour and the results in Table 8-8 therefore only partially support hypothesis H5.

Based on the above discussion, the study can conclude that hypothesis H5 is primarily accurate. Compared to the factors of dining out occasions and accompanied by children, the frequency of dining out, however, is a poor predictor for food selection behaviour.

*H6: Cultural elements impact Shanghai residents' food selection behaviour.*

The results in Table 8-11 'Cultural Orientation vs. Food Selection Behaviour' show that cultural orientation significantly affects four food selection factors,

which were ‘beauty and energetic’, ‘slow aging’, ‘food essential’ and ‘ingredients’. The ‘Absorber’ (the respondents who were Shanghai born but showing signs of other cultural orientation higher than Shanghai culture orientation) respondents were less likely to consider these factors when dining out in a restaurant in Shanghai. The respondents of ‘Bicultural’ (people who show the high level of both cultural orientations) and ‘Assimilator’ (respondents who were born in Shanghai and show strong pure Shanghai cultural orientation), on the other hand, show a high level of concern for these four food selection factors. The ‘Acculturator’ (non-Shanghai born but show high Shanghai cultural orientation) respondents showed significantly higher concern for ‘food essential’ and ‘ingredients’ compared to the ‘Absorber’ respondents. Therefore, hypothesis H6 is not completely supported by the results shown in Table 8-11.

Taking a closer look at Table 8-11 ‘Cultural Orientation vs. Food Selection Behaviour’, one can see that both group 3 as ‘Absorber’ (the respondents who were Shanghai born but showing signs of other cultural orientation higher than the Shanghai cultural orientation) respondents and group 1 as ‘Retainer’ (the non-Shanghai born respondents with a high level of original cultural orientation) respondents were more likely to show low food selection behaviour, indicating they were less demanding than other groups. Overall, the results in table 8-11 indicate that cultural orientation does not significantly affect food selection behaviour, thus hypothesis H6 is not fully supported by the evidence.

*H7: Socio-demographic variables impact Shanghai residents’ food selection behaviour.*

The results showed that male and female respondents possess different views on some of the food selection behaviour, but not all. Respondents of different age groups possessed different views regarding the quality of food. However,

age is related to level of education, occupation and monthly income to a certain extent. The discussion of this section concludes that hypothesis H7 is partially accurate. Some of the variables, such as age and occupation, were much stronger predictors than the other variables (Refer to Table 8-19 (page 262), Table 8-20 (page 263), Table 8-21 (page 265), Table 8-22 (page 267), Table 8-23 (page 269) and Table 8-24 (page 272)).

Table 8-19 'Gender vs. Food Selection Behaviour' indicates that only three food selection factors were significantly affected by the socio-demographic variable of gender. Female respondents were more concerned with the 'beauty and energetic' and 'slows aging' aspect of food quality. Also, female respondents were more likely to be motivated by the 'environment' factor in the choice of a restaurant. Therefore, the factor of gender may not be a good predictor for food selection behaviour and the results in table 8-19 only partially support hypothesis H7.

Table 8-20 'Age vs. Food Selection Behaviour' indicates that all food selection factors were significantly affected by different age groups. The results showed that older respondents were more likely to score a higher mean on almost all food selection factors than other age groups, especially those related to health factors. Therefore, the factor of age is a very good predictor for food selection behaviour and the results in table 8-20 fully support hypothesis H7.

Table 8-21 'Marital Status vs. Food Selection Behaviour' indicates that only one food selection factor is not affected by marital status, which is the factor of 'unique and exotic'. Also, this is the only factor where non-married persons scored a higher mean than married respondents. Therefore, the factor of marital status of respondents may not be a good predictor for food selection behaviour and the results in table 8-21 only partially support

hypothesis H7.

Table 8-22 ‘Monthly Salary vs. Food Selection Behaviour’ indicates that all food selection factors were significantly affected by the monthly salary of respondents. The result suggests that those with higher monthly salary were more demanding than respondents with lower monthly salary. As discussed previously, monthly salary is closely related to factors of both occupation and level of education. Thus Table 8-23 ‘Level of Education vs. Food Selection Behaviour’ and Table 8-24 ‘Occupations vs. Food Selection Behaviour’ were examined with Table 8-22. One can see that the result is fairly similar where respondents with higher education and monthly salary were more likely to score high means on food selection factors.

Based on the above discussion, the study can conclude that hypothesis H7 is primarily supported by the socio-demographic variables and age is a stronger predictor than other variables.

### **Research Objectives Achieved**

The objectives were achieved by testing corresponding hypotheses, which are summarised below:

Objective 1: Understanding factors that impact Shanghai residents’ dining out motivation (Refer to Hypotheses H1, H2 and H3).

Based on the hypotheses testing of H1, H2 and H3 shown in the above section, this study does achieve its objective 1. Furthermore, the factor analysis conducted in Chapter Eight does enhance the understanding of factors that affect dining out motivation. The findings of the factor analysis on dining out motivation can be summarised as follows: (1) dining out motives found in this study are similar to those found in other past studies

that focused on Western countries, (2) One can argue that motives from the push and pull theory are more of intrinsic need, which will be similar for all human beings regardless of culture or ethnical influences, and (3) the ‘impulse’ dining out motive requires more study.

Objective 2: Understanding the relationship between dining out motivation and Shanghai residents’ food selection behaviour (Refer to Hypothesis H4).

By testing hypothesis H4, this study does achieve its objective 2. The factor analysis in Chapter Nine also provides additional insights. The result indicates that people who dine out for different occasions behave differently in terms of food selection, which is additional evidence that supports hypothesis H4.

Objective 3: Understanding the influence of cultural elements, socio-demographic variables and dining out behaviour to food selection behaviour (Refer to Hypotheses H5, H6 and H7).

Through testing hypotheses H5, H6 and H7, this study does achieve its objective 3. The factor analyses conducted in Chapter Eight regarding food selection also helps to achieve Objective 3. The result indicates that Chinese people’s constructs regarding food and food culture were more complex than for Western people. For example, the health elements were further divided into ‘beauty and energetic’, ‘slows aging’, ‘food essential’, and ‘ingredients’. Since the research design of this study was based on the literature and pilot study one, the researcher can conclude that the result is similar to past studies with more detailed emphasis on ‘health’ issues.

The above discussions regarding the hypotheses show that the research objectives have been achieved. From these findings, one can come to a few conclusions as follows:

- (1) Certain socio-demographic variables are interrelated, such as age, monthly income and occupation;
- (2) Dining out motivation and food selection behaviour are both valid determinants for loyalty; and
- (3) Cultural elements can only be used to explain certain dining out behaviour, but cannot be used to predict food preferences.

The study also conducted factor analysis to group motivation and food selection into a few underlying dimensions and cluster analysis was used to segment the respondents. There are a few interesting points worth mentioning: (1) health can be divided into 'beauty' orientated and strengthen body' orientated, (2) certain variables showed a double loading, suggesting that the factoring was not very clear, (3) cluster analysis results showed that people who dine for different occasions behave differently in terms of food selection, which supports hypothesis H4.

## **Contribution to the Literature**

Initially, this study proposed two main contributions to the literature. The first contribution is the attempt to study Chinese dietary behaviour. The second is the attempt to study culture's role in dining out behaviour. During the process of analysing the data, the researcher discovered certain deficiencies in the research design that were not perceived at the beginning of the study. These deficiencies in turn become part of the contribution that this study can offer to restaurants or food and beverage industry studies.

### **1. Chinese Dietary Behaviour**

As mentioned before, most previous food related research was conducted in Western countries, which means that the findings may not be applicable in Chinese society. Some of the research that was conducted in Chinese society actually applied Western research models in Chinese situations. Such application may not be valid. One of the contributions of this study is the attempt to generate a Chinese orientated research design that can seek to understand some of the issues that are specific to the Chinese culture. The results suggest some interesting findings as well as some deficiencies. In terms of interesting findings, the results indicate that the main reason for respondents to seek a healthy diet is to obtain a better body shape or to strengthen body functions.

### **2. Cultural Elements**

The attempts to understand the role of cultural orientation in dining out behaviour is another key element of this study. Most of the previous researchers who aimed to understand the changes in the dining behaviour of immigrants were focused on immigration to different nations. This study dealt with 'within nation' migrations such as moving from one province to another. The reason for such an attempt is because people from different

parts of China possess significantly different preferences and beliefs, which may affect their dining behaviour. For example, Hong Kong people are accustomed to England's culture of having afternoon tea, which is rarely practiced in Chinese culture. The finding results suggest that culture does possess some influence on respondents' dining out motives and food selection criteria, but not as a main determinant. On the other hand, culture plays an important role in terms of food material, cuisine and taste preferences.

## **Management and Practical Implications**

Based on the analyses in chapter eight and the discussions, the thesis has concluded some of the issues that have practical implications, as follows:

### **1. Socio-demographic Variables**

Certain socio-demographic variables were valid predictive variables, such as age, level of education, occupation and monthly income and these were more powerful predictors than gender and marital status. However, some of the variables were interrelated which means that one has to be cautious when interpreting the results. For example, a business person is likely to be older but their preference for expensive food is more related to their occupation, not to their age. Restaurants would do well to train their staff to anticipate customers' needs based on their age, and provide suitable services.

### **2. Dietary Needs**

As mentioned before, the results of this study suggest that the motive for a healthy diet can be divided into two parts: (1) beauty, (2) slow down aging (strengthen body). This is important not only for the restaurant industry, but also to every food-related industry. The practitioners can use this in their marketing plans, such as creating a product or marketing it. Only a few

respondents, mainly businessmen, showed a high interest in rare or expensive food materials. Some restaurants with a much more specific target market could use this information to their advantage.

### 3. Cluster Analysis

The results of clusters vs. loyalty suggest some useful implications in terms of attracting repeat visitation. In terms of motivation, it is evident that many respondents dine out on a regular basis because of necessity, not desire. For example, respondents have to work and have no time to cook. In another example, it is common in Chinese culture to discuss business over meals in a restaurant. Since repeat visitors are the main contributor of profitability and are easier to attract, practitioners should devote more attention to this section of the market. In terms of food selection, 'health' and 'food quality' were the main determinants of respondents' repeat visitation. Service qualities (specifically the staff) and environment were less influential in terms of attracting revisits. The unique and exotic nature of the food were the least important in terms of creating revisits.

### 4. Cultural Issues

Cultural orientation only affects some dining out motives and food selections, which means that the results may not be helpful to restaurant management. However, cultural orientation possesses a significant influence on food and taste preferences, which is useful for designing new dishes.

### 5. Necessity vs. Desire

The results indicate that many respondents dine out due to necessity rather than actually being motivated by their own desire. This also highlights the importance of the health issue. It is a common belief of Chinese people that food 'away from home' contains more artificial ingredients that make the food taste good but may be potentially harmful to health (e.g.: Monosodium

glutamate or MSG). Therefore, people rarely dine out by choice but rather because of lack of choice. This suggests that the Chinese restaurant industry still operates under the impression that choices were made around ‘taste’ rather than ‘health’.

## **Recommendation for Future Research**

The study has focused on examining two issues: (1) Shanghai people’s perception on their own traditional dietary therapy, and (2) using cultural differences to segment Shanghai people and examine their dietary habits. These issues are relatively unexplored in Chinese studies, which means that there is not a lot of literature the researcher can make reference to. Therefore, the research design is far from perfect.

### **1. More Variables to Determine Cultural Orientation**

This study uses language proficiency, media preferences and cuisine preferences to categorise the respondents into different cultural groups. However, during the process of analysis and discussion, the researcher discovered that people from different generations may also behave differently due to the way they were brought up, the information they were exposed to and so on. Since the researcher did not conceive this issue prior to the analysis, the research framework was not designed to test this hypothesis.

Most of the respondents appear to be Bicultural (1154) and then Assimilator (674, Shanghai born respondents). Since most respondents were Shanghai born, this result is not surprising. Future studies could attempt to get more non-Shanghai born respondents. The results would probably be different.

### **2. Social Status**

This study argued that the inclusion of socio-demographic variables in most

studies lacks justification. Basically what most researchers do is use an almost standardised set of questions related to socio-demographics, such as age, gender, marital status, education, occupation and monthly salary. As mentioned in this study, some of these variables are interrelated, which means that examining them one by one somehow seemed like repeated work that would yield no additional findings. The study, therefore, proposed an aggregate variable named 'social status' that theoretically encompassed age, occupation, monthly salary and level of education. The findings suggest that 'social status' is mostly dependent upon monthly salary and occupation. Level of education shows a correlation with monthly salary and occupation but it does not increase social status by itself. Therefore, one can make the assumption that these socio-demographic variables are interrelated but not all of them increase social status. Future studies can try to use this new finding when designing the socio-demographic part of questionnaire.

### 3. Health Section of Questionnaire

This study attempted to generate a questionnaire that was able to survey the Chinese population in terms of understanding their choices for a healthy diet. The health section of questions that the thesis used is more Chinese culturally orientated. However, these questions were derived from different sources. Certain Chinese health diet beliefs are scientifically proven, but some remain folklore. There are some Chinese diet practices that have been proven wrong but people are still operating under such wrongly held beliefs. For example, the Chinese believe that eating animals' internal organs will help to strengthen the function of their corresponding organ. However, internal organs often contain high levels of cholesterol which, when consumed in too great a quantity, will cause certain negative health effects such as high blood pressure. This thesis has not considered the issue of mis-belief, which is an interesting subject.

Furthermore, the health-related questions of this study were derived from the food science literature, which the respondents may not be familiar with. For example, the questions include words such as ‘fibre’ and ‘calories’. While most people have a basic knowledge about how ‘calories’ affect humans, not many know what ‘fibre’ specifically does. Instead of asking questions that the respondents may not be familiar with, future questions could be changed to what the respondents actually want from a healthy diet (e.g. slim body).

#### 4. Time Series Data

The initial plan of this study is to understand current dining out trends in Chinese traditional full-service restaurants in Shanghai, China. This plan raises an interesting question as to how the trends came into existence and what the future trends will be. As mentioned before, the study did not consider the issue of people from different generations. Also, the survey only covered a limited period of time (e.g. six months), which means that forecasting for future trends is not possible with the data at hand. Future studies could try to collect time series data that would allow researchers to predict further dining out trends.

#### 5. Studying Different Group of Customers

This research aimed to study the dining out behaviour of Shanghai residents. The study undertook cluster analysis that classified respondents into different groups based on their dining out motives and food selection criteria. Future studies could choose to research a specific group of respondents that may be more helpful for restaurants with a specific target market. For example, one could study the dining out behaviour of businessmen. As mentioned before, it is a common behaviour in Chinese society to discuss business deals or socialise over a meal. The result of such targeted research could be valuable to those restaurants that cater to this ‘high social status’ market.

## Research Limitations

Given resource constraints such as time, financial capability and human resource, no research is without limitation. This study is not an exception. The limitations of this study are as follows:

1. Survey conducted in Shanghai

The study only focused on Shanghai, which means the result may be different in other parts of China. However, as stated in Chapter Three, Shanghai is an international hub that attracts people from other provinces and countries. This characteristic made Shanghai the preferred choice of study site.

2. The number of surveys

Overall, the survey collected 2103 responses. However, because the survey was only conducted in Shanghai, it was difficult to find respondents from other provinces. As Table 7-4 in Chapter seven presented, 75.6% of the respondents were Shanghai born. There were a sufficient number of respondents from nearby provinces, such as Zhejiang (144) and Fujian (118). However, respondents from places far from Shanghai were limited. Therefore, the study cannot exclude the possibility of bias in the sample.

3. Impulse dining out motive

The study concludes that the impulse dining out motive can be mixed with other dining out motives. Thus, it might be more meaningful to compare the behavioural differences between 'impulse' and 'planned' dining out behaviour. This issue, however, is not the focus of this study and was not conceived prior to the survey. Therefore, the issues of impulse dining out behaviour have not been fully explored in this study. It is natural that every study has its limitations and finding a deficiency is certainly another way to

contribute to the literature.

#### 4. Deficiencies in research design

As mentioned above, some deficiencies exist in the research design. For example, it is the researcher's opinion that more variables are required for one to truly analyse cultural orientation. Secondly, the researcher also believes that more detailed socio-demographic variables would provide opportunity for more detailed analysis. These issues will be elaborated further in the recommendation for future study section.

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## Appendix I:

Waikato Management School  
Te Raupapa

The University of Waikato  
Private Bag 3105  
Hamilton  
New Zealand



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MANAGEMENT SCHOOL

*Te Raupapa*

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### An Assessment of Contemporary Dining Out Behaviour: The moderating factors of culture and food selection within Chinese full-service restaurants in Shanghai, China

Thank you for participating in this survey. This survey is a part of Ph.D. studies undertaken by the University of Waikato, New Zealand. The purpose of this study is to assess Shanghai people's attitude towards dining-out in Traditional Chinese Full-Service Restaurants. In providing your response to the following questions, please consider what best represents your experience. Accordingly tick the box or circle the number. Your name, address, telephone numbers etc are not required as it is your opinion that matters for the study. It also assures your privacy uphold. Please feel free to express your own views from your experiences in a Chinese Full-Service Restaurant in Shanghai, China. Finally, I will like to take this opportunity to thank you again for your time and efforts in completing this questionnaire.

## Section 1: Dining out behaviour

01. What is the main reason for you dining-out today?

- A Business meal
- Impulse
- Dining out with children only
- Dining out with elders only
- Dining out with work colleagues
- Dining out with friends
- A romantic meal
- To celebrate an event

02. Please think back over the past three months, how many times have you have eaten in a Chinese Full-Service Restaurant? \_\_\_\_\_ times

03. When you eat in a Chinese Full-Service Restaurant are you Yes  No   
normally accompanied by children?

04. On average how many people dined with you when you visited a Chinese Full-Service Restaurant over the past three months? \_\_\_\_\_ people

## Section 2: Culture

These questions seek your culture origin.

05. Birth place (province)? \_\_\_\_\_

06. What province have you lived in for the longest period of time? \_\_\_\_\_  
How many years was this period? \_\_\_\_\_

07. How long have you been living in Shanghai? \_\_\_\_\_year \_\_\_\_\_month

08. Do you consider yourself to be Shanghai Yes  No   
resident?

09. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements by circling the number using the following scale, which best represents your opinion.

- 7 = Extremely Agree
- 6 = Very Strongly Agree
- 5 = Strongly Agree
- 4 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree
- 3 = Strongly Disagree
- 2 = Very Strongly Disagree
- 1 = Extremely Disagree
- 0 = No Opinion/Do Not Know

### Items

9.1 I am fluent in speaking Shanghai Dialect?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
9.2 I am fluent in speaking other Dialects?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
9.3 I am able to speak foreign languages (e.g. English)?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
9.4 I watch Shanghai local news and other TV programmers?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
9.5 I read Shanghai local newspapers/magazines?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
9.6 I watch TV programs of other provinces?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
9.7 I read newspaper/magazines of other provinces?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

## 10. Major Chinese cuisines

When dining in a Chinese Full-Service Restaurant, please indicate how likely it is that you would select from the following. Please circle the number that best represents your opinion.

7 = Extremely Like

6 = Very Strongly Like

5 = Strongly Like

4 = Neither Like nor Dislike

3 = Strongly Dislike

2 = Very Strongly Dislike

1 = Extremely Dislike

0 = No Opinion/Do Not Know

### Items

10.1 Guangdong (Yue) cuisine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
10.2 Shandong (Lu) cuisine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
10.3 Sichuan (Chuan) cuisine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
10.4 Jiangsu (Su) cuisine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
10.5 Zhejiang (Zhe) cuisine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
10.6 Fujian (Min) cuisine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
10.7 Hunan (Xiang) cuisine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
10.8 Anhui (Wan) cuisine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
10.9 Shanghai (Hu) cuisine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

11. In Chinese cuisine there are usually different methods of cooking used. When dining in a Chinese Full-Service Restaurant, please indicate how attractive each would be to you using the following scale. Please circle the number that best represents your opinion.

- 7 = Extremely Attractive
- 6 = Very Strongly Attractive
- 5 = Strongly Attractive
- 4 = Neither Attractive nor Unattractive
- 3 = Strongly Unattractive
- 2 = Very Strongly Unattractive
- 1 = Extremely Unattractive
- 0 = No Opinion/Do Not Know

Items

11.1 Food that is Boiled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
11.2 Food that is Steamed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
11.3 Food that is Deep fried	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
11.4 Food that is Roasted and smoked	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
11.5 Food that is Pan or wok cooked	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
11.6 Food that is prepared Cold food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

12. Major food items

When you are considering and ordering dishes in a Chinese Full Service restaurant please indicate how likely are you to order using the following scale. Please circle the number that best represents your opinion.

- 7 = Extremely Like
- 6 = Very Strongly Like
- 5 = Strongly Like
- 4 = Neither Like nor Unlike
- 3 = Strongly Unlike
- 2 = Very Strongly Unlike
- 1 = Extremely Unlike
- 0 = No Opinion/Do Not Know

## Items

The grain products								
12.1 Rice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
12.2 Flour products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
12.3 Tuber crops	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
The animal products								
12.4 Beef products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
12.5 Pork products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
12.6 Lamb products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
12.7 Chicken products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
12.8 Duck products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
12.9 Goose products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
12.10 Egg products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
12.11 Fish products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
12.12 Crustacean products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
12.13 Dairy products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
The vegetable products								
12.14 Legume such as soybean, peas, and beans	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
12.15 Leafy vegetable products (Chinese leaf, spinach...etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
12.16 Edible tuberous root products (carrot, potato, yam, taros, bamboo shoot, lotus root...etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
12.17 Gourd vegetable products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
12.18 Flower vegetable products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
12.19 Fungus products (mushroom)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
12.20 Phycomycete products (sea weed)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
12.21 Fresh fruits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
12.22 Dry fruits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

### 13. Major tastes

If you were going out for a meal in a Chinese Full-Service Restaurant, please indicate how attractive each would be to you using the following scale. Please circle the number that best represents your opinion.

- 7 = Extremely Attractive
- 6 = Very Strongly Attractive
- 5 = Strongly Attractive
- 4 = Neither Attractive nor Unattractive
- 3 = Strongly Unattractive
- 2 = Very Strongly Unattractive
- 1 = Extremely Unattractive
- 0 = No Opinion/Do Not Know

#### Items

13.1 Sweet food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
13.2 Sour food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
13.3 Salty food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
13.4 Bitter food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
13.5 Pungent food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

### Section 3: Personal background-----please tick

14 Gender	Male	<input type="checkbox"/>	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
15 Age group	11~20 years	<input type="checkbox"/>	21~30 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
			31~40 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
			41~50 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
			51~60 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
	61~70 years	<input type="checkbox"/>	71 years or more	<input type="checkbox"/>
16 Marital status	<input type="checkbox"/>	Married	<input type="checkbox"/>	Not Married
			<input type="checkbox"/>	Other
				<input type="checkbox"/>
17 Personal monthly salary	RMB 2,000 or Under	<input type="checkbox"/>	RMB 2,001~5,000	<input type="checkbox"/>
			RMB 5,001~10,000	<input type="checkbox"/>
			RMB 10,001 or above	<input type="checkbox"/>
18 What is your education level	School leaving qualification	<input type="checkbox"/>	Skill/professional qualification	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Tertiary education	<input type="checkbox"/>	Postgraduate qualification	<input type="checkbox"/>
19 What is your occupation	Self-employed	<input type="checkbox"/>	Student	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Expert	<input type="checkbox"/>	Business manager	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Office staff	<input type="checkbox"/>	Education (teacher, professor)	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Worker	<input type="checkbox"/>	Sales person	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Retired	<input type="checkbox"/>	Others _____	<input type="checkbox"/>
20 Who do you live with?	Alone	<input type="checkbox"/>	Wife & Children	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Elder parent(s)	<input type="checkbox"/>	Relatives	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Brothers and sisters	<input type="checkbox"/>	Friends	<input type="checkbox"/>

## Section 4: Motivations for dining out

21. Stated below are some of the reasons for people to dine-out. Using the following scale, please circle the number which best represents your motivation to dine-out in a Chinese Full-Service restaurant.

- 7 = Extremely Strong
- 6 = Very Strong
- 5 = Strong
- 4 = Neither Strong nor Weak
- 3 = Weak
- 2 = Very Weak
- 1 = Extremely Weak
- 0 = No Opinion/Do Not Know

### Items

21.1 Away from home & unable to cook.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21.2 Have to work or study & unable to cook.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21.3 To discuss business deals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21.4 To spend some quality time with my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21.5 To spend some quality time with my friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21.6 A restaurants advertisement encourages me to come.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21.7 Eating something different from usual.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21.8 Large selection of foods to choose from.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21.9 Unavailability of specific equipment to cook specific	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21.10 Celebration in a restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21.11 Some foods are difficult to prepare.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21.12 Some nutritious food such as deep sea fish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21.13 I don't like washing dishes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21.14 I enjoy being relaxed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21.15 I enjoy food of different region.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21.16 I enjoy being served.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21.17 To try a newly open restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21.18 Just feel like dining out.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21.19 Food as therapy (Bu)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21.20 Special features of a restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21.21 Socialise with customers, partners or workmates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21.22 Restaurant has special offer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

## Section 5: Food selection

22. For the following items, please indicate how important they are when you select the foods in this Chinese Full-Service Restaurant? Using the following scale, please circle the number which best represents your opinion.

- 7 = Extremely Important
- 6 = Very Strongly Important
- 5 = Strongly Important
- 4 = Neither Important Nor Unimportant
- 3 = Strongly Unimportant
- 2 = Very Strongly Unimportant
- 1 = Extremely Unimportant
- 0 = No Opinion/Do Not Know

### Items

22.1 The taste of food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.2 The smell of food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.3 The hygiene of food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.4 The presentation/appearance of the food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.5 The uniqueness of food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.6 The freshness of food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.7 The nutritious value of food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.8 The herbal ingredient used in the food preparation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.9 The level of calories the food contained	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.10 The level of carbohydrates the food contained	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.11 The level of protein the food contained	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.12 The level of vitamin the food contained	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.13 The level of fat the food contained	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.14 The level of mineral and microelement the food contained	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.15 The level of fiber the food contained	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.16 The level of carotene the food contained	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.17 The level of energy food can provide	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.18 Food that can prevent common sickness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.19 Food that can slow aging	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.20 Food that can maintain beauty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

22.21 Food that can help slim body	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.22 Food that can nourish or regulate body back to harmony	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.23 I choose the food because it can nourish one's vitality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.24 Food that can help the flow of Qi in one's body	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.25 I choose the food because it is good for heart	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.26 I choose the food because it is good for spleen	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.27 I choose the food because it is good for liver	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.28 I choose the food because it is good for lungs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.29 I choose the food because it is good for kidney	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.30 Dining place appeal to people that share similar social status	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.31 Expensive raw materials used	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.32 The food has exotic flavour	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.33 The food has special way of serving (hot pot, BBQ)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.34 The food does not contain artificial ingredient	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.35 The food is not cooked with too much oil	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.36 The nice view outside the window of restaurant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.37 The comfortable chair in the restaurant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.38 High quality lighting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.39 High quality decoration	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.40 Good dining ambience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.41 Good dining environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.42 Hygiene and cleanness of restaurant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.43 Attractive ornamental decoration	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.44 Nice background music	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.45 TV to watch	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.46 Skilled staff to provide good service	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.47 The staff has nice manner	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.48 The staff is knowledgeable in the food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.49 The staff explain things well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.50 The staff dress appropriately	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.51 The staff can response to my call quickly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.52 The staff remember me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.53 Nice place to have conversation with my friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

22.54 Other guests behave accordingly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.55 The price of the meal is acceptable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.56 Willingness to come again	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.57 Recommend this restaurant to others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.58 This restaurant is my top choice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22.59 This restaurant is my top choice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

23. What are the most important THREE things you consider when selecting food in a restaurant?

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_
3. \_\_\_\_\_

24. How do you think restaurant menu items are changing?

\_\_\_\_\_

Thank you for your cooperation

## **Appendix II-A:**

### Interview Questions

1. What are the main reasons for you to dine out for a meal in a Chinese full-service restaurant?
2. What kind of food, ingredients, materials and other factors do you prefer when you dine out for a meal in a Chinese full-service restaurant? and why?
3. How do you select a restaurant when you dine out?
4. What influence your decision to dine out in a Chinese full-service restaurant?

## **Appendix II-B:**

### Focus Group Questions

- (1) The reasons for dine out?
- (2) How do they select restaurant when they dine out?
- (3) How do they select food when they dine out in a restaurant?
- (4) Which aspects of the restaurant do affect their choice when they dine out for a meal in a restaurant?
- (5) What are their perspectives on current dining out trend in Shanghai?

## **Appendix III:**

### **Selected Chinese Full-Service Restaurants in Shanghai**

#### **Shanghai Style Full-Service Restaurants (上海菜系)**

##### **Dragon-Phoenix Dining Room (龙凤厅)**

**SETTING:**

Located in an 80-year-old Bund building, this restaurant still boasts Chinese columns and auspicious symbols such as dragons. It also offers charming riverside views through its windows.

**SPECIALTIES:**

- Peace chicken marinated in rice wine
- Brined goose liver
- Sautéed shrimps with crab roe
- Supreme abalone in oyster sauce
- Fried beef steak Chinese style

##### **Dynasty (王朝大酒店)**

**SETTING:**

As befits its name, Dynasty has some of the most magnificent furnishings in Shanghai, making it a luxurious dining venue. One statue of a running horse is a reminder of old local culture.

**SPECIALTIES:**

- Egg rolls French style
- Spicy tender chicken
- Delicious crab shells
- Chicken cooked with crab roe
- Smoked duck

### **Lu BoLang Restaurant (绿波廊)**

**SETTING:**

Housed in a three-story building beside the zigzag bridge inside Yuyuan Garden, this restaurant is an ideal place to enjoy authentic Shanghai food.

**SPECIALTIES:**

- Salted chicken
- Young soy beans with pickles
- Crystal river shrimps
- Cabbage hearts cooked with crab roes

### **Lu Lu Restaurant (鹭鹭酒家)**

**SETTING:**

Situated in fashionable landmark Plaza 66, the restaurant's decor is in the style of premises in the city's old lanes – what might be termed stylish and nostalgic.

**SPECIALTIES:**

Sweet and sour pork ribs  
Suzhou-style smoked fish fillets  
Sautéed crabs with rice cakes  
Stir-fired river shrimps  
Razor clams with glutinous rice

### **Merrylin Restaurant (美林阁)**

**SETTING:**

European-style decor with sculptures claimed to be from Renaissance times make dining here a pleasing experience, an added attraction perhaps being birds twittering outside. Locals say their accompaniment is a good way of enjoying traditional Chinese food.

**SPECIALTIES:**

- Hand-shredded goose
- Fried river shrimps
- Beef with black pepper
- Sautéed crab roe

### **Restaurant Art Salon (屋里香)**

**SETTING:**

Owned by two brothers, this unusual eatery has old-style furniture and many paintings for the perusal of other artists and visitors who also like to eat well.

**SPECIALTIES:**

- Soybean paste with egg yolk
- Duck's drumstick in soy sauce
- Yellow croakers in soy sauce
- Ox tongue and tail in soy sauce

### **Savoy (夏味馆)**

**SETTING:**

This restaurant is beautifully furnished and elegant. The designer's inspiration is evident at every turn, including a little bridge over water outside, and bamboos inside.

**SPECIALTIES:**

- XO salmon paste
- Soft-shell turtle cooked in crystal sugar
- Big cucumber with shrimp roes
- Pork in soy sauce with squid

### **Shanghai Old Station (上海老站)**

**SETTING:**

Located in an elegant former abbey built by French in 1921, this romantically named dining spot reeks of times long past, tempered by all that's necessarily modern.

**SPECIALTIES:**

- Razor clam meat marinated in rice wine
- Shepherd's purse with bean curd skins
- Old station smoked fish filled
- Sea cucumber with shrimp roes

### **Shanghai Spring (春申苑)**

**SETTING:**

Situated below ground yet with plenty of green to be seen through the windows, this restaurant is a bright and spacious example of masterly design.

**SPECIALTIES:**

- Fried shrimps
- Dried bean-curd with pine nuts
- Crystal river shrimps
- Jinjiang roast duck
- Braised prawn with brown sauce

### **The Shanghai Restaurant (名家私宴精作坊)**

**SETTING:**

Best described as low-key luxurious, this venue's dining room walls are hung with examples of calligraphy and paintings of celebrities. Elegance prevails, including in the dining cubicles.

**SPECIALTIES:**

- House brine pork slices
- Beef cooked with tea leaves
- Scallops with ginseng
- Abalone sautéed with fungus

### **The Yongfoo Elite (雍福会)**

**SETTING:**

A Ming-Dynasty bed and Western-style sofas somehow go well together as part of the furnishings, which also decorate the courtyard. Calligraphic masterpieces complete a welcoming, classy venue.

**SPECIALTIES:**

- Mixed raw fish
- Shark's fin with crab roe
- Fried Mandarin fish with pine nuts
- Stir-fried shrimps

### **Victorian Home (老洋房花园饭店)**

#### **SETTING:**

Located in an old house with an attractive grassland-and-water screen, this restaurant is sensitively designed with a combination of modern and nostalgic elements.

#### **SPECIALTIES:**

- Shanghai-style smoked fish fillets
- Shanghai-style spare ribs
- Bean-curd skin rolls
- Fo Tiao Qiang
- Shark's fin with crab roe

### **Whampoa Club (黄浦会)**

#### **SETTING:**

Elegant, plush and grand overall, its hallway to the dining room feels almost like an art gallery. The decor throughout is understated luxury, and most tables enjoy a river view.

#### **SPECIALTIES:**

- Slow-cooked shark's fin
- Sugar-cured glutinous red dates
- Slow-cooked whole fresh Australian abalone
- Double-boiled free-range chicken clear consommé with wantons

### **Xinjishi Restaurant (新吉士酒楼)**

#### **SETTING:**

Although usually very busy, this is a homely place to eat. It is clean, well appointed and a nice retreat from the madding hordes outside.

#### **SPECIALTIES:**

- Jishi smoked fish fillet
- Dates stuffed with glutinous rice
- Home-made pork in soy sauce
- Spicy chicken and stir-fried lobster

### **Xi's Garden (席家花园)**

**SETTING:**

This restaurant is in an east-Shanghai foreign-style building. It is a serene venue blessed with good staff and pleasant dining rooms with good facilities.

**SPECIALTIES:**

- Sausage rolls with eggs
- Braised long-snout catfish
- Big cucumber with shrimp roe
- Boned pork knuckle

### **Ye Shanghai (夜上海)**

**SETTING:**

Decoration is traditional shanghai-style, reminiscent of the 1930s and complete with a wooden ceiling for good measure. Male waiters wear the uniforms of when the city was the “Paris of the East”.

**SPECIALTIES:**

- Wined chicken
- Crispy bean-curd skins
- Diced chicken with pine nuts
- Saut éed shrimp balls
- Ye Shanghai roasted lamb with pies

## **Sichuan Style Full-Service Restaurants** (四川菜系)

### **Legend (天府传说)**

#### **SETTING:**

A venue with the illusion of cosiness because there is little room between its tables and chairs. Even so, complaints about lack of privacy and intimacy are rare indeed.

#### **SPECIALTIES:**

- Tea smoked duck
- Spicy fish from western Sichuan
- House crab soup

### **Yuxin Sichuan Dish (渝信川菜)**

#### **SETTING:**

Despite the plain materials used, the decoration seems sumptuous due to some excellent design. The food apart, this is no doubt part of the attraction for the young white-collar brigade.

#### **SPECIALTIES:**

- Chicken in chilly sauce
- Sichuan pickles
- Hot and spicy frogs
- Rabbit meat in chilly sauce
- Ynxin bean-curd jelly

## **Zhejiang Style Full-Service Restaurants** **(浙江菜系)**

### **Zhangshengji (张生记)**

#### **SETTING:**

A simple, homely decor underpins a warm and pleasant ambiance

#### **SPECIALTIES:**

- Sliced lotus roots with sugar sauce and osmanthus
- Duck stock with bamboo shoots
- Pork Knuckles in sweet brown sauce
- Zhangshengji sweet beans

## **Jiangsu Style Full-Service Restaurants** (江苏菜系)

### **Le Ting (乐庭)**

#### **SETTING:**

Located in a villa once part of the French Concession, this venue comprises three cosy dining rooms with classic furniture and decorated with pictures and artistic hanging lamps.

#### **SPECIALTIES:**

- Drunken chicken
- Shark's fin in fish stock
- Bird's nest with wax gourd paste
- Bird's nest stewed with fresh cream

### **Villa du Lac (湖庭)**

#### **SETTING:**

Think of dinner at a stately home with a cosy, romantic atmosphere, and that's basically where you will find yourself at this luxurious mansion venue. Its private rooms have individual decor.

#### **SPECIALTIES:**

- Drunken chicken
- Villa du Lac rose wine duck
- Villa du Lac shark's fin soup
- Pagoda of pork tenderloins

### **Wang Bao He (王宝和酒家)**

#### **SETTING:**

Traditional Chinese furnishing and decoration provide much atmosphere to this cosy dining venue, which now boasts recently introduced lights over the tables.

#### **SPECIALTIES:**

- Home-made crabs marinated in rice wine
- Pan-fried river shrimps
- Steamed hairy crabs
- Shark's fin stewed with crab roe
- Codfish in crab shells

### **Hantong Restaurant (新汉通海鲜)**

#### **SETTING:**

Located on an elegant road, this popular dining spot is itself dignified. Guests pass aquaria and a display platform on the way into an inviting lobby, and very clean washrooms are well signposted.

#### **SPECIALTIES:**

- Hangtong signature crab
- Roasted lobsters with bean paste
- Roasted eels
- Yellow croakers with bean-curd

### **People on the Water (水上人家)**

#### **SETTING:**

Flowing water, rockeries, a small glass bridge and, oddly, a private room in the middle of the dining area, this venue is nonetheless an elegant place to dine.

#### **SPECIALTIES:**

- Crab with thick roe
- Pork braised in brown sauce
- Pork cooked in vermicelli soup
- Duck soup
- Hangtong-style fish head pot

## **Beijing Style Full-Service Restaurants** **(北京菜系)**

### **Yan Yun Lou (燕云楼)**

#### **SETTING:**

The red pillars and golden ceiling are very much older Beijing style, as are artefacts which include valuable collections of tablets inscribed by Guo Moruo (郭沫若), a famous Chinese literary figure.

#### **SPECIALTIES:**

- Duck's paw in wasabi
- Roasted Peking duck
- Sea cucumber braised in scallions
- Braised lobsters

## **Shandong Style Full-Service Restaurants** (山东菜系)

### **Yuan Yuan Restaurant (园苑酒家)**

#### **SETTING:**

A bright, comfortable dining spot which makes good use of its limited space inside a high-rise mall - one of those nicely decorated places that leave a good impression on diners.

#### **SPECIALTIES:**

- Red dates filled with glutinous rice
- Braised pork in brown sauce
- Stewed dry bean-curd shreds in chicken stock
- Pan-fried goose liver in French style

## **Hunan Style Full-Service Restaurants** (湖南菜系)

### **Gu Yi Hunan Restaurant (古意湖南饭庄)**

#### **SETTING:**

Because located in Da'an Garden's clubhouse, booking at this second Guyi dining venue is far easier than at the main restaurant. Its layout and ambiance make it a far cry from surrounding multi-story residential piles.

#### **SPECIALTIES:**

- Shredded pig's ear in chilli oil
- Roasted shrimps on skewers
- Lamb rack with cumin spice
- Spicy fish head in western Hunan style

## Guangdong Style Full-Service Restaurants (广东菜系)

### Abundant Green Garden (绿丰花园)

#### SETTING:

Located in an old villa, this is a pleasant place to dine because it maintains a strong flavour of bygone Shanghai.

#### SPECIALTIES:

- Jelly fish with diced coriander
- Peppered radish skin
- Braised shark's fin
- Abalone hotpot
- Shrimp balls in thick stock

### Canton (粤珍轩)

#### SETTING:

Lovely statues provide a mute guard of honour between the elevator and restaurant, the latter adorned with numerous traditional Chinese paintings. Comfortable tables with elegant tableware are well spaced, offering good view.

#### SPECIALTIES:

- Egg rolls French style
- Spicy tender chicken
- Delicious crab shells
- Chicken cooked with crab roe
- Smoked duck

### Crystal Jade (翡翠酒家)

#### SETTING:

The panelled dining rooms look more like offices than restaurant hideaways, and their carriage seats for two are a bit cramped. Go for tables which seat four or five.

#### SPECIALTIES:

- Cold preserved cucumber
- Jellyfish with sesame oil
- Roasted pork
- Live prawn in two ways
- Steamed fish head with mined chilli

### **Fook Lam Moon (福临门)**

#### **SETTING:**

Unlike its more traditional counterparts elsewhere, this restaurant is mod-opulent in style and a perfect vantage point from which to take in a breathtaking view of the Bund and its surrounding area.

#### **SPECIALTIES:**

- Chilled river shrimps
- Hot and sour cucumber skins
- Braised whole Japanese dry abalone
- Deep-fried crispy chicken
- Braised superior shark's fin

### **Hang Yuen Hin (恒悦轩)**

#### **SETTING:**

Situated in two low-rises amid the green of Xujiahui Park, the restaurants' decor is opulent without being tacky. Elegance is the keyword here.

#### **SPECIALTIES:**

- Mini abalone with fruit salad
- Japanese premium dried abalone
- Braise shark's fin
- Bird's nest in coconut juice

### **Harbour Plaza (海逸海鲜酒家)**

#### **SETTING:**

Elegant decor, soft lighting and soothing music provide a delightful dining atmosphere. Tables are well spaced and private rooms with their own restroom and pantry are available.

#### **SPECIALTIES:**

- Jellyfish heads in vinegar
- Fish lips in XO sauce
- Roast pigeons
- Supreme shark's fin

### **Mandarin Pavilion (锦华宫)**

#### **SETTING:**

This fine restaurant boasts rosewood furniture, porcelain sculptures, precious

paintings, thus elegance at every turn.

**SPECIALTIES:**

- Thai-style shark's fin in clay pot
- Cucumbers with abalone sauce
- Crystal river shrimps with crab roe
- Whole abalones

**Noble Seafood (名豪)**

**SETTING:**

Seafood being the raison for this fine dining venue, one might have expected blue to be a dominant colour. Instead it is largely white, even extending to its numerous private suites and rooms. All here is elegant and dignified.

**SPECIALTIES:**

- Noble caviar
- Noble goose liver
- Foie gras marinated in rice wine
- Noble shark's fin
- Iced bird's nest

**Shark's Fin (鱼翅捞饭)**

**SETTING:**

A plush, elegant restaurant in the city centre with imitation dynastic tables and chairs and graceful celadon table ware – a welcoming and comfortable venue for Asian and western diners alike.

**SPECIALTIES:**

- Radish skin with pepper corns
- Goose liver marinated in sake
- Diced Kobe beef
- Crab in vermicelli soup
- House shark's fin

**Sincere Restaurant (致真酒家)**

**SETTING:**

Located on the second floor of a top grade shopping mall in Hongqiao area, the restaurant is wide, bright, simply decorated and an ideal venue for those who prefer quiet surroundings while dining.

**SPECIALTIES:**

- Sincere sliced chicken
- Foie gra cooked in French style
- Yuanbao shrimps
- Shark's fin

**Tan Wai Lou (滩外楼)**

**SETTING:**

Red and black are the theme colours at the comfortable venue. The dining room is large, and nine private rooms are available. General decoration is a mix of European and Chinese styles.

**SPECIALTIES:**

- Salted chicken in Zhongshan style
- Golden smoked egg
- Pan-fried goose liver in abalone sauce
- Chicken breast rolls with crab meat
- Tan Wai Lou dried shark's fin

**The Mandarin Sky (艳阳天)**

**SETTING:**

This pillared, nicely decorated restaurant is a dignified and relaxing place to dine, whatever the occasion.

**SPECIALTIES:**

- Scallop, foie gras and caviar on cucumber
- Spring roll stick
- Fried golden garlic veal
- Roasted codfish with soy bean paste

**Vale Club (逸谷)**

**SETTING:**

A modern a two-floor venue in a glassed building in skyscraper land, the Vale uses the limited size of its lower area well, with adequate spacing between tables. Tableware is elegant throughout.

**SPECIALTIES:**

- Jelly fish with peanuts in vinegar sauce

- Preserved eggs with fresh cucumber salad
- Braised beef shank with radish
- Mon's sweet and sour spare ribs

### **Yan Fu Gong (宴府宫)**

#### **SETTING:**

Inevitably for such a restaurant, red and gold provide the main decor, so majestic that it is like dining in a palace. Also, creeping modernity finds your menu on a TV screen.

#### **SPECIALTIES:**

- Crisp cucumber
- Pepper asparagus
- Braised shark's fin with pumpkin
- Stir-fried mushrooms in XO sauce
- Short ribs with black pepper sauce

### **Zen (香港彩蝶轩)**

#### **SETTING:**

This is probably the Zen chain's grandest and brightest restaurant, but its bottom line is simple practicality – a no-fuss dining venue very much focused on customers' needs.

#### **SPECIALTIES:**

- Shatian pomelo salad
- Crispy roast pork
- Chicken wings stuffed with glutinous rice
- Steamed crab in rice wine sauce