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FAMILY RESTAURANT BRAND PERSONALITY AND ITS IMPACT ON CUSTOMER'S EMOTION, SATISFACTION, AND BRAND LOYALTY

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The purpose of this study is to examine the effect of restaurant brand personality on customer's emotions (positive and negative), customer satisfaction, and brand loyalty using structural equation models. The study also explores the applicability of the five-factor model of brand personality scales to the restaurant industry. Empirical data were gathered from 475 diners at five properties of a chain restaurant via survey questionnaires. This study confirms five brand personality dimensions in the restaurant industry. Also, the study findings suggest that customers' emotions play the dominant role in explaining satisfaction and brand loyalty. Marketers would gain much by continuously monitoring restaurant customers' perceptions of restaurant brand personality.

KEYWORDS: *restaurant brand personality; emotion; customer satisfaction; brand loyalty*

Customers often make decisions about restaurants based on many different attributes, including location, food quality, service, price, previous experience, and brand name (Jiang, Dev, & Rao, 2002). Recently, researchers have begun examining the effect of perceived brand personality on customers' purchasing behaviors (Fournier, 1994; Sirgy, 1982; Yik, 2001). Brand personality is defined as a set of humanlike attributes associated with a particular brand (J. L. Aaker, 1997). D. A. Aaker (1996) suggested that brand personality can provide a link to a product's emotional and self-expressive benefits and be considered as a basis for customer/brand relationships and differentiation. Matthies (1997) suggested that brand personality can increase price premium and brand awareness. In addition, Randall (1997) suggested four main roles of brand personality: (1) offering

identity to the customer, (2) providing a shorthand summary of all information held by the consumer about the brand, (3) reassuring and guaranteeing expected benefits for security purposes, and (4) adding information about the value of a product/service.

Recently, several researchers have focused on the relationship between brand personality and emotion in the consumption process (Biel, 1993; Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Yik, 2001). Biel (1993) stated that brand personality evokes emotions in consumers, which is consistent with Yik's (2001) finding that one's enduring personality influences one's affect, which in turn leads to behaviors. D. A. Aaker (1996) stated that brand personality provides an emotional benefit while customers are thinking about or using the brand. For instance, customers associate safety with Volvo, whereas some customers feel excited when they think about BMW.

Customers' positive emotional state will positively influence the number of items purchased, amount of time spent in the store, and actual amount of money spent in the store (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982). In addition, emotion has been considered an antecedent to customer satisfaction (Babin & Darden, 1996; Dawson, Bloch, & Ridgway, 1990; Desai & Mahajan, 1998; Oliver, 1993). Bagozzi (1986) suggested that when consumer behavior is depicted as a stimulus–organism–response system, the stimuli are "external to the person" and consist of both marketing mix variables and other environmental inputs (p. 46). Therefore, brand personality can be used as stimuli for marketers to rouse or incite customers' attitudes or actions. Brand personality increases levels of loyalty (Fournier, 1994) and preference and usage (Sirgy, 1982). Hence, for example, for restaurant marketers, knowledge about how the dining behavior of potential customers can be influenced by brand personality and their emotional states can be of considerable importance.

Although brand personality and emotion are recognized in the existing literature as important factors in relationship marketing, little empirical research has been conducted on the effects of brand personality on customer postpurchase behavior. This study investigates a restaurant's brand personality and its role in creating consistent customer satisfaction and customer loyalty via the mediating role of customer's emotions. This study also addresses how brand personality variables such as sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication, and ruggedness may affect a customer's emotional state.

The results of this study have both theoretical and practical implications. The theoretical implications include a better understanding of brand personality factors' effect on customers' emotional states within the restaurant industry. Such information offers richer insights into the structure and processes of brand marketing theory. With regard to practical implementation, operators may develop effective brand positioning strategies by investigating the relationship between brand personality and brand loyalty, mediated by emotional factors as well as customer satisfaction. It is critical for restaurant operators to assess which factors contribute to creating pleasant and unpleasant experiences and affect the behavior of current or potential customers.

FRAMEWORK

Restaurant Brand Personality

Personality traits are inferred from observable and stated attitudes and behavior as well as physical characteristics (Park, 1986). Accordingly, people develop their own personalities, thereby reflecting a relatively basic process of personality development (McCrae et al., 2000). Likewise, brand personality also is defined as the immediate emotional "takeaway" or response of people to a brand (Larson, 2002).

According to Burke (1994), an effective branding strategy uses *brand personality*, properly and consistently communicated, and thereby provides an impressive array of benefits, including the following: (a) building brand equity by generating acceptance of the company's brand position, (b) creating a recognizable environment for effective communication with customers, (c) developing stronger imagery for the branded products and product lines, (d) differentiating the brand from the competition, and (e) enabling the company to command a premium for its branded products.

J. L. Aaker (1997) developed a brand personality scale (BPS) to explore the meaning of 37 commercial brands by examining how brand personality attributes are structured in the minds of individuals in the United States. The development process assured the validity, reliability, and generalizability of the scale in the context of brands. A total of 42 BPS personality traits were identified on five dimensions: sincerity, excitement, competence, ruggedness, and sophistication. These five dimensions have successfully described the personalities of many strong brands (D. A. Aaker, 1996). For example, Hallmark was very high on sincerity, whereas Levi's was high on ruggedness. Like a person, a brand can have a complex personality that ranges across dimensions. For instance, McDonald's was rated high on both sincerity and competence. In an application of Aaker's BPS in different restaurant segments, quick service restaurants and casual dining restaurants were distinguished based on the five dimensions of the BPS, but distinction among the restaurants in the fine-dining sector was not successful (Siguaw, Mattila, & Austin, 1999).

Emotion

Emotions are a person's positive ("pleased," "relaxed," etc.) and negative ("nervous," "annoyed," etc.) feelings. People in positive emotional states will tend to lessen the complexity of their decision making and have shorter decision times than people in negative emotional states (Isen, Means, Patrick, & Nowicki, 1982). Numerous researchers have stated that emotions significantly contribute to the selection of service providers, evaluation of service quality, determination of repeat purchasing behaviors, and development of brand loyalty (Barsky & Nash, 2002; Mattila & Enz, 2002; Oliver, 1997; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991).

Specifically, several researchers have focused on emotional aspects of the consumption experience to further understand the customer service evaluation process. Dubé and Menon (2000) suggested that "consumption emotions are the

affective response to one's perceptions of the series of attributes that compose a product or service performance" (p. 288). Such emotions are usually intentional because they have an object or referent and are different from the concept of mood, which is a generalized state induced by a variety of factors and is usually diffused and nonintentional (Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999). In other words, consumption emotions often require more intensity, motivational potency, situational specificity, and psychological urgency than mood (Clark & Isen, 1982; Oliver, 1997). The emotional component in the satisfaction judgment is therefore independent of the overall affective sense present in the respondent at the time of the service (de Ruyter & Bloemer, 1999).

Generally, researchers have identified two different ways to understand the underlying characteristics of consumption emotion, namely, categorical and structural dimension approaches (Oh, 2005). The categorical approach consists of several independent monopolar categories (Oh, 2005). For instance, Plutchik (1984) developed an emotion scale by identifying the primary categories of emotion, including acceptance, joy, anticipation, fear, anger, sadness, surprise, and disgust. Numerous researchers have supported the reliability and validity of consumption emotion measurement by using the fundamental emotion categories in consumption emotions in their studies (Batra & Holbrook, 1990; Westbrook, 1987).

The structural dimension approach assumes that emotional states are related to one another in a systematic manner rather than independent of one another (Oh, 2005). Unlike the categorical approach, the structural dimension approach emphasizes a bipolar structure of measures (Larsen & Diener, 1985). For instance, consumption emotions were measured using a series of semantic scales, such as a bipolar continuum of pleasure (i.e., pleased–annoyed), arousal (i.e., aroused–unaroused), and dominance (i.e., dominant–submissive).

Numerous researchers have supported the categorical approach by presenting empirical evidence (Holbrook & Westbrook, 1990; Oh, 2005). In addition, Machleit & Eroglu (2000) stated that positive and negative emotions have unique variance and influence over behavior independently. Furthermore, many researchers have shown that customers are affected by two independent unipolar dimensions corresponding to either a positive or a negative consumption emotion (Babin, Darden, & Babin, 1998; Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Lee, Lee, & Lee, 2005; Yoo, Park, & MacInnis, 1998).

Customer Satisfaction

Customer satisfaction is fundamental to the marketing concept as the notion of satisfying the needs and desires of consumers (Spreng, MacKenzie, & Olshavsky, 1996). The definition of customer satisfaction varies throughout the marketing literature. Howard and Sheth (1969) defined customer satisfaction as "the buyer's cognitive sate of being adequately or inadequately rewarded for the sacrifices he has undergone" (p. 18). This definition focused on the outcome

resulting from sacrifices experienced through the consumption experience (Yi, 1990). Oliver (1997) defined customer satisfaction in the same scope as "the summary psychological state resulting when the emotion surrounding disconfirmed expectations is coupled with the consumer's prior feeling about the consumption experience" (p. 27).

Customer satisfaction results when customers either confirm their prepurchase expectations for a purchased service or positively disconfirm (exceed) their expectations regarding purchased services, resulting in some level of postpurchase affect toward the experience (Cardozo, 1965).

The manner in which customer satisfaction is measured has been debated in terms of scales used and format of the questions (Wilson, 2002). Customer satisfaction may be measured by a single item (e.g., Cronin & Taylor, 1992) or by multiple items (e.g., Spreng & Mackoy, 1996). However, it is generally accepted that when multi-item scales are used, customer satisfaction is a complex construct, because the multiple-item scales can capture greater insight about consumer satisfaction from the perspective of the consumer than does a single item. Multiple items also can provide empirically stable scale reliability when compared with a single item (Gilbert & Veloutsou, 2006).

Customer satisfaction also can be measured by two distinct types—transaction specific and overall satisfaction. The former is related to a specific encounter with specific objects, whereas the latter is a cumulative construct summing satisfaction with specific products/services with various other facets. Therefore, overall satisfaction may be based on many transactions or just a few, depending on the number of times the consumer has used a particular object. In other words, overall satisfaction is an aggregation of all previous transaction-specific evaluations and is updated after each specific transaction (Boulding, Kalra, Staelin, & Zeithaml, 1993; Jones & Suh, 2000). In general, overall satisfaction is a moving average that is relatively more stable than transaction-specific satisfaction (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1994). In this study, customer satisfaction is measured in terms of overall satisfaction.

Brand Loyalty

A great deal of research on brand loyalty focuses on defining and measuring the factors of brand loyalty and its association with long-term relationships between buyers and sellers. Jacoby and Chestnut (1978) defined brand loyalty based on the belief, attitude, and intention structure of consumers for a certain brand. A brand-loyal customer is committed to a particular brand (Bloemer & Kasper, 1995). This commitment leads the customer to purchase the same brand each time the same product is used. According to Davidow and Uttal (1989), brand-loyal customers offer their suppliers a triple payoff. First, the marketing and sales costs for keeping existing customers are much lower than those for anticipating new customers. This reduction in marketing cost leads to further reduction in the cost of transactions and communications. Finally, very loyal customers buy more than a moderately loyal or new customer (Mok, Lam, & Wong, 1996).

HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Relationship Between Brand Personality and Customer's Emotions

Personality is a relatively permanent or at least long-term matter of predispositions. Emotion is a momentary or at least short-term matter of consciously accessible feelings (Yik, 2001). Many psychologists have focused on the relationship between personality and emotion and reported demonstrating that personality is related to emotion (Izard, Libero, Putnam, & Haynes, 1993; McCrae & Costa, 1991; Meyer & Shack, 1989; Watson & Clark, 1992, 1997). For instance, agreeableness and conscientiousness are positively associated with positive emotional status and negatively associated with negative emotional status (McCrae & Costa, 1991; Watson & Clark, 1992). Some researchers also suggest that one's enduring personality traits can be antecedents of one's emotions (Diener, 1984; Larsen & Ketelaar, 1991; McCrae & Costa, 1991; Yik, 2001). In line with this evidence, Biel (1993) suggested that brand personality evokes emotions in consumers in marketing contexts. Restall and Gordon (1993) suggested that brand personality acts to strongly hold customers' feelings. This means that an understanding of the nature of emotion will depend on the degree to which it is more context dependent or personality dependent (Yik, 2001).

> *Hypothesis 1:* Brand personality is positively associated with customer's positive emotions.
> *Hypothesis 2:* Brand personality is negatively associated with customer's negative emotions.

Relationship Among Emotions, Customer Satisfaction, and Brand Loyalty

The concept of emotion is understood to comprise a class of mental phenomena uniquely characterized by a consciously experienced, subjective feeling state, commonly accompanying affect and moods. Emotion is held to arise as a function of the individual's evaluation of the meaning, causes, consequences, and/or personal implications of a particular stimulus (Westbrook, 1987).

Numerous researchers have investigated the relationship between customer consumption emotions and behaviors. Morris, Woo, Geason, and Kim (2002) found that emotional response is a powerful predictor of intentions and brand attitude, which is consistent with Allen, Machleit, and Klein's (1992) finding that consumers' purchasing behaviors are strongly influenced by their emotions and that emotions influence both satisfaction and repeat patronage. Also, Babin and Darden (1996) showed that positive (*negative*) emotion is positively (*negatively*) and directly related to patron satisfaction with a retailer and that there is a positive (*negative*) relationship between store patrons' positive (*negative*) emotion and in-store purchasing behaviors. For instance, Han and Back (2007) found a significant link between guest emotional experiences and their repeat patronage in the lodging industry. Specifically, restaurant dining is mainly

focused on the receipt of a good meal with pleasant service, so any influence of brand personality on satisfaction will be enhanced through customers' emotions. Hence, emotions are important components of customer response, influencing customer satisfaction and repeat patronage (Allen, Machleit, & Kleine, 1992; Laverie, Kleine, & Kleine, 1993).

Oliver (1997) stated that satisfaction could be ascertained using the dual process of a cognitive and affective model. Customers observe and experience service providers' performance and appraise it for its consequences and react with affect. For instance, the host of a restaurant greets a customer in a friendly fashion and offers him or her a free drink while the customer waits for the table. The customer is now more enjoyable and pleasant. The possibility of affect blending is facilitated, creating a direct affective influence on customer satisfaction (Oliver, 1997).

Clark and Isen (1982) suggested that people continuously strive for positive moods and avoid negative mood states. This means that consumers would attempt to avoid a service situation in which they experienced a negative mood. This also implies that if a consumer experiences positive affect in a restaurant, the consumer is willing to repeat the service experience and hence becomes loyal to the restaurant (de Ruyter & Bloemer, 1999). Yu and Dean (2001) suggested that there is a high correlation between overall customer loyalty and the emotional component and positive emotions. Some researchers suggest that emotion influences store shoppers' approach/avoidance behaviors (Donovan & Rossister, 1982), willingness to buy (Baker, Grewal, & Levy, 1992), and current period purchase behavior (Babin & Darden, 1996).

Hypothesis 3a: Positive emotion is positively associated with customer satisfaction.
Hypothesis 3b: Negative emotion is negatively associated with customer satisfaction.
Hypothesis 4a: Positive emotion is positively associated with loyalty.
Hypothesis 4b: Negative emotion is negatively associated with loyalty.

Relationship Between Customer Satisfaction and Brand Loyalty

Numerous researchers have investigated the relationship between customer satisfaction and brand loyalty. Traditionally, many researchers have provided empirical evidence of a positive relationship between customer satisfaction and brand loyalty. Bitner (1990) claimed that customer satisfaction has an indirect effect on brand loyalty. Furthermore, Rust and Zahorik (1993) found a link between customer satisfaction and brand loyalty in two different service sectors, namely, the retail bank market and a national hotel chain.

In particular, Oliver (1980) stated that customer satisfaction had a positive effect on attitudes. These positive attitudes were found to revise attitudes toward the product or brand, such as increased level of positive belief (i.e., belief confidence; Albarracin & Wyer, 2000), reinforcement of the level of positive affect (Oliver, 1993), and enhancement of repurchase intentions (Yi, 1990).

Rosenberg (1979) developed a theory known as "evaluative-cognitive consistency," in which he postulated the consistency between one's evaluation of an

attitude object (i.e., brand) and the evaluative content of one's beliefs about the object. As Scott (1969) further defined this concept, evaluative-cognitive consistency exists if "attitude objects are liked to the extent that they are seen as possessing desirable characteristics" (p. 263). Based on this property, Eagly and Chaiken (1993) stated that people form their cognitive component of attitude at least partially on the basis of learning about the attributes of objects. They then ascribe to objects additional attributes that are evaluatively consistent with their existing attitudes. Once the evaluation of the attitude object is derived as positive, which is also consistent with existing beliefs about the object, this evaluation-cognitive consistency confirms the beliefs and enhances the level of belief confidence (Smith & Swinyard, 1988). Furthermore, Janis and King (1954) postulated that people evaluate a specific behavior based on a biased search of their memory for previously acquired knowledge that confirms the legitimacy of the behavior. They then combine their estimates of the likelihood and desirability of the consequences of behavior to develop a revised form of beliefs (Albarracin & Wyer, 2000). In this case, the effects of the positive evaluation of this particular behavior will further enhance positive beliefs toward the attitude object.

In addition, many consumer researchers have postulated a significant causal relationship between customer satisfaction and behavioral intention, which is consistent with Fishbein's model (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Fornell et al. (1996) stated that increased customer satisfaction also increases brand loyalty in terms of repurchase likelihood and price tolerance given repurchase. Recently, Back (2005) confirmed, based on his empirical study of the lodging industry, that customer satisfaction is the part of the transitioning sequence of the customer loyalty state as theoretically claimed by Oliver (1999).

Hypothesis 5: Customer satisfaction is positively associated with brand loyalty.

MEASUREMENTS

A questionnaire was developed based on a thorough review of the literature and based on a pilot study. Manipulation checks were conducted to ensure the reliability and validity of scales.

Restaurant Personality

Restaurant personality scales were measured using 42 items based on the J. L. Aaker (1997) study. J. L. Aaker (1997) identified brand personality in terms of five dimensions: sincerity (11 items), excitement (11 items), competence (11 items), sophistication (11 items), and ruggedness (11 items; see the appendix). Coefficient alphas for sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication, and ruggedness were .819, .812, .885, .836, and .782, respectively.

Emotion

Emotion scales were measured using five positive items (contented, pleased, excited, pride, and satiated) and five negative items (nullified, displeased,

ignored, angry, and anxious; (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*). Yoo et al. (1998) conducted ethnographic interviews to identify customers' emotional responses as they characterize the retail experience. The researchers identified five positive (pleased, attractive, excited, contented, and pride) and five negative items (ignored, anxious, nullified, displeased, and angry). However, because we chose the setting of the restaurant, we added a satiated item to capture the degree to which diners experience a feeling of fullness after eating. Coefficients alphas for positive and negative dimensions were .765 and .910, respectively.

Customer Satisfaction

Three customer satisfaction scales were adopted from H. Lee, Lee, and Yoo (2000). There has been considerable debate about whether customer satisfaction is an attitude or a relatively transient consumption-specific construct or whether it is an outcome or an evaluation (see Yi, 1990, for a review). However, according to Westbrook and Oliver (1991), the view is that customer satisfaction is the totality of the dining situation relative to expectations. One assessed a respondent's agreement (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*) with the statement, "I feel satisfied with my decision to dine in this restaurant." A second item simply asked how much satisfaction the diner felt with the restaurant. A semantic differential scale assessed how good he or she felt about the restaurant (1 = *very bad* to 7 = *very good*). The coefficient alpha for customer satisfaction was .886.

Loyalty

Loyalty scales were measured by four items based on Zeithaml et al. (1996). The items measured agreement using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*), with statements concerning intentions to say positive things to others, recommend the restaurant to another consumer, exhibit a strong intention to visit this restaurant again, and consider this restaurant as my first choice compared when other restaurants. The coefficient alpha for loyalty was .912.

SAMPLE PROCEDURE

The actual survey was carried out with 600 diners who had dined in chain family-type restaurants. The restaurant brand is internationally recognized as a family dining establishment in the mid-priced range and has been in business in Korea for more than 10 years. The research was conducted in five locations during a 1-month period in Seoul, Korea. The restaurants were conveniently selected based on location and business volume. All five properties were located at major business and shopping districts and produced equivalent sales volume levels. The questionnaires were distributed while the subjects dined at the property during lunch and dinner time and on weekdays and weekends.

Table 1
Demographic Characteristics of Samples

Characteristics	N	Percentage
Gender		
Male	171	37.2
Female	289	62.8
Age (years)		
Under 24	181	39.3
25-29	168	36.5
30 and older	111	24.1
Education		
High school	53	11.5
Junior/university	358	77.8
Graduate school	49	10.7

A total of 120 questionnaires were distributed to diners at each property while they were on site (total 600 questionnaires), and 475 were returned. The total number of usable responses was 460, resulting in a response rate of 77%. This high response rate was achieved because of the availability of discount vouchers for the survey participants.

RESULTS

Demographic Profile of Respondents

Table 1 summarizes the demographic profile of respondents. Most respondents were female (62.8%), in the under 24 (39.3%) and 25-29 (36.5%) age groups, and had a junior college or university degree (77.8%).

Factor Analysis and Reliability Test

Factor analysis with a varimax rotation procedure was employed to identify underlying dimensions of brand personality. Then, the reliability test was used to test the internal consistency for those constructs—emotion, satisfaction, and loyalty.

As shown in Table 2, exploratory factor analysis with a varimax rotation for restaurant brand personality revealed five factors based on an eigenvalue cutoff of 1. These five factors explained a cumulative total of 64.02% of the variance in the data. Our interpretation of these factors resulted in the following restaurant brand personality dimensions (variance explained is provided in parentheses): competence (15.73%), ruggedness (13.78%), sincerity (13.63%), excitement (10.60%), and sophistication (10.29%).

Further scale refinement was done by examining item-to-total correlation to improve the reliability. This led to the retention of 19 items, which represented five dimensions: competence factor (5 items, $\alpha = .83$), ruggedness factor (4 items, $\alpha = .80$), sincerity factor (4 items, $\alpha = .79$), excitement factor (3 items, $\alpha = .71$), and sophistication factor (3 items, $\alpha = .74$).

Table 2
Results of Factor Analysis and Reliability Test for Constructs

	Factor loadings	Eigenvalue	Extracted Variance	Factor Name	Corrected Item–Total Correlation	α
Corporate	.80	2.99	15.73	Competence	.63	.83
Successful	.79				.69	
Technical	.77				.66	
Hard working	.69				.61	
Confident	.56				.56	
Rugged	.84	2.62	13.78	Ruggedness	.68	.80
Tough	.79				.66	
Western	.76				.59	
Masculine	.72				.55	
Sincere	.84	2.59	13.63	Sincerity	.71	.79
Honest	.76				.62	
Real	.72				.54	
Wholesome	.66				.50	
Independent	.80	2.01	10.60	Excitement	.61	.71
Unique	.76				.50	
Young	.69				.49	
Feminine	.85	1.96	10.29	Sophistication	.57	.74
Smooth	.77				.61	
Charming	.63				.51	
Total variance			64.02			

To test the appropriateness of factor analysis, two measures were used. The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin overall measure of sampling adequacy was .85, which falls within the acceptable level. In addition, Bartlett's test of sphericity was 3242.13, $df = 171$, significant at $p = .00$, which showed a significant correlation among the variables (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998).

Measurement Model

Overall measurement quality was assessed using confirmatory factor analysis (Anderson & Gerbing, 1992). Although measurement quality is sometimes assessed factor by factor, each multiple-item indicator was considered simultaneously to provide for the fullest test of convergent and discriminant validity. Initial analyses suggested that 11 items with low factor loadings (below .50) should be dropped from further analyses (see Table 3).

All loadings exceed .5, and each indicator t value exceeds 12.9 ($p < .001$). The χ^2 fit statistics shows 505.03 with 23 degrees of freedom ($p < .001$). The root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) is .045, the comparative fit index (CFI) is .95, the adjusted goodness-of-fit index is .90, and the parsimony normed fit index is .74. All statistics support the overall measurement quality given a large sample and the number of indicators (Anderson & Gerbing, 1992). Furthermore, evidence of discriminant validity exists when the proportion of variance extracted in each construct exceeds the square of the Φ coefficients

Table 3
Measurement Model Resulting from Confirmatory Factor Analysis[a]

Constructs and Variables	Standardized Factor Loadings (t Value)	CCR	Average[b]
Sincerity		.67	.41
Honest	.64 (12.95)		
Real	.66 (13.33)		
Wholesome	.62 (12.43)		
Excitement		.72	.53
Young	.65 (13.45)		
Unique	.60 (12.43)		
Independent	.79 (16.63)		
Competence		.83	.37
Hard working	.70 (15.95)		
Technical	.73 (16.99)		
Corporate	.68 (15.38)		
Successful	.77 (18.34)		
Confident	.66 (14.91)		
Sophistication		.62	.46
Charming	.79 (13.52)		
Feminine	.54 (10.29)		
Ruggedness		.74	.49
Masculine	.59 (12.20)		
Western	.70 (14.82)		
Tough	.80 (17.24)		
Positive emotion		.84	.73
Contented	.85 (20.46)		
Pleased	.86 (20.79)		
Negative emotion		.90	.75
Displeased	.85 (21.74)		
Ignored	.93 (24.96)		
Angry	.82 (20.89)		
Satisfaction		.85	.75
Satisfying with my decision	.89 (23.12)		
Satisfaction he/she felt	.84 (21.25)		
Loyalty		.89	.73
Intentions to say positive things to others	.88 (23.05)		
Recommend the restaurant to another consumer	.90 (24.17)		
Strong intention to visit this restaurant again	.79 (19.56)		

Note: CCR = composite construct reliability.
a. $\chi^2 = 112.51$ ($df = 56$; p value = .000); goodness-of-fit index = .93, adjusted goodness-of-fit index = .87; root mean squared error of approximation = .068; normed fit index = .96; comparative fit index = .98.
b. Average variance extracted.

representing its correlation with other factors (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). One pair of scales with a high correlation between them is satisfaction and loyalty ($\Phi = .74$; $\Phi^2 = .55$; see Table 4). The variance extracted estimates are .75 and

Table 4
Construct Intercorrelations, Mean, and Standard Deviation

	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	*SD*
1. Brand personality	1.00					4.45	.72
2. Positive emotion	.47*	1.00				4.97	1.00
3. Negative emotion	−.02	−.16*	1.00			2.71	1.38
4. Customer satisfaction	.45*	.63*	−.30*	1.00		5.14	1.06
5. Loyalty	.39*	.59*	−.18*	.74*	1.00	4.87	1.15

*$p < .01$.

.73, respectively, indicating adequate discriminant validity. Although one may also be concerned about the discriminant validity of the positive emotion and satisfaction constructs, the correlation between positive emotion and satisfaction is .63 ($\Phi^2 = .40$). The variance extracted estimates for these scales are .73 and .75, respectively. Thus, according to this assessment, the measures appear to have acceptable levels and validity.

Testing Hypotheses

Overall model results. The data were analyzed using LISREL 8.5. The structural error terms (zetas) for the emotion variables (positive and negative) were allowed to correlate with each other but not with any other structural error term, because these two represented the two dimensions of consumer's emotional states.

Maximum-likelihood estimates for the various parameters of the overall fit of the model are given in Table 5. The χ^2 statistics suggest that the data did not fit the model ($\chi^2 = 201.53$; $df = 81$; $p < .01$), because the sensitivity of the χ^2 statistic is not an appropriate measure of the goodness-of-fit of the model. Therefore, the overall evaluation of the fit was based on multiple indicators (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Bollen, 1989; Hair et al., 1998). These multiple indicators suggested that the model has good fit, justifying for further interpretation. The goodness-of-fit index was .94; the Bentler and Bonett (1980) normed fit index and nonnormed fit index were .94 and .95, respectively. Furthermore, RMSEA was .057, and CFI was .96.

The squared multiple correlation (SMC; R^2) for the structural equations for satisfaction and loyalty were high. Over half of the variance (SMC = .69) in loyalty was explained by the direct effects of positive and negative emotion and satisfaction and the indirect effects of brand personality dimensions such as sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication, and ruggedness. For customer satisfaction (SMC = .60), even more of the variance was explained by the direct effects of positive and negative emotion and brand personality dimensions. For positive emotion (SMC = .32), the variance was explained by the direct effects of brand personality dimensions. However, the variance for negative emotion (SMC = .02) by brand personality was not enough. In Table 5, we present the resulting standardized parameter estimates.

Table 5
Standardized Structural Estimates

Path	Proposed Model[a]	Rival Model[b]	Rival Model[c]
Brand personality → Positive emotion	.56 (8.76)	.60 (9.44)	.56 (8.75)
Brand personality → Negative emotion	−.13 (−2.29)	−.13 (−2.35)	−.13 (−2.29)
Brand personality → Satisfaction	.27 (4.56)	—	.26 (4.44)
Brand personality → Loyalty	—	—	.02 (.28)
Positive emotion → Satisfaction	.54 (9.12)	.72 (14.21)	.55 (9.08)
Negative emotion → Satisfaction	−.14 (−3.36)	−.12 (−2.91)	−.14 (−3.35)
Positive emotion → Loyalty	.13 (2.02)	.14 (2.09)	.13 (1.92)
Negative emotion → Loyalty	.07 (1.98)	.07 (1.92)	.07 (1.92)
Satisfaction → Loyalty	.75 (10.68)	.74 (9.91)	.75(9.85)
Indirect effects			
Brand personality → Satisfaction	.32 (7.00)	.45 (8.65)	.32 (6.99)
Brand personality → Loyalty	.51 (9.34)	.41 (8.40)	.50 (8.19)
Positive emotion → Loyalty	.41 (7.00)	.53 (8.44)	.41 (6.88)
Negative emotion → Loyalty	−.10 (−3.21)	−.09 (−2.79)	−.10 (−3.17)
Total effects			
Brand personality → Positive emotion	.56 (8.76)	.60 (9.44)	.56 (8.75)
Brand personality → Negative emotion	−.13 (−2.29)	−.13 (−2.35)	−.13 (−2.29)
Brand personality → Satisfaction	.59 (9.53)	.45 (8.65)	.59 (9.44)
Brand personality → Loyalty	.51 (9.34)	.41 (8.40)	.52 (8.56)
Positive emotion → Satisfaction	.54 (9.12)	.72 (14.21)	.55 (9.08)
Positive emotion → Loyalty	.54 (9.30)	.68 (13.01)	.53 (8.52)
Negative emotion → Satisfaction	−.14 (−3.36)	−.12 (−2.91)	−.14 (−3.35)
Negative emotion → Loyalty	−.03 (−.71)	−.02 (−.45)	−.03 (−.72)
Satisfaction → Loyalty	.75 (10.68)	.74 (9.91)	.75 (9.85)
SMC (R²)			
Positive emotion	.32	.37	.31
Negative emotion	.02	.02	.02
Satisfaction	.60	.58	.60
Loyalty	.69	.69	.69
χ^2	201.53	222.59	201.44
df	81	82	80
p	.00	.00	.00

Note: GIF = goodness-of-fit index; AGFI = adjusted goodness-of-fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; NNFI = nonnormed fit index; RMSEA = root mean squared error of approximation; t_{crit} = Critical T-value.
a. χ^2 = 201.53; df = 81; p = .000; GFI = .94; AGFI = .92; CFI = .96; NNFI = .95; RMSEA = .057.
b. χ^2 = 222.59; df = 82; p = .000; GFI = .94; AGFI = .91; CFI = .96; NNFI = .95; RMSEA = .061.
c. χ^2 = 201.44; df = 80; p = .000; GFI = .94; AGFI = .92; CFI = .96; NNFI = .95; RMSEA = .058.
$t_{crit\ \sigma = .05}$ = 1.96. $t_{crit\ \sigma = .01}$ = 2.58.

Testing the Hypothesized Structural Models

Figure 1 presents the result of the structural equation model. Hypotheses 1 to 3 address the question of whether brand personality influences customer's emotions

Figure 1
Overall Model
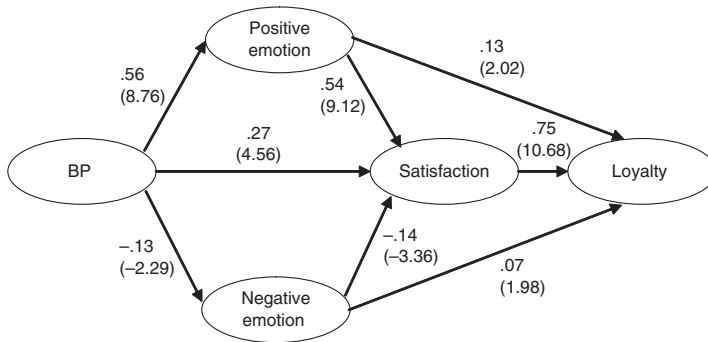
$\chi^2 = 201.53$, $df = 81$, $p < .01$, GFI = .94, NFI = .94, NNFI = .95, RMSEA = .057, CFI = .96

$t_{\text{crit } \sigma = .05} = 1.96$, $t_{\text{crit } \sigma = .01} = 2.58$

and satisfaction. Brand personality (Hypothesis 1) has a positive effect on positive emotion ($\gamma_{11} = .56$; t value = 8.76), statistically significant at the $p < .01$ level, and thus supports Hypothesis 1. This result was consistent with the finding from Izard et al. (1993) that brand personality is positively related with positive emotion. Because all the brand personality attributes had positive connotations, there was a positive impact of brand personality and positive emotion. For instance, customers perceived the restaurant brand as honest, real, and wholesome, which created a positive emotion. Accordingly, Hypothesis 2 was supported by showing a significant negative effect of brand personality on negative emotion ($\gamma_{12} = -.13$; t value = -2.29). It was also consistent with earlier findings from McCrae and Costa's study (1991). Specifically, when customers perceived the restaurant as hard working and confident, their negative feeling decreased.

Hypotheses 3a and 3b stated that positive emotion and negative emotion were associated with customer satisfaction. Positive emotion about a restaurant had a significant positive effect on customer satisfaction ($\beta_{31} = .54$; t value = 9.12; $p < .01$), thus supporting Hypothesis 3a. On the other hand, negative emotion had a negative effect on satisfaction ($\beta_{32} = -.14$; t value = -3.36; $p < .01$), thus supporting Hypothesis 3b. Hypotheses 3a and 3b were consistent with Oliver's (1997) findings about the dual process of satisfaction. As Oliver (1997) stated, satisfaction stems from a dual process of cognitive and affective processes. Once customers cognitively evaluate the performance of a branded restaurant, they have a positive memory that then leads to a positive affect. The combination of both processes created a direct affective influence on customer satisfaction.

Hypotheses 4a and 4b stated that both positive and negative emotions were associated with brand loyalty. The positive emotion for a restaurant had

a significant positive effect on brand loyalty (β_{41} = .13; t value = 2.02; p < .05); thus, Hypothesis 4a was supported. Contrary to expectations, a negative emotion did not have a significant effect on loyalty (β_{42} = .07; t value = 1.98). This result indicated that negative emotions did not have a predictive enough role to reduce the level of brand loyalty. Negative emotion suppressed some of the variance in positive emotion that was irrelevant to brand loyalty. It is possible to state that because of the multicollinearity problem, the correlation between positive and negative emotion (r = −.16; p < .01), accompanied by the significant correlation between positive emotion and loyalty (r = .59; p < .01) and the negative significant correlation between negative emotion and loyalty (r = −.18; p < .01), led to suppression effects (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Maassen & Bakker, 2001). Hypothesis 4b was not supported.

Hypothesis 5 posited that satisfaction was positively associated with brand loyalty for a restaurant. As expected, satisfaction with a restaurant had a significant positive effect on loyalty (β_{43} = .75; t value = 10.68; p < .01). Based on this result, customer satisfaction positively influenced brand loyalty, whereas the brand information held by customers was superior to what is known of competitive offerings. As Janis and King (1954) argued, customers evaluate a specific behavior based on a biased search of memory for previously acquired knowledge that confirms the legitimacy of the behavior when the evaluation is positive. Then he or she may have positive feelings of pleasurable fulfillment based on brand performance. This may lead him or her to become loyal to the brand, exhibiting a brand-specific commitment. Thus, Hypothesis 5 was supported.

Indirect effects. Additional analyses of indirect effects were conducted to investigate whether brand personality had an effect on satisfaction and loyalty through the mediating roles of customer's emotions.

Brand personality had an indirect, positive effect on satisfaction (.32; t value = 7.00; p < .01) and loyalty (.51; t value = 9.34; p < .01). The mediating effect of emotion was evident on those occasions when customers perceived a positive brand personality, leading to their positive feelings toward the brand and thereby to customer satisfaction with the brand. Also, the empirical results demonstrated that positive emotion had an indirect, positive effect on loyalty (.41; t value = 7.00; p < .01). This is consistent with de Ruyter and Bloemer's (1999) finding that when a customer experiences positive affect in a restaurant, the customer is willing to repeat the service experience and hence become loyal to the restaurant. Also, when a customer experiences a negative mood concerning a specific brand, he or she attempts to avoid a service situation and exits or switches to another brand (Yu & Dean, 2001). Finally, negative emotion had an indirect, negative effect on loyalty (−.10; t value = −3.21; p < .01), though it did have a direct positive effect on loyalty by suppressor variables.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Customer's emotions play the dominant role in explaining satisfaction, trust, and customer loyalty. Although some research has suggested that brand personality

evokes consumer's emotions (Biel, 1993), increases levels of trust and loyalty (Fournier, 1994), and increases consumer preference and usage (Sirgy, 1982), they did not find mediating roles between brand personality and brand loyalty. However, this study suggests that perceived customer emotions seem to be essential issues in a service context, especially in the restaurant industry.

This study provided empirical evidence for the development of customers' repurchasing behaviors involving brand loyalty, positive and negative emotion, customer satisfaction, and brand loyalty. The mediating effects of emotion and customer satisfaction in the relationship between brand personality and brand loyalty were significant. The findings from this study confirm the positive effects of brand personality on positive emotion (Yik, 2001), customer satisfaction (Babin & Darden, 1996), and brand loyalty (de Ruyter & Bloemer, 1999). Results supported the finding that customer's perceived positive brand personality increased the degree of "liking." In turn, results indicate a positive intention or commitment to repurchase a particular brand. Therefore, this study emphasizes the importance of measuring brand personality as perceived by brand-loyal customers and provides a better understanding of their repurchasing behaviors in the restaurant industry.

Also, this research confirms five brand personality dimensions in the restaurant industry—sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication, and ruggedness—as in J. L. Aaker's (1997) study. However, this research suggests that the components of restaurant brand personality differ from those of J. L. Aaker's (1997) brand personality. For example, the sincerity factor in J. L. Aaker (1997) consists of four facets—down-to-earth, honest, wholesome, and Cheerful—whereas the Sincerity factor in this study consists of different four facets: Sincere, Honest, Real, and Wholesome. Also, the Excitement factor in J. L. Aaker (1997) consists of four facets—Daring, Spirited, Imaginative, and Up-to-date—whereas the Excitement factor in this study consists of three facets: Independent, Unique, and Young.

Furthermore, this study's results were consistent with Yik's (2001) finding that brand personality has a significant impact on individual's emotion and further influence on his or her consumption behaviors. Specifically, when customers have established firm brand personality with a specific brand, they may have a certain level of service expectation with regard to the brand. The expectation of the brand leads to an emotional response in the customer's mind, resulting in either positive or negative emotions. These results are consistent with previous studies in which negative emotion was also a stronger predictor of brand loyalty (Larsen & Ketelaar, 1991). Thus, it seems logical for restaurant managements to analyze customers who have negative emotional experiences separately from customers who have positive emotional experiences. Hence, managements can take immediate action to alleviate problems related to customers who have negative emotional experiences. A better understanding of this development of emotions may allow operators to better enhance their relationship with customers.

The findings also identify several marketing implications. The results of the present study suggest that restaurant marketers should develop marketing

information systems that continuously monitor restaurant customers' perceptions of restaurant brand image. Specifically, operators should examine the perceived brand personality among customers and ascertain whether brand personality is aligned with the firm's mission, vision, and objectives. Furthermore, operators should develop a benchmarking system that measures perceived brand personality when they are considering brand extension via cobranding or mergers and market diversification (globalization).

Although an individual personality scale was not investigated, according to self-image congruence theory, brand personality theory should focus on whether consumers' preference for products, brands, stores, and other commercial objects was influenced by their self-image (e.g., d'Astous & Lévesque, 2003; Graeff, 1996). Self-image theory proposes that consumers will prefer products, brands, stores, and other commercial objects whose perceived psychological characteristics are congruent with their own psychological characteristics (e.g., Onkvisit & Shaw, 1987).

In addition, selective target marketing should be carefully considered in light of the restaurant's own brand personality. Because restaurant services are characterized by intangibility, creating and maintaining a consistent brand personality with overall images of a prime target market is crucial. This is especially true for the upscale market segment, where customers purchase not only the products but also the symbols of luxury, pride, and status. For instance, one of the failing branding strategies in the marketing field is the Jaguar branding strategy. The brand image of Jaguar has been style and taste in the luxury automobile industry. However, recent ads have been designed for consumers who seek a comfortable niche. As a result, Jaguar sales dropped significantly whereas all other luxury automobile companies made significant profits (Burt, 2004).

Thus, advertising should be carefully developed based on the results of this research. If the target market indicates that the major personality is up-to-date, the restaurant advertising manager should develop advertising that features a modernized layout involving furnishings, colors, and logo. The implications of this study are not limited to advertising. The décor, architecture, and appearance of personnel issues also may increase the degree of customer satisfaction by providing a consistent image for a target market.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The present study had several limitations. First, the results may not be generalized to other segments of the restaurant industry. Data from this study were collected from customers at a family-type restaurant. In addition, the sample selection for this study was not purely random. As noted, the pure random sampling is almost impossible in the service industry, so including many different types of restaurant brands and segments would increase external validity. Thus, future studies should develop a systematic design that better represents the population.

However, this study attempted to present a broad-based, theoretically guided field study of the effects of restaurant brand personality on consumers' emotional

states and resulting influences on customer satisfaction and loyalty. The results are promising and indicate the possibility of fruitful future research. First, it would be helpful, for example, to ascertain the effects of restaurant brand personality on consumers' emotional states, which, in turn, lead to consumer satisfaction and loyalty. Loyalty may be linked with real dining behaviors such as degree of consumerism, frequency of visits, and duration of stay. Future research should include these behavioral brand loyalty measures.

Second, as suggested by self-image congruency, the congruency between self-personality and restaurant brand personality influences consumers' emotional states, which, in turn, affect customer satisfaction, loyalty, and dining behaviors. It would be useful to examine the effects of self-personality congruency on consumers' emotional states, satisfaction, and loyalty.

Finally, a variety of restaurants (e.g., casual, fine-dining, and authentic restaurants) could be used to broaden these findings. Different categories of restaurants may have different brand personalities and may have different relationships with customer satisfaction and brand loyalty. In addition, future research could examine the differences in other cultural contexts. Perceived restaurant brand personality may vary across cultures, as brand personality can be perceived differently from country to country.

APPENDIX
SCALES OF BRAND PERSONALITY

- *Sincerity:* Down-to-earth, Family-oriented, Small-town, Honest, Sincere, Real, Wholesome, Original, Cheerful, Sentimental, Friendly
- *Excitement:* Daring, Trendy, Exciting, Spirited, Cool, Young, Imaginative, Unique, Up-to-date, Independent, Contemporary
- *Competence:* Reliable, Hard working, Secure, Intelligent, Technical, Corporate, Successful, Leader, Confident
- *Sophistication:* Upper class, Glamorous, Good looking, Charming, Feminine, Smooth
- *Ruggedness:* Outdoorsy, Masculine, Western, Though, Rugged

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