PASSENGERS' AIRSIDE FOOD AND BEVERAGE PATRONAGE INTENTONS IN COMMERCIAL AIRPORTS – A CASE APPROACH

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Abstract

This thesis investigates the factors that influence air passengers in their food and beverage outlet patronage intentions in the airside areas of commercial airports. Commercial operations, including the provision of food and beverages are becoming more important for airport operators. Air passengers' behaviour in the airside setting is not always following rational decision-making processes. Due to the nature of the setting and due to a loss of behavioural freedom, behaviour is influenced by the airside context. Extant literature on airport commercial operations has not yet addressed the question of factors influencing passengers' outlet patronage intentions. Consumer theory usually accepts one of three perspectives: The rational-choice, the behavioural influence and the experiential perspective. The review of literature on consumer behaviour in the field of food and beverage shows that none of the three theoretical perspectives sufficiently explains behaviour in the airside context and the need for a less paradigm-dependant approach is derived. This methodological gap around the need for a less paradigm-dependent approach is addressed through a mixed-methods case study approach, during which both qualitative and quantitative evidence is analysed in order to explore the effect of the airside context and other factors on air passenger outlet patronage intentions. One medium-sized German commercial airport serves as typical case for a class of German commercial airports. Evidence is collected mainly in-situ in the airport's airside area. The findings reveal that, besides the airport context, personal and outlet-related factors have an influence on behaviour. Those factors can then be related to three emotional states that passengers may experience, namely *AirsideFear*, *AirsideStress*, and *AirsideEnjoy*. Depending on the type of trip, air passengers show different outlet patronage intentions, resulting in the need to adjust the extant view on passenger typologies. The role of service brands in the airside setting is explored, revealing that service brands are important for very frequent flyers mainly. Findings are discussed in light of extant literature and an Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model is developed. The thesis concludes by offering a new perspective on airside consumption. This study contributes to the knowledge of the subject field by

highlighting the conceptual gap in the literature, as well as by aiming to close it. This is achieved by exploring the factors that influence food and beverage outlet patronage intentions. On a methodological level, the mixed-methods case approach aims at overcoming the limitations caused by the application of one of the three different paradigms in extant consumer behaviour literature.

Author's Declaration

I declare that the work in this thesis was carried out in accordance with the regulations of the University of Gloucestershire and is original except where indicated by specific reference in the text. No part of the thesis has been submitted as part of any other academic award. The thesis has not been presented to any other education institution in the United Kingdom or overseas.

Any views expressed in the thesis are those of the author and in no way represent those of the University.

Signed: ……………………………………………… Date: 5 May 2016

Publications

The following publications have emerged from this thesis project:

Conference contributions

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Definitions

To avoid misinterpretations, key terminology used in this document is defined in this section.

Airside:
The side of an airport terminal from which aircraft can be accessed; the area beyond security checks.

Enplanement:
The sum or originating and connecting passengers (FAA).

Food and Beverage outlets:
Food and beverage outlets are structures within the airport facility where food and beverages will be sold to the passengers.

Abbreviations

AGC	Average Guest Check
CSFII	Continuing Survey of Food Intakes by Individuals
DBA	Doctorate of Business Administration
DHKS	Diet and Health Knowledge Survey
FSA	Full-Service Airlines
F&B	Food and Beverage
LCC	Low-Cost Carrier
O&D	Origin & Destination
USD	United States Dollar

1 Introduction

1.1 Context

For airport operators, airside food and beverage (F&B) outlets play an important role in the commercialization of air travel. For some airport operators, the non-aviation side of airport operations (such as retail, services, food and beverage, etc.) has become commercially more important than the aviation side of operations (Castillo-Manzano, 2010; Schulz & Baumann, 2010). In some cases, non-aviation revenues account for as much as 70% of all airport revenues (Oum & Yu, 2004).

Research in the field of airport operations is showing a growing importance of commercial activities in airports (Humphreys, 1999; Kratzsch & Sieg, 2011; Torres, Domínguez, Valdés, & Aza, 2005). Francis, Fidato, and Humphreys (2003) found a correlation between non-aviation revenues and aviation-related revenues in commercial airports. Based on such relationships, Pantazis and Liefner (2006) investigated the commercial impact linked to low-cost carriers.

In 2014, about 208 million passengers used German airports, an increase of 3% over 2013 (ADV, 2015). With passenger figures increasing and security measures getting tighter, passengers are found to be spending increased amounts of time in the airside areas of airports. Torres et al. (2005) investigated the relationship between passengers' airside waiting time and airside consumption and found a positive correlation between the two. The average waiting time at the airport was found to be 89.57 minutes with a standard deviation of around 50 minutes in the Spanish context. Castillo-Manzano (2010), using a quantitative approach, investigated "*the factors that influence a passenger's decision to make a purchase at an airport store* *or to consume food/beverages*", as well as the average spend per passenger in a Spanish airport and identified waiting time as one of the main factors (Castillo-Manzano, 2010, p. 790).

Passengers, once airside, experience limited behavioural freedom. They are not free to leave the area any more at their own discretion. Furthermore, passengers have a limited choice of outlets from which to consume, whilst waiting for their flight to be boarded (Schulz & Baumann, 2010). Air passenger airside behaviour furthermore does not always follow rational decision-making approaches (Fodness & Murray, 2007). Whilst extant research investigates air passenger airside consumption patterns, factors that influence passengers in their decision where to consume in the airside environment have not yet been investigated. The aim of this study is to explore those factors in order to address this gap.

The majority of consumer behaviour literature in the field of food and beverage operations takes on a rational-choice perspective. However, air passenger behaviour does not always follow rational decision-making approaches. The objective of this study thus is to explore the situational, personal, and service brand factors that influence passengers in their decision at which outlet to consume within the airside airport setting. Extant literature agrees that there is an effect of the airside context on passengers' behaviour in this setting. As such, the environment has an effect on behaviour. With passengers being 'trapped' with limited consumption options once airside, the airside airport environment can then also serve as an example for other environments where consumers are confined, such as sport stadia, trade fair grounds, or motorway services.

1.2 Research Questions and Research Objectives

This study aims to investigate the following research questions.

- What environmental and personal factors influence air passengers' food and beverage outlet patronage intentions in the airside areas of commercial airports?
- To what extent does the type of passenger have an effect on outlet patronage intentions in this context?
- Do service brands influence air passengers in their outlet patronage intentions, and if so, to what extent?

Based on the reviewed research questions, I aim to achieve the following reviewed research objectives

- To explore the environmental and personal factors that influence air passengers' food and beverage outlet patronage intentions in the airside areas of commercial airports.
- To elaborate whether different types of air passengers show specific outlet patronage intentions in this context.
- To explore the role that service brands play in air passengers' food and beverage outlet patronage intentions.

The starting point to address this gap is to investigate extant literature on airport commercial operations and the importance of food and beverage concessions in this context (chapter one), before critically reviewing the literature in the field of consumer behaviour in the airport context and in food and beverage operations (chapter two). Chapter three discusses the methodology and methods; the findings are presented in chapter four. The discussion of the findings in light of extant literature follows in chapter five. After presenting my reflections on the research process (chapter six), I offer my conclusions to the reader in chapter seven.

1.3 Original contribution to knowledge

In this section, a suggestion is made as to how the research described in this thesis constitutes an original contribution to knowledge. The suggestions made in this section directly relate to the discussion in section 5.3. This thesis contributes to knowledge on a theoretical, a methodological, as well as on a practical level.

On a theoretical level, a gap in extant literature in the field of airside passenger behaviour is derived through the review of relevant literature. This gap is then addressed through the exploration of airside consumer behaviour using a mixed-method case approach. Besides identifying factors that influence air passenger outlet patronage intentions, the importance of three different emotional states *Stress*, *Fear*, and *Enjoyment* is revealed and integrated into an Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model. This thesis furthermore contributes by empirically investigating the concept of air travel stress. This concept had been brought up as significant in extant literature, however very little empiric evidence could be located about this concept. This thesis expands the concept of air travel stress by including notions of nervousness and fear and furthermore supports findings of cue theory as well as the application of heuristics in the airside setting. The finding that different types of passengers rate differently on the three emotional states and subsequently show different outlet patronage intentions contributes to consumer behaviour theory and extends the body of knowledge in that field.

From a methodological standpoint, this thesis contributes by applying a mixed-methods case approach in the airside setting. As the literature review shows, extant studies relied on mono-method research designs and on applying one of the three perspectives (rational choice, behavioural influence and experiential perspective) on consumer behaviour. This study applies a more holistic and less paradigm-dependent approach and contributes by integrating different extant theoretical perspectives. The application of template analysis for the analysis of qualitative data in the context of a mixed-methods case study in the field of consumer behaviour constitutes a methodological contribution. Applying template analysis in a novel context in combination with quantitative methods adds to the development of research methods.

This study also contributes by suggesting recommendations to practitioners in the field of airside provision of food and beverage. The Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model that is developed in this thesis can be usefully applied in airport airside settings. Since the findings illustrate how infrequent and very frequent travellers show differing outlet patronage intentions, this knowledge can be applied by concessionaires and airport operators alike in order to improve service levels and to increase revenues. The importance of local food and beverage items is derived from interviews with passengers in this study; a finding that airport and caterer management seemed to be unaware of. This thesis furthermore investigates the role of service brands in the airside setting and suggests that they are of importance to very frequent travellers and in the case of coffee offerings. Whilst extant literature seems to disagree when it comes to airside consumption behaviour of business and leisure travellers, this suggests the need for a more detailed evaluation. It contributes by recommending that whether a passenger is on the inbound or the outbound segment of the journey influences consumption behaviour.

1.4 Airport Commercial Operations

1.4.1 The importance of non-aviation revenues for commercial airports

Airports generally differentiate between aeronautical and commercial activities as revenue sources (Freathy & O'Connell, 1998; Humphreys, 1999; Schulz & Baumann, 2010). Commercial airport operations include Food and Beverage, Retail Operations, car rental, as well as the provision of parking space as main activities (Freathy & O'Connell, 1998; Volkova, n.d.). Whilst, on a corporate level, airport companies also invest in other commercial activities, such as real estate management, consulting services, IT services, etc. (Halpern & Regmi, 2012; Humphreys, Ison, & Francis, 2006; Pompl, 2006), the focus of this study lies on on-site commercial activities since they have an effect on air passenger behaviour. Non-aviation commercial revenues are sometimes also referred to as non-aeronautical revenues (Graham, 2009).

Airport retail operations have their origin at Shannon, Ireland where the first duty-free shop was opened in 1947. In the early days of commercial air travel, transatlantic planes had to be refuelled at Ireland's west coast, before crossing the Atlantic Ocean. Shannon thus was the first airport to realise the commercial opportunities that come with waiting passengers (Schulz & Baumann, 2010).

Aeronautical revenues have declined as a result of intense competition within the airline industry and between airports (Pompl, 2006). In 2009, 43% of revenue for all US commercial service airports was generated through non-aeronautical (or commercial) activities (L. Fisher, 2011). Airport operators have thus recognized commercial activities as sources of additional revenues (Bork, 2007; Echevarne, 2008; Freathy & O'Connell, 1998; Graham, 2009; Halpern & Regmi, 2012; Kratzsch & Sieg, 2011; Zenglein & Müller, 2007). As Orth, Frei, and Weidmann (2015) elaborate, airports improve their profitability through an increase in non-aeronautical activities.

Tovar and Martín-Cejas (2009), investigating drivers of efficiency in the context of Spanish commercial airports, found that non-aviation revenues tend to increase in line with international passenger volume. They furthermore found that the outsourcing of non-aviation activities is linked with higher rates of efficiency for the management of an airport. Tovar and Martín-Cejas (2009) introduced a ratio to measure non-aviation activities by putting non-aviation revenue in relation to total airport revenue. Oum and Yu (2004) found that this ratio is as high as 70% for some airports (such as Honolulu, Vancouver, or Sydney). Benchmarking airport operations on a global scale, Oum and Yu (2004) found that airports with a higher share of non-aviation revenues tend to achieve higher productivity rates than other airports.

Issues and challenges around benchmarking of airport operations, especially the measurement of non-aviation revenues, are raised by Zenglein and Müller (2007). Whilst airports initially were facilitators of airline operations, they have developed into complex environments offering a multitude of non-aviation activities. Since, according to Zenglein and Müller (2007), profit margins for airports are usually higher in non-aviation than in aviation-related operations, a high non-aviation share is an attractive objective for shareholders and managers of airports alike. Zenglein and Müller (2007) found it difficult to benchmark airports due to financial reporting standards not clearly defining non-aviation revenue categories. They call for clearer and more detailed reporting standards and suggest a scheme of revenue classifications. According to Zenglein and Müller (2007), non-aviation revenues should be further categorized in revenues with B2B customers and in B2C revenues (which would entail both passengers as well as non-passengers). This latter category would comprise the following possibilities for an airport to generate revenue: *Retail*, *services*, *food and beverages*, *parking* as well as *passenger access*.

For the majority of travellers, airport shopping is an integral part of their airport terminal experience and only a very small percentage of passengers consider shops to be an inconvenience (Echevarne, 2008). Airport shopping and dining behaviour has been linked to the influence of the airport terminal environment, as well as to impulse behaviour. Various authors have aimed at developing typologies of airport shoppers, based on such traits.

Fasone and Maggiore (2012) applied a case-study approach to investigate the increasing relevance of non-commercial operations using the airport of Olbia, Italy as case. Through the analysis of airport websites, financial reports, as well as through semi-structured interviews, they describe the airport's approach in diversifying its commercial activities. Fasone and Maggiore (2012) found that strengthening the non-aviation side of business could increase an airport's profitability. Gillen and Mantin (2014) however point out that an increase in non-aeronautical revenues (typically achieved through a decrease in landing fees and a subsequent increase in flight frequencies) might also harm demand for flights, due to increasing congestion.

1.4.2 The impact of low-cost carriers on airport revenues

Humphreys et al. (2006) reviewed the relationships between airports and airlines in the context of low-cost airlines in Europe. They found that airports tend to compensate the lower aeronautical revenues caused by low-cost airlines with higher non-aeronautical revenues based on the higher passenger numbers that low-cost airlines manage to attract. However, not all airports succeed at translating the higher passenger numbers into higher non-aeronautical revenues.

Applying the VRIO framework developed by Barney (1991) as a tool for the evaluation of competitive resources, Njoya and Niemeier (2011) investigated the competitive advantages that dedicated low-cost passenger terminals would constitute for airports. They claim that passengers of low-cost carriers would spend more on airside concessions, due to an increased passenger dwell time in the airside part of the building. Graham (2013b) agrees that an increase of low-cost over traditional passengers leads to higher commercial revenues, especially in F&B facilities. "*Many airport operators seek to compensate for the reduction in aeronautical charges by off-setting these with higher revenues from the increased number of LCC passengers and their spending*" (Graham, 2013b, p. 71).

Lei and Papatheodorou (2010) and Papatheodorou and Lei (2006) however, based on research in the UK context, claim that airport commercial revenues are lower for low-cost passengers than for passengers of traditional full-service carriers. This view is supported by Volkova and Müller (2012), based on an analysis of data covering airports in the United States, as well as by Castillo-Manzano (2010) for the Spanish context. Overall, there seems to be no general consensus on whether passengers of low-cost carriers are spending more or less in airport retail compared to passengers of traditional (full-service) carriers. In another study, Castillo-Manzano and Lopez-Valpuesta (2014) claim that the chance of delays over three hours are higher for passengers of low-cost carriers than for those of full-service airlines. This, in turn, can be seen to be beneficial for food and beverage concession operators (Castillo-Manzano & Lopez-Valpuesta, 2014).

1.4.3 Types of air passengers

Extant typologies of air travellers are often based on the motives of travelling, i.e. whether trips are due to private or business-related motives (Castillo-Manzano, 2010; Freyer, 2006; Pompl, 2006).

Brechin (1999) distinguishes between leisure and business travellers, the latter usually having less time to spend for discretionary activities at the airport than the former. For the North American context, L. Fisher (2011) claims that leisure travellers are more price sensitive than business travellers.

Graham (2013a) differentiates between passengers on charter and on scheduled flights. Charter passengers (who are then usually leisure passengers) are more likely to impulse buy and to use F&B facilities, Graham (2013a) states. It is furthermore claimed that long-haul passengers tend to spend more time at the airport than short-haul passengers. Business and First Class passengers, due to having access to airline lounge facilities, are less likely to consume at airport Food and Beverage concessions, Graham (2013a) claims. This claim is in contrast to findings presented by Castillo-Manzano (2010) and by Castillo-Manzano and López-Valpuesta (2013).

Passengers on scheduled flights can further be divided into passengers of full-service carriers and those of low-cost carriers. Whereas some airports have built specific terminal facilities for low-cost carriers, other airports combine the handling of both full-service and low-cost carriers under the same roof (Echevarne, 2008). The key features of such low-cost terminals are that they are more simple and functional in their design, built for Origin & Destination traffic rather than for transfer traffic (Graham, 2009). Whilst some Asian airports (such as Kuala Lumpur) have built new low-cost terminals, it is more common for European airports (such as Milan Malpensa) to convert old terminals for that function.

From another perspective, passengers can be classified into arriving and departing passengers, both domestic and internationally. These segments are then referred to as Origin and Destination (O&D) passengers respectively (L. Fisher, 2011). Passengers can furthermore be connecting at an airport (in contrast to origin and destination passengers). Connecting (or transfer) passengers usually are not merely arriving and then departing at the same airport. Depending on their initial origin and destination, they often do not have to re-clear security at the connecting airport and can remain in the airside area whilst changing planes (L. Fisher, 2011).

Table 1 below illustrates the different criteria that authors have used to classify passenger types.

Table 1: Air Passenger Classifications

Criteria	Authors	Categories
Motives of travelling	Castillo-Manzano, J. I. (2010). Freyer, W. (2006). Pompl, W. (2006). Brechin, M. (1999). Fisher, L. (2011).	Business travellers, Leisure travellers
Types of flight	Graham, A. (2013). Echevarne, R. (2008).	Passengers on scheduled flights, Passengers on charter flights Passengers on full-service airlines, passengers on low-cost carriers
Purpose of stay at the airport	Fisher, L. (2011).	Departing and arriving passengers (O&D), Connecting passengers (transit)

1.5 Airport Concession Operations

Even though definitions of '*retail*' in an airport environment can vary, it usually comprises shops as well as food and beverage outlets (Graham, 2009). The terms '*concessions*' and '*retail outlets*' are often used synonymously in the literature.

Concessionaires, appointed by the airport operator, typically pay a percentage of sales revenues to the airport operator; often in addition to agreeing to a guaranteed minimum annual amount (Graham, 2013a). For Food and Beverage concessions, this percentage is around 13% of sales revenue in the United States context (ACI, 2014a). Hunt (2014) however points out that some airports do not charge a percentage of revenues, but a fixed fee per enplaned passenger. The airport operator usually provides the shell for the outlet and it will be up to the concessionaire to provide the capital investment for fitting out the facility. Within Europe, North America and Asia, most concession contracts are awarded based on a tender process (Graham, 2013a).

The global mean for non-aeronautical revenues was USD 8.- per passenger, with retail concessions (including Food and Beverage revenues) representing 22% of that amount in 2006 (Graham, 2013a). In the United States context, Food and Beverage revenues of 5.68 USD per enplanement were recorded in 2013, an increase of 9% over the previous year (ACI, 2014a).

1.5.1 Contractual models for terminal concessions operations

For the appointment of concession operators by the airport operator, four main types of agreements can be found (ACI, 2014b):

- Prime operators
- Master Concessionaires
- Direct Leasing
- Developers

In a prime operator model, the airport leases packages of locations to two or more operators, each of which operates more than three locations within the airport.

The master concessionaire model works in a way where the operations of all concessions are awarded by the airport operator to one master concessionaire who then operates those outlets in the respective airport. The master concessionaire is usually also involved in developing the space.

In the direct leasing model, the airport leases individual locations or small groups of locations (no more than three) directly to the operators (ACI, 2014b).

In a developer model, an airport has an agreement with a third party that develops the concessions without operating them directly. The developer invests in the facilities directly and leases them out to operators (ACI, 2014b).

H.-B. Kim and Shin (2001) investigated operations and management of airport concessions in the Korean context. Their study offers practical definitions of non-aviation revenue sources and also discusses different operational models and contractual relationships between airport and concession operators. An airport concession then is defined as "*an airport commercial facility belonging to one of the three categories: duty-free shops, retail and convenience stores, and F&B services*" (H.-B. Kim & Shin, 2001, p. 150). According to H.-B. Kim and Shin (2001), attributes that influence customer satisfaction and concession profitability are *location*, *price level*, *brand image*, *product quality* and *service level*. Through expert interviews in the Korean context, H.-B. Kim and Shin (2001) developed a set of factors which may be influencing passengers in their choice of outlet. It needs to be noted, however, that these results may not be transferable to the European context. A further aspect of their study is the operational and contractual model that is applied airport concessions management. H.-B. Kim and Shin (2001) argue that the master concessionaire model seems most suitable for airport Food and Beverage operations.

The master concessionaire approach is heavily criticised by M. R. Knight (2009) who, in a practitioner-oriented paper, discusses airport shopping and dining in the context of the United States. M. R. Knight (2009) claims that the master concessionaire model would lead to higher prices and less choice for the passengers and advocates the developer model, where the developer is involved in the early stages of development as well as in the investment required for the realisation of the concepts. It is however important to note that at time of publishing the study,

M. R. Knight (2009) was president of BAA USA, an operator of airport concessions under the developer model in their 'air mall' concept. Air mall is an airport retail development that concentrates on known brands and fair pricing (Jarach, 2005). Factors which, according to M. R. Knight (2009), influence passengers' buying behaviour at airports are the passengers' perception of being treated fairly by the operator and the brands which the operator has on offer. The concept is currently operating at four U.S. airports only (Airmall, 2016).

Within the United States context, 57% of the airports operate under direct leasing agreements, 20% have prime operators and only 7% work with a master concessionaire. 16% of the airports have entered agreements with developers or have employed management companies to manage concessions on their behalf (ACI, 2014b). For the German context, the association of German Commercial Airports does not provide information on the different contractual models.

1.5.2 Factors influencing Concession revenues

The factors influencing concession revenues that emerge from the literature can be divided into airport-related and passenger-related factors.

1.5.2.1 Airport-related factors

Graham (2013a) states that the average spend per passenger also depends on the passenger volume that the airport handles. The retail revenue per passenger at airports with more than 20 million passengers per year then is on average twice that of airports with less than 10 million passengers per year. One explanation for this may be the increased retail offer that can be found at larger airports (Volkova, 2009).

Volkova (2009) investigated determinants of retail revenue for commercial airports in one European country, without however revealing the country. An interesting aspect raised, but not discussed further in the study, is that the *existence of crowds* may be a factor influencing passengers in their choice of (retail) outlet. The study furthermore finds that that hubs and regional airports tend to show different performances regarding non-aeronautical revenue, explained by the larger offer that hubs usually offer. It needs however to be noted that the findings are based on data of 2001 and that security measures have been tightened since then (Pompl, 2006). It can thus be expected that the split between landside and airside revenues presented by Volkova (2009) has changed since. Volkova (2009) furthermore found no influence of destination (within vs. outside E.U. destinations) on the per-capita spend for regional airports.

Klann (2009) investigated the effects of gate allocation on commercial revenues in the context of Frankfurt Airport (Germany). Whilst differentiating between gate allocation focused on operations (i.e. minimizing passenger transfer times and distances) and gate allocation focused on retailing (i.e. maximizing commercial revenues), this research aimed at maximizing commercial revenue through optimized (retail-focused) gate allocation. Klann (2009) analysed operational flight data of some 230’000 flight movements that occurred within one year together with retail sales data provided by the airport’s main retail operator. For this, Klann (2009) created a ‘retail-worthiness’-index that is based on the destination of the respective flight. Whilst the average retail spend per passenger at Frankfurt airport was €2.88, the index showed remarkable differences between destinations. One interesting finding presented is that some 80% of retail revenue were produced by flights to 30 different countries (out of a total of 100 countries that could be reached from this airport). Flights to different destinations therefore represented a different retail value for the airport and the concession operators. It needs however to be noted that different countries have varying numbers of flights connecting them to Frankfurt.

1.5.2.2 Passenger-related factors

Appold and Kasarda (2006) investigated the impact of air passenger demography on volume and nature of airport retail sales. In North America, some 60% of all passengers purchase food or beverages whilst at the airport, they report, with the vast majority of retail purchases made in the airside area. They state that "*the unpredictability of the time needed to clear security forces travellers to arrive early, resulting in increased waiting time*" (Appold & Kasarda, 2006, p. 279). It can thus be concluded that the importance of airside retail is increasing over landside retail. An important aspect are the factors that influence travellers to consume food and beverages. According to analyses conducted by Appold and Kasarda (2006), an increase of the average *distance flown* (i.e. the duration of the flight to be boarded) had a positive effect on food and beverage sales. This can be explained with the reduction of complimentary food and beverage service offered on domestic flights in the U.S. context (Graham, 2013a).

Volkova (n.d.) investigated the relationship between Food and Beverage consumption and type of airline. She found differing behaviours for passengers of Low-Cost-Carriers and those of Full-Service-Airlines. In an econometric model relating to US-airports, Volkova (n.d.) measured the variety of food offered in a terminal. Since she however measured variety of food offered by the total amount of F&B outlets available in this terminal (arguing that an increased number of outlets automatically represented higher variety), the approach can be challenged. Variety of food was then used as one factor in a regression model explaining F&B revenue per square foot. It seems little surprising that a correlation was found between a terminal's amount of F&B outlets and F&B sales revenue. An interesting finding of the study is that, within certain parameters, revenue per square meter (of airport space) is decreasing with an increase in sit-down F&B outlets, whereas it is increasing with an increase in take-away outlets. This can be explained with the amount of space required to serve one guest being lower for take-away outlets than for sit-in outlets (Davis, Lockwood, Pantelidis, & Alcott, 2008).

Francis et al. (2003) investigated airline-airport relationships in the context of low-cost carriers in Europe. They found that airports' non-aeronautical revenues related to food and beverages were higher with low-cost carriers than with full-service airlines. This is, according to Francis et al. (2003), due to the fact that low-cost passengers could not expect to be served a meal on board and therefore were more likely to buy food and beverages at the airport. This view is supported by Gillen and Lall (2004).

Echevarne (2008) found that the buying behaviour of low-cost airline passengers at airports did not vary significantly from those flying on full-service carriers. This is in line with findings presented by Castillo-Manzano (2010). Brechin (1999) reports that leisure travellers tend to spend longer time at the airport terminals and therefore have more time to browse and shop than business travellers. Through branded catering outlets, operators offer consumers brand recognition and thus reduce perceived risk when choosing where to consume, Brechin (1999) finds in line with other authors (Fliess, 2009; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011).

Papatheodorou and Lei (2006) studied leisure travel in the context of regional airports in the United Kingdom and found that leisure passengers of charter flights were more likely to spend on goods and services in airports than passengers of low-cost or full-service airlines. The explanation that Papatheodorou and Lei (2006) offered is that charter passengers usually travel for leisure purposes and as such usually spend more time at airports and have a higher desire to purchase than travellers flying for business purposes.

Volkova and Müller (2012) analysed determinants of Food and Beverage revenue in US airports. In line with the findings presented by Castillo-Manzano (2010) for the Spanish context, they found that business passengers tend to spend less on food and beverage than leisure passengers do. One possible explanation offered by them is that passengers travelling on business would be more likely to have access to airline lounges (where food and beverage are often offered free of charge) than leisure travellers. Volkova and Müller (2012) further claim that transit passengers spend more on food and beverage than origin and destination passengers, as opposed to the findings reported by Graham (2009) on this issue in a European context.

D'Alfonso, Jiang, and Wan (2013) investigated the relationship between airport congestion and expenditure in the airport commercial area. As airport congestion increases, passenger waiting times at check-in and security increase as well. In their analytical model, D'Alfonso et al. (2013) assumed that, anticipating longer waiting times, passengers would arrive even earlier at the airport, thus exaggerating waiting time and therefore increasing dwell time. Increased dwell time then had a positive impact on expenditure in the commercial airside area. D'Alfonso et al. (2013) assume that passengers would consume concession goods if their valuation of the good is greater than the concession price, thus applying the basic concept of Alderson’s Law of Exchange (Alderson & Martin, 1965) in their model. D'Alfonso et al. (2013) suggest that this would be an incentive for airports to reduce aeronautical charges. Reduced charges would allow airlines to offer lower airfares, which, according to the principle of elasticity of demand, would in turn in turn attract more passengers (Schmidgall, 2013). The increased congestion would then lead to higher passenger dwell time and higher concession revenues (which are yielding more profits to the airport than aeronautical charges), D'Alfonso et al. (2013) suggest.

Whilst Appold and Kasarda (2006) claim that connecting passengers are more likely to consume than passengers originating at the airport for the North American context, Graham (2009) states the opposite for the European context and furthermore claims that Food and Beverage concessions are a less important source of revenue in Europe than they are in North America.

1.5.2.3 Concession-related factors

Very little research dealing with concession-related factors could be identified. Applying mathematical programming, Hsu and Chao (2005) examined the relationships between commercial revenue, passenger service level and space allocation in international passenger terminals in the context of Taiwan's Chiang Kai-Shek international airport (which was renamed to Taiwan Taoyuan International Airport in 2006 (Chuang, 2006)). When levels of service are to be maintained, the space required for concessions increases proportionally with passenger numbers, whereas concessions revenues do not increase proportionally, they found. Following Hsu and Chao (2005), the maximum in concession revenues can be achieved by allocating those concessions that generate above average revenues to more accessible locations within the terminal building.

Del Chiappa, Martin, and Roman (2016) investigated the service quality of airports' food and beverage retailers specifically. Using a survey approach in the airport of Olbia in Sardinia, Italy they applied a fuzzy approach to determine how passengers perceive service quality and whether passenger age plays a role. Their findings reveal which F&B features outperform others; furthermore, they show that age is a moderating factor in consumer satisfaction, with older passengers being less satisfied than their counterparts.

Fodness and Murray (2007) researched passengers' expectations of airport service quality in the North American context. Although their study did not explicitly focus on concessions within the airport Servicescape, Fodness and Murray (2007) conclude that the look and feel of Food and Beverage concessions had an influence on perceived service quality through all three dimensions of their conceptual model.

1.5.3 Airport Passenger Experience

De Neufville, De Barros, and Belin (2002) analysed the optimal configuration of airport passenger buildings for travellers, focusing especially on transfer passengers as well as the optimal gate allocation aimed at minimising walking distances for connecting passengers. From an engineering perspective, they managed to find the most efficient airport passenger building layouts, minimizing distances and transfer times. This approach, however, ignores the commercial value that air passengers generate whilst waiting or transferring between flights at an airport. Furthermore, De Neufville et al. (2002) did not take into consideration that, even though there are exceptions where both airport operator and airlines perform the gate allocation task in a collaborative way for a defined local area, gate allocations are usually an airport task (Klann, 2009).

Correia, Wirasinghe, and de Barros (2008), in the context of Sao Paulo Guarulhos airport, developed a global index for the level of service evaluation at airport passenger terminals. They did however not discuss to what extent their case would allow generalisations to other airport contexts. Assuming that the overall perceived level of service is a function of the levels of service of individual components, Correia et al. (2008) chose to evaluate a total of six components. Concessions represented one of those six components included in their initial model. Using a survey approach, 119 passengers were interviewed in Sao Paulo's Guarulhos airport. When analysing their data and refining their model based on multiple regression analysis, concessions however was eliminated as component, since it "*is not mandatory, and some users did not have a strong opinion about its level of service because they had not experienced it*" (Correia et al., 2008, p. 618). In light of extant literature discussed above, it is surprising to note that the perceived level of service at terminal concessions seemed to have relatively little influence on the airport's overall perceived level of service, according to Correia et al. (2008).

Bezerra and Gomes (2016) investigated approaches into measuring airport service quality. In order to achieve this, they fit a measurement model for Airport Service Quality based on typical service measures from the airport industry. The model was tested through a survey conducted at Sao Paulos Guarulhos (GRU) airport. The findings suggest for Airport Service Quality to be a six-dimensional concept. Availability of Food (and beverage) facilities was part of the convenience dimension of the construct, whereas prices at Food (and beverage) facilities was part of the Price dimension. This study connects well to the paper presented by Correia et al. (2008).

Applying both passenger observation as well as interviews as data collection methods, Kirk, Popovic, Kraal, and Livingstone (2012) investigated passenger experiences at Australian airports. They focused on the passengers' perspective with an aim to develop a taxonomy of passenger activities. Kirk et al. (2012) concentrated on passengers' discretionary activities (also referred to as enforced leisure time) during the airport experience. Enforced leisure time refers to the non-processing periods during which passengers have little to do (Rowley & Slack, 1999). These activities include shopping, consumption of food and beverages, etc. As a result of their research, Kirk et al. (2012) defined eight taxonomic groups of passenger activities, namely *processing*, *preparatory*, *consumptive*, *social*, *entertainment*, *passive*, *queuing* and *moving* activities. Processing and preparatory activities relate directly to passengers' activities that are required in order to complete required formalities and to pass through security checkpoints. The consumption of food and beverages would be classified a *consumptive* activity, following the taxonomy developed by Kirk et al (2012).

1.6 Summary

Sections 1.4 and 1.5 have reviewed and discussed literature relating to airport commercial operations, as well as to the importance and factors influencing retail and F&B concessions revenues. The unit of analysis of the studies reviewed in those sections was thus the airport itself, as well its contractual relationships with a multitude of stakeholders.

As such, these sections have elaborated the commercial context of airside food and beverage concession operations and have set the frame for the study to further explore consumer behaviour in this setting. Before reviewing the literature covering air passenger behaviour and consumer behaviour in a food and beverage context, Table 2 below provides an overview of the literature discussed in sections 1.4 and 1.5. The table is first sorted by location and then by methods applied.

Table 2: Summary of Literature reviewed in relation to Airport Concession Operations

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution
Kim, H.-B., & Shin, J.-H. (2001)	A contextual investigation of the operation and management of airport concessions	Korea	Survey amongst 12 experts	Price level, brand image, product quality and service level as factors influencing customer satisfaction.	Development of definitions
Hsu, C.-I., & Chao, C.-C. (2005)	Space allocation for commercial activities at international passenger terminals	Taiwan	Mathematical programming	For constant service level, concession space requirements increase proportionally with passenger numbers.	Construction of a model for maximizing concession revenues while maintaining service level
Francis, G., Fidato, A., & Humphreys, I. (2003)	Airport–airline interaction: the impact of low-cost carriers on two European airports	Europe	Case studies in two small European airports	F&B revenues are higher with LCC's than with full-service airlines	Exploration of airline-airport relationships in the context of low-cost-carriers.
Njoya, E. T., & Niemeier, H.-M. (2011)	Do dedicated low-cost passenger terminals create competitive advantages for airports?	Europe	Application of the VRIO framework in 9 cases selected from European airports	Passengers of Low-Cost-Carriers spend more on airside concessions based on increased dwell times.	Creation of separate Low-Cost-Terminals (LCT) can help airports improve their competitive advantage, based on the rarity of LCT's.

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution
Volkova, N. (2009)	Determinants of retail revenue for today's airports	One European country (not disclosed)	Statistical analyses of data from 13 European airports	Regional airports tend to show different performances regarding non-aeronautical revenues than hubs.	Once a certain level of retail area is reached, the retail revenue per square meter starts to grow
Klann, D. (2009)	The Role of Information Technology in the Airport Business: A Retail-Weighted Resource Management Approach for Capacity-Constrained Airports.	Frankfurt (Germany)	Statistical analysis of flight movements and retail data	The destination of a flight has an influence on the ‚retail worthiness' of the respective flight	Development of a ‚retail worthiness' index
Lei, Z., & Papatheodorou, A. (2010)	Measuring the effect of low-cost carriers on regional airports' commercial revenue	United Kingdom	Econometric analysis with data from 28 UK airports	Commercial revenues are lower for low-cost passengers than for full-service carriers.	Development of an econometric model to measure the impact of LCCs on regional airports' commercial revenue
Papatheodorou, A., & Lei, Z. (2006)	Leisure travel in Europe and airline business models: A study of regional airports in Great Britain	United Kingdom	Statistical analyses of data from 21 airports within the United Kingdom	Charter passengers are more likely to spend on goods and services in airports than passengers on LCC's or FSA's.	Exploration of the impact of LCC's on regional airports.
Correia, A. R., Wirasinghe, S. C., & de Barros, A. G. (2008)	A global index for level of service evaluation at airport passenger terminals	Sao Paulo Guarulhos Airport, Brazil	Regression analysis with data collected from 119 passengers at Sao Paulo Airport.	F&B concessions seem to have little influence on the airport's overall perceived level of service.	Development of an Index for the level of service provided by an airport.

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution
Appold, S. J., & Kasarda, J. D. (2006)	The appropriate scale of US airport retail activities	United States	Statistical analyses of data from 75 airports within the United States	Increase of distance flown has a positive effect on F&B sales	Demonstration of the impact of passenger demography on the volume and nature of airport retail sales
Volkova, N., & Müller, J. (2012)	Assessing the Nonaviation Performance of Selected US Airports	United States	statistical analysis of data from 74 US airports	Commercial revenues are lower for low-cost passengers than for full-service carriers. Transfer passengers spend more on Food and Beverages than O&D passengers Business passengers tend to spend less on F&B than leisure passengers	Evaluation of commercial revenues in LCT's and in shared terminals.
Graham, A. (2009)	How important are commercial revenues to today's airports?	Worldwide	Not disclosed / literature-based	Charter passengers are more likely to impulse buy and use F&B facilities	
Bork, A. (2007)	Developing a retail marketing strategy to promote both airport and retailers	Unclear	Review of literature	Passengers experience increased levels of stress. Once airside, stress decreases.	Review of airport retail marketing approaches.

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution
D'Alfonso, T., Jiang, C., & Wan, Y. (2013)	Airport pricing, concession revenues and passenger types	Not disclosed	Linear modelling	Increased dwell time has a positive influence on expenditure in the commercial airside area	Airports may have commercial incentives to induce congestion
De Neufville, R., De Barros, A. G., & Belin, S. C. (2002)	Optimal configuration of airport passenger buildings for travellers	Not disclosed	Parametric analyses	Optimal terminal building configuration.	Discussion of most efficient terminal building layout in terms of passenger walking distances.
Volkova, N. (n.d.)	Optimal Food & Beverage Mix at Full Service Airline and Low Cost Carrier Terminals	United States	Statistical analyses of data from 58 airports within the United States	F&B revenue per square metre decreases with an increase in sit-down outlets.	Exploration of F&B revenues at different types of airports.

2 Literature Review

After reviewing the literature on airport commercial and concessions operations, extant literature in the field of consumer behaviour in the airport context as well as in a food and beverage context will now be critically reviewed. As such, this literature review covers two streams. Literature dealing with commercial airport air passenger behaviour will be reviewed in section 2.4, whereas literature covering consumer behaviour in a food-service related context will be reviewed in section 2.5.

2.1 Choosing the approach for the literature review

As Fink (2010) states, a literature review is "*a systematic, explicit and reproducible method for identifying, evaluating and interpreting the existing body of recorded work produced by researchers, scholars and practitioners*." (Fink, 2010, p. 3). Following Fink, the purpose of the literature review is to identify, analyse and synthesise work that is relevant to the research and that has already been done or is in progress.

According to Jesson, Matheson, and Lacey (2011), a literature review is a written product; and the format can vary depending on the purpose of the review. A literature review can be systematic or narrative (traditional) (Bettany-Saltikov, 2012; Coughlan, Cronin, & Ryan, 2013; Fink, 2010; Rosenfeld & Charles, 2003).

Although "*the current zeitgeist in public policy and research favours systematic review over traditional review*" (Jesson et al., 2011, p. 23), conducting a traditional (or narrative) review is considered appropriate for the exploratory purpose of this study. As Jesson et al. (2011) clarify, a traditional literature review is appropriate when exploring existing issues, with the objective to develop an understanding and to identify a research gap. In such instances, a narrative (or traditional) literature review is an appropriate approach, as Pope, Mays, and Popay (2007) agree. The narrative approach furthermore allows the inclusion of different types of evidence (Jesson et al., 2011). In addition, Jesson et al. (2011) claim that a traditional literature review should be conducted in order to "*assess theories or hypotheses by critically examining the methods and results of single primary studies, with an emphasis on background and contextual material*." (Jesson et al., 2011, p. 15). This view is shared by Coughlan et al. (2013) as well as by Bettany-Saltikov (2012).

Based on the discussion of approaches to conducting a literature review, a systematic approach was initially chosen in order to achieve repeatability of the studies found. Once the relevant studies were identified, references were followed up, thus moving towards a traditional narrative approach. This is in so far considered to be appropriate since this study has a mainly exploratory approach.

2.2 Literature review process

According to Hart (2001), the subject boundaries need to be defined before the literature search can be conducted. In the case of this study, the literature is reviewed in two parallel streams, one being inside-airport shopping and dining related research (section 2.4), and research on food-service related consumer behaviour (section 2.5). The subject bases were thus identified to be air passenger behaviour as well as consumer behaviour studies in the field of restaurants and food and beverage outlets.

In a first step, possible search terms were identified for both subject bases. In addition to this approach, it was decided to discuss the search terms with a panel of members of a doctoral action learning set held on April 14, 2013. This approach was chosen in order to ensure that all possibilities were covered. During this discussion, possible new search terms were identified and it was furthermore discussed which search strategies would be most promising for the task.

Following the definition of search terms, searches were carried out using different online databases. These searches were conducted from the University online library of César Ritz Colleges Switzerland in Brig, Switzerland as well as using the off-campus database access provided by the University of Gloucestershire and by the University of Derby[1]. Databases accessed in this step were the University of Derby's "Library Plus" access, the University of Gloucestershire's access to EBSCO Business Source Complete as well as Google scholar (Thomas, 2009).

2.2.1 Air passenger behaviour

Searches initially revealed a relatively larger number of results. A search for the term ["airport"] led to 142'057 results. Refining this by using the terms ["airport" AND "retail"] reduced the number of results to 3'332. Using the search terms ["airport" AND "food"] led to 3'367 results, representing some 2.3% of the initial search results.

This led to the conclusion that the literature covering airport F&B operations represents only a very small part of the overall airport-related literature.

[1] Through my professional role, I have access to the University of Derby's library system, which seems to offer access to a wider choice of materials in my field of research than the University of Gloucestershire's library.

A further search carried out on the EBSCO Business Source Complete Database on 9 July 2013 showed results as shown in the following Table 3:

Table 3: Airport-catering related search results

Search Term	Peer-reviewed only?	Number of results
[“food OR beverage” AND “management”]	No	185.175
[“food OR beverage” AND “management” AND “airport”]	No	410
[“food OR beverage” AND “management”]	Yes	48.615
[“food OR beverage” AND “management” AND “airport”]	Yes	57

The results presented in Table 3 above suggest two conclusions. Firstly, that there are far less publications on Food and Beverage Management in airports than on Food and Beverage Management in general, supporting the conclusion relating to the “food” search term results mentioned above.

Secondly, the results show that there is a larger percentage of peer-reviewed material in general Food and Beverage Management (48’615 out of 185’175 represent 26.3%) than in airport Food and Beverage management (57 out of 410 publications represent 13.9%). The fact that peer-reviewed literature is less present in airport F&B Management than in general F&B Management suggests that airport Food and Beverage Management to date is more of a practitioner-oriented field since academic research does not (yet) cover this field extensively.

As Jesson et al. (2011) point out, a tightly specified aim and a specific review question are required for a systematic review. In light of the mainly exploratory approach of this study, the results of the initial literature searches and the conclusions drawn from them support the decision not to pursue a systematic literature review, but to rather continue with a traditional (narrative) review for the literature covering air passenger dining behaviour. Following this, further search terms were used (such as “retail”, “consumer behaviour”, “airside” and more searches conducted with various combinations of the search terms.

The decision whether to include literature in the review process was based on the review of titles and abstracts. Literature that dealt with the topic in question was reviewed and assessed for suitability. Included literature that emerged from the searches was reviewed and the citations in these papers were followed up in order to identify other authors and papers that dealt with the subject. In order to gain access to the literature identified, the University of Gloucestershire’s inter-library-loan system had to be applied in several instances. Whilst initially, only academic (peer reviewed) literature was selected, select (non peer-reviewed) practitioner literature was reviewed thereafter in order to get a better understanding of the current topics as well as to further refine the conceptual framework that was developed using the peer-reviewed academic literature. Out of 34 studies identified that dealt with the subject area, 18 dealt with air passengers as the unit of analysis, whereas the remainder had the airport as unit of analysis. Those 16 studies dealing with airports have been included in the discussion in sections 1.4 and 1.5. Literature dealing with air passenger behaviour will be critically reviewed in section 2.4 below.

After existing work in the field of airport commercial operations was reviewed, the literature review was extended to cover the subject of consumer behaviour in general and in food and beverage contexts.

2.2.2 Food and Beverage service related consumer behaviour

Searches initially revealed a relatively larger number of results. A search for the term ["consumer behavi*[2]"] led to 53'214 results. Refining this by using the search terms ["consumer behavi*" AND "food and beverage"] led to 101 results, limiting the results of that search to peer-reviewed articles published since 1993 resulted in a total of 30 articles. Those articles were then evaluated based on the abstracts made available.

Criteria applied for the exclusion of studies in this step are illustrated in Table 4 below:

Table 4: Exclusion Criteria

Topic	Exclusion Criteria Applied
Context	Study deals with food and beverage in a pure retail context
Perspective	Study deals with behaviour of institutional clients (e.g. importers of foods and beverages)
Focus	Study deals with purely strategic decisions on provider's side, such as e.g. internationalisation.
Language	Study is not available in English or German language

Out of the 30 studies identified, 22 were excluded based on the exclusion criteria stated in Table 4. The remaining 8 studies were further assessed. At the same time, based on the low number of search results, the search terms were re-visited and

[2] The asterisk was inserted in order to include search results for both the British („behaviour") and the American („behavior") spelling of behaviour.

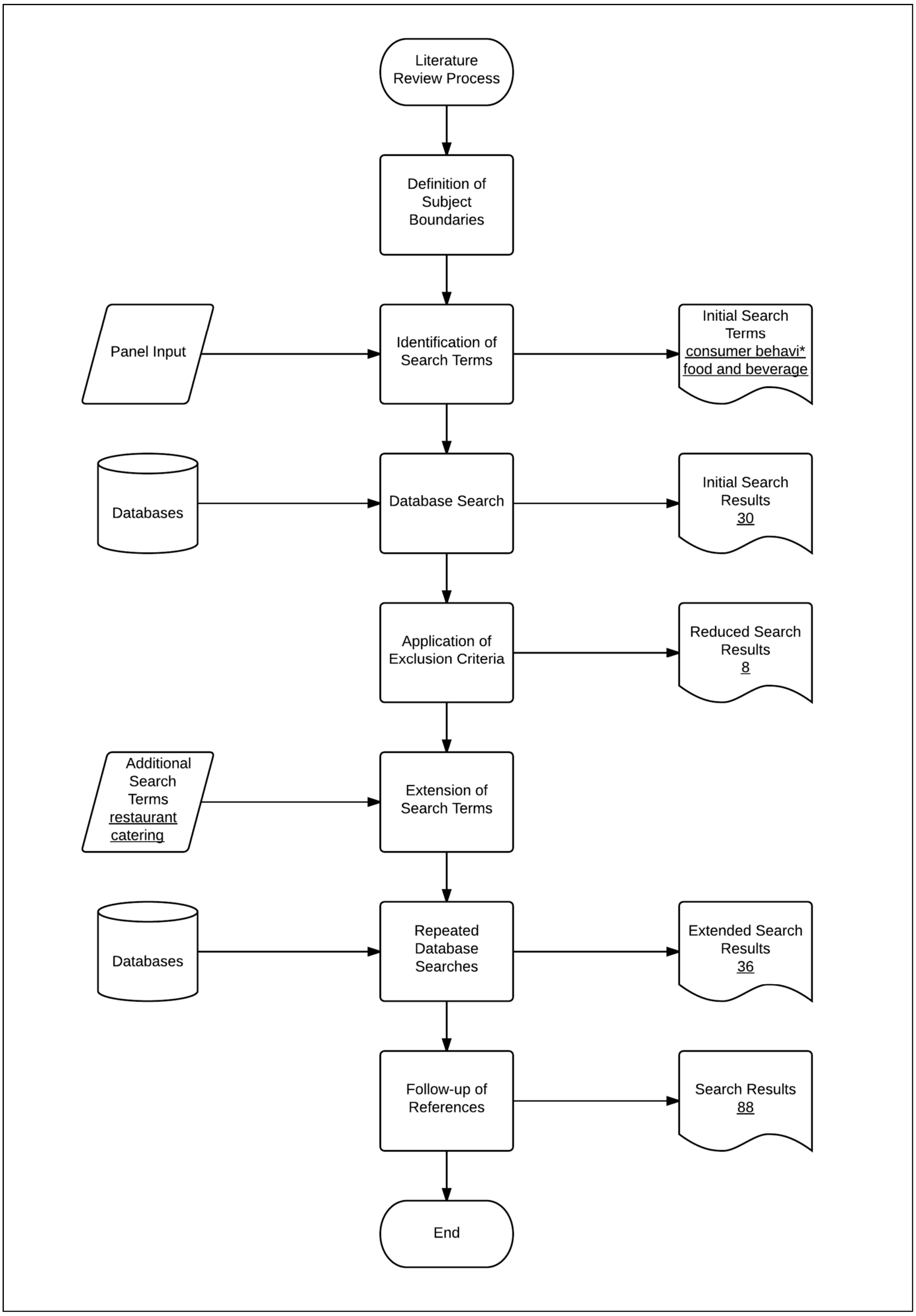
changed in order to increase the number of relevant studies that could be included in the review. New search terms used were “consumer behavio*” in combination with “restaurant” and “catering”.

The search for the term [“consumer behavio*” AND “restaurant”] led to a total of 254 peer-reviewed studies that were published since 1993, whereas the search term [“consumer behavio*” AND “catering”] with the same criteria yielded 29 results. The combined search for [“consumer behavio*” AND (“catering” or “restaurant”)] led to a total of 265 studies, out of which 183 were shown as available in full text. The abstracts of those 183 studies were checked against the same exclusion criteria mentioned in Table 3 above. This resulted in an additional 28 studies that were included.

Based on the process described above, 36 peer-reviewed studies could be considered relevant for this study. These were then reviewed in detail. Furthermore, citations in those 36 studies were followed up in order to find further relevant studies in the field. The process can be understood to be continuous since relevant journals were regularly checked for new literature to be included. This led to a total of 88 studies that were reviewed as part of the literature review process. In addition, textbooks covering the subject of consumer behaviour were consulted in order to identify key concepts and influential authors in the field of consumer behaviour (Jesson et al., 2011).

Figure 1 below illustrates the literature search process that was applied for consumer-behaviour related literature in a food and beverage context.

Figure 1: Literature Search Process



2.3 Consumer behaviour

2.3.1 Definition of Consumer behaviour

As Williams (2012) claims, there is a terminological confusion between the terms "consumer" and "customer" which needs to be clarified. Following Gabbott and Hogg (1998), Williams (2012) sees the term "customer" to be defined narrower than the term "consumer". A customer is someone who makes a purchase, i.e. who enters into a monetary exchange. "Consumer", in contrast, is seen as a wider term that "*recognizes that it is not necessarily based on any form of financial exchange*" (Williams, 2012, p. 7). Also, the consumption of hospital or educational services, for example, does not always imply a direct financial exchange. Furthermore, based on this line of thought, the term consumer can also be used to describe potential customers who may or may not enter into an exchange transaction with a specific service provider (and thus may or may not become customers). Although extant literature uses the terms "customer" and "consumer" interchangeably at times, the wider meaning of the "consumer" term is considered in this study in order to include potential customers who may or may not consume at the outlet in question.

Horner and Swarbrooke (1996) define consumer behaviour as "*the study of why people buy the product they do, and how they make the decision*" (Horner & Swarbrooke, 1996, p. 4). Following Kardes, Cronley, and Cline (2010), consumer behaviour "*entails all consumer activities associated with the purchase, use, and disposal of goods and services, including the consumer's emotional, mental, and behavioural responses that precede, determine, or follow these activities*" (Kardes et al., 2010, p. 8). Gabbott and Hogg (1998) define consumer behaviour in a similar way to Kardes et al. (2010); however they take a wider view on the objects that consumers deal with. Gabbott and Hogg (1998) define consumer behaviour as "*a wide range of activities and behaviours, the processes involved when individuals or groups select, purchase, use or dispose of products, services, ideas or experiences*" (Gabbott & Hogg, 1998, p. 10). This view is shared for the food and beverage context by Harrington, Fauser, Ottenbacher, and Kruse (2013). Their definition is in line with Solomon (2015), who defines consumer behaviour as "*the study of the processes involved when individuals or groups select, purchase, use, or dispose of products, services, ideas or experiences to satisfy needs and desires*." (Solomon, 2015, p. 7).

Whilst Kardes et al. (2010), in their definition, emphasize on the consumer's responses, and whilst the definition offered by Gabbott and Hogg (1998), due to its vagueness, is of limited use (Williams, 2012), Solomon (2015) focuses the attention on the notion of needs and desires that are the basis of the consumer's behaviour.

Generally, consumer behaviour can describe either individual or organisational consumers (Kardes et al., 2010). In the context of this literature review, the emphasis will be placed upon individual consumers. Consumer behaviour can furthermore be broken down into purchase, use and disposal activities. Consumer responses can be emotional (affective), mental (cognitive) and behavioural.

Table 5 below shows different definitions, as well as their authors' contributions

Table 5: Definitions of Consumer Behaviour

Author	Definition	Contribution
Horner, S., & Swarbrooke, J. (1996)	the study of why people buy the product they do, and how they make the decision	Concentrating on the decision-making (purchase stage)
Gabbott, M., & Hogg, G. (1998)	a wide range of activities and behaviours, the processes involved when individuals or groups select, purchase, use or dispose of products, services, ideas or experiences	Adding the consideration of disposal (post-use phase) as well as the services perspective
Solomon, M. R. (2009)	the study of the processes involved when individuals or groups select, purchase, use, or dispose of products, services, ideas or experiences to satisfy needs and desires.	Adding the satisfactions of needs and desires.
Kardes, F. R., Cronley, M. L., & Cline, T. W. (2010)	all consumer activities associated with the purchase, use, and disposal of goods and services, including the consumer's emotional, mental, and behavioural responses that precede, determine, or follow these activities	Extending the definition into the pre-purchase phase, as well as consideration of emotional, cognitive, and behavioural aspects
Harrington, R. J., Fauser, S. G., Ottenbacher, M. C., & Kruse, A. (2013)	the process by which individuals or groups choose or buy products, services, ideas, or experiences to satisfy their needs and wants	Applying the extensions suggested by Gabbott, M., & Hogg, G. (1998) and by Solomon, M. R. (2009) and applying them in the context of food and beverage services

2.3.2 Behavioural intentions

As the review of consumer-behaviour related literature shows (see section 2.5 below), behavioural intentions are often seen as the effect in behaviour-oriented consumer research. As Solomon (2015) illustrates, many factors might interfere with consumers' intended behaviour. In that sense, it needs to be understood that not all behavioural intentions will result in the respective behaviour. Consumers' behavioural intentions thus can be consumers' perceived likelihood to engage in a certain behaviour (Gao, Mattila, & Lee, 2016). Warshaw and Davis (1985) define behavioural intentions as "the degree to which a person has formulated conscious plans to perform (…) future behaviour", whereas Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1996) suggested that favourable behavioural intentions are connected to consumer loyalty towards a firm.

The Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) as well as the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) are based on this understanding, aiming to measure behavioural intentions rather than actual behaviour. Following the Theory of Reasoned Action, behavioural intentions are formed based on the intention to act as well as on the subjective norms relating to said behaviour (Babin & Harris, 2011). One of the criticisms of the Theory of Reasoned Action is that intentions to act do not always lead to behaviour (Sheppard, Hartwick, & Warshaw, 1988). The Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) thus includes perceived behavioural control as a new component. As such, non-volitional behaviour has been included in the theoretical model.

Gao et al. (2016) conducted a meta-analysis of 26 articles published in hospitality journals examining the impact of consumer perceptions of green initiatives on their behavioural intentions. Their findings suggest that the positive relationship between consumer perceptions and behavioural intentions is well-established. They conclude that it might not be fruitful to continue to apply identical frameworks (e.g., the theory of planned behaviour or the theory of reasoned action) in future research and thus suggest that hospitality and tourism researchers in the area of environment-friendly initiatives need to either significantly improve the existing models or look for new and more diverse frameworks in order to make meaningful theoretical contributions. Here, similar to the findings presented as a result of the literature review (see section 2.7 below), the need for new frameworks and perspectives is derived from the literature review.

2.3.3 Perspectives on consumer behaviour

According to current literature, theoretical perspectives on consumer behaviour can broadly be classified into three different categories (Babin & Harris, 2011; Solomon, 2015; Williams, 2012):

- Theories and perspectives that consider consumers to take consumption decisions in a rational, scientific and cognitive way. This perspective relies on the rational choice paradigm (Babin & Harris, 2011; Bray, 2008; Fliess, 2009).
- Theories that take a behavioural influence perspective and assume that consumer behaviour is learned and that decisions are responses to environmental influences (Babin & Harris, 2011). According to this behavioural influence perspective, behaviour is often a response to the consumer's environment, depends on habit, or is learned (Bareham, 2004).
- Theories that take a post-modern or experiential perspective and that assume that decision making does not follow rules and is unlikely to be predictable (Williams, 2012). As Bareham (2004) states, this experiential perspective on consumer behaviour assumes that consumers are "*empowered agents who use the symbolic system of consumption as a way to establish class differences and personal identities*" (Bareham, 2004, p. 163)

2.3.3.1 Rational choice perspective

The rational choice paradigm is the basis for a number of economic theories in the field of services management. As Babin and Harris (2011) claim, this perspective fits very well with the concept of utilitarian value.

Within the rational choice paradigm, transactions can be seen in light of market process theory (also referred to as New Austrian School, as Fliess (2009) elaborates), which states that both suppliers and consumers as participants in a market are looking for favourable exchange transactions. Participants in the market are assumed to show stable preferences, have limited information and intend to act rationally (Dallinger, 1998). Each individual's goal is to be in a more favourable position after the transaction has taken place than before (Kirzner, 1978).

From a rational choice perspective, according to Fliess (2009), consumers will enter into a transaction when three conditions are met:

1) The consumer aims at being in a better position after the exchange than before. The law of exchange (Alderson & Martin, 1965) posits that the total utility of the transaction must be higher than its associated costs; i.e. the transaction has to result in a positive service value (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011) for the consumer.

2) The relationship between the utility of the offer and its associated costs has to at least correspond to the consumer's comparison level. This condition is based on Social Exchange Theory (Thibaut & Kelley, 1986). A consumer's comparison level depends on his/her requirements, experiences and expectations towards the service (Fliess, 2009).

3) The consumer will enter into a transaction with the service provider that provides the highest service value (Heath, 1976; Houston & Gassenheimer, 1987).

Consumers thus aim at maximizing their perceived net value of the exchange (Houston & Gassenheimer, 1987). In the given context, this means that, amongst the evoked set (i.e. those outlets that they are aware of (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011)), passengers would decide to consume at the one outlet from which they anticipate the highest net utility. The net utility then is determined by the perceived cost and benefit of the transaction, with costs and benefit being both monetary as well as non-monetary (Fliess, 2009).

Since perceived cost and value (and therefore net utility) of an exchange transaction can however only be evaluated after the transaction has taken place, customers face an element of perceived risk when deciding which option to choose (Fliess, 2009; McQuilken & Robertson, 2013). Perceived risk is not only of monetary nature but can also encompass a psychological or social dimension, amongst others (Conchar, Zinkhan, Peters, & Olavarrieta, 2004). Customers "*typically feel uncomfortable with perceived risks*" and seek ways to reduce them (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011, p. 62). Approaches to reduce perceived risk on the consumers' part include screening for specific cues such as service brands or service guarantees (Fliess, 2009; Athanasios Krystallis & Chrysochou, 2014; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011).

Iglesias and Guillén (2002) applied the concept of perceived risk when assessing the search for external information in restaurant selection in the Spanish context. They used a 10-point scale to measure and assess the influence of perceived risk (which they operationalized as "*the probability of suffering adverse consequences, such as leaving hungry, being uncomfortable, having digestion problems, because of making a bad restaurant choice*" (Iglesias & Guillén, 2002, p. 40)). Perceived risk was found to only influence personal communication; low levels of perceived risk correlated with asking for less advice from family or friends.

Models of consumer behaviour that are based on the rational choice perspective typically view purchasing as a problem-solving activity "*in which consumers move through a series of stages in order to solve a problem*" (Mowen, 1988, p. 16). The stages include problem recognition, information search, alternative evaluation, choice, and post-purchase evaluation (Babin & Harris, 2011; Baumeister & Bushman, 2010; Kardes et al., 2010).

The rational-choice perspective furthermore differentiates between high involvement and low involvement that consumers can show; depending on the nature and circumstances of the consumption incident. Low involvement refers to lower efforts on the consumers side and is commonly applied in routine choices; high involvement on the other end of the continuum describes a deliberate and systematic effort (Kardes et al., 2010).

2.3.3.2 Behavioural influence perspective

The behavioural influence perspective on consumer behaviour assumes that many decisions are learned responses to environmental influences (Babin & Harris, 2011; Baumeister & Bushman, 2010; Zimbardo, 1992). This perspective emphasizes the influences of environmental stimuli on behaviour (Mowen, 1988).

According to classical behaviourist learning theories, external stimuli influence consumers' behaviour based on conditioning effects (Solomon, 2015). External stimuli are understood to be influencing an intervening response system which in turn results in behaviour. The causation of behaviour is thus explained by external events (Bray, 2008). Behaviours that produce positive outcomes are learned to be performed, according to the concept of operant conditioning (Skinner, 1981). Whilst stimuli and resulting behaviour can be observed, the intervening response system however cannot be analysed and is considered a “black box” in the behaviourist perspective (Mowen, 1988).

In the behavioural influence perspective, “*thought processes are often better explained as heuristic mechanisms rather than logical processes and behaviour is often a response to the consumer’s environment which initiates many of the cognitive processes which may occur*” (Bareham, 2004, p. 162).

The behavioural influence perspective thus focuses on how a person interacts with their environment. Behaviourists assume that cognitive processes themselves are forms of behaviour, triggered by external stimuli (Babin & Harris, 2011).

The Mehrabian-Russell model (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974) suggests that the relationship between environmental influences and approach/avoidance behaviour is mediated by emotions. This model has been the theoretical basis for a number of studies of consumer behaviour (Kraft & Benet, 2010).

In order to overcome different approaches and concepts for the operationalization of emotions, Laros and Steenkamp (2005) developed a hierarchical model of consumer emotions. The most general, superordinate level consists of positive and negative affect. The following intermediate level consists of specific emotions, namely *contentment, happiness, love* and *pride* (positive emotions) and *anger*, *fear*, *sadness* and *shame* (negative emotions). This model then was extended to a subordinate level which distinguishes 42 different specific emotions, based on the Consumption Emotion Set (CES) developed by Richins (1997).

2.3.3.3 Experiential perspective

As Morgan, Watson, and Hemmington (2008) claim, there has been a move from the utilitarian business approach, focused on rational decision making, towards an experiential perspective in the consumer behaviour literature. This experiential perspective on consumer behaviour fits well with hedonic values (Babin & Harris, 2011; Solomon, 2015). It "*assumes that consumers often make purchases and reach decisions based on the affect, or feeling, attached to the product or behaviour under consideration*" (Babin & Harris, 2011, p. 251). The experiential perspective highlights the importance of intangible product attributes, such as the nature of the setting in which the experience occurs (Solomon, 2015).

The experiential perspective on consumption in the services segment is often linked with a post-modern philosophical perspective that focuses on experience, as well as ritual, myth and symbolism (Bareham, 2004; De Rezende & De Avelar, 2012; Tian & Tian, 2011; Williams, 2012). Food and meals can be perceived as symbols of culture and social difference (Allen, Gupta, & Monnier, 2008; Morgan et al., 2008). In this symbolic meaning, "*meals are used to mark special occasions, to celebrate rites of passage or to reinforce bonding*" (Morgan et al., 2008, p. 114). The notion of sacred spaces (Turner, 1974) connects to the concept of liminality in rites of passage (Turner, 1987). Airports have been conceptualized as liminal spaces by a number of authors (Christiansen, 2010; Eriksen & Døving, 1992; Lloyd, 2003).

2.3.4 The three-stages model of services consumption

Service consumption is usually represented in a three-stage consumption model (Bruhn & Georgi, 2006; Grönroos, 2001; Hoffman & Turley, 2002; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011). This model differentiates the pre-purchase stage, the purchase (or consumption) stage and the post-consumption stage. In the pre-purchase stage, consumers decide whether or not to consume and which outlet to visit (Williams, 2012). In the purchase (or consumption) stage, the service is delivered and consumed, and post-purchase evaluations take place in the post-consumption stage.

2.3.4.1 The pre-purchase stage

Due to their intangible nature and due to the requirement to integrate the customer in the service provision process, services are difficult, if not impossible, to evaluate before they are consumed (Engelhardt, Kleinaltenkamp, & Reckenfelderbäumer, 1992; Fliess, 2009). Individual attributes of services however vary in their ability to be evaluated before or after the service consumption (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011). Those attributes of a service that can be evaluated prior to service consumption are referred to as *search attributes*. Those that can be evaluated post consumption only are called *experience attributes* and those attributes which can neither be evaluated prior nor post consumption are known as *credence attributes* (Fliess, 2009; Athanassios Krystallis, Chryssochoidis, & Scholderer, 2007; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011). As Hoffman and Turley (2002) state, "*atmospheric variables increase the search attributes available for service products; thereby decrease the amount of risk generally associated with service purchases*" (Hoffman & Turley, 2002, p. 37). The servicescape can thus help reduce the perceived risk that consumers may perceive during the pre-purchase phase. This view is supported by Reimer and Kuehn (2005).

2.3.4.2 The consumption stage

During the purchase, or consumption stage, the service is produced and consumed. In most services, this happens at the same time, extant literature refers to this as the inseparability of production and consumption (Fliess, 2009), or the uno-actu principle (Haller, 2012; Ochel, 2002). As the consumer needs to be integrated in the service provision process (Fliess & Kleinaltenkamp, 2004), the term *prosumption* has also been used to describe activities during the consumption stage in the field of hospitality management (Ritzer, 2015).

2.3.4.3 The post-consumption stage

Evaluations of the service(s) received are finalized in the post consumption stage (Babin & Harris, 2011; Fliess, 2009; Hoffman & Turley, 2002; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011; Solomon, 2015). The construct of (post-consumption) customer satisfaction has traditionally been investigated as a key factor influencing loyalty and re-patronage intentions (Bowden, 2009).

Especially the relationship between customer satisfaction and loyalty has received considerable attention in research (Babin & Harris, 2011; Davis et al., 2008; Fliess, 2009; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011). This has traditionally been achieved through a model which includes customer satisfaction as an antecedent of behavioural intentions (such as positive word-of-mouth and re-patronage intentions).

The historically dominant customer satisfaction model is based on the rational choice paradigm. The model attempts to compare received service deliveries (as perceived by the customers) and contrast this construct with a-priori expectations. Positive disconfirmation of expectations would lead to customer satisfaction, whereas negative disconfirmation would lead to customer dissatisfaction (Bruhn & Georgi, 2006; Fliess, 2009; Grönroos, 2001; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011). This utility-oriented approach is based on disconfirmation theory (Kivela, Inbakaran, & Reece, 1999b). Based on this concept, a number of service quality models have been proposed and adapted for different sectors (Brady & Cronin Jr, 2001; Cronin Jr & Taylor, 1992; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988).

2.4 Review of air passenger behaviour related literature

The literature reviewed covering air passenger behaviour stems from all three perspectives on consumer behaviour. When classifying the literature by the three stages model of services consumption, the vast majority of the studies covered the consumption stage. The consumption stage in this context then can be understood to cover the passengers' stay in the airport building. Only two studies covered the post-consumption stage and no literature covering the pre-purchase stage could be identified. Table 6 below illustrates the classification of related literature to the three perspectives and the three stages; a detailed listing of the individual studies can be found in Table 7 in section 2.4.4. below.

Table 6: Perspectives in different stages

Stage / Perspective	Number of studies
Pre-purchase stage	
rational choice perspective	0
behavioural influence perspective	0
experiential perspective	0
Total	0
Purchase stage	
rational choice perspective	9
behavioural influence perspective	5
experiential perspective	4
Total	16
Post-consumption stage	
rational choice perspective	2
behavioural influence perspective	0
experiential perspective	0
Total	2

2.4.1 Purchase stage

As discussed above, the literature covering air passenger behaviour in the purchase or consumption stage stems from all three perspectives on consumer behaviour and is thus presented classified by stage in this section.

2.4.1.1 Rational-choice perspective

Geuens, Vantomme, and Brengman (2004) developed a typology of airports shoppers, using a questionnaire-based survey that was conducted with Belgian passengers at Brussels international airport. Whilst their work was based on existing shopper typologies and aimed at developing additional typologies of shoppers that are found in the airport setting, Geuens et al. (2004) concentrated on tourist shopping motivations and seem to have neglected other types of air passengers. Besides two existing types of shoppers, the '*apathetic shoppers'* and the '*shopping lovers*', Geuens et al. (2004) discovered one further type of shopper that they named the '*mood shopper*' (to which roughly 24% of their sample belong). This type of shopper is mostly motivated by atmospheric and mood elements of airports as well as by boredom while waiting for their plane.

Using data from a sample of more than 30.000 passengers in eight Spanish airports, Castillo-Manzano and López-Valpuesta (2013) analysed passenger behaviour with respect to airport Food and Beverage consumption. They found that almost every second passenger (47.26%) consumed food or beverages at the F&B outlets. They did however not differentiate between airside and landside consumption. In addition, they found that passengers of low-cost carriers consumed less than passengers of full-service airlines, contrary to earlier findings (Castillo-Manzano, 2010; Francis et al., 2003; Gillen & Lall, 2004). Castillo-Manzano and López-Valpuesta (2013) further report that passengers who embarked on long-haul flights were more likely to consume food and beverages at the airport. This is supported by earlier finding presented by Appold and Kasarda (2006) for the context of the United States. Furthermore, the likeliness of food and beverage consumption was found to increase with increased waiting times at the airport. Also, passengers were more likely to consume food and beverages when they were travelling with two or more family members, but without children, they found.

Torres et al. (2005) investigated the relationship between passenger waiting time and expenditure in the commercial area of an airport. Within the context of one medium-sized Spanish airport, Torres et al. (2005) used a quantitative approach to analyse spending behaviour in relation to trip purpose. Their findings included that, on a general level, consumption at the airport increased with time spent at the airport. Furthermore, they found that business travellers consumed more than leisure travellers for waiting times of less than 45 minutes. For waiting times between 45 and 170 minutes, leisure travellers consumed more than business travellers; when waiting more than 170 minutes, business travellers again showed a higher average spend than leisure travellers. On average, leisure travellers spent more time waiting at the airport than business travellers, Torres et al. (2005) report.

Castillo-Manzano (2010) examined consumer behaviour in regards to retail and Food and Beverage operations, using a sample of approximately 20.000 passengers at seven Spanish regional airports. Applying a quantitative approach, the study analysed the factors that influence passengers' decisions to make a purchase or to consume food or beverages whilst at a Spanish regional airport. Castillo-Manzano (2010) further investigated whether different types of passengers showed different behaviours. One of the findings is that passengers' likeliness to consume food or beverages or to make a purchase increased with the waiting time prior to boarding the plane. This is in line with the findings presented by Torres et al. (2005) as well as with claims made by Nelson (2015). Furthermore, Castillo-Manzano (2010) found that frequent flyers taking more than 12 flights a year were more likely to consume food and beverages at the airport. On the other hand, passengers who were on vacation were more likely to consume at the airport than those on business trips, he claims. Passengers who were in transit at the airport (connecting between two flights) however were less likely to consume than passengers originating at that airport. In contrast to the findings presented by Graham (2003), the behaviour shown by passengers of low-cost carriers is reported to be very similar to that shown by passengers of full-service airlines. Furthermore, Castillo-Manzano (2010) found no significant difference in the behaviour shown by male and female passengers. Whilst he analysed a large sample and found interesting relationships, it was not considered whether the consumption took place in the landside or the airside sector of the airport. It can however be assumed at least for transit passengers that, due to security measures, the majority of them would remain airside whilst waiting for their connecting flights.

Kalakou and Moura (2015) modelled passengers’ activity choices in the airport of Lisbon, Portugal. Their focus was on whether passengers chose to conduct aeronautical activities only or to which extent they engaged in non-aeronautical (commercial) activities as well. They found that passengers travelling to international destinations while not living in the city of the airport and passengers arriving at the airport accompanied by friends or relatives were more likely to use the non-aeronautical areas. The findings however have to be seen in light of the fact that Kalakou and Moura (2015) however only considered activities on the landside (i.e. before security controls).

2.4.1.2 Behavioural-influence perspective

Bowes (2002) investigated how the airport terminal environment influences passengers’ states of mind and shopping behaviour in that environment. The study found that time availability as well as arousal levels influence shopping behaviour. Using concepts of the Mehrabian-Russel stimulus-response model (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974), Bowes (2002) used a simplified model in which environmental stimuli influence emotional states (e.g. arousal or pleasure), which in turn influence passenger behaviour (resulting in either approach or avoidance towards shopping). Using a sample of 100 passengers, Bowes (2002) found that passengers’ state of pleasure decreased as they were processed through the security screening process.

The passengers' state of arousal however was increased by the security screening process. With regards to available time, Bowes (2002) found that both states of arousal and pleasure increased when passengers' flights were called for boarding. Passengers that shopped at the airport terminal generally showed higher levels of pleasure than those passengers who ignored the shops. Passengers who ignored the shops also showed higher levels of arousal than those passengers who shopped. This can be seen to support the concept of psychological reactance, where shopping can be considered a strategy to overcome perceptions of reduced freedom (Brehm, 1966).

The effects of the airport terminal environment on impulse buying behaviour were investigated by Crawford and Melewar (2003). According to them, the airport environment, as well as psychological effects of air travel produce a disposition towards impulse buying behaviour. Airport concessionaires can increase revenues primarily by reducing anxiety and boredom for the passengers. Whilst Crawford and Melewar (2003) used a travel-stress diagram to visualize that passengers are 'captive' for retailers between immigration and security, it should be noted that this process description does no longer describe the passenger flow and activities in the majority of western European airports. However, the general concept of passengers being most stressed at check-in, security and boarding and consequently being in a state of reduced stress in between those processing activities is likely to influence passenger behaviour (Caves & Pickard, 2001, p. 10; L. Fisher, 2011; Pragma, 2007).

Bork (2007) supports the idea of reduced stress after security screening. Considering the passengers' experience, he claims that excitement is increasing from the moment of arrival at the airport until boarding the plane. Passengers' stress levels however increase until they have passed security, where after the stress levels continually decrease. This combination of high excitement and low stress is referred to as "*window of opportunity*" (Bork, 2007, p. 352). The effect of the physical environment and the processing activities passengers have to undergo influence their behaviour, he claims. Airports however need to improve their marketing activities in order to increase business in this window of opportunity. Since travellers are not at the airport to shop in the first place, a stronger stimulus for shopping activities needs to be sent from the airport Servicescape, leading to impulse behaviour (Bork, 2007). When it comes to impulse buying in the European context, Graham claims that "*leisure charter passengers have traditionally been favourites for impulse buys*" (Graham, 2003, p. 189).

Omar and Kent (2001) studied the shopping behaviour of air passengers in the United Kingdom context with a focus on impulse behaviour. In line with the findings of Bowes (2002), they report that air passengers experienced two emotional shifts which affected the buying habit: The first being an increased stress level, the second one being an increased level of anticipation and excitement. Once airside, stress levels decreased but levels of excitement remained high during the time that passengers had to wait until their flight was called. Following this, airport operators have the opportunity to increase revenue by reducing anxiety and boredom. Omar and Kent (2001) propose that it is the airport environment which influences passengers in their shopping behaviour. Whilst such impulse shopping behaviour has long been linked to negative associations and even lower intelligence, Omar and Kent (2001) claim that impulsive shopping behaviour in the context of airports is not necessarily perceived negatively by the shoppers. This evaluation is dependent on the shoppers' post-purchase evaluation of the transaction as well as their normative evaluation of making an impulse purchase. However, Omar and Kent (2001) conducted their study at a landside superstore of London's Gatwick airport, including not only travellers but also meeters, visitors and airport employees, and not differentiating between those airport users.

Impulse shopping behaviour at the airport terminal was also explored by Omar (2002). Researching the reasons for airport terminal impulse shopping, he found that impulse shopping could reduce boredom and confusion (e.g. between continents as well as between time zones, thus linking to the concept of timelessness and spacelessness (Rowley & Slack, 1999)). He found this to be a possible explanation for impulse shopping which he defined as "*the airline passenger's tendency to shop around, spontaneously, unreflectively and immediately*" (Omar, 2002, p. 92). Using a questionnaire-based approach in the context of London Heathrow airport, Omar (2002) found that passengers' normative self-assessment about the appropriateness of impulse shopping moderated the relationship between airport influences on impulse shopping and passengers' behaviour. One interesting aspect that Omar (2002) discussed is the concept of social visibility and impulse shopping. Following this concept, impulse shopping should be more likely to materialize in contexts that provide relative social anonymity. Passengers who are travelling on their own should then, due to a lower level of social visibility in the anonymous airport environment, feel less inhibited to impulse shop whilst at the airport (Omar, 2002).

Vänniä (2013) investigated the behaviour of male passengers in an airport environment, aiming at exploring personal and situational factors which influence impulse buying. It remains unclear why Vänniä (2013) considered only male passengers, this could have to do with her convenience sampling method. Whilst Geuens et al. (2004) and Graham (2009) found that female travellers were more likely than male passengers to impulse shop at airports, Castillo-Manzano (2010) found no empirical support for these claims. Despite her research being limited by scope, sample and location, Vänniä (2013) found that the location of the store had an influence on the impulse buying behaviour exhibited in the airside areas of airports. Once passengers were however accustomed to a specific airport, impulse buying behaviour seemed to be reduced, due to an increased familiarity with the outlets and their product offerings.

2.4.1.3 Experiential perspective

Applying an architectural perspective, Livingstone, Popovic, Kraal, and Kirk (2012) researched passengers' airport experience in the landside areas of two Australian airports through observation. Whilst the temporal relationship between processing and discretionary activities was assessed, Livingstone et al. (2012) however did not differentiate between the different retail outlets that passengers use. Furthermore, they only discuss the landside parts of passengers' airport experience. The overt method of visually recording passengers as they follow the process from entering the terminal to boarding the plane may however have led to observer effects, resulting in behaviour that might be different from behaviour shown by passengers when not under observation (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). This suggests that covert observations might be more suitable in the airport context.

Popovic, Kraal, and Kirk (2009) investigated passenger experiences and interactions within an international airport. Their research was based on the claim that "*a gap exists in qualitatively addressing passenger experience in a way that includes flight and non-flight services*" (Popovic et al., 2009, p. 2). Passenger interactions were differentiated between process activities and discretionary passenger activities (i.e. those activities that are not integral to the process of being a departing passenger). For their study, Popovic et al. (2009) coded and analysed video footage of passenger behaviour and passenger interactions in an airport. Whilst their study shows detailed records of select passengers' behaviour and interactions in processing as well as in discretionary activities, Popovic et al. (2009) do not discuss any ethical issues which may have arisen in the context of video recording of air passengers.

Fodness and Murray (2007) researched passengers' expectations of airport service quality in the North American context. After exploring service-quality related themes through a qualitative approach, they tested their conceptual service quality model quantitatively. Fodness and Murray (2007), in their conceptual model, argued that the three dimensions *Servicescape*, *Service Personnel* and *Services* (including Food and Beverage concessions) would influence passengers' airport experience. The Servicescape relates to the ambient conditions and the physical environment that is perceived by customers and has an effect on their behaviour (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011). The model presented by Fodness and Murray (2007) was later on re-specified for Airport Service Quality to include the dimensions *Function*, *Interaction* and *Diversion*. Diversion in this context refers to a dimension which allows "*a turning aside from the fact that the passenger is, in effect, "trapped" in the airport Servicescape toward activities that redirect their attention or stimulate them aesthetically*" (Fodness & Murray, 2007, p. 501). Passengers' responses to this situation of reduced freedom in the airport setting may be explained with the concept of psychological reactance (Brehm, 1966). Although their study does not explicitly focus on those services in the airport Servicescape, Fodness and Murray (2007) conclude that the look and feel of Food and Beverage concessions had an influence on perceived service quality through all three dimensions of their conceptual model.

Rowley and Slack (1999) examined the concepts of timelessness and spacelessness in the departure lounges of various airports globally. Whilst not explicitly clarified, it can be inferred from the context of their research that they dealt with airside departure lounges. Although they claim that many departure lounges offered similar facilities and similar ranges of goods, Rowley and Slack (1999) investigated those areas as environments where transit passengers are subject to a sense of disorientation in relation to time and place. Passengers in this setting no longer follow standard purchase decision processes but rather showed impulse purchasing behaviour, linked to "*a relative insignificance of price in this environment*" (Rowley & Slack, 1999, p. 374).

2.4.2 Post-consumption stage

Heung, Wong, and Qu (2002) investigated tourists' satisfaction and related post-purchase behaviour at restaurants in Hong Kong International Airport. Adopting a service quality perspective, Heung et al. (2002) explored tourists' perceptions, satisfaction, and likelihood of returning and making recommendations by applying a quantitative approach. Whilst Heung et al. (2002) only included tourists in their sample, they unfortunately did not disclose whether their study refers to airside or landside based restaurants or to both. As a result of their study, employee related attributes were found to be the most important contributors to overall satisfaction, likelihood of returning, and likelihood of making recommendations.

Perng, Chow, and Liao (2010) investigated air passengers' behaviour in relation to airport retail operations in the context of Taiwan's Taoyuan airport. Using a questionnaire-based quantitative approach, Perng et al. (2010) analysed shopping preferences and post-purchase customer satisfaction. Whilst enquiring about airside shopping behaviour and satisfaction, Perng et al. (2010) distributed and collected their questionnaires in the landside departure hall of the airport. Their findings include that consumption at food and beverage concessions was mostly "*without any intention, and may have been there to pass time before their flight departure*" (Perng et al., 2010, p. 282). Interestingly, passengers showed low levels of satisfaction with food and beverage concessions at Taoyuan airport. Even though they requested survey participants to have had a purchasing experience at the same airport within the past year, it cannot be guaranteed that this had indeed been the case for the survey participants. It may furthermore be questioned to what extent passengers have been able to recall details of a purchase experience if it may have been as long as a year prior to the survey date. The shortcomings resulting of the methodological choice by Perng et al. (2010) suggest that it would be beneficial to collect relevant data in situ, i.e. in the airside areas of an airport.

2.4.3 Airport Passenger Shopping and Dining Behaviour

The consumption of food and beverages does not only fulfil physiological needs, such as nutrition and the control of body functions. Besides the physiological dimension of *feeding* the human body, the consumption of foods and beverages serves cultural and social purposes as well (Anderson, 2014). Besides basic nutrition, eating and drinking can be a hedonistic and pleasurable experience (Delaney & McCarthy, 2014).

Giddens and Sutton (2013) define culture as "*the values, norms, habits and ways of life characteristic of a coherent social group.*" Choice of food and beverages is influenced by cultural and religious norms, resulting in ways of eating that then are considered to be good or bad (Delaney & McCarthy, 2014). Food items can have a symbolic dimension and the customs and traditions of consuming it are manifested in ritualistic behaviour that varies in different cultures (Hegarty & O'Mahony, 1999). Eating particular foods in certain instances can "*be transformed into a sacred experience*" (Delaney & McCarthy, 2014, p. 106). As Paddock (2011) elaborates, food consumption can mark particular occasions, both ordinary and extraordinary.

Such occasions can also be the transitions between work and leisure realm, as Nippert-Eng (1996) claims. According to boundary theory, consumption of food and beverages can facilitate transgressing from the work to the leisure realm (Nippert-Eng, 1996). Consumption then can become part of a liminoid experience. The concept of liminality emerged from ethnographic studies of rites of passage. Liminality then refers to a transitional phase between two structural states (Lugosi, 2007). In a liminal state, then, the participant is no longer in the initial status, but has not yet moved on to the next one.

The context in which consumption takes place has been shown to play a role by sociologists. As Mansvelt (2005) showed, “spectacular spaces” such as shopping malls, theme parks, or other enclosed venues can be disorienting or anxiety producing. Ritzer (1999) claimed that leisure and consumption experiences can be understood to replace inauthentic, alienating experiences in such spaces. Due to their enclosure and separation from other social spheres, airports can be seen to be such “spectacular spaces”. Due to being a place in-between origin and destination for passengers, they can also be understood to be liminoid places.

The role of food consumption in the airport airside setting can thus be understood not only to serve physiological needs, but also to have a cultural and sociological dimension facilitating air passengers’ transgressions between origin and destination.

2.4.4 Summary

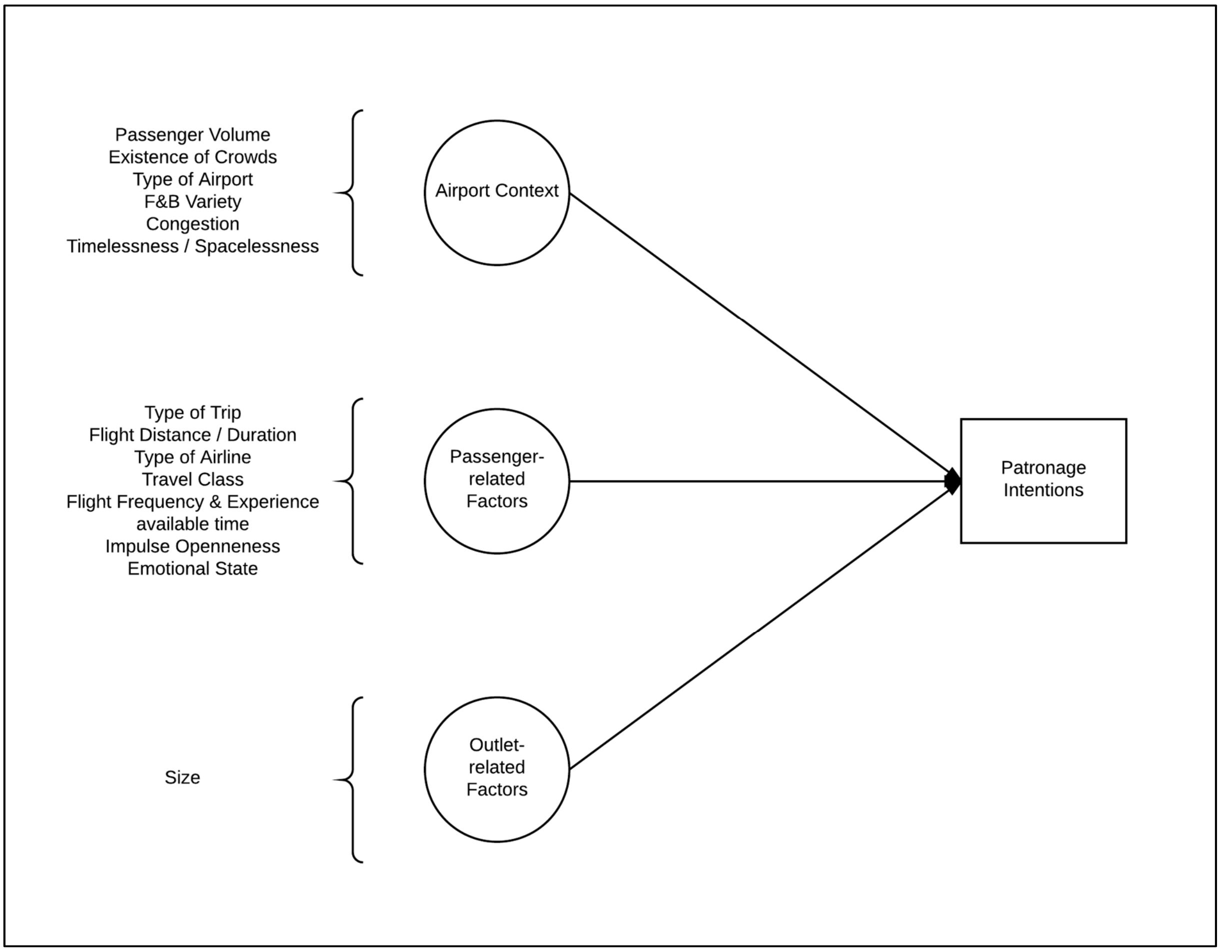
The airside airport setting, due to its specifics with regards to access and security measures, has an influence on passengers’ behaviour, as the review of literature has shown. Passengers may be subject to temporal and spatial disorientation (Rowley & Slack, 1999), and they may experience varying levels of travel-related stress, arousal and pleasure (Bowes, 2002; Crawford & Melewar, 2003; Omar & Kent, 2001). The airport servicescape as such has been found to stimulate impulse behaviour (Bork, 2007; Geuens et al., 2004; Omar, 2002; Vänniä, 2013). Since passengers usually have to wait in the airside areas, the airport environment can produce a disposition towards impulse behaviour (Crawford & Melewar, 2003). Although impulse shopping behaviour is often perceived as a negative personal trait, the low social visibility of the airport setting provides social anonymity which can facilitate impulse behaviour (Omar, 2002).

Stress has been conceptualized as an unpleasant state or experience that arises when individuals perceive that the demands of an event strain their ability to cope effectively (Kassin, Fein, & Markus, 2008). Zimbardo (1992) includes the organisms' response to those situations into the definition of stress.

Pleasure then describes a mental state that individuals perceive when experiencing something positive, or enjoyable (Zimbardo, 1992).

The following Figure 2 illustrates the conceptual framework emerging from the literature for airside airport food and beverage consumption behaviour.

Figure 2: Conceptual Framework for Airside Outlet Patronage Intentions



After having explored the context of airports and its specifics, it can be seen that factors influencing passengers in their outlet patronage intentions have not yet been addressed. The next chapter will thus deal with the review of consumer behaviour literature in the field of food and beverage, in order to evaluate the concepts and findings that have been developed in this field of research. Before moving on, the following Table 7 summarizes the literature reviewed in the context of airport commercial food and beverage operations. The table is first sorted by region and then by the methods applied.

Table 7: Summary of literature reviewed in relation to airport F&B operations

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Heung, V. C. S., Wong, M. Y., & Qu, H. (2002)	A Study of Tourists' Satisfaction and Post-Experience Behavioral Intentions in Relation to Airport Restaurant Services in the Hong Kong SAR	Hong Kong International Airport	Service Quality Survey	Employee-related attributes are found to be the most important contributors to overall satisfaction	Application of DINESERVE concept in the context of Hong Kong International Airport.	Post-consumption	Rational choice
Perng, S.-W., Chow, C.-C., & Liao, W.-C. (2010)	Analysis of shopping preference and satisfaction with airport retailing products	Taipei Taoyuan Airport, Taiwan	Quantitative analysis based on survey data	F&B consumption was mostly reported to be unintentional, to pass time.	Exploration of shopping preferences and satisfaction with passengers at Taoyuan Airport.	Post-consumption	Rational choice
Livingstone, A., Popovic, V., Kraal, B. J., & Kirk, P. J. (2012)	Understanding the airport passenger landside retail experience	Australia (two international Airports)	Video recorded observations of 40 passengers' airport experiences at two Australian international departure terminals	Development of a taxonomy of passenger activities.	Qualitative exploration of passenger landside experiences.	Consumption	Experiential

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Popovic, V., Kraal, B. J., & Kirk, P. J. (2009)	Passenger experience in an airport : an activity-centred approach	Brisbane International Airport, Australia	Passenger observations	Passenger activities can be differentiated between process activities and discretionary activities.	Qualitative exploration of passenger airport experiences	Consumption	Experiential
Bowes, B. D. (1999)	The effects of emotion and time to shop on shopping behaviour in an international airport terminal	Brisbane International Airport, Australia	Statistical analysis of data collected from passengers in one airport, combined with observations.	Passengers' state of pleasure decreases and levels of arousal increases as they are processed through security. Passengers that shopped showed higher levels of pleasure.	Exploration of the impact of passengers' pleasure and arousal levels in the security screening process.	Consumption	Behavioural influence
Geuens, M., Vantomme, D., & Brengman, M. (2004)	Developing a typology of airport shoppers	Brussels airport, Belgium	Statistical analysis of data collected from 236 Belgian passengers at Brussels airport	Mood shoppers are motivated by atmospheric and mood elements of airports as well as by boredom whilst waiting.	Development of an airport shopper typology.	Consumption	Rational choice
Del Chiappa, G., Martin, J. C., & Roman, C. (2016)	Service quality of airports' food and beverage retailers	Olbia, Italy	Survey	Age is a moderating factor in consumer satisfaction.	Investigation of airport F&B service quality specifically.	Consumption	Rational Choice

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Kalakou, S., & Moura, F. (2015)	passengers' activity choice in airport terminal before the security checkpoint	Lisbon, Portugal	Case study	Passengers travelling to international destinations not living at the departure city are more likely to engage in commercial activities.	Investigation of the extent to which passengers engage in commercial activities.	Consumption	Rational Choice
Castillo-Manzano, J. I. (2010)	Determinants of commercial revenues at airports	Spain	Bivariate probit analysis of data from >20'000 passengers in 7 Spanish airports	Commercial revenues are lower for low-cost passengers than for full-service carriers. Consumption at the airport increases with time spent at the airport. Frequent flyers are more likely to consume F&B at the airport. Transit passengers are less likely to consume F&B than O&D passengers.	Analysis of factors influencing passengers' decision to purchase at an airport or to consume food or beverages.	Consumption	Rational choice

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Castillo-Manzano, J. I., & López-Valpuesta, L. (2013)	Analysing passenger behaviour towards the catering industry: Implications for airport management	Spain	Bivariate probit analysis of data from 37'000 passengers in 8 Spanish airports	LCC passengers consume less than FSA passengers. Long-haul passengers are more likely to consume F&B at the airport. F&B consumption likeliness increases with waiting time.	Most detailed analysis yet of passenger behaviour towards the airport catering industry	Consumption	Rational choice
Torres, E., Domínguez, J. S., Valdés, L., & Aza, R. (2005)	Passenger waiting time in an airport and expenditure carried out in the commercial area	Spain	Statistical analyses of data from one Spanish airport	Consumption at the airport increases with time spent at the airport. Leisure travellers spend more time waiting at the airport than business travellers.	Development of a methodology to estimate the relationship between the expenditure in the commercial area of an airport and the passenger waiting time	Consumption	Rational choice

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Crawford, G., & Melewar, T. (2003)	The importance of impulse purchasing behaviour in the international airport environment	United Kingdom	Review of literature	The airport environment produces a disposition towards impulse buying behaviour. Passengers experience increased levels of stress. Once airside, stress decreases.	Review of impulse purchasing literature	Consumption	Behavioural influence
Omar, O. (2002)	Airport Retailing: Examining Airline Passengers' Impulsive Shopping Behaviour	United Kingdom	Statistical analysis of data collected from 252 passengers at London Heathrow airport	Impulse shopping in airport airside areas is more likely due to low social visibility in those areas.	Exploration of how passengers experience different airport retail environments at Heathrow.	Consumption	Behavioural influence

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Omar, O., & Kent, A. (2001)	International airport influences on impulsive shopping: trait and normative approach	United Kingdom	Statistical analysis of data collected from 252 airport users in London Gatwick airport	Passengers experience increased levels of stress and arousal. Once airside, stress decreases, and arousal remains Airport impulse shopping can be encouraged by both marketing and environmental stimuli.	Exploration of airport impulse shopping.	Consumption	Behavioural influence
Bezerra, G. C. L., & Gomes, C. F. (2016)	Measuring airport service quality	Sao Paulo Guarulhos Airport, Brazil	Survey	Availability of F&B at the airport is considered part of the convenience dimension.	Airport service quality conceptualized as a six-dimensional concept.	Consumption	Rational Choice
Fodness, D., & Murray, B. (2007)	Passengers' expectations of airport service quality	United States	Qualitative exploration of passenger experience, combined with quantitative test of the construct.	Dimensions of airport service quality include Function, Interaction, and Diversion.	Development of a service quality model for airports	Consumption	Experiential

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Rowley, J., & Slack, F. (1999)	The retail experience in airport departure lounges: reaching for timelessness and placelessness	9 different airports globally	Observation	In airport environments, passengers may experience disorientation in relation to time and place. This setting can stimulate impulse buying behaviour.	Exploration of the environment in terms of servicescape and ambience, as well as customer experience.	Consumption	Experiential
Vänniä, E. (2013)	Impulse Buying Behaviour of Young Males in an Airport Environment	Unclear	Focus group interviews with 12 participants	Once customers are accustomed to a specific airport, impulse buying behaviour seems to be reduced.	Qualitative exploration of airport impulse buying behaviour	Consumption	Behavioural influence

2.5 Review of Food and Beverage service related literature

2.5.1 Hedonic and utilitarian consumption

Extant literature on consumer behaviour typically differentiates between utilitarian and hedonic consumption. In consumer behaviour studies, the utilitarian motivation, according to Babin and Harris (2011), relates to the acquisition of products and services that can be used to accomplish things. In this perspective, the customers' perceived value can be considered as net utility, i.e. a product/service's utility minus the costs related to its purchase (Fliess, 2009). This net utility is also referred to as service value or consumer surplus. In the utilitarian dimension, value is derived from functions performed by products (Voss, Spangenberg, & Grohmann, 2003). Customer delight, in turn, can be understood as the result of exceeding the expected customer perceived service value (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011).

Hedonic motivation, on the other side, relates to experiencing emotionally satisfying effects. In the hedonic dimension, value results from the sensation derived from the experience of using products or services (Voss et al., 2003).

Utilitarian motivation is linked to lower levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1943), whereas hedonic motivation relates to higher levels, Babin and Harris (2011) claim. This relationship is extended for hospitality-related services by Lugosi (2008), who differentiates three forms of hospitality. At a basic level, referred to as *mundane transactions*, the offer of food and drink satisfies basic human needs; this relates to the utilitarian motivation. On a higher level, hospitality is directed at *social or political purposes*, thus linking with the hedonic motivations of consumption. Lugosi (2008) introduced a third level of hospitality, *meta-*

hospitality, which is existential and discontinuous. Transactions and interactions at that level are directed at an emotional experience.

Extant literature claims that, depending on context and purchase decision, hedonic or utilitarian motives prevail in consumption decisions (Babin & Harris, 2011; Kardes et al., 2010; Solomon, 2015).

Ryu, Han, and Jang (2010) examined the relationships among hedonic and utilitarian values, customer satisfaction and behavioural intentions in the fast-casual restaurant industry in the context of the United States. Through a quantitative questionnaire-based approach with a student sample, Ryu et al. (2010) found that utilitarian value showed a greater influence on customer satisfaction (and in turn on behavioural intentions) than hedonic value did. This is in line with the findings of Mason, Jones, Benefield, and Walton (2013) who found through a survey approach in the United States context that utilitarian values prevail in the context of quick service restaurants. It however needs to be noted that the homogenous structure of the sample collected by Ryu et al. (2010) (only students were involved on the survey) may have led to sampling bias and thus limit the generalizability of the results.

Mason et al. (2013) assessed consumer perceptions of quick service restaurants in the context of the United States. They found that *price*, *speed of service*, *location*, *quality of food* and *cleanliness* were the main critical factors of service quality for quick service restaurants, thus implying mainly utilitarian value in the fast food consumption of their sample. Whilst Mason et al. (2013) used a quantitative survey approach, they did not disclose of the theoretical framework that was underlying their study.

Nejati and Moghaddam (2013) examined the influence of hedonic and utilitarian values on customer satisfaction and behavioural intentions in the context of fast casual restaurants in Iran. They used a survey instrument to collect data from students who had experienced dining out in a fast casual establishment in the month prior to the data collection. Whilst data was analysed using structural equation modelling, the authors did not disclose their underlying theoretical concepts. Although both utilitarian and hedonic values influenced customer satisfaction, Nejati and Moghaddam (2013) found that utilitarian values had a stronger influence on behavioural intention than hedonic values did in the context of fast food restaurants. The results presented by Nejati and Moghaddam (2013) however have to be seen in the light of the homogenous student sample.

Fodor, József, Balázs, and Horváth (2012) developed a consumer typology for the institutional catering sector in the Hungarian context, based on personal value systems. Without detailing the methodology applied, nor disclosing their theoretical underpinning, Fodor et al. (2012) developed different consumer typologies, based on value systems and on consumer preferences. Hedonists, in their typology, are characterized by a "*short-lived self-remuneration value hierarchy and love of life approach*" (Fodor et al., 2012, p. 45). Whilst the approach to develop consumer typologies can be useful for further research in that context, Fodor et al. (2012) however fail to derive meaningful conclusions from their analyses.

2.5.2 Consumer behaviour in a food and beverage context

The study of consumer behaviour in a food and beverage context has shown to only cover a small part of the overall consumer behaviour literature. The literature that was identified through the process described in section 2.2.2 will now be reviewed and contextualized in order to develop the conceptual framework for the research (Jesson et al., 2011). This is achieved by locating literature in the three-stages model of services consumption and by reviewing the personal and contextual factors that influence consumer behaviour in the food and beverage context.

2.5.2.1 Pre-purchase stage

The majority of food and beverage related consumer behaviour literature in the pre-purchase stage takes on a rational choice perspective. Only one study could be identified taking on a behavioural influence perspective, no study taking on an experiential perspective in the pre-purchase stage could be located.

2.5.2.1.1 Rational choice perspective

The factors influencing consumers' restaurant patronage decisions that emerge from the literature can be classified into outlet-related and consumer-related (demographic) factors.

<u>Outlet-related factors influencing restaurant patronage</u>
Auty (1992), in her classical study, found that "*food type and food quality are the primary variables of restaurant choice*" (Auty, 1992, p. 324). Food quality has later on been identified to be an important factor in restaurant choice by a number of authors (Heung, 2002; Y.-S. Kim, Bergman, & Raab, 2010; Kivela et al., 1999b; Upadhyay, Kumar Singh, & Thomas, 2007). Once however an evoked set of alternatives has been created, intangible variables such as the style of restaurant, as well as its atmosphere become the deciding factors, Auty (1992) claims. This two-step decision making model has been based on her research which used the responses collected from 155 house to house interviews in Lancaster, UK. Using this approach, Auty (1992) first applied the concepts of expectancy disconfirmation theory in the foodservice sector (Johns & Pine, 2002). Expectancy theory posits that consumers will weigh various attributes differently (Kivela, Inbakaran, & Reece, 1999a; Kivela et al., 1999b). According to disconfirmation theory, customers develop feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction by comparing dining experiences with their expectations (Raab, Unger, & Unger, 2010).

The importance of a restaurant's atmosphere was investigated by Heung (2002). He found that *food quality*, *servers' attitude*, *value for money*, *atmosphere*, and *word-of-mouth* were the most important restaurant attributes that influenced consumers when selecting an American theme restaurant in the context of Hong Kong. This is in line with earlier findings of Kivela et al. (1999b) who found ambiance to be the most important attribute influencing restaurant choice in the context of Hong Kong.

It is interesting to note that atmosphere was not mentioned as an important factor when Upadhyay et al. (2007) examined restaurant patrons' decision making process in the context of India. This result is in contrast with the findings presented by Kivela et al. (1999b) and by Heung (2002). It needs to be noted that the study conducted by Upadhyay et al. (2007) did not differentiate between different types of restaurants. Through an exploratory approach, based on expectancy disconfirmation theory, Upadhyay et al. (2007) investigated the impact of demographic and of reason to visit variables on restaurant preferences. Through a self-administered questionnaire, participants were asked to rate selected attributes of a restaurant visit. It was found that the highest rated attribute when selecting a restaurant was the *quality of food*, followed by *safety*, *menu offering*, and *location*.

Expectancy-disconfirmation theory was also the basis for a study conducted by Cullen (2005). Using a self-administered questionnaire instrument, he investigated the selection process that consumers applied when choosing a restaurant to dine in Dublin, Ireland. Cullen's findings support the claims of "*utility theories that consumers buy bundles of attributes that simultaneously combined represent a certain level of service quality at a certain price*" (Cullen, 2005, p. 53). The key attributes that consumers used when selecting a restaurant were *quality of the food*, *type of food*, *location, cleanliness of the restaurant*, *atmosphere*, and *reputation of the restaurant*. Besides Cullen (2005), only Upadhyay et al. (2007) reported restaurant location to be an important factor influencing restaurant choice. The importance of food quality, cleanliness and atmosphere is supported by the majority of authors in the field. Cullen (2005) furthermore found that the relative importance of those attributes were subject to change based on consumer's age, prior experience, their mood, as well as the occasion involved. Cullen's findings support the suggestion by Johns and Howard (1998) that consumers have a 'mental checklist' of attributes based on their expectations of quality. For the context of southern Florida, Choi and Zhao (2010) found that a *variety of healthy meals* was an important factor when deciding where to eat out. This view is shared by Alonso, O'Neill, Liu, and O'Shea (2013) for the context of the south-eastern United States. In addition, Choi and Zhao (2010) found the *nutritional value* of the meal to be important for more than half of the respondents when dining out.

The importance of cleanliness as an attribute for restaurant selection has been mentioned by a number of authors (Aksoydan, 2007; Alonso et al., 2013; Cullen, 2005; Kivela, Inbakaran, & Reece, 2000). In contrast with the findings presented by other authors (Auty, 1992; Cullen, 2005; A. J. Knight, Worosz, & Todd, 2007), Aksoydan (2007) found *cleanliness* to be the most important factor when exploring the factors influencing university faculty staff in their choice of dining-out outlets. It needs however to be noted that the study only included faculty members of her own university in the sample, this may have biased the results. Aksoydan (2007) furthermore failed to disclose the theoretical underpinnings of her study.

The comfort of the restaurant facilities is a factor that emerged in a study conducted by Y.-S. Kim et al. (2010) in the context of the United Stated. Without revealing the theoretical basis of their study, they investigated the factors that impact dining choices of mature customers in Las Vegas. Through the application of factor analysis methods, they found that respondents valued *quality of food and service* as well as *comfortable restaurant facilities* most when taking patronage decisions. Despite carrying out and discussing a number of different analyses, Y.-S. Kim et al. (2010) failed to draw meaningful conclusions from their findings for theory and practice.

Using data from a telephone survey conducted with 1.014 respondents in the United States, A. J. Knight et al. (2007) studied consumer perceptions of food safety at restaurants in general compared with other food system actors such as farmers or retailers. Findings of their mainly descriptive study include that less than half of those respondents who ate at restaurants had thought about the safety of the foods that they were eating at a restaurant. A. J. Knight et al. (2007) furthermore found that the majority of respondents were of the opinion that restaurants were capable of ensuring that foods they serve are safe. "*Surprisingly, performance and capability of restaurants with regards to food safety were not significantly related to frequency of eating at restaurants*", A. J. Knight et al. (2007, p. 482) report. For the context of India, Upadhyay et al. (2007) found food safety to be the second-most important factor influencing patronage decisions.

Table 8 below summarizes the outlet-related factors that have emerged from the literature.

Table 8: Outlet-related Factors Influencing patronage

Factor	Author(s)
Atmosphere	Auty, S. (1992); Heung, V. C. S. (2002); Kivela, J., Inbakaran, R., & Reece, J. (1999b); Cullen, F. (2005)
Cleanliness	Cullen, F. (2005); Aksoydan, E. (2007); Alonso, A. D., O'Neill, M., Liu, Y., & O'Shea, M. (2013); Kivela, J., Inbakaran, R., & Reece, J. (2000)
Comfort of facilities	Kim, Y.-S., Bergman, C., & Raab, C. (2010)
Food nutritional value	Choi, J., & Zhao, J. (2010)
Food quality	Auty, S. (1992); Heung, V. C. S. (2002); Kim, Y.-S., Bergman, C., & Raab, C. (2010); Kivela, J., Inbakaran, R., & Reece, J. (1999b); Upadhyay, Y., Kumar Singh, S., & Thomas, G. (2007); Cullen, F. (2005); Kivela, J., Inbakaran, R., & Reece, J. (2000); Kim, Y.-S., Bergman, C., & Raab, C. (2010)
Food safety	Upadhyay, Y., Kumar Singh, S., & Thomas, G. (2007); Knight, A. J., Worosz, M. R., & Todd, E. C. D. (2007)
Food type	Auty, S. (1992); Cullen, F. (2005)
Food variety	Choi, J., & Zhao, J. (2010); Alonso, A. D., O'Neill, M., Liu, Y., & O'Shea, M. (2013)
Location	Upadhyay, Y., Kumar Singh, S., & Thomas, G. (2007); Cullen, F. (2005)
Menu offering	Upadhyay, Y., Kumar Singh, S., & Thomas, G. (2007)
Servers' attitude	Heung, V. C. S. (2002)
Value for money	Heung, V. C. S. (2002)
Word-of-mouth / reputation / brand	Heung, V. C. S. (2002); Cullen, F. (2005)

It is surprising to note that only two studies found word-of-mouth / reputation / brand as important factors influencing restaurant choice. Besides issues relating to the actual food (quality, variety, safety, type, and offering), factors pertaining to the restaurants' atmosphere (ambience, comfort, and cleanliness) emerge as relevant from the literature.

Consumer-related (demographic) factors influencing restaurant patronage

Using existing quantitative data from the 1994-1996 Continuing Survey of Food Intakes by Individuals (CSFII) and the Diet and Health Knowledge Survey (DHKS), E.-J. Kim and Geistfeld (2003) investigated factors influencing a household's food facility choice for an evening meal in the U.S. context. Basing their research on the assumptions of household theory and the concept of consumers' utility-maximization, E.-J. Kim and Geistfeld (2003) differentiated between full-service restaurants, quick-service restaurants, retail food establishments and other commercial food establishments that respondents chose from when eating out. The study identified the following factors to influence the choice in facility: High household incomes increased the likeliness of dining at a full-service restaurant, whereas households with low incomes were more likely to dine at quick-service restaurants. With increasing age, respondents were less likely to dine in retail establishments and more likely to eat at full-service restaurants, they found. The effect of age on patronage decisions has also been discussed by Cullen (2005). E.-J. Kim and Geistfeld (2003) further report that respondents that lived in rural areas were less likely to dine in full-service restaurants than those that lived in urban areas. Those respondents having a young child were more likely to eat at quick-service restaurants and less likely to eat at full-service restaurants.

The usefulness of the Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) for fast food patronage decisions in the cultural contexts of the United States, Italy, China and Japan was investigated by Bagozzi, Wong, Abe, and Bergami (2000). They found that, depending on the social setting (eating alone or with friends), and cultural orientation (independent vs. interdependent), results varied. The Theory of Reasoned Action posits that behaviour is influenced by intentions to act. Intentions to act, in turn, are determined by a person's attitude towards the act and by subjective norms. Bagozzi et al. (2000) extended the model to include past behaviour to influence intentions. They used a questionnaire-based approach with samples of undergraduate students in the four different countries and tested their model using structural equation modelling. Bagozzi et al. (2000) concluded that attitudes and subjective norms could well predict consumers' intentions to act.

One of the criticisms of the Theory of Reasoned Action is that intentions to act do not always lead to behaviour (Sheppard et al., 1988). Ajzen (1991) used the Theory of Reasoned Action as a basis when developing the Theory of Planned Behaviour. This theory is an extension which includes perceived behavioural control as a new component. As such, non-volitional behaviour has been included in the theoretical model.

The theory of planned behaviour was applied by Dunn, Mohr, Wilson, and Wittert (2011) in the context of determinants of fast-food consumption in Australia. They claim that, based on findings of their survey, the demand for food that is convenient, tasty and satisfying influences fast food consumption. S. Y. Jang, Chung, and Kim (2015) applied the theory of planned behaviour in the South Korean context when assessing the effects of environmentally friendly perceptions on customers' intentions to visit environmentally friendly restaurants. They found that customers' environmental consciousness had a significant effect on their intentions to visit an environmentally friendly restaurant.

Alonso et al. (2013) explored the factors influencing restaurant choice in the context of the south-eastern United States. For their mainly descriptive research, they used a quantitative approach collecting data from 277 visitors of College Sport events by means of a self-administered questionnaire instrument that was distributed on site during matches. Besides the *quality* and the *taste of the food provided*, Alonso et al. (2013) found *prior experience with a restaurant* to be the single most important factor in the choice of restaurants. This supports findings presented by Auty (1992). Other important factors found by Alonso et al. (2013) were *cleanliness of the establishment*, *friendliness of the service employees*, *timeliness of the service delivery*, as well as the *restaurant's reputation,* and *trust in the brand*. The availability of healthy food options only had a marginal effect on restaurant choices. The reputation of the restaurant as a factor influencing choice has also been identified by Cullen (2005). Such reputation can be built by positive word-of-mouth, as Heung (2002) claims or by the creation of service brands, as Alonso et al. (2013) state.

As a solution to overcome the impossibility to evaluate services prior to consumption, Edvardsson, Enquist, and Johnston (2005) suggested the concept of an "experience room", created in hyperreality, to allow consumers to experience simulations of the service experience in the pre-purchase phase. Similar to the pre-purchase experience to a test-drive of a car, Edvardsson et al. (2005) claim that such an experience could be simulated in the case of services, giving the consumer the possibility to evaluate the service experience before committing to it. The experience room, according to Edvardsson et al. (2005) consists of six dimensions: *physical artifacts*, *intangible artifacts*, *technology*, *customer placement*, *customer involvement* which then together create and contribute to the *hyperreal service experience*. The concept of the experience room is thus aimed at extending the Servicescape model proposed by Bitner (1992). Whilst the Servicescape model considers atmospherics as they are perceived by customers and influence approach or avoidance behaviour (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011), the concept of the experience room furthermore considers customer involvement and considers the overall service experience. To illustrate their concept, Edvardsson et al. (2005) applied it to the case of IKEA, claiming that printed catalogues, websites as well as the physical stores could be understood as experience rooms in which consumers could experience simulations of the actual service experience. Whilst the extension of the servicescape model through the addition of dimensions allowed the integration of the experience concept, it should be noted that the model proposed by Edvardsson et al. (2005) is based on the review of literature and not on empiric research; it is uncertain to what extent the experience room could be applied in the context of food and beverage concessions.

Table 9 below summarizes the consumer-related factors that emerged from the review of literature. It can be seen that only limited research has been conducted regarding consumer decision making in the pre-purchase stage and that most research is based on the rational choice paradigm. This re-illustrates the need for further research in the field of consumer decision-making in the context of food and beverage outlets.

Table 9: Consumer-related factors influencing F&B outlet patronage

Factor	Author(s)
Income	Kim, E.-J., & Geistfeld, L. V. (2003)
Age	Kim, E.-J., & Geistfeld, L. V. (2003); Cullen, F. (2005);
Type of residential area	Kim, E.-J., & Geistfeld, L. V. (2003);
Having children	Kim, E.-J., & Geistfeld, L. V. (2003);
Social setting	Bagozzi, R. P., Wong, N., Abe, S., & Bergami, M. (2000);
Cultural orientation	Bagozzi, R. P., Wong, N., Abe, S., & Bergami, M. (2000);
Prior experience with a restaurant	Alonso, A. D., O'Neill, M., Liu, Y., & O'Shea, M. (2013);
Environmental consciousness	Jang, S. Y., Chung, J. Y., & Kim, Y. G. (2015).
Demand for specific food attributes (i.e. food that is convenient, tasty and satisfying)	Dunn, K. I., Mohr, P., Wilson, C. J., & Wittert, G. A. (2011).

2.5.2.1.2 Behavioural influence perspective

Wang and Mattila (2015), through an experimental approach, investigated the impact of Servicescape dimensions on consumers' prepurchase authenticity perceptions and patronage intentions to ethnic restaurants. Through the investigation of the role of Servicescape elements in the provision of ethnic cues to patrons they found that perceived authenticity affects patronage intentions.

2.5.2.2 Purchase stage

In line with the discussion in section 2.3.3, the literature assessing consumer behaviour in the purchase has been classified by the three perspectives on consumer behaviour. Literature reviewed in this stage stems from all three perspectives.

2.5.2.2.1 Rational choice perspective

In their classical study, Parasuraman et al. (1988) developed the SERVQUAL instrument to measure generalised service attributes. The instrument includes 26 standardised questions that define five dimensions of service quality: *reliability*, *responsiveness*, *assurance*, *empathy* and *tangibles*. Service quality was then defined as the difference between customers' expectations and their perceptions of service performance. The SERVQUAL instrument has been the basis of a number of developments, such as DINESERVE for the foodservice sector (Stevens, Knutson, &

Patton, 1995) or SPORTSERVE in the context of professional sports (Theodorakis, Kambitsis, & Laios, 2001).

Consumers' expectations towards various institutional foods were examined by Cardello, Bell, and Kramer (1996), using a quantitative questionnaire approach. They found that consumers rated military food as poor in quality, despite never having consumed it. Consumers furthermore expected to like airline food less than equivalent dishes bought at a foodservice outlet, Cardello et al. (1996) report.

Attributes that influence consumer meal choice decisions were examined by Myung, McCool, and Feinstein (2008) within a fix price menu setting. A fix price menu is a set meal at a fixed price. In their research design, customers could choose between a limited range of alternatives for the individual courses (e.g. appetizer, entrée, and desert). Using the typology of consumer purchase behavior developed by Baumgartner (2002) as a basis, Myung et al. (2008) identified four important meal choice attributes: *healthy food*, *familiar food*, *variety seeking* and *value for the price*. Data was collected from 401 respondents in Las Vegas using a self-administered questionnaire in which the respondents were asked to rank four different fix price menus in the order of their preference. Overall, the model included choices of fixed price menus which were made up from a choice of two appetizers, four entrées and one desert. Most respondents included relatively expensive menu items in their fix price menus (i.e. choosing shrimp over salad as a starter), Myung et al. (2008) report. The next important attribute to influence the choice after value for the price was identified to be familiar food. The findings of the study however have to be seen in the light of the quantitative model with a very limited number of menu item choices. Furthermore, Myung et al. (2008) did not consider other factors (such as atmospheric, personal, or contextual) in their study.

2.5.2.2.2 Behavioural influence perspective

The evaluation of services takes place not only after, but also during the service provision. This is because the customer is often directly involved in the service provision (Engelhardt et al., 1992). This evaluation process is, again, influenced by the servicescape, as Hoffman and Turley (2002) state. The effect of the physical environment will be discussed in more detail in section 2.5.4.1 below.

2.5.2.2.3 Experiential perspective

Y. G. Kim, Eves, and Scarles (2009) applied a grounded theory approach when examining the factors that influence the consumption of local foods and beverages at tourism destinations. The model proposed by Y. G. Kim et al. (2009) considers food experience as part of tourism motivation and consists of three factor categories: *motivational factors*, *demographic factors* and *physiological factors*.

Morgan et al. (2008) examined the development of the theatrical metaphor in the extant services management literature in the context of food and beverage services provision. The metaphor was examined from two perspectives. One considered foodservice as a theatrical performance that takes place on a stage (i.e. the servicescape), in a second perspective the metaphor was applied in a deeper way in which the consumer is considered a participant in a show that is performed. As such, the service experience is co-created, Morgan et al. (2008) state. Whilst the comparison of service delivery with drama has been drawn by a number of authors (Fliess, 2009; Grönroos, 2001; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011), it was Bitner (1992) who introduced the concept of the servicespace as the physical environment which influences perceptions of the service, Morgan et al. (2008) report. From an experiential perspective, drama can become a source of strategic advantage for a Food and Beverage operator, they claim. The findings presented by Morgan et al.

(2008) are in line with the framework for the development of a dramatic script for service organisations presented by Harris, Harris, and Baron (2003).

Allen et al. (2008) investigated the effect of cultural symbols and human values on taste evaluation. They suggest that consumers assess the taste of foods and beverages by comparing the human values symbolized by the product with their own human value priorities. Such human value priorities are based on a cultural level, Allen et al. (2008) claim. Consumers then assess the congruency between their individual human values and the human values symbolized by the food or beverage in question. Following self-congruency theory, a perceived congruence between the two would lead to a more favourable taste evaluation, a positive attitude and greater re-purchase intention, they claim. Self-congruency theory belongs to cognitive-consistency theories that have in common the notion that people strive for consistency in their beliefs and behaviours since inconsistencies would cause unpleasantness and tension (Raab et al., 2010). Through a complex experiment set up, Allen et al. (2008) tested their proposition in both the food and the beverage category. Through multiple regression analyses they found that human value priorities and cultural symbols influenced both taste evaluation as well as attitude toward products. Allen et al. (2008) however did not measure consumers' expectation of taste; participants' evaluations of tastes may thus have also been based on a (dis-) confirmation of expectations.

As Lugosi (2008) claims, the experiential-focussed concept of meta-hospitality is tied to short-lived emotional bonds between customers and service employees that are built or experienced through hospitality transactions. In this sense, the experience component of a transaction can be seen as having its own purpose.

Using a grounded theory approach, Hansen, Jensen, and Gustafsson (2005) explored the factors that impact the development of consumers' meal experiences in restaurants. They developed a conceptual model which consists of the five main components *core product*, *restaurant interior*, *personal meeting*, *company*, and *restaurant atmosphere*.

Tian and Tian (2011) used an anthropological case study approach to investigate consumer behaviour in the context of an ethnic restaurant in the United States. Besides the utilitarian motives of satisfying hunger, visits to restaurants also serve social purposes. Tian and Tian (2011) introduced the differentiation between 'body food' and 'soul food', based on those different purposes, thus linking the meal experience to utilitarian and hedonic aspects of food consumption. The consumption of food can thus also be seen as a manifestation of cultural values. This view is shared by Su (2011) who found that components of ethnicity are also expressed in the manner that ethnic groups prepare and serve their food. Without revealing the theoretical basis for their study, Tian and Tian (2011) applied an ethnographic approach to collecting their data, including in-situ observations as well as interviews with customers, restaurant management and staff. They found evidence supporting that cultural backgrounds influenced both what people ate as well as the manner in which they ate, thus supporting the claims made by Su (2011). Customers rated the *friendliness of the service staff*, *quality of the food* and *pleasant atmosphere/environment* as the main factors they liked in this specific restaurant. Based on their findings, Tian and Tian (2011) concluded that customers initially patronized the restaurant for the reasonable prices but became regulars because of those factors they like. Only few respondents claimed to initially have visited the restaurant for the ethnic cultural experience, they report.

Su (2011) investigated the effect of service innovation on customer experience and behavioural intentions in ethnic restaurants in the Taiwanese context. Linking service innovations to the concept of the servicescape (Bitner, 1992), Su (2011) claims that the level of service innovation can be measured through customer perceptions of servicescape, service delivery and product combination. Through quantitative data analysis and structural equation modelling, Su (2011) found that service innovation had an influence on behavioural intention, both directly and through the moderating effects of customer experience. It needs however to be questioned whether Su (2011) did indeed measure the effect of service innovation or whether it was in fact the effect of the physical environment on customer experience and behavioural intentions that was assessed.

De Rezende and De Avelar (2012) conducted an exploratory study in the Brazilian context, assessing the factors that influence out-of-home consumption of food. Using a questionnaire-based quantitative approach, they found that variety-seeking was a common motivator for eating outside the home. Furthermore, convenience was mentioned as an important element in many occasions. The predominance of self-service and fast food represents a trend of increasing individualization and de-structuring of traditional meal forms in Brazil, De Rezende and De Avelar (2012) concluded. Following Maclaran (2009), this finding represents one of the characteristics of postmodernism; eating out becomes an experience of its own besides the function of food intake (Ashley, Hollows, Jones, & Taylor, 2004).

2.5.2.3 The post-consumption stage

The majority of food and beverage related consumer behaviour literature in the post-consumption stage takes on a rational choice perspective. Only two studies could be identified taking on an experiential perspective, no study taking on a behavioural influence perspective in the post-consumption stage could be located.

2.5.2.3.1 Rational choice perspective

For the food and beverage sector, Kivela et al. (2000) found that "*dining satisfaction appears to moderate the relationship between the dining experience and post-dining behavioural intentions*" (Kivela et al., 2000, p. 29). M. G. Kim, Lee, and

Mattila (2014) investigated the role of cultural values in complaint behaviour. Using an experimental set-up in the United States and in South Korea they found that there is an effect of cultural values on complaint behaviours. When there is no loyalty to a restaurant and when paying a high price, Asian customers are more likely to voice public complaints, M. G. Kim et al. (2014) found.

Behavioural intentions often serve as main dependant variables in services research. However, as Söderlund and Öhman (2005) claim, researchers often do not define the construct properly and "*often unknowingly lump different types of intentions together under the same heading*" (Söderlund & Öhman, 2005, p. 169). By distributing questionnaires to patrons in a restaurant setting and following up one month after the encounter, Söderlund and Öhman (2005) captured behavioural data that was analysed in connection with satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Behavioural intentions as they are dealt with in the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010) and the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) are referred to as *Intentions-as-Plans (IP)*. In addition to these Intentions-as-Plans, Söderlund and Öhman (2005) identified the constructs of *Intentions-as-Expectations (IE)* and *Intentions-as-Wants (IW)*. Whereas Intentions-as-Plans are propositions that individuals make about their future behaviour, Intentions-as-Expectations refer to the individual's assessment of the subjective probability that individuals will perform a particular behaviour in the future. Intentions-as-Wants refer to a construct in which the intention refers to a wish or a desired future end state that an individual may have. When linking the three different intention constructs to the individual's volition, Söderlund and Öhman (2005) claim that Intentions-as-Expectations are characterized by the lowest level of volition, whereas Intentions-as-Wants show a high degree of assessment volition. Intentions-as-Plans are located between the two, they argue. Findings suggest that Intentions-as-Expectations are better indicators of future behaviour than Intentions-as-Wants. Whilst Söderlund and Öhman (2005) extended the knowledge on behavioural intentions, their study only considered re-patronizing as behavioural intentions and did not consider other post-consumption behaviour, such as word-of-mouth or complaints.

Longart (2010) applied the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010) to explain the relationship between positive word of mouth and the decision to eat out in restaurants. "*In restaurant selection, the intention towards eating out in a particular place increases when positive recommendations are made, affecting referent beliefs*" (Longart, 2010, p. 122). Based on the analysis of data that was collected through a survey instrument in London (UK), Longart (2010) found that *food and drink* was the most significant factor contributor to the spreading of post-consumption word of mouth by restaurant customers. He also reports that ambiance/atmosphere (referred to as "the power of context") could be a factor triggering word of mouth; however fails to examine this relationship methodically.

In order to overcome the shortcomings of the utility-based expectancy-disconfirmation approaches to the evaluation of service experiences, Morgan et al. (2008) suggested the critical incident method (Bruhn, 2006) as an alternative approach to the understanding of customer satisfaction.

J. Chang, Khan, and Tsai (2012), without revealing the theoretical basis of their study, used the disconfirmation approach when assessing the relationship between service failures and customer complaint behaviour in a restaurant dining context in Taiwan. Using the critical incident method (Bruhn, 2006), J. Chang et al. (2012) investigated the moderating effect of the dining occasion on customer complaint behaviour. They found that not only the nature of the defect (e.g. product failure vs. service failure), but also the occasion for the restaurant patronage influenced the post-consumption behavioural intentions. According to J. Chang et al. (2012), situational factors (such as dining occasions) moderated complaint behaviours. This emphasizes the role of context (in this case represented by dining occasion) on post-consumption behavioural intentions.

2.5.2.3.2 Experiential perspective

Bowden (2009) challenged the customer satisfaction paradigm since, as she claims, it does not include other relational mediators such as involvement, calculative commitment, affective commitment, and trust. Through a phenomenological approach, the study sought to get a more detailed understanding of the nature of customer-brand relationships and how brand loyalty can be fostered in different stages of the consumption process. Findings suggest that new customers to a restaurant service brand tend to base their initial evaluations on functional benefits. Repeat customers that had repeatedly visited the restaurant, however, "*displayed a strong tendency to evaluate service performance based on the extent to which the service provider offered them with relational benefits (i.e. affiliation, personal recognition, rapport, empathy*)" (Bowden, 2009, p. 591). The service evaluation of repeat customers is thus based on an affective commitment whereas the service evaluation of new customers follows a calculative evaluation, Bowden (2009) concludes.

Bitran, Ferrer, and e Oliveira (2008) challenged the utility-based approach in claiming that when an experience takes place over time, it is not only of importance what happened in the encounter, but also when it happened over time. The evaluation of attributes of service encounters (which occur over time) thus rely on memory and not on re-evaluation, they claim. Consequently, "*customer satisfaction depends not only on what happens during a service encounter, but also on when it happens and how it is remembered*" (Bitran et al., 2008, p. 71). They suggested the evaluation of Gestalt characteristics of service encounters to be a more appropriate approach. Based on the review of literature, they identified three sets of Gestalt features on which customers focus when evaluating a service experience: (1) the rate at which the service encounter became more or less pleasant over time and the overall trend of the experience, (2) the intensity of pleasure (or discomfort) experienced at peaks and troughs and (3) the intensity of pleasure or discomfort experienced at the end of the service encounter. In that sense, (Bitran et al., 2008) extended the servicescape model (Bitner, 1992) from an experiential perspective by focusing on the temporal dimension of service encounters.

2.5.3 Personal factors influencing consumer behaviour

The factors influencing consumer behaviour in a food and beverage context can either be personal or contextual (Babin & Harris, 2011; Kardes et al., 2010; Solomon, 2015; Williams, 2012)

After reviewing literature dealing with personal factors and their influence on behaviour, literature dealing with the effect of the environment on behaviour is reviewed in section 2.5.4 below. Research on the effect of the environment on behaviour often applies a behavioural influence perspective, as will be shown below.

2.5.3.1 Effects of variety-seeking

Beldona, Moreo, and Mundhra (2010) investigated the role of involvement and variety-seeking in eating out behaviours in the Indian context. They developed a typology of eating out attitudes using the dimensions involvement and variety-seeking.

Variety-seeking can be understood as "*the tendency to seek diversity in purchase choice*" (I. Y.-H. Lin & Mattila, 2006, p. 6). Based on data collected in two restaurants in Bangalore, India, Beldona et al. (2010) measured involvement and variety-seeking tendencies in their sample, resulting in a 2 x 2 matrix classifying restaurant patrons by the dimensions of variety-seeking and involvement (which can both be either high or low). Despite proposing a useful matrix for restaurant consumer classification, Beldona et al. (2010) do not offer meaningful conclusions from their findings. They further did not state the theoretical underpinning of their research.

Using a survey methodology, Harrington, Ottenbacher, and Kendall (2011) examined restaurant choice selections in the fine dining sector in the south-western United States context. They found the following factors to be important for consumers when deciding where to dine out: *price/value*, *quality expectation,* as well as *variety/innovation* were the ranked with the highest importance.

Basing their study on optimal stimulation level theory, Ha and Jang (2013) investigated variety drivers in restaurant settings and examined their influence on guests' variety seeking intentions. Their conceptual model included perceived service quality, customer satisfaction, as well as boredom as drivers of variety seeking. The data was collected in the U.S. context by a self-administered online-questionnaire, and 617 responses were analysed quantitatively. Their findings show a significant negative correlation between perceived atmospherics quality and the intention to seek an alternative dining option. Furthermore, Ha and Jang (2013) found positive correlations between variety seeking and boredom with both the dining experience as well as atmospheric attributes. This does not support the claim by Clark and Wood (1999) that tangible factors have greater influence on loyalty than intangible ones. It needs however to be noted that the study was carried out online and required respondents to recall a dining experience which happened within the last three months.

2.5.3.2 Effects of involvement and shared responsibility in service exchanges

Involvement is seen as "*a person's perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values and interests*" (Zaichkowsky, 1985, p. 342, cited in Beldona et al. (2010)). This definition is in line with the view of Hightower, Brady, and Baker (2002, p. 701) for whom "*involvement describes the personal relevance of a product or service*.

The role of involvement has been researched by D. H. Lee (2003) in the context of vending machines in the United States. Surprisingly, D. H. Lee (2003) found relatively high levels of involvement for food and beverage vending machines in the data sample, compared to other products and services. The participants, all college students, considered "*vending machine services as very useful, beneficial, important, and as meaning a lot to them*" D. H. Lee (2003, p. 183) reports. Despite the study being mainly descriptive, D. H. Lee (2003) found that higher involvement with vending machine services led to more extreme (positive or negative) levels of satisfaction with the services provided. Since the author however suggests a systematic bias based on the respondent selection, the results may be questioned.

Hightower et al. (2002), in the context of spectator sports venues in the United States, found that in hedonic consumption situations, positive relationships between involvement and positive affect as well as between involvement and the perception of the servicescape could be found.

Although only few studies have used the concept of involvement, it can be linked to shared responsibility in the services context. Extant service management literature agrees that services have in common the inseparability of production and consumption (Bruhn & Georgi, 2006; Fliess, 2009; Grönroos, 2001; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011). This concept which describes that services are produced and consumed at the same time is also referred to as the uno-actu-principle (Haller, 2012; Ochel, 2002). Based on this inseparability of consumption and production of services, Sierra, Heiser, and McQuitty (2009) claim that employees and customers have a shared responsibility for successful service outcomes.

This claim is built on findings from earlier research by Sierra and McQuitty (2005) in the context of the United States, where the authors analysed data collected from students on different service exchange experiences. Sierra and McQuitty (2005) based their theoretical framework on the Affect Theory of Social Exchange (Lawler, 2001, 2006). The results of their initial study supported the predicted relationships between inseparability, shared responsibility, emotions and service loyalty.

Based on the results of their initial study, Sierra et al. (2009) refined their theoretical framework and included the Theory of Relational Cohesion (Lawler, 2006; Lawler, Thye, & Yoon, 2000) to investigate consumer perceptions of shared responsibility and the predicted emotional outcomes towards the service provider.

According to the Affect Theory of Social Exchange (Lawler, 2006), "*social exchange produces a primary emotional response, and this emotional response in turn generates further responses, cognitive and emotional*" (Lawler, 2006, p. 245). Following the Theory of Relational Cohesion (Lawler et al., 2000), those positive emotions result in relational cohesion which, amongst others, promote behaviours such as staying in the relationship despite having alternatives. This behaviour is referred to as loyalty in the services management context (Sierra et al., 2009).

Following these two constructs, Sierra et al. (2009) theorized that positive emotions lead to increased loyalty towards the service provider and, in turn, result in higher willingness to pay for the service received. Analysing data that was collected in a full-service restaurant in the United States through a structural equation model, Sierra et al. (2009) found empirical support for direct and indirect (through emotional response and loyalty) effects of the perception of shared responsibility on the willingness to pay a price premium.

It has to be noted, however, that the results presented by Sierra et al. (2009) are based on data collected in one restaurant in the United States. It also needs to be considered that perceptions of shared responsibility in the restaurant context may well vary depending on the context, type of restaurant, and on the nature of the occasion.

2.5.3.3 The role of loyalty in the restaurant selection process

In an attempt to explore the importance of customer satisfaction for businesses, Pettijohn, Pettijohn, and Luke (1997) measured customer satisfaction in the context of fast food restaurants and found a relationship between customer satisfaction and repurchase intentions: satisfied customers showed significantly higher intentions of returning. The positive relationship between customer satisfaction and loyalty is not surprising and has subsequently been accepted by a number of authors (Bruhn, 2006; Bruhn & Georgi, 2006; Fliess, 2009; Grönroos, 2001; Ladhari, Brun, & Morales, 2008; I. Y. Lin & Mattila, 2010; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2003).

Using a quantitative approach, Garretson and Clow (1998) investigated the effects of promotional coupons in the context of fast-food restaurants and found that the use of coupons increased repurchase intentions while, at the same time, reducing perceived risk on the consumers' side. However, the use of promotional coupons has adverse effects on service quality expectations, they found. The higher the face value of the coupon, the lower the customers' service quality expectations, Garretson and Clow (1998) report.

Clark and Wood (1999) explored issues of customer loyalty in the restaurant industry through self-administered questionnaires with a relatively small sample of 31 respondents in the United Kingdom. Based on their findings, Clark and Wood (1999) suggest that *quality* and *type of food* were key determinants in customer loyalty. Surprisingly, they found that tangible rather than intangible factors were of greater influence on consumer loyalty.

Kivela et al. (2000) applied a quantitative approach to study customers' dining satisfaction perceptions and re-purchase intentions in the context of themed and atmosphere restaurants in Hong Kong. Based on their analysis, Kivela et al. (2000)

concluded that dining satisfaction is a construct consisting of the following five dimensions: *first and last impressions*, *service excellence*, *ambience excellence*, *food excellence* as well as *reservations and parking* . They furthermore found that dining satisfaction moderated the relationship between the dining experience and post-dining behavioural intentions (i.e. customer loyalty), thus supporting the claim made by Pettijohn et al. (1997).

Customer Satisfaction was, amongst *Service Quality* and *Affective Commitment,* one factor to influence customer loyalty in a model elaborated by Lai (2015) through a survey methodology in the context of quick service restaurants in Hong Kong.

Applying focus group interviews followed by a survey, D. Jang and Mattila (2005) investigated customer preferences towards loyalty reward programs for fast food and casual dining restaurants in the United States. They found that the majority of customers preferred immediate and monetary gratification, as opposed to points-based loyalty schemes. Customers of casual dining restaurants however also showed an interest in entertainment-type benefits, D. Jang and Mattila (2005) report.

Hyun (2010) examined the connections between relationship quality and loyalty in the United States chain restaurant industry. Relationship quality refers to a relational bond that companies aim to have with their customers (Grönroos, 2001), it indicates a long term marketing success and leads to customer loyalty (Hyun, 2010). Using a self-administered questionnaire approach, Hyun (2010) analysed data collected from 208 usable responses to test his proposed model of satisfaction, trust and loyalty. Hyun (2010) identified five dimensions that influence restaurant patrons' behaviour: *food quality*, *service quality*, *price*, *location,* and *environment*. A positive relationship could be found between all five dimensions and satisfaction. Satisfaction in turn – both directly and through an indirect relationship moderated by trust – led to loyalty, Hyun (2010) claims. Trust, however, was only influenced by the service quality dimension. Service quality showed to have the strongest influence of all five dimensions. Since all respondents of the study were recruited from one university in the United States, the limited generalizability of the findings needs to be noted.

Using a web-based survey design, Namkung and Jang (2010b) explored the impact of service failure at different stages of the service process in different restaurant types in the United States context. They found that, for fine dining restaurants, the order stage of the service process had the most critical influence on whether customers return or not. For casual dining environments, a service failure in the meal consumption stage of the process had the most impact on consumers' repatronage intentions.

2.5.4 Contextual factors influencing consumer behaviour

After discussing personal factors influencing consumer behaviour, literature regarding the influence of contextual factors is now reviewed.

Andersson and Mossberg (2004) applied an exploratory approach when analysing dining as a multidimensional experience. They based their investigation on the concept of optimal level of arousal. This concept posits that consumers' well-being is influenced by the level of arousal experienced. The level of arousal, in turn, is influenced by external stimuli. The optimal level of arousal "*is individual and so is the need for seeking and avoiding stimulation*" (Andersson & Mossberg, 2004, p. 171). They used willingness to pay as measure for the relative importance of six restaurant factors: *food*, *service*, *fine cuisine*, *restaurant interior*, *good company*, and *other customers*. Food was considered as a must factor. The other five dimensions were classified as satisfiers which, depending on the level of stimulation and arousal achieved, lead to satisfaction or even delight. Andersson and Mossberg (2004) used this model as the basis for their interviews with 310 customers in the

Swedish context. Based on the willingness to pay on a hypothetical restaurant visit and on the evaluation of an actual restaurant visit, they derived the actual and ideal value of the different aspects of the restaurant experience. It is interesting to note that customers were willing to pay more for the presence of other customers, for a nice interior as well as for quality service. When using the willingness to pay as measure for the importance of different features, Andersson and Mossberg (2004) however failed to consider that different consumers may value other aspects differently and thus may have a difference in willingness to pay which is not linked to the factor in question.

2.5.4.1 The effect of the physical environment

The effect of the physical environment (also referred to as atmospherics or servicescape) in the services management context has been investigated by a number of authors (Hoffman & Turley, 2002).

As Sharma and Stafford (2000) point out, consumer behaviour and marketing service literature most often uses the term *ambiance* when referring to store atmospherics. According to Lovelock and Wirtz (2011), this refers to the environmental conditions that can be perceived using the human senses. In the food and beverage context, the influence of ambiance has to be seen in opposition to internal stimuli such as hunger, physiologic states and psychological thoughts or moods, as Stroebele and De Castro (2004) note.

The stimulus-response model posits that atmospheric stimuli influence three basic emotional states: *pleasure - displeasure*; *arousal – non-arousal*, and *dominance – submissiveness.* This change in emotional state then influences behaviour (Fliess, 2009; Hoffman & Turley, 2002; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Reimer and Kuehn (2005) claim that the influence of the servicescape on behaviour is greater in hedonic than in utilitarian consumption situations.

The relationship between ambiance and behaviour was addressed by Cavelzani and Esposito (2010). They explained the impact of ambiance through a model in which environmental factors influence consumers' emotions. The combination of the physical elements of an environment (ambiance) and an individual's subjective perceptions (internal stimuli) could then generate positive (or negative) feelings and influence individuals to approach or to avoid a certain environment. According to Cavelzani and Esposito (2010), consumers' emotions can be influenced by the following environmental (or ambient) factors: built environment, colours, lighting, materials, ratios between space and objects, texture, noise, scents, tactile information, crowdedness, practical aspects of the objects, view, coherence of the environment and complexity of the venue. Stroebele and De Castro (2004) classified these factors into *social variables* (e.g. the presence and behaviour of other people) and *physical surroundings* (e.g. location, colours, light, temperature, smell, sound, distraction).

The effect of various atmospheric elements on overall guest perceptions and impressions of a hotel lobby was examined by Countryman and Jang (2006). Applying structural equation modelling, they found that *color*, *lighting*, and *style* were most significantly related to the impression of a hotel lobby.

Using 159 participants in the United States context, Wansink and Sobal (2007) investigated how people estimated the number of food-related decisions they took every day. They found that people significantly underestimated the amount of food-related decisions they took. "*People made an average of 59 decisions related to what foods they would eat, which was much higher than the 14.4 they initially estimated*" (Wansink & Sobal, 2007, p. 112). Based on the finding that most food-related decisions were taken unconsciously, Wansink and Sobal (2007) concluded that people could be unknowingly influenced by environmental cues. Where the services management literature has introduced the concept of the Servicescape and its influence on consumers (Fliess, 2009; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011), Wansink and Sobal (2007) differentiate the environment into two parts: the eating environment (that refers to ambient factors) and the food environment (that relates directly to the way food is provided or presented).

In another article, Sobal and Wansink (2007) analysed the food environment further. Whilst relating to food intake in the household setting, they differentiated between kitchenscape, tablescape, platescape and foodscape and discussed how these aspects of the food environment influence the type and the amount of food that is consumed. As Sobal and Wansink (2007) claim, "*built environments influence decisions about the types and amounts of foods selected and eaten*…" (Sobal & Wansink, 2007, p. 125), a statement that can also be applied to the commercial food and beverage sector. Their finding that the proximity and visibility of foods to an individual within a kitchenscape positively influences food intake is also applied within commercial food and beverage settings.

Heide and Grønhaug (2006), in a practitioner-oriented paper, reviewed and discussed the implications of the atmosphere for the management of hospitality operations. They based their paper mainly on the servicescape concept developed by Bitner (1992), and also included social factors as suggested by Baker (1986). Heide and Grønhaug (2006) then developed a conceptual model which to a large degree resembles the stimulus-response model proposed by Mehrabian and Russell (1974).

The effect of atmospherics on consumer behaviour has been widely studied in retail environments, but little attention has been given to the restaurant industry, Liu and Jang (2009) claim. Aiming to close that gap, they applied an extended Mehrabian-Russel model in the restaurant context in order to examine the relationships between atmospherics, emotional responses, perceived value, and behavioural intentions. Extending the initial Mehrabian-Russel model by the dimension of perceived value, Liu and Jang (2009) found that perceived value mediated the relationship between emotional responses and behavioural intentions.

Ryu and Jang (2008b) explored the influence of the physical environment on emotion and behavioural intention. Especially in hedonic consumption situations, customer reactions to the physical environment were more related to emotional than to cognitive evaluation, they claim. This view is supported by Su (2011). Following the Mehrabian-Russel model (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974), the degrees of experienced pleasure and excitement in a hedonic service encounter have an influence on satisfaction and post-encounter intentional behaviours, they claim. Ryu and Jang (2008b) used a modified version of the Mehrabian-Russel model to assess the effect of the physical environment on emotions and behavioural intentions in the context of upmarket restaurants in the United States. Customers' perceptions of the physical environment were assessed using the DINESCAPE scale (Ryu & Jang, 2008a), a scale which covers the internal dining environment of restaurants, but not the external environments or non-dining environments (such as for example restrooms). Through structural equation modelling, Ryu and Jang (2008b) analysed customers' perceptions of dining environments, emotional states, and behavioural intentions. They found that certain attributes were more important than others when influencing the perception of the physical environment. The dimension of *facility aesthetics* (such as furniture, décor, and colour) showed to influence both pleasure and arousal. *Ambience* (such as music and aroma) was one of the most important factors influencing pleasure. The factor *employees* showed to directly influence the arousal dimension.

Kincaid, Baloglu, Zhenxing, and Busser (2010) investigated the relationship between tangible quality, affective quality and customer re-patronage intentions. They applied the TANGSERV scale, a measure that has been developed "*for determining customer perceptions of tangible quality for restaurants*" (Kincaid et al., 2010, p. 211). Using the three servicescape dimensions *ambient conditions*; *spatial layout & functionality* and *signs, symbols & artefacts* as proposed by Bitner (1992), they built on the conceptual model that the servicescape affects customer satisfaction and re-patronage intentions in a restaurant setting. Kincaid et al. (2010) used data from a student sample in the Turkish context collected through a questionnaire approach. They found that affect mediated the relationship between tangible quality and re-patronage intentions. Tangible quality thus, according to Kincaid et al. (2010), influences feelings towards the restaurant which, in turn, influence re-patronage intentions. This indirect relationship has been found to be stronger than then direct relationship between tangible quality and post-consumption re-patronage intentions. Tangible quality was most influenced by the underlying dimensions *food and service*, *staff,* and *accessibility*. The results presented by Kincaid et al. (2010) however have to be seen in the light of the homogenous student sample that was used for their study.

The effect of the physical environment has also been explored by Edvardsson et al. (2005) in another extension of the servicescape model. Applying an experiential perspective, Edvardsson et al. (2005) introduced the experience room as a place where a (albeit in their approach simulated) service experience takes place. The experience room is made up of the following six dimensions: *physical artifacts*, *intangible artifacts*, *technology*, *customer placement*, *customer involvement,* which then create and contribute to the *hyperreal service experience*.

Edwards and Gustafsson (2008) proposed the term "*the room*" for the physical environment in which the consumption of food takes place. Based on a review of literature they classified aspects and features within that room into three categories: *interior variables*, *layout and design variables* and *human variables*.

Kraft and Benet (2010) assessed the influence of tobacco smoke on consumer responses in service settings. Due to ethical constraints, they did not expose their participants to actual tobacco smoke but rather used a scenario-based study design using graphic representations of the situations in question. They based their conceptual model on the servicescape model (Bitner, 1992), considering environmental tobacco smoke as a component of both the physical and the ambient environment. Kraft and Benet (2010) used different scenarios (*smoke or* *smoking present or not* and *fine dining restaurant or informal setting*) with both smokers and non-smokers. Both smokers and non-smokers rated smoking facilities lower than non-smoking facilities.

The effect of aroma was studied in an experimental setup in the context of a restaurant in France by Guéguen and Petr (2006). They found that patrons stayed longer in the restaurant and had a higher average spend when lavender aroma was diffused in the restaurant. Lemon aroma and a control scenario with no artificial scent did not lead to the same effect. Without revealing a theoretical framework, Guéguen and Petr (2006), in their mainly descriptive paper, suggest that lavender may have a relaxing effect on patrons which then results in an increase of length of stay and average spend.

Applying an adapted version of the Mehrabian-Russell-model, Ward, Davies, and Kooijman (2007) investigated the effect of scent on consumer behaviour in retail environments. Using a multi-method experimental approach, Ward et al. (2007) found significant differences in consumers' perceptions of the store attributes, despite the fact that less than 10% of the respondents were aware of the artificial aromas. Interestingly, respondents perceived relaxing aromas to be inappropriate, Ward et al. (2007) report. This is in contrast with the suggestion that relaxing scents increased dwell times that has been brought forward by Guéguen and Petr (2006).

Alonso and O'Neill (2010b) applied an exploratory approach when investigating the effect of kitchen design on consumers' eating out experience. Without revealing their theoretical basis, they posit that the kitchen design of a restaurant influences the dining experience that customers have. Using a questionnaire-based quantitative approach in the context of the United States, Alonso and O'Neill (2010b) investigated customers' perceptions on open kitchen design (i.e. a form of design in which patrons can see the kitchen staff at work from the guest area). They found that consumers felt that the kitchen staff appearance was neater, the kitchen was cleaner and that food was prepared with more care in open kitchens.

Participants however also found that the levels of food safety were lowest in open kitchens.

Parsa, Gregory, Self, and Dutta (2012) used a scenario-based experimental approach to assess the influence of three different factors on consumers when deciding which restaurant to visit: *food quality*, *service quality* and *overall restaurant environment*. They used a 2 x 2 x 3 experiment set-up with two types of restaurants (full-service vs. quick service), two levels of performance (high and low) and three attributes (food quality, service, and ambience). Parsa et al. (2012) found that consumers placed different importance on each attribute and that the level of importance varied with the type of restaurant. Their findings further suggest that food quality was more important than service or ambience in upscale restaurants, whereas speed of service was more important in quick service restaurants. It needs to be noted that, based on the experimental design of the study, participants reported conjectured, and not real willingness to pay and intentions to visit. Since the scenario method used to describe the two different restaurants did not specify in detail what the *overall restaurant ambience* contains, it is questionable whether valid conclusions about the importance of ambience can be drawn from the study.

Brüggen, Foubert, and Gremler (2011) investigated the short- and long-term effects of a remodelled servicescape. They used survey data collected in the context of the remodelling of an existing branded fast-food outlet to assess cognitive, affective and behavioural intention responses to the remodelled servicescape on consumers. Data was analysed using a structural equation modelling approach. Store re-modelling had a short-term impact on cognitive and behavioural measures, but not on affective measures, they found. Adaptation level theory (Helson, 1964) posits that past experiences shape the adaptation level which, in turn, shapes perceptions and evaluations of situations. In line with adaptation-level theory, Brüggen et al. (2011) furthermore showed that short-term remodelling effects wore off over time. Due to the nature of their experimental setting, Brüggen et al. (2011) could not investigate whether effects would differ for customers following utilitarian or hedonic motives in their consumption behaviour.

Da-Costa, Zouein, Rodrigues, Arruda, and Vieira (2012) applied the Mehrabian-Russel model in the context of Brazilian fine dining restaurants. Da-Costa et al. (2012), in their merely descriptive paper, claim to find that the physical environment does have an influence on the consumers. However, they do not discuss the theoretical basis of their study nor disclose details about their data collection approach. They furthermore fail to analyse how sensory perceptions of the physical environment influence consumer behaviour, despite making claims about such influences.

Effects of authenticity assessments in the context of ethnic dining have been investigated by Wang and Mattila (2015) through an experimental set-up in the United States. Using ethnic cues as representatives of a restaurant's servicescape as variables, they found that the ethnic association of servicescape elements increases perceived authenticity of ethnic dining.

2.5.4.2 The effect of cues on behaviour

The atmosphere (or servicescape) is perceived through a combination of visual, aural, tactile and olfactory cues (Babin & Harris, 2011). As Ezeh and Harris (2007, p. 61) state, "*the physical environment is rich in cues which are commonly assessed by customers before and after purchase, to enable them reach a judgement on the provider's capabilities and quality*". This claim is in line with the findings of Hoffman and Turley (2002) who state that atmospheric variables can help reduce perceived risk.

S. Jang and Namkung (2009) propose an extension of the Mehrabian-Russel stimulus-response model (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974) for restaurants by incorporating restaurant-specific stimuli. The original model, featuring atmospheric stimuli, is extended by product and service stimuli. Using a structural equation methodology, S. Jang and Namkung (2009) showed the relationships between product quality and service quality stimuli, emotions and behavioural intentions.

Ha and Jang (2012) investigated how the perception of atmospherics in an ethnic Korean restaurant setting influenced perceptions of service and food quality. They further explored to what extent those perceptions of quality mediated the relationship between perceptions of atmospherics and behavioural intentions. Their study was based on cue utilization theory (Olson & Jacoby, 1972, cited in Ha and Jang (2012)) which posits "*that products or services consist of intrinsic and extrinsic cues that serve as surrogate indicators of their quality*" (Ha & Jang, 2012, p. 206). This view is shared by Wall and Berry (2007) as well as by Reimer and Kuehn (2005) for the restaurant context. Ha and Jang (2012) used structural equation modelling to analyse data collected through a web-based self-administered questionnaire in the context of the United States. The perception of restaurant atmospherics positively influenced perceived service quality and food quality, which in turn positively influenced behavioural intentions, Ha and Jang (2012) found. It needs to be noted that due to the web-based survey tool employed, the responses given by the participants relied on their memory to respond to the survey questions.

Roest and Rindfleisch (2010) studied the influence of quality cues and typicality on restaurant purchase selection in the context of the Netherlands. Whilst extant literature focuses on how cues serve as signals of product quality, Roest and Rindfleisch (2010) suggest that "*cues signalling category typicality may (also) inform the consumer about the usual performance on quality attributes of prototypical members of the product category*" (Roest & Rindfleisch, 2010, p. 10). Using a conjoint scenario approach in a restaurant context, Roest and Rindfleisch (2010) found that certain cues can indicate both perceived quality as well as category typicality. While a cue can signal both typicality and quality, the specific reference of the quality inference however seems to vary from cue to cue, they found. This finding is in contrast with the concept of mental accounting, a concept which states that consumers mentally add up an offering's quality references in order to evaluate its attractiveness (Fliess, 2009; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011).

Pedraja and Yagüe (2001) examined the information search process that customers applied when choosing a restaurant in the Spanish context. Customers with no existing experience with a specific restaurant require external information, which can be obtained actively or passively. The passive level relates to being open for e.g. a restaurant's advertising activities, generally related to as the restaurant's signalling activities. The active level would relate to an active initiative on the consumer's side, also related to as screening activities (Fliess, 2009). Using a survey instrument, Pedraja and Yagüe (2001) investigated the search activities that restaurant patrons engaged in when selecting a restaurant. They found that price and prior level of knowledge were the main determinants of the amount of effort that customers invested in their search for information.

Gregory and Kim (2005) investigated how consumers' choice of restaurant differed depending on whether information about a restaurant was available or not. Using a self-administered questionnaire with a convenience sample of 136 responses, collected in two shopping malls in the United States, they found that food quality was considered more important by patrons who had information about a restaurant than by those who didn't. Those respondents who did not have information however rated location as more important than those who did. Independent of the ex-ante availability of information about a restaurant, the four most important factors in restaurant choice were *food quality*, *food type*, *value for money*, and *atmosphere*. Based on the findings of Gregory and Kim (2005), the existence of prior (ex-ante) information about a specific F&B outlet and its effect on the importance of food quality and location may influence behaviour of passengers in the airport setting.

Batra (2008) examined the relationship between tourists' motivation and information sources when selecting ethnic restaurants in Bangkok, Thailand. Using a quantitative survey approach, Batra (2008) analysed data from 400 respondents in Bangkok and found that discovery, advertisement in newspapers, magazines or food guides, display of menus and culture cues in the décor and atmosphere were the "*most important factors influencing foreign tourists' perception leading to choosing to eat at an ethnic restaurant in Bangkok*" (Batra, 2008, p. 1). The most important motivational factor for tourists to visit an ethnic restaurant was discovery, he found. When investigating the sources of information, Batra (2008) unfortunately only included printed and electronic sources. Word-of-mouth, whether obtained from hotel employees, tour guides or friends and family was not considered. Furthermore, Batra (2008) did not disclose where the foreign tourists that took part in the study came from.

Choi and Zhao (2010), in the context of south Florida, found that recommendations from friends and family were the most common source of information when selecting a restaurant, with more than 65% of the respondents mentioning this as their main information source.

Harrington et al. (2013) investigated how different sources of information influenced consumers making Michelin-star restaurant selections in Germany. Using a self-administered questionnaire, Harrington et al. (2013) gathered data from 350 respondents in Germany that claimed to have previously dined at Michelin-starred restaurants. Based on their analysis, Harrington et al. (2013) claim that *word of mouth* and *external ratings* were the main sources of information used for making Michelin-starred restaurant patronage decisions.

As H.-B. Kim and Kim (2005) claim, "*in the hospitality industry, customers often base their purchase decisions on their perception on a company's brand*" (H.-B. Kim & Kim, 2005, p. 550). Based on that conjecture, they investigated the relationship between brand equity and firms' performance in the context of chain restaurants in

Korea. Using a self-administered questionnaire approach, H.-B. Kim and Kim (2005) collected data from 394 respondents in a shopping mall in Seoul, Korea. Modelling brand equity as a construct of the dimensions brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality and brand image, H.-B. Kim and Kim (2005) came to the following findings through their quantitative data analysis: Of the four dimensions of brand equity, brand image was found to be the most important dimension in the case of chain restaurants. When correlating brand equity and firms' performance (measured by sales per unit in the case of chain restaurants), H.-B. Kim and Kim (2005) identified brand awareness and perceived quality as significant dimensions for performance. It needs to be questioned, however, whether the sales per unit alone is an adequate means to measure performance of chain restaurants.

Jalilvand, Pool, Nasrolahi Vosta, and Kazemi (2016) developed and tested an integrated model by incorporating the antecedents and consequences of brand preference in the context of the Iranian restaurant industry. The authors claim two major findings: First, brand personality and brand equity are found to be the main antecedents of brand preference. Second, the construct of brand preference is positively associated with word of mouth behaviour.

2.5.4.3 The role of other consumers

R. J. Fisher, Grégoire, and Murray (2011) explored the effect of power on satisfaction with joint consumption decisions in dyads in the context of restaurant patronage decisions. Having the power to individually take that patronage decision was only satisfying if consumers had a competitive orientation or if the relationship in the dyad was not of importance, R. J. Fisher et al. (2011) found. They explain that consumers usually tend to have a cooperative orientation and since the dining pleasure of the person taking the decision may be reduced if the second person does not like the restaurant they visit together. Using different experiment set-ups with student participants, R. J. Fisher et al. (2011) found that only when participants had both a competitive orientation and a weak relationship, power had a significant effect on decision satisfaction.

Tse, Sin, and Yim (2002) investigated the effects of crowdedness of a restaurant on consumers. Using a convenience sample of 300 participants in Hong Kong, Tse et al. (2002) found that customers associated high levels of crowdedness with high food quality, good reputation and low prices. On the contrary, customers associated low levels of crowdedness with low food quality, high prices and poor reputation. Tse et al. (2002) explain this effect with attribution theory (Myers, 2012; Raab et al., 2010), claiming that customers attributed the situation to various causes in order to gain a higher level of control over the situation. This is in line with claims that cues help reduce perceived risk (Ezeh & Harris, 2007; Hoffman & Turley, 2002).

N. Kim and Lee (2012) explored how the mere presence of other customers in a restaurant setting influenced customers' evaluations of restaurant services. In contrast to the dimensions of servicescape perception presented by Bitner (1992), who did not include social factors, N. Kim and Lee (2012) followed the view of Baker (1986) who proposed the following servicescape factors: *ambient factors*, *design factors* and *social factors*. The inclusion of *social factors* in the servicescape concept is supported by a number of authors (Ezeh & Harris, 2007; Heide & Grønhaug, 2006; Hightower, 2003; Hightower et al., 2002; Wall & Berry, 2007). Wall and Berry (2007) claim that social factors are dominant in the evaluation of perceived services for hedonic consumption contexts. N. Kim and Lee (2012), without revealing the theoretical basis for their study, applied phenomenological interviews in order to assess which aspects or dimensions of the presence of other customers are considered when evaluating service encounters. In the pre-consumption stage, the *number of other customers present* served as a quality indicator for potential customers, they found. The standards of pre-consumption evaluation could differ between branded (chain) and individual restaurants. In the case of branded (chain) restaurants, customers reported lower levels of perceived risk, N. Kim and Lee

(2012) state. This finding is in line with extant literature on perceived risk (Fliess, 2009; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011). Their study revealed six dimensions of other customers that customers evaluate: *age*, *gender*, *appearance*, *attire*, *number*, and *public behaviour*. Among those, the number of other customers served as an important cue for pre-consumption evaluation. Interestingly, both utilitarian and hedonic oriented customers considered the *number of other customers* an important criteria, N. Kim and Lee (2012) report. The other five dimensions played a role in post-consumption evaluation.

2.5.4.4 The role of service employees

Namkung and Jang (2010a) investigated the effects of perceived service fairness on emotions and behavioural intentions in restaurants in the context of the United States. Data was collected through a survey instrument from a sample of 40 students who had visited a full-service restaurant within the last four weeks prior to data collection. According to extant literature, justice, or fairness, plays a role in the evaluation of service provisions (Fliess, 2009; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011). The construct of service fairness stems from exchange theory (Houston, Gassenheimer, & Maskulka, 1992; Thibaut & Kelley, 1986) and has been broken down into distributive, procedural and interactional justice. Namkung and Jang (2010a) used a modified version of the Mehrabian-Russel model (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974) as the basis for their investigation of the interrelationships between perceived service fairness, emotions and behavioural intentions. According to the Mehrabian-Russel model, external stimuli originating from the environment influence the consumer’s emotional state. This emotional reaction is seen in three dimensions: Pleasure, dominance, and arousal. Consumers then react to the environment by displaying one of two forms of behaviour: Approach or avoidance (Ezeh & Harris, 2007). Namkung and Jang (2010a) modified the model by considering *service fairness* an external stimulus and by only considering the pleasure and arousal dimensions. They furthermore replaced the resulting actual behavioural response by behavioural intention as a surrogate indicator. Of the various fairness dimensions, price fairness has shown to have a significant influence both on emotions as well as on behavioural intentions, they found. A further interesting finding is that interactional fairness served as a significant predictor of positive emotions and had a direct influence on behavioural intentions. This emphasizes the importance of service employees in the service exchange.

K.-C. Chang (2016) empirically examined service climate and employee engagement as firm-level moderators of the individual-level stimulus (servicescape)–organism (customer emotions)–response (behavioural intentions) relationship. The results showed that employee behaviours contribute to service delivery and clarify why and how their interactions crucially influence customer consumption experiences in a service firm.

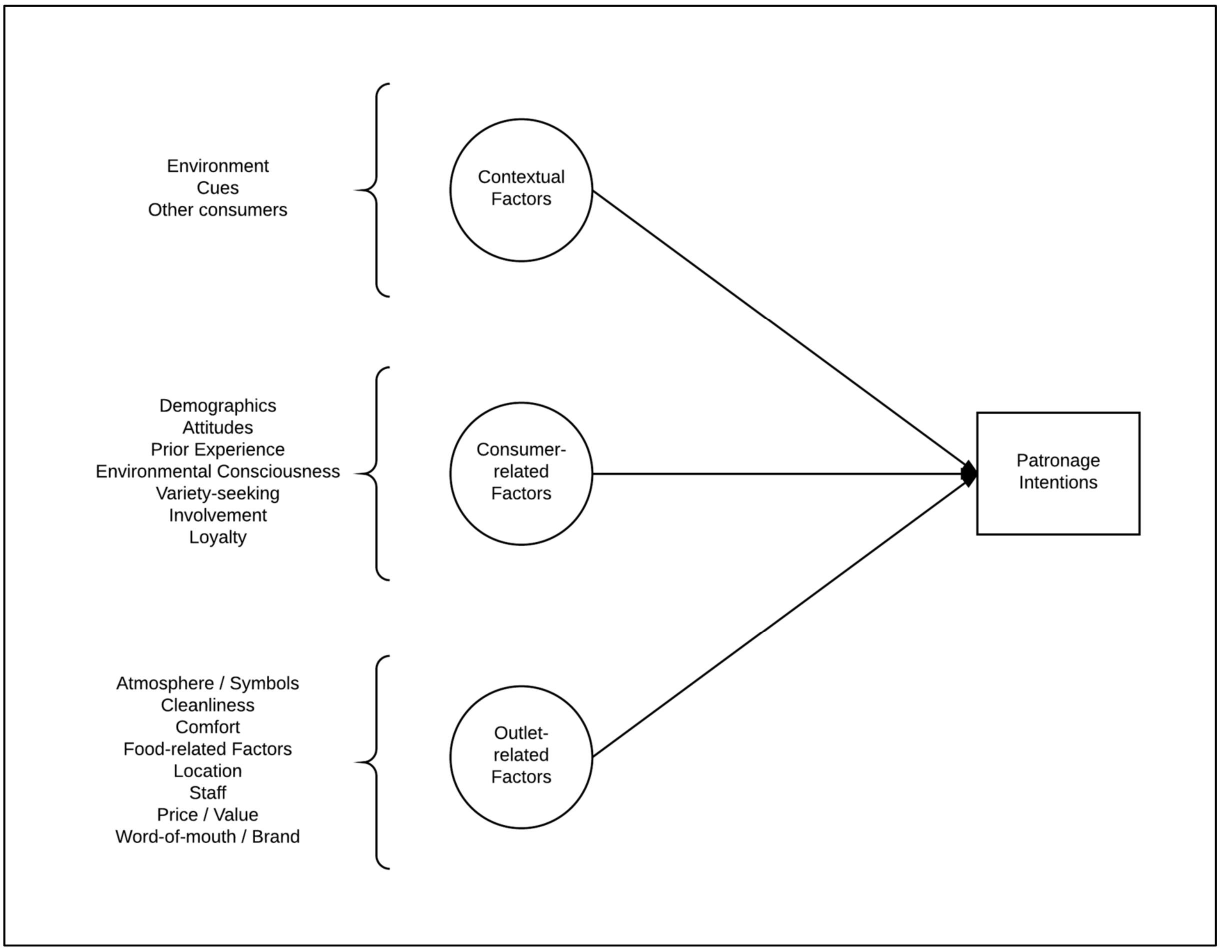
2.5.5 Customer service experiences

Walter, Edvardsson, and Öström (2010) applied an inductive approach when investigating drivers of customers' service experiences in restaurants in the Swedish context. Since customer experience is seen as embedded in service quality and has usually been measured through a cognitive expectations-disconfirmation approach, Walter et al. (2010) aimed at exploring customer experiences from the customers' perspective. The customer experience occurs through the process of customer integration in the service provision process and creates cognitive, emotional and behavioural responses (Fliess, 2009). Since the concept of the servicescape as proposed by Bitner (1992) does not consider social factors, the framework of the experience room by Edvardsson et al. (2005) was used as conceptual framework for the physical environment. Applying the critical incident method (Bruhn, 2006), Walter et al. (2010) collected descriptions of consumers' favourable and unfavourable experiences in Swedish restaurants. Data was then analysed inductively in order to describe the frequent drivers of consumer service experience: *social interaction*, *core service* and *physical context*. Neither the servicescape model by Bitner (1992), nor the experience room framework by Edvardsson et al. (2005) included the physical environment, outside of the restaurant. "*However, it has a remarkable influence on customer experience*", Walter et al. (2010, p. 252) find; thus implicitly expressing the need for an extended framework. It needs to be noted that, due to the interview approach chosen, participants had to describe in detail service experiences that may have occurred as long as two years before the interview. It therefore has to be considered that participants did not have exact memory of the experiences.

2.6 Conclusions based on the review of literature

Figure 3 below illustrates the factors influencing patronage intentions that emerged from the literature review and contextualizes them into the different stages of the service consumption.

Figure 3: Conceptual Framework for Patronage Intentions



A total of 88 studies have been reviewed in the context of consumer behaviour in food and beverage operations; a detailed list of the studies can be found in in section 2.7 below. For 83 out of the 88 studies, an allocation to one of the three stages of the three stages model of services consumption could be made. The following Table 10 shows the perspectives that the authors of those 83 studies have applied in the context of the three different stages of service consumption:

Table 10: Perspectives in different stages

Stage / Perspective	Number of studies	
Pre-purchase stage		
rational choice perspective		26
behavioural influence perspective		1
experiential perspective		1
Total	28	
Purchase stage		
rational choice perspective		11
behavioural influence perspective		20
experiential perspective		10
Total	41	
Post-consumption stage		
rational choice perspective		11
behavioural influence perspective		0
experiential perspective		3
Total	14	

Existing studies covering the pre-purchase phase almost exclusively take a rational choice perspective. This is in line with findings presented by Tang (2014) for the field of hospitality and tourism management related studies. For the purchase stage, the majority of the studies covering consumer behaviour apply a behavioural influence perspective, mainly based on the concepts of Servicescape (Bitner, 1992) and the Mehrabian-Russell model (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). All three perspectives are represented in the purchase stage. The post-consumption stage, then, is mainly researched from a rational choice perspective again. The rational-choice as well as the experiential perspective have been applied in all three stages, whereas the behavioural-intention perspective has not been applied in the post-purchase stage.

Since this study deals with the way that air passengers decide which food and beverage outlet to consume at, the pre-purchase phase is mainly of relevance. Most extant research dealing with the pre-purchase phase has taken a rational-choice perspective, as the literature review has revealed. Using this paradigm however has not enabled researchers to explore the contextual factors that influence patronage decisions in the airside setting. As the review of relevant literature in Chapter 2 has further shown, passenger behaviour in the airside setting often does not follow rational decision making. Consumption in the airside context often is based on hedonic motivation and impulse behaviour. As such, the rational-choice paradigm is considered not appropriate for the exploration of consumer behaviour in this context.

Consumers usually only perceive atmospherics once they have entered into the servicescape. It needs to be noted, however, that the Servicescape concept only considers the interior of the physical environment (represented by the food and beverage outlet in the context of this study), and not its exterior (Fliess, 2009; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011). This explains why the behavioural influence perspective has rarely been applied in the pre-purchase phase of food and beverage consumption decisions. Following this definition of the servicescape, the concept to date could only be applied for research in the purchase stage since consumers are not exposed to the servicescape before entering the food and beverage outlet. A behavioural influence perspective could thus only be applied if the whole of the airside setting were to be considered one large servicescape. Since the airside setting however typically consists of a larger environment that can only be perceived partially by entering passengers, the behavioural influence perspective seems not appropriate for the exploration of consumer behaviour in this context.

As discussed in section 2.3.3.3, the experiential perspective highlights the importance of intangible product attributes, such as the nature of the setting in which the experience occurs (Solomon, 2015). A number of authors have applied the experiential perspective into food and beverage consumption research, as the literature review has revealed. Only one study could however be identified taking on an experiential perspective in the pre-purchase stage. This was a literature review that was conducted by Edvardsson et al. (2005), promoting the creation of an experience room hyperreality. This experience room should enable consumers to experience a service before committing to it. Since the nature of the setting of the experience plays an important role in the airside context, the application of an experiential perspective for this study could be considered appropriate.

It furthermore becomes evident that, whilst extant research has investigated factors influencing outlet patronage decisions, measures of effects have not been discussed widely. This can be understood to be due to the approaches taken in previous research, looking mainly at how much different passengers are willing to spend, but not at where they are likely to consume. As part of the research design, this study will thus aim at presenting suitable measures for outlet patronage intentions.

2.7 A novel approach to exploring passenger experience

The literature review has shown that, although it is the basis for most research dealing with the pre-purchase stage, the rational-choice paradigm seems not suitable for the context of airside consumption. Based on emotional states of travellers, and based on the airside context, impulse behaviour and hedonic consumption seem to prevail. In the context of airport airside consumption, based on the findings of the literature review, a new approach is thus needed for the exploration of passenger behaviour in the pre-purchase stage. Whereas extant research has always adopted one of the three perspectives in a narrow focus, a more holistic methodology will allow gaining knowledge and understanding that extant research does not. Whilst the review of extant literature has identified a number of personal and contextual factors that may have an influence on food and beverage outlet patronage in other contexts, no single theoretical framework could be identified to serve as basis for a model in the airside context. In order to better understand outlet patronage intentions in this context, a more holistic and less paradigm dependent frame is thus needed. The review of literature has shown a need for greater understanding of how context affects patronage intentions. This study addresses this gap through a case study approach, applying multiple methods in order to collect evidence in-situ in the airside setting of a commercial airport. As such, this study will not aim at testing a certain theoretical framework in this context, it will rather be directed at creating a framework based on evidence.

The next chapter shall deal with the methodology and methods applied in order to address the research questions. The following Table 11 summarizes the literature that has been reviewed in this chapter. The table is first sorted by region and then by the methods applied.

Table 11: summary of literature reviewed in relation to consumer behaviour

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Da-Costa, M. F., Zouein, P., Rodrigues, N., Arruda, J., & Vieira, M. G. (2012)	Sensory Marketing: Consumption Experience of the Brazilian in the Restaurant Industry	Brazil	Survey	The physical environment does have an influence on the consumers	Application of the Mehrabian-Russel model in the context of Brazilian fine dining restaurants	purchase	behavioural
De Rezende, D. C., & De Avelar, A. E. S. (2012)	Factors that influence the consumption of food outside the home in Brazil	Brazil	Interviews & Questionnaires	Variety-seeking is a common motivator for eating outside the home	Exploring out-of-home dining behaviour in Brazil.	purchase	experiential
Tian, K., & Tian, R. G. (2011)	Food Consumption and Cultural Awareness	United States	Anthropological case study	Customers rated the friendliness of the service staff, quality of the food and pleasant atmosphere/environment as the main factors they liked in this specific restaurant	Introducing the differentiation between ‚body food' and ‚soul food'	purchase	experiential
Sobal, J., & Wansink, B. (2007)	Kitchenscapes, Tablescapes, Platescapes, and Foodscapes Influences of Microscale Built Environments on Food Intake	United States	Literature Review	Proximity and visibility of foods to an individual within a kitchenscape positively influences food intake	Analysis of the food environment	purchase	behavioural

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Stroebele, N., & De Castro, J. M. (2004)	Effect of ambience on food intake and food choice	United States	Literature Review	Consumers' emotions can be influenced by environmental (or ambient) factors	Summarizing the research on ambient influences on food intake and food choice	purchase	behavioural
Jang, D., & Mattila, A. S. (2005)	An examination of restaurant loyalty programs	United States	Focus group interviews combined with survey	The majority of customers prefer immediate and monetary gratification, as opposed to points-based loyalty schemes	Investigation of customer preferences towards loyalty reward programs.	post-consumption	rational
Parsa, H. G., Gregory, A., Self, J. T., & Dutta, K. (2012)	Consumer Behaviour in Restauants: Assessing the Importance of Restaurant Attributes in Consumer Patronage and Willingness to pay	United States	Experiment	Food quality is more important than service or ambience in upscale restaurants, whereas speed of service is more important in quick service restaurants	Assessment of the influence of different factors on consumers when deciding which restaurant to patronize	pre-purchase	rational
Wall, E. A., & Berry, L. L. (2007)	The Combined Effects of the Physical Environment and Employee Behavior on Customer Perception of Restaurant Service Quality	United States	Experiment	Influence of physical environment and employee behaviour on perceived service quality	Examination of combined effects of physical environment and of employee behaviour on perception of service quality	purchase	behavioural

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Wang, C.-Y., & Mattila, A. S. (2015).	impact of Servicescape Cues on Authenticity Assessment	United States	Experiment	Authenticity affects patronage intentions	Investigation of the Role of Servicescape Elements in the Provision of Ethnic Cues to patrons	pre-purchase	behavioural
Alonso, A. D., & O'Neill, M. A. (2010)	To what extent does restaurant kitchen design influence consumers' eating out experience?	United States	Survey	Consumers feel that the kitchen staff appearance is neater, the kitchen is cleaner and that food is prepared with more care in open kitchens	Investigation of the effect of kitchen design on consumers' eating out experience	purchase	experiential
Alonso, A. D., O'Neill, M., Liu, Y., & O'Shea, M. (2013)	Factors Driving Consumer Restaurant Choice	Southeastern USA	Survey	Prior experience with a restaurant is the single most important factor in the choice of restaurants	Investigation of the factors influencing restaurant choice in the context of the Southeastern USA	pre-purchase	rational
Cardello, A. V., Bell, R., & Kramer, F. M. (1996)	Attitudes of consumers toward military and other institutional foods	United States	Survey	Consumers expect to like airline food less than equivalent dishes bought at a foodservice outlet	Assessment of consumers' expectations towards various institutional foods	purchase	rational
Choi, J., & Zhao, J. (2010)	Factors Influencing Restaurant Selection in South Florida	Florida, USA	Survey	Variety of healthy meals and nutritional value of the meal as important factors when deciding where to eat out	Investigation of the importance of healthy food options.	pre-purchase	rational

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Countryman, C. C., & Jang, S. (2006)	The effects of atmospheric elements on customer impression: the case of hotel lobbies	United States	Survey	Colour, lighting, and style were most significantly related to the impression of a hotel lobby	Examination of the effect of various atmospheric elements on overall guest perceptions and impressions of a hotel lobby	purchase	behavioural
Garretson, J. A., & Clow, K. E. (1998)	The impact of coupons on service quality evaluations, risk, and purchase intentions	United States	Survey	Use of coupons increases repurchase intentions while, at the same time, reducing perceived risk on the consumers' side	Investigation of the effects of promotional coupons on repurchase intentions.	pre-purchase	rational
Gregory, S., & Kim, J. (2005)	Restaurant choice: The role of information	United States	Survey	Those respondents who do not have information however rate location as more important than those who do.	Investigation of how consumers' choice of restaurant differs depending on whether information about a restaurant is available or not	pre-purchase	rational
Ha, J., & Jang, S. (2012)	The effects of dining atmospherics on behavioral intentions through quality perception	United States	Survey	The perception of restaurant atmospherics positively influences perceived service quality and food quality, which in turn positively influence behavioural intentions	Investigation of how the perception of atmospherics in an ethnic Korean restaurant setting influences perceptions of service and food quality	purchase	rational

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Ha, J., & Jang, S. (2013)	Variety seeking in restaurant choice and its drivers	United States	Survey	Findings show a significant negative correlation between perceived atmospherics quality and the intention to seek an alternative dining option	Investigation of variety drivers in restaurant settings and their influence on guests' variety seeking intentions	purchase	rational
Harrington, R. J., Ottenbacher, M. C., & Kendall, K. W. (2011)	Fine-Dining Restaurant Selection: Direct and Moderating Effects of Customer Attributes	South-western USA	Survey	Price/value, quality expectation, and variety/innovation are important factors in the decision where to dine out.	Examination of the relationship among restaurant attribute factors and consumer characteristics/behaviors in fine-dining restaurant choice selections	pre-purchase	rational
Hightower, R., Brady, M. K., & Baker, T. L. (2002)	Investigating the role of the physical environment in hedonic service consumption	United States	Survey	For hedonic consumption situations, positive relationships between involvement and positive effect have been found.	Investigation of the role of the physical environment in hedonic service consumption	purchase	behavioural
Hyun, S. S. (2010)	Predictors of relationship quality and loyalty in the chain restaurant industry	United States	Survey	Service quality showed to have the strongest influence on loyalty.	Examination of the connections between relationship quality and loyalty.	post-consumption	rational
Jang, S., & Namkung, Y. (2009)	Perceived quality, emotions, and behavioral intentions	United States	Survey	Illustration of the relationships between product quality and service quality stimuli, emotions and behavioural intentions	Proposing an extension of the Mehrabian-Russel stimulus-response model by incorporating restaurant-specific stimuli	purchase	behavioural

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Kim, E.-J., & Geistfeld, L. V. (2003)	Consumers' restaurant choice behavior and the impact of socio-economic and demographic factors	United States	Survey	Effect of age on patronage decisions.	Exploration of the impacto of socio-demographic factors on restaurant choice behaviour in the United States.	pre-purchase	rational
Kim, Y.-S., Bergman, C., & Raab, C. (2010)	Factors That Impact Mature Customer Dining Choices in Las Vegas	Las Vegas, USA	Survey	Comfort of the restaurant facilities is a factor for mature customers.	Identification of restaurant attributes important to mature restaurant customers	pre-purchase	rational
Knight, A. J., Worosz, M. R., & Todd, E. C. D. (2007)	consumer perceptions of food safety at restaurants	United States	Survey	Food safety is of relatively little importance when selecting restaurants.	Evaluation of consumer perceptions of food safety at restaurants.	pre-purchase	rational
Kraft, F. B., & Benet, S. B. (2010)	Consumer response to tobacco smoke in service settings	United States	Survey	Both smokers and non-smokers rated smoking facilities lower than non-smoking facilities	Assessment of the influence of tobacco smoke on consumer responses in service settings	purchase	behavioural
Lee, D. H. (2003)	Consumer's Experiences, Opinions, Attitudes, Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction, and Complaining Behavior with Vending Machines	United States	Survey	High levels of involvement for food and beverage vending machines.	Examination of the role of involvement in the context of vending machines.	pre-purchase	rational

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Liu, Y., & Jang, S. (2009)	The effects of dining atmospherics: An extended Mehrabian–Russell model	United States	Survey	Perceived value mediates the relationship between emotional responses and behavioural intentions	Examination of the relationships between atmospherics, emotional responses, perceived value, and behavioural intentions	purchase	behavioural
Mason, K., Jones, S., Benefield, M., & Walton, J. (2013)	Consumer Perceptions of Quick Service Restaurants	United States	Survey	Utilitarian values prevail in the context of quick service restaurants	Exploration of consumers' service quality preferences in the quick service restaurant industry	pre-purchase	rational
Myung, E., McCool, A. C., & Feinstein, A. H. (2008)	Understanding attributes affecting meal choice decisions in a bundling context	Las Vegas, USA	Survey	Healthy food, familiar food, variety seeking and value for the price identified as important meal choice attributes	Examination of attributes that influence consumer meal choice decisions	purchase	rational
Namkung, Y., & Jang, S. (2010)	Service Failures in Restaurants Which Stage of Service Failure Is the Most Critical?	United States	Survey	For fine dining restaurants, the order stage of the service process has the most critical influence on repatronage intentions. For casual dining environments, a service failure in the meal consumption stage of the process had the most impact on consumers' repatronage intentions	Evaluation of the impact of service failure at different stages of the service process in different restaurant types	purchase	behavioural

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Namkung, Y., & Jang, S. (2010)	Effects of perceived service fairness on emotions, and behavioral intentions in restaurants	United States	Survey	Price fairness has a significant influence both on emotions as well as on behavioural intentions	Investigation of the effects of perceived service fairness on emotions and behavioural intentions	purchase	rational
Pettijohn, L. S., Pettijohn, C. E., & Luke, R. H. (1997)	An evaluation of fast food restaurant satisfaction: determinants, competitive comparisons and impact on future patronage	United States	Survey	Satisfied customers showed significantly higher intentions of returning	Exploration of the importance of customer satisfaction for fast food businesses	post-consumption	rational
Ryu, K., & Jang, S. (2008)	Influence of restaurant's physical environments on emotion and behavioral intention	United States	Survey	Certain attributes are more important than others when influencing the perception of the physical environment	Analyisis of analyse customers’ perceptions of dining environments, emotional states, and behavioural intentions	purchase	behavioural

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Ryu, K., Han, H., & Jang, S. S. (2010)	Relationships among hedonic and utilitarian values, satisfaction and behavioral intentions in the fast-casual restaurant industry	United States	Survey	Utilitarian value shows a greater influence on customer satisfaction than hedonic value	customer satisfaction acts as a partial mediator in the link between hedonic/utilitarian value and behavioral intentions	purchase	rational
Sierra, J. J., & McQuitty, S. (2005)	Service providers and customers: social exchange theory and service loyalty	United States	Survey	Finding evidence for relationships between inseparability, shared responsibility, emotions and service loyalty	Exploration of the effects of shared responsibility	purchase	rational
Sierra, J. J., Heiser, R. S., & McQuitty, S. (2009)	Exploring Determinants and Effects of Shared Responsibility in Service Exchanges	United States	Survey	Perception of shared responsibility has an effect on the willingness to pay a price premium.	Investigation of consumer perceptions of shared responsibility and the predicted emotional outcomes towards the service provider	purchase	rational
Voss, K. E., Spangenberg, E. R., & Grohmann, B. (2003)	Measuring the Hedonic and Utilitarian Dimensions of Consumer Attitude	United States	Survey	Hedonic and utilitarian constructs are two distinct dimensions.	Establishment of scales that measure hedonic and utilitarian dimensions of consumer attitude towards brands.		

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Wansink, B., & Sobal, J. (2007).	Mindless Eating: The 200 Daily Food Decisions We Overlook	United States	Survey	People can be unknowingly influenced by environmental cues	Investigation of how people estimate the number of food-related decisions they take every day	purchase	behavioural
Heung, V. C. S. (2002)	American theme restaurants: A study of consumer's perceptions of the important attributes in restaurant selection	Hong Kong	Survey	Food quality, servers' attitude, value for money, atmosphere, and word-of-mouth as most important attributes influencing restarant choice	Investigation of the role of a restaurant's atmosphere in the context of Hong Kong.	pre-purchase	rational
Kivela, J., Inbakaran, R., & Reece, J. (1999)	Consumer research in the restaurant environment	Hong Kong	Survey	Ambiance is the most important attribute influencing restaurant choice	Development of a dining satisfaction and return patronage model.	post-consumption	rational
Kivela, J., Inbakaran, R., & Reece, J. (2000)	Consumer research in the restaurant environment. Part 3	Hong Kong	Survey	Dining satisfaction is a construct consisting of five dimensions and moderates the relationship between the dining experience and post-dining behavioural intentions	Exploration of the effect of dining satisfaction perceptions on repurchase intentions.	post-consumption	rational

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Lai, I. K. W. (2015)	The roles of value, satisfaction, and commitment in the effect of service quality on customer loyalty in Hong Kong–style tea restaurants.	Hong Kong	Survey	Customer Satisfaction, Service Quality and Affective Commitment influence customer loyalty	Application of the Servqual model in the context of Hong-Kong style (eastern) quick service restaurants.	purchase	behavioural
Tse, A. C. B., Sin, L., & Yim, F. H. K. (2002)	How a crowded restaurant affects consumers' attribution behavior	Hong Kong	Survey	Customers associate high levels of crowdedness with high food quality, good reputation and low prices	Investigation of the effects of crowdedness of a restaurant on consumers	pre-purchase	rational
Upadhyay, Y., Kumar Singh, S., & Thomas, G. (2007)	Do People differ in their Preferences regarding Restaurants?	India	Survey	Quality of food, safety, menu offering and location are the most important attributes influencing restaurant choice	Exploration of the impact of demographic and of reason to visit variables on restaurant preferences		
Beldona, S., Moreo, A. P., & Mundhra, G. D. (2010)	The role of involvement and variety-seeking in eating out behaviors	India	Survey	Different eating-out types show different behaviours.	Development of a typology of eating out attitudes using the dimensions involvement and variety-seeking	pre-purchase	rational

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Nejati, M., & Moghaddam, P. P. (2013)	The effect of hedonic and utilitarian values on satisfaction and behavioural intentions for dining in fast-casual restaurants in Iran	Iran	Survey	Utilitarian values have a stronger influence on behavioural intention than hedonic values do in the context of fast food restaurants	Examination of the influence of hedonic and utilitarian values on customer satisfaction and behavioural intentions in the context of fast casual restaurants	post-consumption	rational
Jalilvand, M. R., Pool, J. K., Nasrolahi Vosta, S., & Kazemi, R. V. (2016)	Antecedents and consequence of consumers' attitude towards brand preference	Iran	Survey	Brand pesonality and brand equity are the main antecedents of brand preference	Development of an integrated model by incorporating the antecedents and consequences of brand preference in the context of restaurant industry	purchase	rational
Kim, N., & Lee, M. (2012)	Other customers in a service encounter: examining the effect in a restaurant setting	South Korea	Phenomenological interviews	In the pre-consumption stage, the number of other customers present serves as a quality indicator for potential customers	Exploration of how the mere presence of other customers in a restaurant setting influences customers' evaluations of restaurant services	pre-purchase	rational

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Jang, S. Y., Chung, J. Y., & Kim, Y. G. (2015).	examining the relationships among environmentally conscious behaviour and the formation of behavioural intentions to visit an environmentally friendly restaurant	South Korea	Survey	Environmental consciousness has a significant effect on customers' intentions to visit an environmentally friendly restaurant.	exploration of effects of eco-friendly behaviour in the food service industry.	pre-purchase	rational
Kim, H.-b., & Kim, W. G. (2005)	The relationship between brand equity and firms' performance in luxury hotels and chain restaurants	South Korea	Survey	Brand equity can be seen as a construct of the dimensions brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality and brand image	Investigation of the relationship between brand equity and firms' performance in the context of chain restaurants in Korea		
Chang, J., Khan, M. A., & Tsai, C. T. S. (2012)	Dining Occasions, Service Failures and Customer Complaint Behaviours	Taiwan	Experiment	The occasion for the restaurant patronage has an influence on the post-consumption behavioural intentions	Assessment of the relationship between service failures and customer complaint behaviour	post-consumption	rational
Chang, K.-C. (2016)	Moderating roles of service climate and employee engagement	Taiwan	Survey	employee behaviours contribute to service delivery	Extension of the S–O–R model by demonstrating that outcome variables are not limited to individual-level effects	purchase	behavioural

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Su, C.-S. (2011)	The role of service innovation and customer experience in ethnic restaurants	Taiwan	Survey	Service innovation has an influence on behavioural intention.	Linking service innovations to the servicescape concept.	purchase	experiential
Batra, A. (2008)	Foreign tourists' motivation and information source (s) influencing their preference for eating out at ethnic restaurants in Bangkok	Thailand	Survey	The most important motivational factor for tourists to visit an ethnic restaurant is discovery	Examination of the relationship between tourists' motivation and information sources when selecting ethnic restaurants	pre-purchase	rational
Bowden, J. (2009)	Customer Engagement: A Framework for Assessing Customer-Brand Relationships	Australia	Phenomenological interviews	The service evaluation of repeat customers is thus based on an affective commitment whereas the service evaluation of new customers follows a calculative evaluation	Evaluation of how brand loyalty can be fostered in different stages of the consumption process	post-consumption	experiential
Allen, M. W., Gupta, R., & Monnier, A. (2008)	The interactive effect of cultural symbols and human values on taste evaluation	Australia	Experiment	Human value priorities and cultural symbols influence both taste evaluation as well as attitude toward products	Investigation of the effect of cultural symbols and human values on taste evaluation	purchase	experiential
Dunn, K. I., Mohr, P., Wilson, C. J., & Wittert, G. A. (2011)	Evaluating Determinants of fast-food consumption	Australia	Survey	Fast-food consumption is influenced by a general demand for meals that are tasty,satisfying and convenient	Application of Theory of Planned Behaviour in fast-food consumption decisions	pre-purchase	rational

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Fisher, R. J., Grégoire, Y., & Murray, K. B. (2011)	The limited effects of power on satisfaction with joint consumption decisions	Canada	Experiment	Having the power to individually take that patronage decision only is satisfying if consumers have a competitive orientation or if the relationship in the dyad is not of importance	Exploration of the effect of power on satisfaction with joint consumption decisions in dyads in the context of restaurant patronage decisions	post-consumption	rational
Brüggen, E. C., Foubert, B., & Gremler, D. D. (2011)	Extreme Makeover: Short- and Long-Term Effects of a Remodeled Servicescape	Europe	Experiment	Store re-modelling has a short-term impact on cognitive and behavioural measures, but not on affective measures	Investigation of the short- and long-term effects of a remodelled servicescape	purchase	behavioural
Guéguen, N., & Petr, C. (2006)	Odors and consumer behavior in a restaurant	France	Experiment	Lavender may have a relaxing effect on patrons which then results in an increase of length of stay and average spend	Exploration of the effect of aroma on consumer behaviour.	purchase	behavioural
Harrington, R. J., Fauser, S. G., Ottenbacher, M. C., & Kruse, A. (2013)	Key Information Sources Impacting Michelin Restaurant Choice	Germany	Survey	Word of mouth and external ratings are the main sources of information used for making Michelin-starred restaurant patronage decisions	Investigation of how different sources of information influence consumers making Michelin-star restaurant selections in Germany	pre-purchase	rational
Fodor, M., József, L., Balázs, G., & Horváth, Á. (2012)	Model of the Factors Affecting the Selection of the Mode of Institutional Catering	Hungary	Survey	Hedonists are characterized by a "short-lived self-remuneration value hierarchy and love of life approach	Development of a consumer typology for the institutional catering sector		

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Cullen, F. (2005)	Factors influencing restaurant selection in Dublin	Dublin, Ireland	Survey	Quality of the food, type of food, location, cleanliness of the restaurant, atmosphere, and reputation are the most important attributes influencing restaurant choice	Investigation of the selection process that consumers apply when choosing a restaurant to dine in Dublin, Ireland	pre-purchase	rational
Roest, H., & Rindfleisch, A. (2010)	The influence of quality cues and typicality cues on restaurant purchase intention	Netherlands	Experiment	Certain cues can indicate both perceived quality as well as category typicality	Assessment of the influence of quality cues and typicality on restaurant purchase selection in the context of the Netherlands	pre-purchase	rational
Laros, F. J. M., & Steenkamp, J.-B. E. M. (2005)	Emotions in consumer behavior: a hierarchical approach	Netherlands	Survey	On the most general, superordinate level, emotions consist of positive and negative affect	Development of a hierarchy of consumer emotions.		
Söderlund, M., & Öhman, N. (2005)	Assessing behavior before it becomes behavior	Sweden	Survey	Intentions-as-Expectations are better indicators of future behaviour than Intentions-as-Wants	Conceptualizing different levels of intentions in the context of restaurant services	post-consumption	rational
Heide, M., & Grønhaug, K. (2006)	Atmosphere: conceptual issues and implications for hospitality management	Norway	Literature Review	Social factors play a role in the servicespace.	Review of the implications of the atmosphere for the management of hospitality operations	purchase	behavioural

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Hansen, K. V., Jensen, Ø., & Gustafsson, I. B. (2005)	The meal experiences of à la carte restaurant customers	Norway	Grounded Theory	Meal experience can be broken down into the factors product, restaurant interior, personal meeting, company, and restaurant atmosphere.	Development of a conceptual model integrating the meal experience components.	purchase	experiential
Iglesias, M. P., & Guillén, M. J. Y. (2002)	Searching for information when selecting a restaurant	Spain	Survey	Level of perceived risk influences asking for advise from friends/family.	Assessment of the influence of perceived risk on restaurant choice decisions.	pre-purchase	rational
Pedraja, M., & Yagüe, J. (2001)	What information do customers use when choosing a restaurant?	Spain	Survey	Price and prior level of knowledge are main determinants of the amount of effort that customers invest in their search for information	Examination of the information search process that customers apply when choosing a restaurant in the Spanish context	pre-purchase	rational
Walter, U., Edvardsson, B., & Öström, Å. (2010)	Drivers of customers' service experiences: a study in the restaurant industry	Sweden	Interviews	Social interaction, core service and physical context are the main drivers of service experiences.	Investigation of drivers of customers' service experiences in restaurants	purchase	experiential
Andersson, T. D., & Mossberg, L. (2004)	The dining experience: do restaurants satisfy customer needs?	Sweden	Survey	Customers were willing to pay more for the presence of other customers, for a nice interior as well as for quality service	Exploring dining as a multidimensional experience	purchase	rational

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Reimer, A., & Kuehn, R. (2005)	The impact of servicescape on quality perception	Switzerland		Servicescape has a greater influence in hedonic than in utilitarian consumption settings	Examination of the impact of the servicescape on perceived quality	purchase	behavioural
Aksoydan, E. (2007)	Hygiene factors influencing customers' choice of dining-out units	Turkey	Survey	Cleanliness is the most important factor influencing university faculty staff in their choice of dining-out outlets	Assessment of the factors influencing university faculty staff in their choice of dining-out outlets in the context of Turkey.	pre-purchase	rational
Kincaid, C., Baloglu, S., Zhenxing, M., & Busser, J. (2010)	What really brings them back?	Turkey	Survey	Tangible quality is most influenced by the underlying dimensions food and service, staff, and accessibility	Investigation of the relationship between tangible quality, affective quality and customer re-patronage intentions	purchase	rational
Lugosi, P. (2008)	Hospitality spaces, hospitable moments: consumer encounters and affective experiences in commercial settings	United Kingdom	Case Study	Lugosi, P. (2008)	Hospitality spaces, hospitable moments: consumer encounters and affective experiences in commercial settings	purchase	experiential

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Kim, Y. G., Eves, A., & Scarles, C. (2009)	Building a model of local food consumption on trips and holidays	United Kingdom	Grounded Theory	Food experience constitutes a part of tourism motivation.	Exploration of the factors influencing consumption of local food and beverages in tourism destinations; development of a model of local food consumption.	purchase	experiential
Ward, P., Davies, B. J., & Kooijman, D. (2007)	Olfaction and the retail environment: examining the influence of ambient scent	United Kingdom	Experiment	Respondents perceived relaxing aromas to be inappropriate	Investigation of the effect of scent on consumer behaviour in retail environments	purchase	behavioural
Auty, S. (1992)	Consumer Choice and Segmentation in the Restaurant Industry	United Kingdom	Interviews	Food type and food quality are the primary variables of restaurant choice	Application of expectancy disconfirmation theory in the restaurant context.	pre-purchase	rational
Clark, M. A., & Wood, R. C. (1999)	Consumer loyalty in the restaurant industry: A preliminary exploration of the issues	United Kingdom	Survey	Quality and type of food are key determinants in customer loyalty	Exploration of customer loylty in the restaurant industry.	post-consumption	rational
Longart, P. (2010)	What drives word-of-mouth in restaurants?	United Kingdom	Survey	Food and drink is the most significant factor contributor to the spreading of post-consumption word of mouth by restaurant customers	Exploration of the relationship between positive word of mouth and the decision to eat out in restaurants	post-consumption	rational

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Kim, M. G., Lee, C. H., & Mattila, A. S. (2014).	Determinants of Customer Complaint Behavior in a Restaurant Context: The Role of Culture, Price Level, and Customer Loyalty.	United States, South Korea	Experiment	When there is no deep commitment to a restaurant and when paying a high price, Asian customers are more likely to voice public complaints	Investigation of the role of cultural values on complaint behaviour	post-consumption	rational
Bagozzi, R. P., Wong, N., Abe, S., & Bergami, M. (2000)	Cultural and Situational Contingencies and the Theory of Reasoned Action: Application to Fast Food Restaurant Consumption	United States, Italy, China and Japan	Survey	Attitudes and subjective norms could well predict consumers' intentions to act	Investigation of the usefulness of the Theory of Reasoned Action for fast food patronage decisions.	pre-purchase	rational
Bitran, G. R., Ferrer, J.-C., & e Oliveira, P. R. (2008)	Managing Customer Experiences: Perspectives on the Temporal Aspects of Service Encounters	n/a	Literature review	Adding the temporal dimension to the Servicescape model	Synthesis of an operations management- and operations research-related models on behavioural assumptions.	post-consumption	experiential
Edvardsson, B., Enquist, B., & Johnston, R. (2005)	Cocreating customer value through hyperreality in the prepurchase service experience	n/a	Literature review	Five design dimensions influence the hyperreal service experience.	Suggestion of a hyperreal experience room to reduce perceived risk in the pre-purchase stage	pre-purchase	experiential

Author	Topic	Location	Method	Findings	Contribution	Stage	Perspective
Edwards, J. S. A., & Gustafsson, I. B. (2008)	The room and atmosphere as aspects of the meal	n/a	Literature Review	Physical environment aspects can be classified into three categories: interior variables, layout and design variables and human variables	Review of literature on the influence of the physical environment	purchase	behavioural
Morgan, M., Watson, P., & Hemmington, N. (2008)	Drama in the dining room: theatrical perspectives on the foodservice encounter	n/a	Literature Review	From an experiential perspective, drama can become a source of strategic advantage for a Food and Beverage operator	Examination of the development of the theatrical metaphor in the extant services management literature in the context of food and beverage services	purchase	experiential

3 Research methods

The literature review conducted suggests that air passengers' behaviour is influenced by context once they are in the airside setting. However, little previous research dealing with air passenger behaviour in the airside setting could be identified. Based on these findings, the methodology and methods for the exploration of the factors influencing passenger behaviour in this context will now be discussed.

3.1 Research question and objectives

The literature review has shown that, although it is the basis for most extant research dealing with the pre-purchase phase, the rational-choice paradigm seems not suitable for the context of airside food and beverage consumption. Thus arises the need to investigate whether hedonic consumption and impulse behaviour prevail, based on emotional states of travellers, and based on the airside context.

In order to address the research objectives and research questions as stated in section 1.2, the methodology and methods shall be discussed in the following sections. The research challenge is to explore the factors that influence passengers' food and beverage outlet patronage intentions in the airside setting. Whilst extant research has been dealing with consumer behaviour in the food and beverage context, the specific influence of the airport airside setting on consumer behaviour has not yet been considered.

As will be discussed below, mixed methods are used in order to address the research questions. The research questions are addressed with different data collection and analysis methods, as Table 12 below illustrates.

Table 12: Research Questions and Data Collection Methods

Research Question	Unstructured observations	Semi-structured interviews	Structured passenger interviews (in-situ)	Focus group discussion	Secondary data	Passenger survey
What environmental and personal factors influence air passengers' food and beverage outlet patronage intentions in the airside areas of commercial airports?	x	x	x	x		x
To what extent does the type of passenger have an effect on outlet patronage intentions in this context?		x	x	x	x	x
Do service brands influence air passengers in their outlet patronage intentions, and if so, to what extent?		x	x	x		x

3.2 Philosophical position

Extant literature agrees that research methodology and methods should be considered in close connection to the epistemological and ontological position of the researcher (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Quinlan, 2011; Rakić & Chambers, 2011). Since research is concerned with the development of knowledge, it is important to discuss both the nature of reality as well as the development of knowledge as part of research philosophy (Saunders et al., 2012). Research philosophy does not only have an impact on the methods chosen, but also on the interpretation of findings, as Johnson and Clark (2006) note. In this light, philosophical positions serve as frameworks for viewing the social world and the questions we ask of it (Quinlan, 2011).

The philosophical position taken for this research is that of a critical realist. The development of critical realism has, to some degree, been attributed to the thoughts and views of Karl Popper. Whilst Popper has coined the term critical rationalism for the epistemology of his methodological program (Albert, 1987; Schneider, 1998), extant literature nowadays uses the terms critical realism (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Saunders et al., 2012) or critical theory (Quinlan, 2011; Rakić & Chambers, 2011) for the philosophical position. With regards to ontology, critical realism claims that there is a social reality existing independent of human consciousness thereof (Byers, 2013; Platenkamp & Botterill, 2013). Knowledge about this world however is socially constructed (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). As Saunders et al. (2012) claim, the critical realist stance focuses on explaining phenomena within a context, which is important for this study. Fleetwood (2005) argues that critical realism provides a viable ontology for researching organisations and management.

One of the key components of Popper's critical rationalism is the epistemological concept of fallibilism (Roberts, 2014; Wuisman, 2005). Based on the insight that human knowledge is fallible, theories can never be verified, but can only be falsified (Keuth, 2007; Poser, 2009; Schneider, 1998). In that sense, falsification of theories allows science to advance in a sense of learning through the development of new or adapted theories (Popper, 1972). As Popper (1962) notes, science operates with conjectures, which are tentative hypotheses. Whilst Popper denies induction, i.e. generalization based on single observations as a scientific method (Poser, 2009; Schneider, 1998), other critical realist philosophers, such as Hans Reichenbach or Roy Bhaskar find induction to be a valid method (Bhaskar, 2008; Schneider, 1998). As Schneider (1998) states, the critical realist stance allows induction as a method for the development of conjectures (*context of discovery*), but not for their confirmation (*context of justification*). In this light, the inductive creation of such conjectures can be justified, irrelevant of how they have been created (Bhaskar, 2008; Poser, 2009). This position supports the building of conjectures (or in the case of this study propositions), as well as testing them, as part of the research process.

As the literature review has shown, no single existing framework explaining passenger behaviour in the airside setting could be identified. As such, this study is aimed at exploring issues within that context and at the development of conjectures based on data. This is as so far in accordance with the ideas of critical realism, as the study does not aim at confirming conjectures (Schneider, 1998).

Based on the claim that human knowledge is fallible (Popper & Vetter, 1973; Wuisman, 2005), there can be no absolute truth; approximations to truth can however be achieved. Albeit entities do exist independent of the observer, the understanding of meaning in relation to such entities and their interactions is thus subjective and contextual. The mechanisms producing phenomena then are real but not directly accessible to observation, i.e. we can only perceive aspects of reality (Bhaskar, 2008; Bryman & Bell, 2011; Schneider, 1998; Wuisman, 2005). Or as Bhaskar puts it, "*the world consists of mechanisms not events. Such mechanisms*

[…] may be said to be real, though it is rarely that they are actually manifest and rarer still that they are empirically identified by man. They are the intransitive objects of scientific theory." (Bhaskar, 2008, p. 37).

3.3 Research Design

There seem to be varying understandings of terminology in the literature when it comes to research strategies and research designs. Whereas Saunders et al. (2012) refer to the case study as a research strategy, Bryman and Bell (2011), as well as Thomas (2011) categorize it as a research design. Veal (2006), as well as Yin (2009) classify the case study as a research method, whereas Quinlan (2011) refers to it as a methodology. Following the logic of Saunders et al. (2012), it will be referred to it as a research strategy in the context of this study.

As Thomas (2009) points out, the research design represents the plan for the research to be conducted. Bryman and Bell (2011) argue that it provides the framework for the collection and analysis of data. For Saunders et al. (2012), the research design encompasses methodological choice, research strategies, time horizon and data collection and analysis techniques.

3.3.1 Methodological choice

Based on the mainly exploratory nature of the research, a case study approach with the use of mixed methods seems appropriate (Saunders et al., 2012). The term mixed methods in this context refers to the use of both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis methods within one case study. As Denzin and Lincoln (2011) state, "*both qualitative and quantitative researchers are concerned about* *the individual´s point of view. However, qualitative investigators think they can get closer to the actor´s perspective through detailed interviewing and observation*" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011, p. 10). In quantitative methods, then, the researcher is understood to be more independent from the researched (Saunders et al., 2012).

This methodological approach will result in different sources of evidence that can be analysed. As Bryman and Bell (2011, p. 386) elaborate, the term qualitative research should not be mistaken for an approach in which "*quantitative data are not collected or generated.*" Although mainly qualitative elements are foreseen, quantitative evidence will also be included, thus leading to a mixed-methods approach (Creswell, 2011; Creswell & Clark, 2007). As Zachariadis, Scott, and Barrett (2013, p. 864) elaborate, "*critical realism endorses a variety of quantitative and qualitative research methods*".

In general, qualitative research methods are applied in order to enable the researcher to gain deeper understanding of the researched object, usually by researching a smaller population (Bryman & Bell, 2011). By emphasizing context and by taking the perspective of the people that are studied, qualitative researchers try to gain knowledge from concepts and issues that emerge (Bryman & Bell, 2011) in order to explore issues and to fill knowledge gaps (Thomas, 2011). Quantitative research is considered to be aiming at measuring social variables and allows for the development law-like generalizations (Saunders et al., 2012).

Although, historically, a number of arguments against mixed-methods research have been brought forward, such as the claim that they are grounded in incompatible epistemological positions (Bryman & Bell, 2011), mixed methods research has become increasingly used in the social sciences (Buchanan & Bryman, 2009). The use of mixed-methods has been brought in connection with a number of benefits. These include facilitation where "*one method may lead to the discovery of new insights which inform and are followed up through the use of the other method*" (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 169), as well as triangulation (Thomas, 2011).

Bryman and Bell (2011) agree in pointing out that qualitative research can provide hypotheses or propositions that can subsequently be tested using quantitative methods. The in-depth knowledge of context as it can be acquired through qualitative methods can furthermore increase researchers' understanding thereof when devising measurements for concepts, they claim.

In the context of this thesis, the mixed-methods approach will allow employing a rich methodology, collecting evidence from various sources and with each stage of the research informing the subsequent one. As will be shown in the following sections, this rich mixed-methods approach leads to findings and insights that would not have been achieved through a purely qualitative or quantitative mono- or multi-method research. Analysis of qualitative evidence will lead to the development of propositions that are then tested and further explored quantitatively. Whilst hypotheses are related to quantitative methods and are subject to (statistical) testing and verification of relationships between variables (Saunders et al., 2012), propositions suggest relationships between concepts, however do not allow verifying said relationship (Bryman, 2012). Especially in exploratory research the development and subsequent testing of hypotheses is unrealistic due to the nature of the enquiry. The development of (falsifiable) propositions and the related epistemological claim is furthermore in line with the critical realist stance (Poser, 2009).

3.3.2 Research strategy

Following Saunders et al. (2012), the research strategy refers to the bigger picture of the research, to the general plan of how a researcher will go about answering the research question(s). It will contain the research objectives and specify the sources from which to collect data, as well as data collection and analysis methods. This view is shared by Flick (2008a).

This study is of mainly exploratory nature and relies on inductive principles (Gibbs, 2007). "*When the predominant research strategy is qualitative, a case study tends to take an inductive approach to the relationship between theory and research*" (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 60). This approach is in so far appropriate with my philosophical position, as the study is directed at the development of conjectures and a framework, not the confirmation thereof. The aim of the present study is not to statistically generalize from the findings. However, the findings of a case study can be the basis of analytic generalisation, as Yin (2009) claims. Through the application of a case study strategy, phenomena can be explored within their context (Thomas, 2011; Yin, 2009). The aim of the field research is thus to analyse various sources of evidence in order to better understand the phenomena and to locate them in a new and more holistic conceptual framework (Saunders et al., 2012).

The setting and context of my study allow the use of a case study approach as an appropriate framework (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Flyvbjerg, 2011; Silverman, 2009; Stake, 1995; Thomas, 2011). As Yin (2009, p. 2) points out, a case study would be the preferred method in situations when "*a researcher has little or no control over behavioural events; and […] the focus of the study is a contemporary phenomenon*." Case research allows the study of a large number of features of cases that occur naturally (Hartley, 2004). It does not claim to control variables; however it allows the use of a multitude of methods and sources of data (Thomas, 2011). A case study involves in-depth research into one or a small set of cases (Thomas, 2009). As Stake (1995, p. xi) states, *"case study is the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances."* Case research as such allows and even requires the study of the subject within its analytical frame (Thomas, 2011). The temporal horizon of this study is cross-sectional, based on access that is made available to me.

As Tsang (2012) claims, the position of critical realism allows the use of case study as a research framework. Easton (2010, p. 127) even finds that "*critical realism (…) seems ideally matched to case research.*" This view is supported by Brown (2014).

3.3.3 Data collection methods

The approach to the collection of data needs to be well-prepared (Bryman & Bell, 2011). This is especially the case in the given context since the access that has been negotiated to the airside areas and to passengers might have been revoked at any time.

Surprisingly, a number of authors in the field of consumer behaviour in the food and beverage environment who have chosen to conduct case research followed a mono-method approach (Alonso & O'Neill, 2010a; Ireland & Watkins, 2010; Tian & Tian, 2011). However, one of the strengths of case research is that it promotes the use of evidence from different sources, and each source is "*associated with an array of data or evidence*" (Yin, 2009, p. 103). This is then referred to as triangulation (Saunders et al., 2012). Following this feature of case research, various methods to collect data are used: Interviews, observations, focus group discussions, secondary data analysis as well as a passenger survey. Issues of validity and reliability of the methods chosen will be discussed in the subsequent sections.

The different data collection methods used can then be considered to be interconnected and influencing each other. Unstructured observations (from different perspectives) were not so much directed at making data but to "get in" to the field and sensitize myself to the context. Observations conducted then informed the interview guide for the interviews held with concession employees, management and passengers. Those interviews then influenced the guideline for the focus group discussion. Once the qualitative data was analysed, secondary data analysis and the survey were conducted in order to seek support for the propositions that emerged from the qualitative data. Structured passenger interviews served as pilot for the passenger survey. The process can thus be understood to be iterative since the qualitative data analysis resulted in propositions that were then tested using quantitative methods.

The following Table 13 illustrates the different types of evidence that were collected and how they were analysed. The quality of the research design will be discussed in section 3.4 below.

Table 13: Collection and Analysis Methods

Data Collection Method	Preparation	Analysis	Technology	Related Research Questions
Unstructured observations from passengers' and F&B employees' perspective	Field notes Cleaned-up field notes	Template analysis	NVivo	1
Semi-structured interviews with F&B outlet employees, F&B Outlet management, airport management	Audio-recording Transcription	Template analysis	NVivo	1, 2, 3
Structured interviews with passengers (in-situ)	Questionnaire; iPad	Exploratory analysis Template analysis	SPSS NVivo	1, 2, 3
Focus group discussions with airport users	Video-recording Transcription	Template analysis	NVivo	1, 2, 3
Secondary data from the point of sales system	Re-formatting Aggregation	Univariate Analyses ANOVA	Excel, SPSS	2
Passenger survey	Questionnaire	Univariate Analyses Cluster Analysis Principal Components Analysis Multinomial Categorical Regression ANOVA	SPSS	1, 2, 3
Triangulation		Using above methods in combination		1, 2, 3

3.3.3.1 Unstructured observations

In qualitative research, the concept of triangulation (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Stake, 1995; Thomas, 2011) is applied in order to increase the validity of the results. Methodological triangulation is achieved through the use of different data collection methods. Following this approach, different methods were applied in addition to the semi-structured interviews. Unstructured observation emerged to be a suitable additional method in order to triangulate the themes emerging from the semi-structured interviews (Thomas, 2011). Marshall and Rossman (2010) claim that observation is an essential element to all qualitative research. To some extent, interviews and observations can be considered two complementing methods. As Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, and Allen (1993) have pointed out, "*the interview provides leads for the researcher's observations. Observation suggests probes for interviews. The interaction of the two sources of data not only enriches them both, but also provides a basis for analysis that would be impossible with only one source*." For this case study, unstructured observations were applied. Those observations served not mainly at making qualitative data, but were more directed at gaining cognitive and emotional access to the field (Breidenstein, Stefan, Kalthoff, & Nieswand, 2013; Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 2011).

The advantages of (unstructured) participant observation include perceiving the situation as it is, including hidden activities, and the opportunity to encounter the unexpected (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Ethnography and participant observation have been widely used in the domain of healthcare research (Langford & Panter-Brick, 2013; Maxwell, Baillie, Rickard, & McLaren, 2013). As Boddy (2011) however claims, ethnography is becoming increasingly popular in marketing-related research. As Brannan and Oultram (2012) elaborate, participant observation works as a mode of inquiry where the researcher becomes the research instrument. The main strength of the approach lies “*in its claim to validity in that is free of response bias”* (Boddy, 2011, p. 151), due to the researcher’s ability to observe consumers in situ. Boddy (2011) concludes with the claim that ethnography has both high validity and reliability. Mackellar (2013, p. 56) assessed the strengths and weaknesses of participant observation in a case study related to events research and concludes that “*the method is highly appropriate to the context of event environments where the use of surveys can interrupt the flow of the event experience for audiences, or be made impossible by the structure of the event.*” She finds that the methodology is especially useful in understanding consumers’ behaviour and expectations. This view is supported by Jaimangal-Jones (2014) who also assessed the applicability of participant observation in the field of events management. He claims that it is a valid method to gain understanding customers more fully through focussing on the entirety of the experience. Although both Mackellar (2013) and Jaimangal-Jones (2014) consider the use of the method in events research, their findings are transferable to the airside setting. Here, too, as the literature review has demonstrated, behaviour is dependent on context and the experiential component has been found to be of importance.

Unstructured observation, also referred to as participant observation “*is concerned with researchers becoming a participant in the situations they are researching”* (Thomas, 2009, p. 186). As Yin (2009) claims, it provides unusual opportunities for the collection of case study data. Thomas (2009) further elaborates that unstructured observation entails talking to people, watching, reading documents, keeping notes, and other activities in order to understand the situation. Unstructured observation, in contrast to structured observation (which is used mainly to quantify behaviours), is aimed at understanding phenomena (Thomas, 2011). It allows examining phenomena that are hidden from public view. As Jorgensen (1989) states, participant observation provides high validity and is suitable when little is known about the phenomenon in question. Boddy (2011) claims that validity is high because there is no or very little response bias.

Participant observation is claimed to be the most unobtrusive data collection method in qualitative research (Angrosino & Rosenberg, 2011). However, it can be very time consuming and has been brought in connection with difficulties in writing up, recording and analysing the observation data (Gillham, 2000; Saunders et al., 2012). Since, in order to avoid an observer effect, participant observation was conducted in a covert way (Boddy, 2011; Saunders et al., 2012), related ethical issues will be discussed in section 3.6 below.

A number of authors (Giddens & Sutton, 2013; Gillham, 2000; Marshall & Rossman, 2010) point out that it is important to keep an open mind when using unstructured observation, since familiarity with a setting can blind the researcher. *"So even if you 'know' the setting you have to act as if you didn't: because you don't"* (Gillham, 2000, p. 18). As Silverman (2010) states, it is the observer's task to unveil the remarkable in the mundane. He refers to the open mind as the requirement to allow "*things being seen afresh*" (Silverman, 2010, p. 18). Things being seen afresh leads to good ethnographic description, he further claims. This is referred to as thick description by a number of authors. (Gillham, 2000; Thomas, 2009). Thick description is a form of data gathering as well as a form of analysis, it refers to the development of "*as thick and rich and as complete an account of the phenomenon under investigation as possible*" (Quinlan, 2011, p. 420). Through the compilation of detailed descriptions of observations in field notes, thick description can be achieved (Gibbs, 2007; Saunders et al., 2012). However, it needs to be noted that the amount of information collected in unstructured observational research can easily overwhelm the researcher (Eberle & Maeder, 2011; Saunders et al., 2012). This was dealt with by going into the field in 'waves' of two to three days each. Each data collection wave was followed by a few days back at home during which the notes were written up and sighted, but during which time for reflection was also made available. This way, the notion of an overwhelming experience could, partly, be avoided.

Another way of ensuring the required open mind in unstructured observational research is the application of reflective practice (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Marshall & Rossman, 2010; Saunders et al., 2012; Waddington, 2004). Following Moon (1999b) and Bolton (2010), reflective practice refers to a form of mental processing that we may use to fulfil a purpose or to achieve some anticipated outcome. As Gray (2007) points out, reflective journals are possibly the most widely used tool for reflective practice. Such reflective journals can take various forms and format, what they all have in common is that they are essentially "*vehicles for reflection*" (Moon, 2006). Reflective notes and comments in the field notes can thus help ensuring the required 'distance' from the setting.

3.3.3.2 Interviews

The research interview has been defined as "*a purposeful conversation between two or more people, requiring the interviewer to establish rapport, to ask concise and unambiguous questions, to which the interviewee is willing to respond, and to listen attentively*" (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 372). Roberts (2014, p. 4) refers to the qualitative interview as "*a conversation with a purpose*". According to Bryman and Bell (2011), the interview is probably the most widely employed method in qualitative research. As Yin (2009) agrees, the interview is one of the most important sources of evidence in case research; Gillham (2000) even goes as far as to claim that interviewing is probably essential. Silverman (2010) however argues that qualitative researchers have a tendency towards using interviewing as method of choice and that this tendency has blinkered them from possible gains of other kinds of data. This tendency towards interviews may be due to the closeness between researcher and interviewee as well as to the common belief that interview data is valid and reliable (Saunders et al., 2012). In light of this, qualitative researchers need to be aware of both the advantages as well as the disadvantages of interviewing as data collection method.

3.3.3.3 Focus group discussion

According to Bryman (2012), focus groups are quite common in market research but have only lately been employed in social research. This view is shared by Barbour (2008). Kvale (2007) argues that, due to the collective interaction, focus group discussions are well suited for exploratory studies. Barbour (2008) agrees that focus groups have been closely connected with exploratory research, a view that is shared by Kandola (2012). The focus group has been defined as a group interview that focuses upon a particular issue, service or topic. As Wilkinson (2011) elaborates, the focus group moderator (a role that I took on in the process) does not ask questions to each participant in turn but rather facilitates group discussion by encouraging participants to interact with each other on the topic. Information is gathered by encouraging discussion amongst participants and by the sharing of perceptions in an open environment (Krueger, 2009). Participants are selected based on certain characteristics that they have in common with regards to a certain topic (Saunders et al., 2012). Although focus group discussions are commonly conducted in several rounds with different participants, I conducted one round with one group only. This was based on temporal constraints in connection to the availability of the focus group participants as well as with regards to the recruitment of participants. As the discussion of the focus group method below will show, I furthermore anticipated one round of discussion to be sufficient, based on the homogenous group of participants (Barbour, 2008).

Veal (2006) claims focus groups to be an appropriate method in tourism and hospitality research. Since Stuttgart Airport has been selected as the subject of the case, the opinions of airport users (passengers that have previously departed from

Stuttgart airport) are of specific interest. The focus group approach furthermore served as means of data triangulation, especially in connection with the evidence collected from interviews with passengers and staff. Whilst air passengers are under the influence of airside contextual factors (such as stress, arousal, nervousness, and time constraints), the focus group discussion allowed the collection evidence from airport users without those effects.

3.3.3.4 Secondary (point of sales) data analysis

As part of the triangulation approach (Yin, 2009), secondary data was analysed as evidence for the case study. As Bryman and Bell (2011) point out, the analysis of secondary data is a common approach in business research. The main benefits of secondary data analysis include not having to go through the process of collecting data beforehand. Despite secondary data often not being available in the desired format, secondary analysis offers an opportunity to analyse samples that are typically reasonably representative. Saunders et al. (2012) agree and claim that secondary data analysis can provide comparative and contextual insights as well as allowing unforeseen discoveries to emerge. In that sense, secondary data can yield unforeseen findings.

3.3.3.5 Passenger survey

The qualitative data analysis led to a number of findings that emerged from the data. Those findings will be discussed in chapters 4 and 5 below. The quantitative part of the in-situ passenger interviews subsequently served as a pilot for the larger paper-based passenger survey that was conducted. As the qualitative data analysis and interpretation was on going, the survey questionnaire was developed based on this pilot with the intention to test those propositions quantitatively with a larger sample. As Saunders et al. (2012) elaborates, it is beneficial to link surveys with other data collection methods as part of a multi- or mixed-method research design. In the case of this study, the different methods can thus be seen to complement and influence each other. The benefits of survey research include the collection of larger amounts of standardised data in an economical way, thus allowing easier comparison. Furthermore, the survey strategy allows the exploration of relationships between variables and concepts, thus facilitating the development of models and frameworks based on such relationships (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

3.3.4 Data analysis methods

Whilst data collection methods are widely discussed in extant literature, *"the analysis of case study evidence is one of the least developed aspects of doing case studies"* (Yin, 2009, p. 133). Through interviews, focus groups and unstructured observations, qualitative data was made. A passenger survey as well as secondary data yielded quantitative data that was analysed using different methods.

3.3.4.1 Qualitative data

As Bryman (2012) states, data collected in interviews and focus groups should be recorded and then transcribed. Textual data was coded and analysed with NVivo version 10, a Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (also known as CAQDAS). Coding of data refers to an analytical process which involves identifying "*passages of text that exemplify some thematic idea and linking them with a code"* (Gibbs, 2007, p. 54). Sotiriadou, Brouwers, and Le (2014) claim that researchers in the social sciences need to closely examine their choice of software for qualitative data analysis. Based on their evaluation, NVivo's advantages include its applicability for various types of data, as well as its effectiveness for semi-structured interviews. Data analysis with NVivo however is more subjective since it involves manual coding, Sotiriadou et al. (2014) report. Manual coding however is a requirement for the method of template analysis that was applied. It needs to be noted that, albeit the wealth of analytical possibilities that NVivo 10 comes with, it merely is a tool and analysis needs to follow a strategy (Yin, 2009). This requirement for a plan or strategy for the data analysis is reinforced by a number of authors (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Kvale, 2007; Saunders et al., 2012; Thomas, 2009).

Following Saunders et al. (2012), there are a number of common analytic procedures for inductive qualitative research. These include

- data display and analysis,
- grounded theory,
- narrative analysis,
- interpretative phenomenological analysis,
- analytic induction, as well as
- template analysis.

Since data display and analysis is directed at the discovery of relationships and patterns between concepts (Miles & Huberman, 1994), it is not appropriate for this case study. Grounded theory has a central focus on inductively creating novel theoretical ideas or hypotheses from the data (Gibbs, 2007). Following Corbin and Strauss (2008), it does however not permit the pre-specification of a priori codes (e.g. based on reference to an existing conceptual framework).

As opposed to fragmenting the data, both interpretative phenomenological analysis and narrative analysis work with narratives or stories, which would usually be collected by in-depth unstructured interviews (Saunders et al., 2012; J. A. Smith &

Osborn, 2003). Since in-depth interviews were however not feasible in the airside setting and since both approaches deal with non-fragmented data collected in-depth interviews, they were not appropriate for this case study.

Analytic induction is an approach that examines a number of cases to empirically establish causes of a phenomenon (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Flick, 2008b). Since it requires more than one case, analytic induction cannot be applied in the context of this case study.

Template analysis has also been referred to as concept-driven coding by Gibbs (2007). It relates to a qualitative data analysis that "*involves creating and developing a hierarchical template of data codes or categories representing themes revealed in the data collected and the relationships between these*" (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 683). Another relevant difference between template analysis and interpretative phenomenological analysis is the possibility to use a priori codes, as Waring and Wainwright (2008) elaborate.

Based on the discussion of inductive data analysis approaches, template analysis was applied as method of analysis for the qualitative data (King, Cassell, & Symon, 2004). Template analysis has been brought in connection with realist epistemologies (King et al., 2004). The method is well embedded in healthcare qualitative research (Waring & Wainwright, 2008), and is more and more applied in business and management research (King, 2012). Template analysis allows the researcher to produce a list of codes (or templates) representing the themes that emerge from the data. As such, whilst some codes may be defined a priori, they will be modified and added as the researcher works through the textual data. In that sense, template analysis combines inductive and deductive approaches, since (predetermined) codes can be amended or added as data are collected and analysed (Saunders et al., 2012; Waddington, 2004). This relying on a priori categories and the flexible approach in data analysis is what clearly differentiates template analysis from grounded theory, as King et al. (2004) elaborate. Template analysis thus involves both the development of those categories and attaching them to units of data (Saunders et al., 2012). As codes are developed and applied, it needs however to be noted that coded segments should not be simply treated as units of analysis in the sense of a content analysis. Because of the pragmatic and flexible use of coding in template analysis, "*the assumption that the frequency of a code in a particular text corresponds to its salience simply cannot be made*" (King et al., 2004, p. 256). The a priori codes that have emerged from the literature review were *F&B Outlet*, *Airport*, *Type of Trip*, and *Passenger*. These initial codes, derived from the literature review, formed the a priori assumptions of factors influencing passenger behaviour in the airside context. Template analysis allows the user to define a priori themes, "*but usually only a limited number that correspond to key concepts or perspectives for the study*" (King, 2012, p. 430). The four key concepts influencing air passenger behaviour that had emerged from the literature review were subsequently used as a priori codes.

Interview data, focus group transcripts, as well as notes taken from unstructured observations were analysed using the same procedures in NVivo, following the template analysis method.

Once the qualitative evidence had been collected and transcribed, an intensive coding process followed. The first step was to attach a person-code to all material in order to identify the respondent that disseminated the statements. In connection with node classifications that were created in NVivo, this later on allowed matrix-queries in the analysis of the qualitative evidence (Bazeley & Jackson, 2013). In line with the approach discussed by King (2012), thematic codes were developed and hierarchically arranged based on the evidence. When the template was applied to all of the transcripts, this resulted in a number of re-arrangements and re-naming of codes. This process was an iterative one and required a number of repetitions until the template was considered final and all qualitative evidence had subsequently been coded using the hierarchical template presented in Annex 2.

It needs to be noted that the development of the coding template is not the end of the data analysis; it is merely a means to the end of interpreting the data. As King et al. (2004) point out, the interpretation of coded data needs to follow a strategy that fits the particular study. As such, the listing of the codes is anticipated to be the starting point for further analysis of the codes. Thereafter, coded material is grouped by code and followed by "*reading the segments and making the connections that are subsequently corroborated and legitimised*" (Waring & Wainwright, 2008, p. 86). The template then can serve as the basis for the interpretation of the data, as well as a guide and structure for the presentation of the findings. Analysis of the data includes identifying patterns and themes across the data set (Brooks & King, 2014). This is also referred to as axial coding (Saunders et al., 2012). The axial coding was conducted with the help of a printed NVivo report "*Coding Summary By Node*" (Bazeley & Jackson, 2013). This report listed all the codes (referred to as *node* in NVivo) followed by the presentation of all text that had been coded at the specific node. This report was then read and re-read with comments, highlights and ideas added to it manually. This process of axial coding took approximately two months during which I had the document with me at all times in order to go through the evidence, the codes, and the comments again and again. The hand-written comments, in connection with the coding template, then also became the guiding structure for the presentation of the findings. This process will be highlighted in detail with an exemplary code in section 4.1.1 below.

3.3.4.2 Quantitative data

Secondary data and data collected through the survey were analysed quantitatively with the aim to test the propositions that emerged from the qualitative data analysis. Besides demographic and travel-related data, passengers were asked to rate the likeliness of certain behaviour to occur when travelling by plane. Following the testing of the propositions and further, more detailed analyses, an airside consumption framework was elaborated as a result of the qualitative and quantitative analyses.

3.3.4.2.1 Survey data

Exploratory data analysis was conducted using SPSS version 21 (Saunders et al., 2012). Data analysis for the different questions was initially conducted through descriptive statistics (frequencies and distributions of values for the variables). In a further step, propositions derived from the qualitative inquiry were assessed using statistical tests.

Due to the exploratory nature of the research and due to the structure of the data, principal component analysis was initially applied in order to explore whether the variables measuring airside behaviour and experience could be reduced to a smaller number of components (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2014; Pallant, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Principal components analysis determines which of these variables belong together as groups or were answered most similarly by the respondents (Leech, Barrett, & Morgan, 2012). Since the data set is relatively large compared to the number of variables and since relationships between variables could be identified, the main conditions for principle components analysis were met (Leech et al., 2012). After components were extracted, the amount of components to be retained was assessed through the use of a scree plot as well as through parallel analysis (O'Connor, 2000; Pallant, 2013). Reliability of the underlying scales was assessed using Cronbach alpha as well as the mean inter-item correlation (Pallant, 2013). The assumption of independent sampling was met (Leech et al., 2012) and the subject to item ratio of > 35 indicates that the sample size was large enough to conduct principal components analysis (Costello & Osborne, 2009). Prior to performing the principal components analysis, the suitability of the data was assessed. Missing values were excluded pairwise (Pallant, 2013). Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of 0.25 and above. The KMO value of 0.57 is slightly below the threshold value of 0.6, which suggests that the usefulness of principal components analysis might be questioned (Pallant, 2013). Since this research however is of exploratory nature, values of more than 0.5 can be considered adequate, as Leech et al. (2012) point out. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity indicated significance at the $p<0.01$ level. The results of direct oblimin rotation indicated low values (all below 0.16) in the component correlation matrix. Based on this, varimax rotation was subsequently used (Pallant, 2013).

Subsequently, multinomial categorical regression was applied. Multinomial categorical regression is a form of logistic regression that allows predicting category membership when the dependent variable is measured at nominal level of measurement and has more then two possible outcome categories (Field, 2014). Logistic regression thus allows testing models to predict categorical outcomes (Pallant, 2013). As Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) elaborate, the predictor (independent) variables in multinomial logistic regression then can be categorical or continuous or a mix of both. The method then emphasizes the probability of a particular outcome for each case. Outlet Patronage intention was asked through open questions in the survey instrument. Open responses received were then coded thematically, resulting in four distinct categories. Due to the nature of the survey instrument, only a subsample of 75 respondents could be included in the analysis.

Cluster analysis was furthermore conducted in order to establish whether meaningful passenger typologies relating to airside behaviour could be derived. Following Everitt (2011), clusters show internal cohesion and external isolation. In that sense, cluster analysis serves as a tool to achieve a partition between cases in the data. Cluster analysis has previously been applied in the field of air travel-related research. Adikariwattage, de Barros, Wirasinghe, and Ruwanpura (2012) applied a K-means clustering technique in order to determine clusters of commercial airports in the United States using annual domestic origin and destination passenger numbers, annual domestic transfer passenger numbers and annual international passenger volumes as clustering variables. Kuljanin and Kalić (2015) applied a two-step cluster analysis in order to identify meaningful groups of passengers using full-service and low-cost airlines on competing routes, using demographic variables within their data set to form the passenger clusters. Davison and Ryley (2013) used cluster analysis when investigating differences in air passenger groups with regards to life stages and having children.

A two-step cluster analysis approach was chosen for this study, since it combines the advantages of a k-means cluster analysis with a hierarchical approach, thus first computing the optimum number of clusters and then allocating cases to those clusters (Fredline, 2012). The technique is furthermore particularly useful for large data sets (Everitt, 2011). Besides computing the optimal number of clusters for a specific data set, two-step cluster analysis also allows the use of variables with different levels of measurement (Garson, 2014). This choice of clustering technique was furthermore based on recommendations by Mussalam and Tajeddini (2016), as well as by Herington, Merrilees, and Wilkins (2013).

There seem to be no fixed rules for the identification of the variables by which to cluster the data. Kuljanin and Kalić (2015, p. 14) used variables that "*were seen as appropriate*" without specifying their selection criteria. In this vein, and based on the research questions, the resulting factor scores from the principal components analysis were used for cluster analysis.

In order to assess differences in outlet patronage intentions between the clusters, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted (Bryman & Cramer, 2005). ANOVA is an analysis technique that allows comparing the mean scores for more than two groups (Pallant, 2013).

3.3.4.2.2 Secondary (point of sales) data

Secondary data was obtained from C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH's point of sales reporting system and exported into Microsoft Excel as well as IBM SPSS 21 for further analysis. The analysis methods were exploratory and directed at discovering consumption patterns at different time periods. This approach involved presenting time series of certain variables (such as revenue, average guest checks, etc.) for different weekdays in order to discover patterns in the data as well as analysing them statistically using ANOVA and Tukey-HSD Post-hoc tests (Pallant, 2013). All data sets related to the AIR Bar, the largest and busiest outlet that C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH operates in Stuttgart's airside area. For each day in the month of November 2014, the following variables were obtained for each 15-minute period between 04:45 and 19:45: Number of guest checks, average guest check, absolute revenue, and respective percentage of the total daily revenue. In order to reduce the amount of data points, the mean for each value was calculated for all periods for each type of weekday. Furthermore, the 15-minute periods were aggregated into time windows of 2 hours each with the exception of each day's first time window. Since data recording started at 4:45 every day, the first time window from 4:45 to 6:00 was shorter than the following ones. This procedure then resulted in a table showing the means of the values for the types of weekdays for the different time windows. The tables with the values, as well as graphic representations, can be found in Annex 4. Time frames were further aggregated into morning, midday and afternoon/evening and then analysed using IBM SPSS 21.

3.4 Managing quality

As Saunders et al. (2012) claim, the assessment of the quality of the research design is important in reducing the possibility of making wrong claims based on the research. Since quantitative and qualitative researchers typically use different approaches to assess the quality of research, I will discuss the measures taken to manage quality in this mixed-methods study separately for the quantitative and for the qualitative methods employed.

3.4.1 Quantitative methods

In quantitative research, quality is commonly defined by the scientific canons of enquiry (Saunders et al., 2012). These include the concepts of reliability and of validity (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Whilst reliability refers to how *consistently* an instrument measures a particular concept, validity tests how *well* a concept is measured by an instrument (Cavana, Delahaye, & Sekeran, 2001). Whilst Denzin and Lincoln (2011) name reliability, internal validity, external validity as well as objectivity as criteria for the assessment of the quality of research, other authors use slightly different terminology (Cavana et al., 2001). Saunders et al. (2012) claim that business research should be assessed by reliability, construct validity, internal validity and external validity. Bryman and Bell (2011) agree for reliability to be a criterion, however also include replicability. Replicability can be achieved through providing sufficient information about the research procedures applied in the study. As far as validity is concerned, they break the concept down into measurement validity, internal validity, external validity, and ecological validity. Table 14 below shows an overview of the three authors' stances on which criteria should be applied to assess the quality of quantitative research:

Table 14: Scientific Canons of Enquiry

Criterion	Denzin & Lincoln (2011)	Saunders, et. al (2012)	Bryman & Bell (2011)
Reliability	X	X	X
Internal validity	X	X	X
External validity	X	X	X
Construct validity		X	
Replicability			X
Ecological validity			X
Measurement validity			X
Objectivity	X		

Reliability in this context refers to the extent to which findings can be replicated by another researcher (Saunders et al., 2012). The requirement of reliability includes methodological rigour throughout the research process. Bryman and Cramer (2005) consider reliability also to include the question whether the measures that are devised for concepts are consistent (stability) and refer to this as external reliability. Bryman and Bell (2011) claim that internal reliability relates to the question whether each scale is measuring a single idea and whether the items in the scale can thus be considered internally consistent. Internal reliability can be assessed using Cronbach's alpha tests (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Palethorpe, 2013).

The concept of validity generally refers to the question whether an indicator measures the concept in question. According to Saunders et al. (2012) it does that when it has construct validity, internal validity and external validity.

Construct validity refers to whether the measurement questions are really measuring the concepts they are intended to measure. Bryman and Bell (2011) refer to it as the concept of face validity and claim that this can be achieved intuitively by having people with expertise or experience in the field assess whether measures have face validity. This view is supported by Cavana et al. (2001).

Internal validity refers to the degree to which findings correctly map the phenomenon in question or, in other words, the extent to which findings can be attributed to the researcher's interventions rather than other effects. Internal validity then relates to the issue of causality, as Bryman and Bell (2011) point out. It can be considered to be established when the research demonstrates a causal relationship between two variables (Saunders et al., 2012). Bryman and Bell (2011) add the concept of measurement validity which is given when a scale or measurement measures what it is intended to measure. As such, measurement validity can be seen to be closely connected to internal validity (Saunders et al., 2012).

External validity questions the extent to which findings can be generalized to similar settings. It is thus closely connected to the sampling methods applied and to whether the sample selected can be considered representative (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011).

The concept of objectivity deals with the degree to which findings are free from bias (Saunders et al., 2012). Bryman and Bell (2011) furthermore discuss the concept of ecological validity. By this, they mean whether or not the findings are applicable to people's everyday social settings. They claim that ecological validity decreases the more a researcher intervenes in a natural setting or creates unnatural ones such as laboratories. In that sense, a case study approach has a high level of ecological validity, since the researcher does not aim to control the conditions and to manipulate variables (Saunders et al., 2012).

When assessing the quality of the data obtained through the survey, reliability and validity of the measures should considered (Cavana et al., 2001). The reliability of the findings of the quantitative part of the study has assessed using Cronbach's alpha (Palethorpe, 2013). Through a pre-test of the survey instrument conducted with frequent flyers as well as management, face or construct validity was increased (Cavana et al., 2001; Lai, 2015).

3.4.2 Qualitative methods

Symon and Cassell (2012) argue that qualitative research cannot be assessed by the same criteria as those applied to quantitative research. The discussion of appropriate criteria to assess quality in qualitative research is ongoing. In accordance with thoughts of Pratt (2008), Symon and Cassell (2012) suggest for researchers to be explicit about their position in the assessment debate. This approach connects well with the requirement for researchers to be explicit about their philosophical position when submitting their work for review.

The lack of standardisation in semi-structured interviews and in focus group discussions has been brought in connection with concerns about their reliability as data collection method (Saunders et al., 2012). Reliability in qualitative research is directed at the question whether other researchers would reach similar information (Silverman, 2009). This is referred to as dependability by Lincoln and Guba (1989). Marshall and Rossman (2010) however claim that this attempt to replicate qualitative research is not realistic and should thus not be strived for. However, qualitative researchers should be explicit about the methodological choices and the processes they applied in order to allow other researchers to follow through the processes and to potentially re-analyse the evidence collected. Following Flick (2008b, p. 16), reliability in qualitative research thus goes "*in the direction of a more procedural conception*". As such, reliability in qualitative research can be enhanced by making the production of data more transparent, so that interview statements and their interpretations can be clearly differentiated from each other. Saunders et al. (2012) agree that reliability can thus be achieved through the application of academic rigour in qualitative interviewing. One aspect of ensuring reliability in interviews is to re-check interview transcripts against the audio recording (Kvale, 2007), which was done for this study. Following coherent transcription guidelines and documenting the whole research process can further enhance reliability. Kvale (2007) however voices concerns over transcripts. According to him, there are dangers when moving from the spoken to the transcripts, such as superficial coding, decontextualization, missing what came before and after the respondent's account and missing what the conversation was about. According to Gibbs (2007), these concerns can be overcome by going back to the audio recording to check the interpretations based on the transcript. Due to temporal constraints and a large amount of audio-and video- recorded data, data transcription for this case study was outsourced to a professional service provider (Gibbs, 2007). The transcriptions followed the transcription rules of Hoffmann-Riem (1984), since the focus was less on the context and more on the content of what has been said (Dresing & Pehl, 2013). Gibbs (2007) suggests the following procedures to ensure reliability in qualitative research: To check transcripts in order to ensure that no obvious mistakes have been made during transcription and to ensure there is no drift in the definition in the codes during the process of coding by constantly comparing data with codes. This was ensured through comparisons of the audio file with the transcripts.

As Creswell (2009) points out, validity is one of the strengths of qualitative research. It refers to certain procedures that are employed in the research process in order to ensure accuracy of the findings. Validity has also been brought in connection with trustworthiness, authenticity and credibility. Validity of qualitative research can be enhanced by the creation of thick description to convey findings as well as by data triangulation. In order to reach greater confidence in research findings and to enhance quality, the concept of triangulation has been introduced in the domain of qualitative research (Flick, 2008b). Data triangulation refers to an approach where more than one qualitative research method or more than one source of data is applied to a specific research setting (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Denzin

& Lincoln, 2011). In order to enhance the quality and the reliability of research findings, a number of authors suggest triangulation to be applied in qualitative research (Modell, 2009; Stake, 1995; Thomas, 2011). As Barbour (2008) elaborates, focus groups can for example provide parallel data for the purpose of triangulation, particularly with regard to the exploration of discrepancies.

Furthermore, Creswell (2009) states that the reporting of negative or discrepant information increases credibility of the research. Another aspect influencing validity is bias. As Saunders et al. (2012) claim, interviewee and interviewer bias can be reduced by ensuring appropriate knowledge of the context of the interview, the appropriateness of location and appearance, as well as the researcher's ability to conduct and accurately record the interview. As Yardley (2008, p. 237) agrees, qualitative researchers "*generally seek to maximize the benefits of engaging actively with the participants in the study*", instead of trying to eliminate the influence of the researcher. As such, it needs to be accepted that objectivity can hardly be reached in qualitative research. Objectivity in the field of qualitative research thus is rather interpreted as consistency of meaning (Flick, 2008b). This level of consistency can be enhanced through reflective practice (Creswell, 2009; Gibbs, 2007).

According to Flick (2008a, p. 41), qualitative research is "*often not very strongly linked to generalization issues*." However, as he further explains, any research assumes that its conclusions or findings will have some relevance beyond its immediate context. The issue of generalization comes up in qualitative research, since it is typically based on a very limited number of cases (Flick, 2008b). Based on the qualitative approach, statistical generalizability can however not be reached in qualitative research (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Saunders et al., 2012; Thomas, 2009). The issue of generalizability in qualitative research often comes up in a very different way, asking whether findings are valid in contexts with similar features as the one they were discovered in (Yardley, 2008). Generalizability in qualitative research is thus replaced by "*a transferability of knowledge from one situation to* *another, taking into account the contextuality and heterogeneity of social knowledge*" (Kvale, 2007, p. 87). As such, generalization needs to be discussed in an understanding different from inferential statistics. Internal validity in qualitative research can be achieved through rigour, soundness, coherence and transparency (Yardley, 2008). It may furthermore be enhanced through triangulation, comparing of researchers' coding as well as participant feedback.

Table 15 below illustrates the different canons of scientific enquiry and how they are addressed in the context of this study.

Table 15: Addressing Quality Criteria

Criterion	Addressed in qualitative methods	Addressed in quantitative methods
Reliability	Applying methodological rigour throughout research process.	Ensuring measures devised for concepts to be consistent. Addressing stability through pre-testing the passenger survey with structured interviews.
	Following coherent transcription guidelines and checking transcripts against audio and video recordings.	Ensuring internal reliability within scales by using Cronbach's alpha tests.
	Applying method and data triangulation to achieve greater confidence in the findings.	Applying method and data triangulation to achieve greater confidence in the findings.
		Assessing composite reliability of scales.
Validity	Using thick description in ethnographic research.	
	Applying method and data triangulation to achieve greater confidence in the findings.	Applying method and data triangulation to achieve greater confidence in the findings.
Internal validity	Internal validity was increased through data and method triangulation.	Since data concerning variables was simultaneously collected and since the case approach does not allow to manipulate variables, internal validity can be considered to be low.
External validity		Using probability sampling methods when selecting passengers for structured interviews and survey.
Construct validity		Using people with expertise and experience in the field to assess questionnaires.
Replicability	Explicit detailed description of research procedures applied.	
Ecological validity	By using a case approach, no manipulation or control of variables has been sought.	By using a case approach, no manipulation or control of variables has been sought.
Measurement validity		Ensuring measures devised for concepts to be consistent.
Objectivity	Ensuring consistency of meaning through reflective practice.	Using randomized approaches in participant selection wherever possible.

3.5 Language

Based on the context of the study, semi-structured interviews with staff and management, as well as the focus group discussion were held in German. Most of the structured passenger interviews were also conducted in German, some in English. As Bryman and Bell (2011), as well as Quinlan (2011) state, language plays a key role in qualitative research. When Twinn (1997) analysed qualitative data collected in Chinese both in the original language and after translation into English, she found differences in the themes generated from the data, due to the analysis being conducted in another language. This is in line with the findings presented by Temple and Young (2004) who claim that translations within the research process can potentially cause bias. It is therefore important to be explicit about the way the language and translation issues are dealt with by the researcher, Temple and Young (2004) state. In order to minimize potential bias arising from translation, transcriptions as well as the analysis of interview and focus group data took place in German. Once the analysis had been finalized and the key themes had been identified, the results were reported in English language. I thus aimed at working in the source language as long as possible, analysing and interpreting the findings in German language, before presenting them in English. Being of German mother tongue, I anticipated no loss of information or meaning arising from this approach.

3.6 Research Ethics

Since all research concerned with human beings potentially poses ethical dilemmas, it is important to consider ethical implications of my research (Giddens & Sutton, 2013). According to Murphy and Dingwall (2001), researchers need to consider the rights of research participants and need to ensure that findings of the research do not result in any adverse consequences for the participants. My research study conforms to the Handbook of Research Ethics of the University of Gloucestershire.

The information obtained from participants through interviews and focus group discussions was used to understand their behaviours as well as their perceptions. Participation was voluntary and participants did not have to answer questions that they did not wish to. With the consent of C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH as well as with that of the airport management company, I approached consumers at the different outlets as they were consuming and solicited their participation, seeking informed consent (Saunders et al., 2012). Participation in passenger interviews and the passenger survey was anonymous and no connection can be made from the data collected to the passengers' personal details.

For participants in semi-structured interviews, consent forms had been prepared and were handed out to the potential participants. Those consent forms also included a description of the research objectives as well as the researcher's contact details. The forms were completed and signed both by the participant as well as myself, one copy was handed out to the participant and one was retained by me. After consent was obtained, interviews were audio-recorded for later transcription and analysis. Participants could withdraw from the interviews at any time, in which case their information would have been destroyed. No interview participant had requested this to be done.

A similar approach was chosen for the focus group participants. Once general interest in participation had been declared, potential participants received a short questionnaire to collect personal details as well as travelling behaviour. At the same time, a consent form describing the research objectives and choice of methods was sent out. In addition, my intention to video-record and transcribe the discussion was made explicit on the consent form. Participants emailed back the questionnaire including their use of the airport in 2014 and all participants had signed the consent form before the focus group discussion started. Only after consent from all participants had been obtained in writing, the video-recording was started.

Besides participant interviews and focus groups, I used the method of unstructured participant observation. As Oliver and Eales (2008) claim, participant observation is an effective method, provided it is applied within an ethical framework. Issues that need to be considered are the invasion of privacy, informed consent and deception (Oliver & Eales, 2008). Observational techniques require an ethical discussion since it is practically not feasible to gain informed consent from all passengers (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Flick, 2008b). However, Passengers in commercial airports in Western Europe usually are aware of being video recorded, since most airports are using video surveillance systems for security reasons (Hempel & Töpfer, 2004). Thus, by using airport facilities, passengers give implicit consent to being visually recorded. Since I merely observed passengers anonymously in that setting and recorded my observations only by taking notes (and not through video recordings), passengers' privacy was not infringed by my actions. Furthermore, my research is not aimed at resulting in adverse outcomes for air passengers.

All data was reported anonymously and was kept confidential; the interview participants' names are not disclosed in the research study. To obscure participants' identity, I used pseudonyms. Storage and analysis of personal data is in compliance with data protection laws and data will be deleted once it is no longer required for research purposes.

3.7 Access

Since commercial airports are facilities that need to comply with special security requirements, access to facilities, persons and data was a challenging factor when conducting this research. For the research in question, personal contacts have been used to negotiate access. This is one reason why the research was carried out in the airport of Stuttgart, Germany.

Due to challenges related to access to venues, staff and service users, the cooperation with a specific airport F&B outlet operator had been sought. A general agreement for the research project had been reached with C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH of Stuttgart, Germany on Monday, 12 November 2012. The in-situ data collection took place in four waves between Sunday, 2 November 2014 and Tuesday, 2 December 2014. The passenger survey took place in the period between 15 June and 24 July, 2015. Secondary data was analysed between 29 May 2015 and 14 June 2015 and referred to sales activities taking place in the month of November 2014.

C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH is based in Stuttgart, Germany and operates F&B as well as retail outlets in the commercial airports of Stuttgart, Frankfurt, Cologne, Berlin-Tegel and Berlin-Schönefeld, all in Germany. The company employs some 500 staff and has annual revenues of approximately 40 million Euros. The company has been founded in 1983 by Mr. Claus Wöllhaf and is managed by him in the capacity of shareholder and managing director. The owner-founder is deeply involved in the management of the company and shows a strong presence in the operations. The majority of the employees know him personally and he visits different outlets on a regular basis.

I hold a mandate as freelance business consultant for C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH and one of its subsidiaries. This subsidiary exclusively deals with international projects and this mandate only covers the management and development of international projects that do not interfere with the regular operation in the German commercial airports. Besides being the managing director of that subsidiary, I furthermore hold a 5% minority share in it. I have been in contact with the company's owner, Mr. Claus Wöllhaf, since 2006 and accepted the consulting mandate in 2010, before embarking on a doctoral journey.

Mr. Claus Wöllhaf, the owner-manager of the company, has also acted as gatekeeper, negotiating approval for the research with the airport management company and making the data collection at Stuttgart airport possible. Based on a long-standing relationship between C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH and Stuttgart airport, the airport management company has agreed to approve my research proposal. I had subsequently applied for and have been granted employee access to the airside areas of Stuttgart airport.

3.8 Considering the effects of research on the relationship

The following section will discuss how the choice of methods and approaches might affect both the organization that made the research possible as well as the researcher. Since I am involved in the organization in the capacity of a freelance business consultant, not only the organization and the researcher, but also the relationship between the two may be affected by the research to be carried out.

I have been in contact with the owner of the organisation since 2006. Since 2010, I am involved professionally in the capacity of a business consultant; this includes my position of managing director for one of the subsidiaries. Although most members of the management team and some employees know me or have heard of me, no conflict of interest was expected to arise from the research.

Some members of management however might have felt threatened by the research project, since it took place within their areas of responsibility. I therefore considered it to be of importance to clarify roles and responsibilities at an early stage and to communicate with these managers in an open manner. This was ensured by means of open discussions with management before the research took place.

The relationship between the owner and me is based on mutual trust and loyalty. It may however still be the case that results of the research could be “uncomfortable” for either party, especially if the results show negative feedback from customers and/or employees. I believe that a clear, respectful and honest communication will prevent the relationship from taking damage, irrespective of the results.

3.9 The case

Case study research entails the detailed analysis of a single case or a number of cases. As such, phenomena are studied within their context (Flyvbjerg, 2011; Saunders et al., 2012; S. Smith, 2010). This can be achieved at different levels of analysis (Giddens & Sutton, 2013). This study aims at applying a microanalytic approach, focussing on consumer behaviour in a specific setting. As Thomas (2011) points out, a case study requires both a subject (the practical unit) as well as an object (the analytical frame). Whilst the exploration of air passenger behaviour with regards to airside food and beverage consumption constitutes this study’s analytical frame, the subject (the practical unit) of the case will now be discussed.

3.9.1 Selection of the case

The selection of cases can be conducted based on various criteria. As Stake (1995) points out, it may be useful to select cases which are typical or representative of other cases. The main objective in the selection of cases, for Stake (1995), is to maximize what can be learnt from them. This view is shared by Flyvbjerg (2011). At the same time, Stake (1995) calls for a pragmatic approach. Researchers should pick cases that “*are easy to get to and hospitable to our inquiry, perhaps for which a prospective informant can be identified and with actors (the people studied) willing* *to comment on certain draft materials.*" (Stake, 1995, p. 4). This pragmatic approach is supported by Yin (2009), as well as by Flyvbjerg (2011).

3.9.2 Rationale for a single-case design

As Yin (2009) states, when the choice (and the resources) are given, multiple-case designs may be preferred over single-case designs. Multiple-case designs can, through theoretical replication, furthermore allow to deductively test hypotheses (Saunders et al., 2012). However, access to airports' airside areas and passengers is not easily achieved. Whilst a multiple case approach is typically chosen because of its ability to allow replication, a single case study approach is chosen because of the nature of the case, Saunders et al. (2012) argue. As Yin (2009) elaborates further, a single-case design is justifiable where the case represents a common case. This view is supported by Saunders et al. (2012, p. 179) who add that a single case can furthermore be considered appropriate if it provides "*an opportunity to observe and analyse phenomena that few have considered before*".

Stake (1995) differentiates between three types of case studies: (I) intrinsic cases, (II) instrumental case studies and (III) multiple cases. Multiple case studies are undertaken to explore a general phenomenon, and intrinsic case studies primarily serve at gaining insight into the particularity of a situation. Instrumental case studies "*are those that that focus on using the case as a means of understanding a broader issue of allowing generalizations to be challenged*" (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 60).

The aim of a case study is thus not to statistically generalize to a population. However, as Yin (2009) states, the goal of a case study can be to expand and to generalize theories. This analytic generalization can be done from single as well as multiple case study design, Yin (2009) further elaborates. This view is supported by

Bryman and Bell (2011). Bryman and Bell (2011) further claim that "*the goal of case study analysis should, therefore, be to concentrate on the uniqueness of the case and to develop a deep understanding of its complexity*" (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 61). Following that line of thought, the purpose of this case study is to understand the complexity of a single case, but also to gain knowledge from it that can subsequently be applied and used to understand similar contexts.

Since I have been able to negotiate access to Stuttgart airport, I am intending to use this one airport as a single case (De Vaus, 2001; Thomas, 2011). As the literature review has shown, very little research has to date been conducted on commercial air passenger airside behaviour. When discussing Stuttgart airport in section 3.9.3 below, I will show that it can serve as a common case, thus applying a purposeful sampling logic when selecting the case (Saunders et al., 2012).

3.9.3 Stuttgart Airport

There are 23 international commercial airports in Germany and 15 regional airports and landing facilities. With the mega-hubs in Frankfurt and Munich offering global connections, the remaining commercial airports offer mainly domestic and international connections. Dusseldorf, Stuttgart, Hamburg and Berlin furthermore offer flights to select intercontinental destinations (Liebert, Niemeier, Müller, & Ehmer, 2010). Table 16 below illustrates the structure of German commercial airports with more than 1.000.000 annual passengers, based on figures of the year 2014 (ADV, 2015).

Table 16: German Commercial Airports (2014)

Airport	IATA code	Passengers	Flight movements	Classification
Frankfurt	FRA	59.566.132	469.026	International / Hub (Lufthansa)
Munich	MUC	39.700.515	376.678	International / Hub (Lufthansa)
Dusseldorf	DUS	21.850.489	210.720	International / Hub (Air Berlin)
Berlin-Tegel	TXL	20.688.016	182.197	International / Hub (Air Berlin)
Hamburg	HAM	14.760.280	153.879	International
Stuttgart	STR	9.718.438	124.452	International
Cologne/Bonn	CGN	9.450.493	123.241	International
Berlin-Schönefeld	SXF	7.292.517	70.324	International
Hannover	HAJ	5.291.882	76.031	International
Nuremberg	NUE	3.257.348	61.257	International
Bremen	BRE	2.773.129	45.987	International
Frankfurt-Hahn	HHN	2.447.140	21.142	International
Leipzig-Halle	LEJ	2.328.341	63.569	International
Dortmund	DTM	1.965.723	30.266	International
Niederrhein	NRN	1.807.543	16.437	International
Dresden	DRS	1.760.408	30.357	International

Source: ADV, 2015

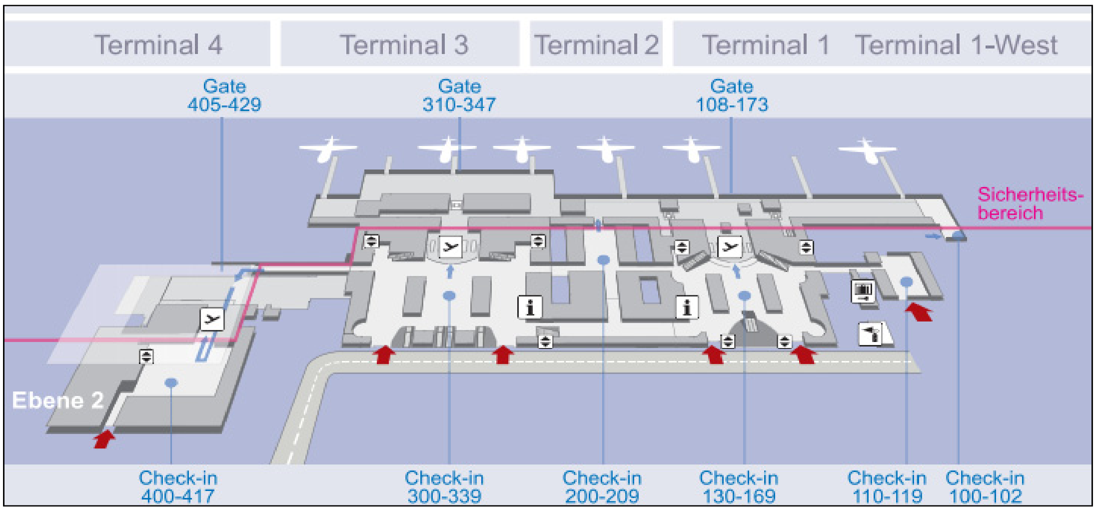
Stuttgart airport can be seen to represent a group of twelve medium-sized commercial German airports with 1 to 14 million annual passengers. These airports mainly serve domestic and international destinations; three of them (HAM, STR, CGN) offer connections to a few intercontinental destinations as well.

Based on access that I have been able to negotiate through one of the concessions operators, Stuttgart airport in southern Germany serves as the practical unit (or the subject) of the case study. In 2014, Stuttgart airport had some 9.700.000 passengers and served more than 100 (mainly European) destinations with about 124.000 aircraft movements (Airport, 2014a, 2014b). Passenger numbers and aircraft movements at Stuttgart airport have been slightly decreasing between 2012 and 2013. Despite facing fierce competition from the nearby mega-hubs in Frankfurt and Munich, Stuttgart airport plays an important role in German commercial aviation (Merkle & Lewis, 2014). In 2014, Stuttgart was the 6th largest German commercial airport by passengers (ADV, 2015). With only some 0.3% of all commercial air passengers in Stuttgart being transit passengers, the airport almost exclusively serves origin & destination traffic (Airport, 2014b).

3.9.3.1 Terminal layout

Figure 4 below illustrates the terminal layout of Stuttgart Airport (Airport, 2014a).

Figure 4: Stuttgart Airport Terminal Layout



Most commercial flights depart from terminals one, two and three. Since terminal four exclusively serves select charter and ethnic flights at peak periods, the vast majority of all flights are handled in terminals one to three. Terminals one to four are inter-connected on the airside (above the red line in the terminal map above), i.e. passengers can move freely between all gates in all terminals once they have passed security, irrespective of which terminal they have used to enter the airside area. This layout constitutes one central airside area in which all departing passengers can move freely. With the exception of Hannover, this is in line with all medium-sized German commercial airports. Hannover Airport has three separate concourses within the main terminal building that do not offer passengers the possibility to move between them on the airside. Larger German hub airports, with the exception of Berlin-Tegel, have several separate terminal buildings, and connecting between them may involve using shuttle trains or buses or going to the landside and re-clearing security. Those individual terminal buildings, however, have their own infrastructure and thus constitute a structure similar to the one discussed above in the case of Stuttgart. Once airside, passengers have a certain restricted environment that they can freely move in.

Serving almost exclusively origin & destination traffic and with F&B outlets positioned in one large airside departures lounge that all passengers can access prior to their departure, Stuttgart airport thus represents the typical features of airside areas within its class of German commercial airports. As such, it can serve as a typical case (Saunders et al., 2012), as a common case (Yin, 2009), or as a key case (Thomas, 2011) for the research in question.

3.9.3.2 Food and Beverage outlets

A total of ten different food and beverage outlets are located in the airside area of terminals one to four, as Table 17 below illustrates (Airport, 2014a). The only recent major development was the construction of the AIR Bar in late 2013. This outlet replaced a smaller bar that had been operating at the same location since the opening of the terminal in 1991. Space for constructing the AIR Bar was gained by removing a boarding gate in the main terminal building. It needs to be noted that level 3 is the main departures level on which passengers find the majority of airside food and beverage as well as retail outlets. Level 2 airside outlets are smaller units that exclusively serve the bus gates (which are located one level below the main terminal departures level). Most passengers move on level 3 and only move down the stairs to level 2 shortly before their flight is ready for boarding.

The airport management company has appointed a total of two operators for the ten F&B outlets in the airside area of terminals one to four. All Food and Beverage outlets in Terminal one and four are operated by C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH[3], an owner-run medium-sized company specializing in airport food and beverage operations. All outlets in terminal three have been allocated to Autogrill, an international group that specializes in travel catering (Autogrill, 2014). Terminal two, as a small 'connector' building with no boarding gates features a few retail shops, but no food and beverage outlets. Terminal four has one outlet serving all departing flights in that terminal. Passengers can however, as mentioned, move freely between all terminals on the airside. Table 17 below illustrates the different airside F&B outlets.

Based on personal relationships and my professional involvement with the organisation (see above in section 3.8), I have been granted access to staff, management, and data at C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH. There is no such relationship with Autogrill.

[3] The company's website can be found at www.woellhaf-airport.de

Table 17: Airside F&B Outlets at Stuttgart Airport

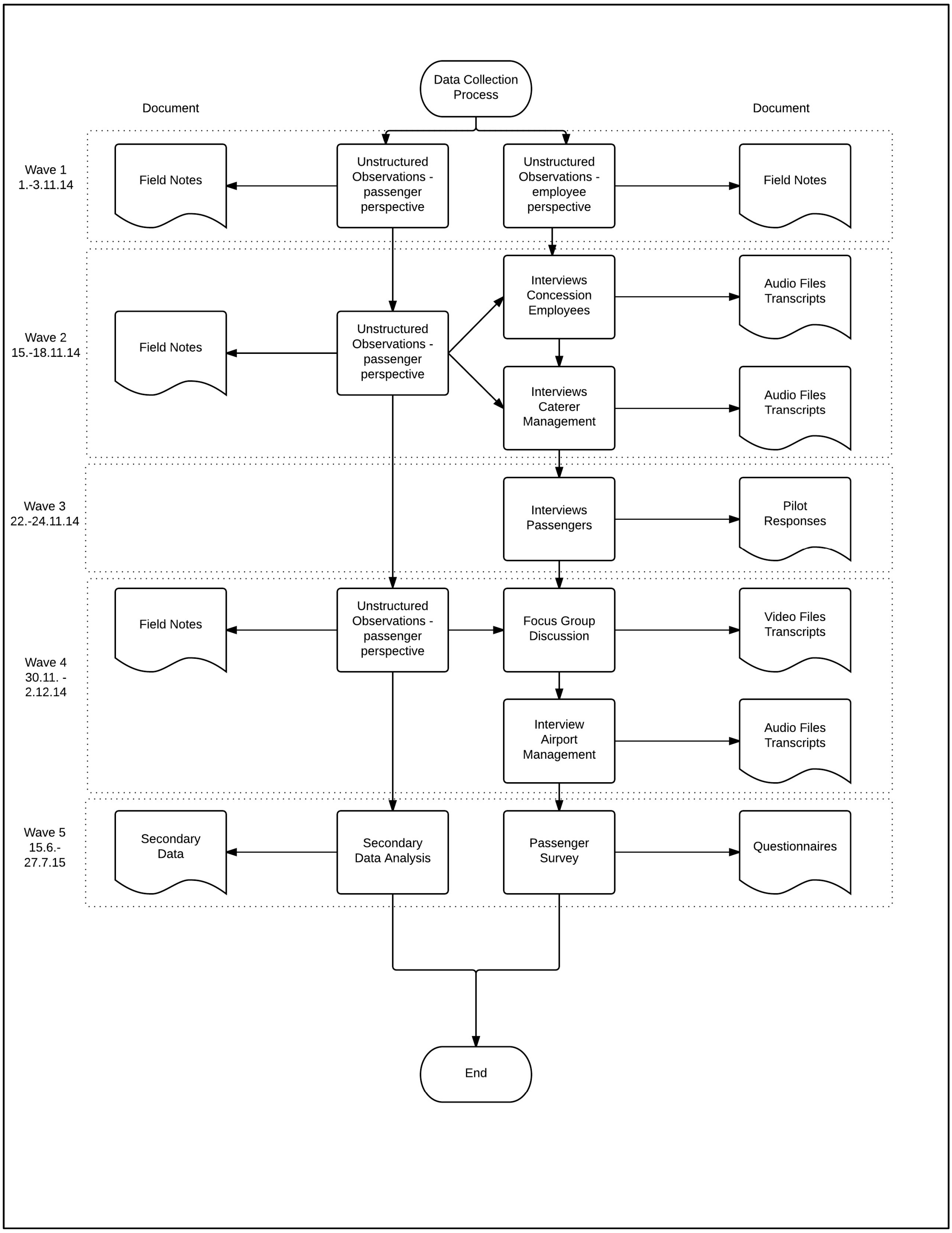
Outlet name	Location	Description	Offer	Seating available	Opening times	Operator
Bar Cockpit	Terminal 1, Level 3	Bar-style outlet	Snacks and beverages	Yes	04:30 to 21:00	C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH
Coffee Corner I	Terminal 3, Level 2	Coffee bar	Coffee, alcoholic beverages	No	Varying opening times	Autogrill
Coffee Corner II	Terminal 3, Level 2	Coffee bar	Coffee, alcoholic beverages	No	Varying opening times	Autogrill
Bar Piccolino I	Terminal 1, Level 2	Bar-style outlet	Snacks and beverages	No	05:00 to 20:00	C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH
Bar Piccolino II	Terminal 1, Level 2	Bar-style outlet	Snacks and beverages	No	05:00 to 20:00	C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH
Bar Piccolino III	Terminal 1, Level 3	Bar-style outlet in the non-Schengen area	Snacks and beverages	No	Varying opening times	C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH
News Café	Terminal 3, Level 3	Café-style outlet	Meals and beverages	Yes	04:00 until last departure in terminal 3	Autogrill
Restaurant "Pasta & Sea Food Trattoria"	Terminal 3, Level 3	Italian-style outlet	Meals and beverages	Yes	04:00 until last departure in terminal 3	Autogrill
AIR Bar	Terminal 1, Level 3	Bar-style outlet. The outlet was newly opened in December 2013.	Snacks and beverages	Yes	04:30 to 21:00	C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH
Departures Bar T4	Terminal 4, Level 1	Bar-style outlet	Snacks and beverages	No	Varying opening times	C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH

3.10 Data collection

Data collection took place in four waves at Stuttgart airport. Each time, two to three consecutive days were spent at the airport for each wave. The different data collection methods used can be considered to be interconnected and influencing each other. This is one of the reasons why data collection was conducted in waves, with different methods applied in each wave. The days spent at the airport had been previously agreed with management of C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH as well as with airport management. Whilst professional constraints limited the overall time that could be spent at the airport in each wave, it was ensured that at least a full Sunday as well as a full Monday was spent at the airport each time. The rationale for this was to be able to include both leisure and business travellers in the research. Leisure travellers typically are more likely to travel on weekends, whereas business travellers are more likely to make use of the airport on weekdays. The fifth wave covered the passenger survey and the secondary data analysis. It did not require me to travel to Stuttgart for the fifth wave.

The following Figure 5 illustrates the different methods of data collection that were applied. Although the figure below shows the activities in a linear way, it is important to note that activities informed each other. The data collection process can, as such, be seen to be an iterative one. The development of codes and concepts through the different stages is further illustrated in section 4.1.2 below.

Figure 5: Data Collection Process



3.10.1 Unstructured Observations

In order to grasp different perspectives, I took on two different positions of a complete participant in two different roles in the airside setting. In observational research, the focus lies on sites and situations rather than on groups of persons. As such, the concept of sampling does not apply as much with regards to persons to be observed. Researchers should, however, select sites where they are likely to encounter the subject of the study (Angrosino, 2007; Flick, 2008a). I thus immersed in the roles of the main participants in this setting, namely the air passengers' as well as F&B outlet employees'.

The initial recording of observations as well as reflective notes was done using a pencil and a small Moleskine notebook. As Brewer (2004) reports, writing up the field notes from the notebook in a more legible form is essential. I took extensive jottings in a small notebook and audio-recorded my field notes immediately after each visit to the field. Another person then wrote up these dictations into a Word document. My dictations and thus also the typed field notes included reflective comments in order to ensure the application of reflective practice along the way. In the typed documents, I differentiated observations, reflections, and interpretations by using different font styles (Breidenstein et al., 2013). Having the field notes transcribed by another person allowed me to gain some distance from the field and from my own actions. On the other hand, it also forced me to compare and check my jottings with the final field notes, thus enhancing the quality of the field notes. This was used as a way of 'forcing' myself to get close to the textual evidence again before coding and analysing it during the analysis stage.

As Waddington (2004) points out, it can be difficult to determine when to leave the field, i.e. when enough data has been collected. As he suggests, this should be the case once data saturation has been achieved, but is likely to be influenced by practical issues as well (e.g. the time available for observations). As previously discussed, my observations served more at allowing me to get close to the field and setting and less at making data. The themes that emerged during the observation process however informed the interview schedules for the semi-structured interviews with staff and management. Interviews, in turn, influenced subsequent observations. This can be considered an iterative process.

3.10.1.1 Unstructured observation from the passengers' perspective

As Veal (2006) suggests, taking on the role of the role of the user of the facilities is a common approach in leisure and tourism research. In order to observe from the passengers' perspective, I spent time at the airport following typical passengers' activities. Observations resulted in jottings that I recorded in-situ in a notebook. These were then audio-dictated and then written up by another person for further analysis. Taking on this role allowed me to observe passengers' behaviour, but also to perceive the effect of the context on me as a passenger in this setting.

This auto-ethnographic approach allowed me to come closer to the context of the case that I am researching (Breidenstein et al., 2013; Emerson et al., 2011). Through the compilation of thick description, I aimed to produce an ethnographic description of the context and setting, but to also come close to the setting and assess my own emotions, perceptions and actions as I moved through the airport in the passenger role.

Since I needed to travel to Stuttgart airport and back a number of times as part of the data collection process, I had decided to travel by plane. As such, I was able to realistically take on the role of an air passenger. After having left the field from interviews or observations from the staff perspective, I left the airside setting and changed into the passenger role at my hotel, outside the terminal building. This included changing from the uniform back to normal street clothes. I found this physical ‘break’ to be important since it helped me to detach from what I had experienced airside and to become a passenger. I then aimed to be at the airport about two hours prior to departure, following the regular passenger activities. Survey data later on revealed that the mean arrival time for passengers was around two hours prior to departure of their flight. Since I was collecting data in a number of waves, I was able to conduct unstructured observations from this perspective in several instances.

Unstructured observations in the first wave allowed me to better immerse in the field and to perceive the airport context. The first instance of unstructured observations during the first wave thus helped contextualize the setting and to gain the first-hand experience that a passenger gets. During the second wave, I spent time working once airside and forgot about the time, leading to an experience of stress once I realized my flight would be boarding immediately. The third wave of data collection did not include unstructured observations. Having conducted passenger interviews in-situ I found it impossible to move back into the passenger perspective. During the fourth wave of data collection, I conducted unstructured observations from the passenger perspective in the third instance. The situation at that time was somewhat special due to a strike of Lufthansa personnel and numerous flights being cancelled. Besides this unusual situation, I felt I experience similar phenomena as during the previous two waves. Interpreting this as data saturation, I discontinued unstructured observations from the passenger perspective in subsequent waves.

3.10.1.2 Unstructured observation from the F&B outlet employees’ perspective

My relationship with C. Wöllhaf GastroService allowed me to take on the position of an F&B outlet employee in the airside area of Stuttgart airport. As such, I spent two days working at an operational level, observing passengers’ and employees’ behaviour. Since I was also going to conduct interviews with F&B outlet employees and since it required planning and some training before I could take on this role, the F&B outlet employees were aware of my researcher role. As such, my participant observation was overt towards the F&B outlet employees. The main focus of my observations was however to experience the airside setting from that perspective and to observe air passengers' behaviour. My role as observer was thus covert towards the passengers, since I pretended to be a regular F&B outlet employee. Ethical issues relating to covert observations have been discussed in section 3.6 above.

I recorded my observations in a notebook and audio-recorded my field notes immediately after each visit to the field, similar to the approach discussed in section 3.10.1. These dictations were then written up into a Word document by another person as well. I spent two consecutive days in the field in this role in order to sufficiently immerse in the role and the setting. As with the observations from the passengers' perspective, the main focus was to get close to the field and to experience the setting. However, the field notes produced during observations were still treated as data and subsequently coded and analysed.

Following negotiations for access with management, my existing relationship with the concession company (C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH) allowed me to take on this position. Whilst the company may have an interest in the outcome of the research, it was made explicit by both parties before the observations took place that there were no additional expectations or interests. A discussion of possible effects between the research and my relationship with the company can be found in section 3.8.

3.10.2 Interviews

Based on the exploratory nature of the case study, semi-structured interviews seem appropriate (Bryman, 2012; Gillham, 2000; Saunders et al., 2012). However, during the course of the research, they have proven to be not feasible to be conducted with air passengers in-situ in the airside settings. Passengers showed low levels of willingness to spend more than a few minutes prior to their departure. As such, the approach had to be changed and structured interviews were used to collect data from passengers (Saunders et al., 2012). These structured interviews then served as pilot for the passenger survey that was subsequently conducted at a later stage. Interviews with other stakeholders were conducted in a semi-structured manner.

The structure of the semi-structured interviews was guided by an interview schedule, a list of issues to set the frame and to ensure that the discussion remains focused within the subject matter (Kvale, 2007; Thomas, 2011). The topics for the interview schedule had emerged both from the literature as well as from the observations. As Bryman (2012) elaborates, the interview schedule should not be too structured in order to allow some flexibility in the asking of questions. This view is supported by Roberts (2014) who states that there needs to remain a certain degree of flexibility. As such, although guided by the interview schedule, the discussions were fairly free and open in order to grasp the issues and topics that emerged with regards the selection of F&B outlets in that setting (Bryman & Bell, 2011). The structured observations that took place before (employee perspective) and during (passenger perspective) the interview phases informed the creation of the interview schedules. During the interviews, the interview schedule was available on an iPad that was also used to audio-record the conversation.

Following the case study approach to collect evidence from different sources, interviews were conducted with different stakeholders: Passengers, F&B outlet staff and management, as well as airport management. Approaches to interviewee selection will be discussed below.

3.10.2.1 Interviews with passengers

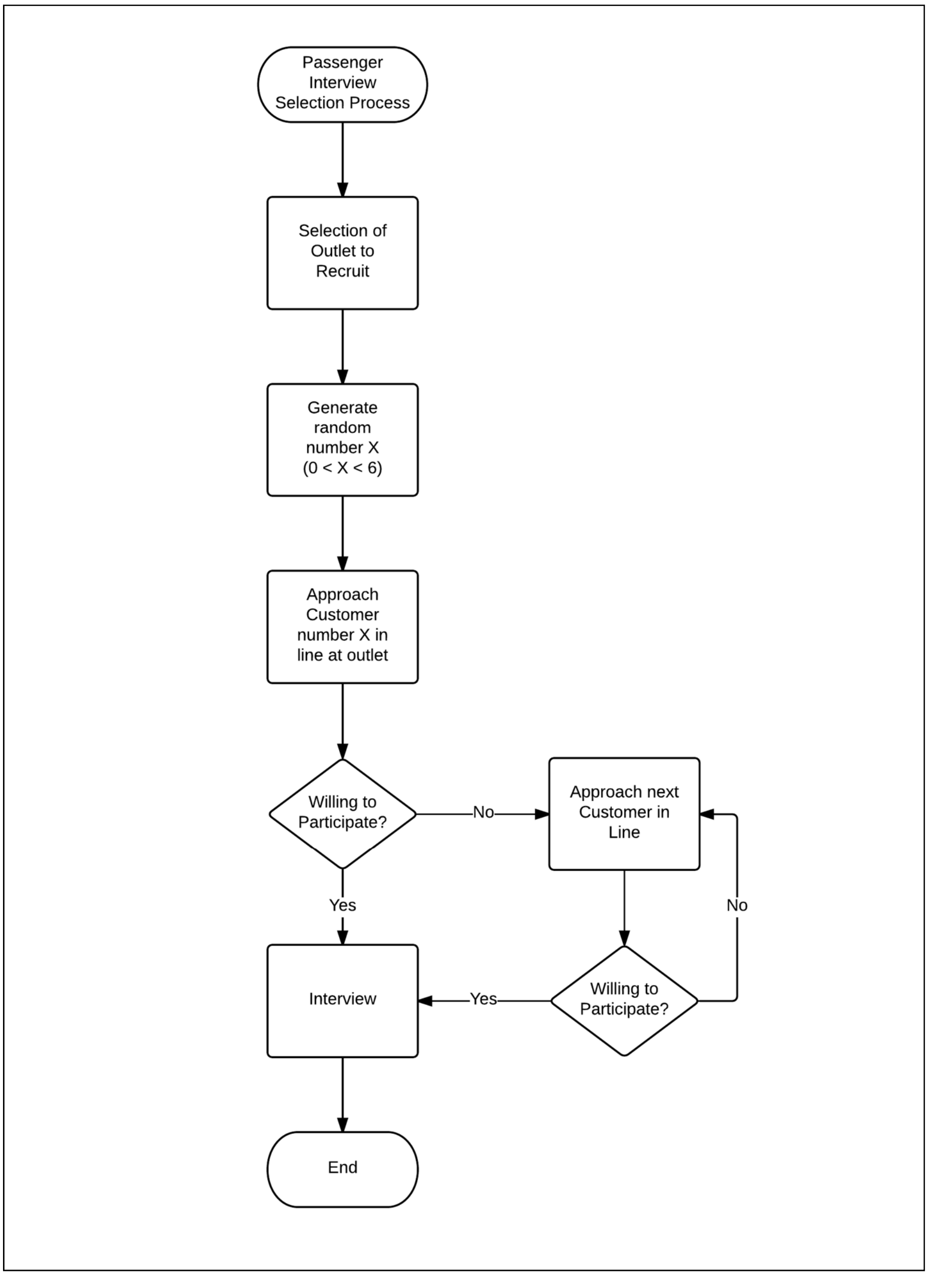
Interviewees were randomly selected passengers at Stuttgart airport and interviews were conducted in-situ in the airside area. Since semi-structured interviews were not feasible with passengers in-situ, a structured interview approach was chosen. Advantages of structured interviews include a low likelihood of distortion of the respondent’s answer, as well as relative high response rates, as Saunders et al. (2012) claim. However, structured interviews have been connected to quantitative research and feature a certain lack of reciprocity, as Bryman and Bell (2011) report. This issue is addressed through the use of open questions as part of the interview process as well as through a focus group discussion (see 3.10.3). The structured interviews with passengers thus served as pilot for the survey questionnaire that was used at a later stage in the data collection process (Cavana et al., 2001). Responses to open questions were coded and included in the qualitative analysis process. Quantitative data collected through the structured interview approach was analysed exploratory and informed the survey questionnaire, but were not included for analysis in the survey data set (Tajeddini & Trueman, 2012).

In order to facilitate data input, a computer-aided approach was chosen (Saunders et al., 2012) for the structured interviews. iSurvey, an online tool that allows to create questionnaires and to subsequently load them onto an iPad, was used (Harvestyourdata, 2014). This allowed conducting the interviews in-situ with the help of an iPad, on which responses to questions were recorded. After conducting the interviews, the raw data was transmitted to iSurvey’s website from which it was downloaded into Microsoft Excel and subsequently imported into SPSS for further analysis. The Excel dataset was furthermore imported into QSR NVivo in order to analyse passengers' responses to open questions.

Passengers where given a show card with all questions and all possible answers (for closed questions), while their responses were entered in the electronic form (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Since show cards had been prepared both in English and in German language, passengers could be interviewed in both languages. An initial German show card was prepared and translated into English language. The identity of meaning of the questions asked in both languages was addressed through an in-depth discussion of the questions with an English native speaker. After translating the German show-card into English, it was back-translated into German (Saunders et al., 2012). Both the questionnaire as well as the use of show cards and use of the electronic data collection method were pre-tested in different environments in English as well as in German. Data collected during the pre-test phase was not included in the final sample (Tajeddini & Trueman, 2012).

In order to avoid sampling error, passengers were selected through a random approach (Saunders et al., 2012). Overall, 30 structured interviews with passengers were conducted within a period of four days. Different weekdays and different times of days were selected in order to increase the variation in passenger types within the sample. At the beginning of every day, a random number (x) between one and five was chosen. At different food and beverage outlets in the airport, the x^{th} passenger to make a purchase at the outlet after my arrival was approached and participation was solicited. If that passenger was not willing to participate, had a take-away order or proceeded to the smoking lounge, the next passenger was approached. This approach ensured that only those passengers that made a purchase were selected and that there was no researcher bias in selecting participants, such as choosing respondents that appear friendly and willing to participate (Saunders et al., 2012). The exclusion of passengers that went to the smoking lounge after making a purchase was based on concerns about my own health and well-being. Figure 6 below illustrates the selection process that was applied. During those four waves, a total of 48 passengers were approached, 18 denied participation and 30 agreed to participate, resulting in a response rate of 62.5%. This is in line with claims made by Saunders et al. (2012) who state that the response rate in structured interviewing is likely to be between 50% and 70%.

Figure 6: Passenger Interview Selection Process



Besides collecting demographic and air-travel related data, open questions allowed collecting passengers' opinions and attitudes towards airside catering. The development of the interview questionnaire was linked to the overall themes of the study and to topics that were discussed in interviews with food and beverage concession staff. Besides asking details about consumption behaviour on the current trip during which they were interviewed, passengers were asked to express their typical airside behaviour through 5-point Likert-style scales (Saunders et al., 2012).

Themes that emerged from the open questions of the structured passenger interviews were later on included in the template analysis of the qualitative data collected in interviews and the focus group discussion (Brooks & King, 2012, 2014).

Whilst there are no fixed rules for sample size in qualitative methods (Patton, 2002), the interview process was repeated with different interviewees until the core themes had emerged and a sufficient level of saturation of the data had been reached (Bloor & Wood, 2006; Bryman & Bell, 2011). Based on a review of literature, Saunders et al. (2012) claim that between 12 and 30 interviews present a suitable sample size, considering a homogenous population. Considering that the passenger interview process served as pilot for the larger passenger survey, the sample size of 30 that was achieved can thus be considered sufficient.

3.10.2.2 Interviews with F&B outlet staff

Semi-structured Interviews with F&B outlet staff were conducted with a focus on understanding employees' perceptions on what factors influence air passengers' outlet patronage intentions. Interview partners were selected based on their availability during my presence and interviews were conducted in situ during breaks before or after their shifts. Besides being part of the triangulation approach (Flick, 2008a), interviews with F&B outlet staff were expected to be of particular value, since the F&B outlet staff members' perspective can help understand passenger behaviour. On the one hand, F&B outlet staff observe and deal with passengers on a constant basis, on the other hand it was hoped to understand the extent to which management of C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH communicates their understanding of passengers' expectations to the staff. Interviews with staff members were audio-recorded and transcribed for subsequent analysis. The topics I covered in the interviews with employees included their perception and evaluation of passenger behaviour. The selection of employees to be interviewed followed a random approach using the staff rota as sampling frame. In-situ interviews however have the potential to be disrupted due to operational processes and thus there was a risk they could not be conducted at all. Based on 29 employees that worked for C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH at the airside outlets of Stuttgart airport during the data collection phase, the initial plan was to conduct 5 – 8 interviews which lies well within the sample size suggested by Saunders et al. (2012) for homogenous populations. In the end, 9 interviews of different lengths were conducted with employees. At that point, data saturation had been achieved, i.e. no new themes emerged from the interviews. Interviews with F&B outlet employees could be conducted during the course of two days. Since the data collection was done in waves, it was possible for me to follow up on the interviews with outlet employees in case further clarification was needed.

The interviews with F&B concession staff were audio-recorded and recordings were later on transcribed for further analysis. The semi-structured interviews followed an interview structure that had been derived from the literature and from previous unstructured observations. Interview recordings took place with the help of an iPad and an external microphone, the interview structure was available on same iPad as a PowerPoint file. As such, the interview structure could be accessed as the interviews were conducted. Informed consent had been obtained from all interviewees prior to the interview being held.

Where formal interviews were not possible due to operational constraints or lack of consent, themes that emerged during informal discussions with employees during the unstructured observations from the employee perspective could alternatively be used as valid evidence. Notes from these discussions were recorded in jottings using a small Moleskine notebook, as discussed in section 3.10.1.2 above.

3.10.2.3 Interviews with Managers of C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH

Often based on expectations and requirements from the airport operator, the conceptual development of Food and Beverage outlets is usually a task fulfilled by the F&B operators' management (Merkle & Lewis, 2014). The development of F&B concepts is usually based on an initial idea or the recognition of a market need (Davis et al., 2008). As such, the F&B operator's management could be expected to have a clear idea of what air passengers are looking for in airside F&B offerings. With the help of interviews with managers of C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH, I was hoping to learn about managements' perception of passengers' expectations. I was able to interview the owner and managing director of the company as well as the company's operations manager at Stuttgart airport. Table 18 below illustrates the professional profiles of the interviewees.

Table 18: Management Profiles

Position	Gender	Age	Experience
Owner and Managing Director	Male	68	Studied hotel business administration Worked as managing director in international hospitality companies Set up the company in 1983 through a management buy out
Operations Manager	Male	33	Studied production management Worked as catering manager in different hospitality companies With the company since 2012

Semi-structured interviews with managers of C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH were audio-recorded and transcribed for further analysis. The interview structure was derived from the literature and was also influenced by unstructured observations as well as by the interviews previously held with food and beverage concession staff. The interview structure was present in form of a PowerPoint presentation on an iPad that I used to audio-record the discussion. As such, the interview structure could be accessed as the interview was conducted. Due to time constraints, the interview with the owner and managing director of the company had to be conducted telephonically. Again, it was audio-recorded and transcribed. Informed consent had been obtained from both interviewees in writing prior to the interview being held.

3.10.2.4 Interviews with Airport Managers

Besides passengers, F&B outlet staff and managers, airport management companies are a key stakeholder in the conceptual development of an airport's F&B offering. From this perspective, I expected the airport management company to have an understanding of the passengers' expectations towards the airport's F&B offering. This understanding was explored through an interview with the airport management company. I was able to conduct a semi-structured interview with the managing director of Stuttgart airport in order to understand the airport management company's perspective on passenger behaviour. Again, the interview was audio-recorded and transcribed for further analysis. The structure of the semi-structured interview was derived from the literature, as well as from observations and interviews conducted with employees beforehand. Again, an interview structure was available in electronic format on the same iPad that I used to record the discussion. Informed consent had been obtained from the managing director of Stuttgart airport in writing prior to the interview being held.

3.10.3 Focus Group Discussion

Extant literature agrees for a group size of between 8 and 12 participants per group to be suitable (Barbour, 2008; Kvale, 2007; S. Smith, 2010). The focus group discussion was staged in the conference centre in Stuttgart airport. Even though the conference centre is located on the landside, this choice of location helped contextualize the discussion and also to maximize participation (Barbour, 2008). As an incentive for participation, I offered and hosted a dinner at one of the airport's (landside) restaurants after the discussion had taken place. Hosting the dinner also allowed me to follow up on themes that emerged during the discussion and to observe topics that the participants discussed in the more informal setting.

The recruitment of the focus group participants took place through personal contacts, social media as well as my involvement with an air travel related online community and was thus researcher-driven (Bryman, 2012). Participant selection followed a purposeful approach, all potential participants had to have used Stuttgart airport at least once in 2014 in order to qualify for participation. Besides that, the aim was to have different types of air travellers represented. Whilst Stewart, Shamdasani, and Rook (2007) claim that the recruitment of focus group participants commonly follows convenience sampling approaches, Saunders (2012) advocates that those samples chosen often can be considered to meet purposive selection criteria that are relevant to the research aim, as it was the case in this study.

Based on my personal involvement with an online community, I was communicating with frequent travellers through a German web forum on commercial air travel (Vielfliegertreff, 2015). I have been a member of this specific forum since 2009 and have also made personal contact to some of the moderators. Besides the online exchange of news and information related to commercial air travel, some members organize real-life get-togethers in different cities around Europe. Since a number of members of the forum are based in Stuttgart, I intended to recruit focus group members from that forum as well. Despite large efforts and follow-ups, I managed to recruit only one participant through this channel. The remaining participants were recruited through personal contacts. In total, 9 participants could be recruited for the focus group discussion that was held on December 1st, 2014. Two additional potential participants had agreed to attend, however they admitted not having used Stuttgart airport in 2014 and thus had to be excluded, based on the purposeful participant selection approach. Prior to the focus group discussion, participants had received a description of the research objectives, a questionnaire asking details about their travel behaviour, as well as a consent form. All participants declared their informed consent in writing to my intention to video record and to transcribe the whole discussion. Table 19 below illustrates the profile of the focus group participants, all air travel data relates to the first 11 months of the year 2014.

Table 19: Focus Group Participants' Profiles

Gender	Profession	Segments	Segments from Stuttgart	Percentage on business	Segments with lounge access
Female	Journalist	2	2	0%	0
Male	Sales Manager	10	6	100%	6
Male	Quality Auditor	6	3	33%	0
Male	General Manager	10	2	70%	0
Male	Global Account Director	30	14	95%	14
Male	Business Consultant	6	1	0%	0
Male	General Manager	20	10	80%	10
Female	IT Consultant	65	15	0%	15
Male	Sales Director	20	10	80	8

Since all of the participants had used the airport at least once within the 11 months preceding he focus group discussion, I expected them to have an interest in the airport's facilities, thus resulting in a homogenous group (Barbour, 2008).

I personally took on the role of the moderator and initiated and guided the discussion (Saunders et al., 2012). This was supported by the use of a power point presentation as well as by hand outs showing terminal layout plans and pictures of the F&B concessions for the participants. Following suggestions by Bryman (2012), the discussion was video-recorded by a professional videographer and transcribed by another person for further analysis. Stewart et al. (2007) point out that the transcript does not reflect the entire character of the discussion since it does not capture nonverbal cues, gestures and behavioural responses. In order to overcome this issue, the video footage was reviewed a number of times during data analysis.

3.10.4 Passenger survey

As discussed in paragraph 3.10.2.1 above, in-situ interviews with passengers could not be conducted in a semi-structured way. The structured interviewing approach that was then chosen led to 30 interviews with passengers. Responses to open questions were coded and analysed as part of the qualitative data analysis. Although Saunders et al. (2012) state this as the minimum sample size, 30 responses were not a sufficient sample for meaningful quantitative analysis to be conducted. The structured passenger interviews thus also served as a pilot for the passenger survey that was subsequently undertaken.

Due to the exploratory nature of the research and due to the lack of extant literature dealing with the phenomena in the airside context, no existing scales or constructs could be identified to be used within the questionnaire. A search on the UK Data Service's resources revealed no existing concept or questions that could be applied for this survey (Service). Despite claims that questionnaires are usually not suitable for exploratory research (Saunders et al., 2012), the method was chosen in order to test the propositions that had emerged from the qualitative analysis with a larger sample. The survey furthermore served as additional source of evidence in light of the triangulation approach. The questionnaire was thus developed based on the initial findings from the qualitative research that was conducted previously.

During the period July 2014 to June 2015 (1 year), the analysis of secondary data from the point of sales system (see section 3.10.5) showed that a total of 631.361 guest checks were created at the outlets operated by C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH in the airside area of Stuttgart airport, as Table 20 below illustrates.

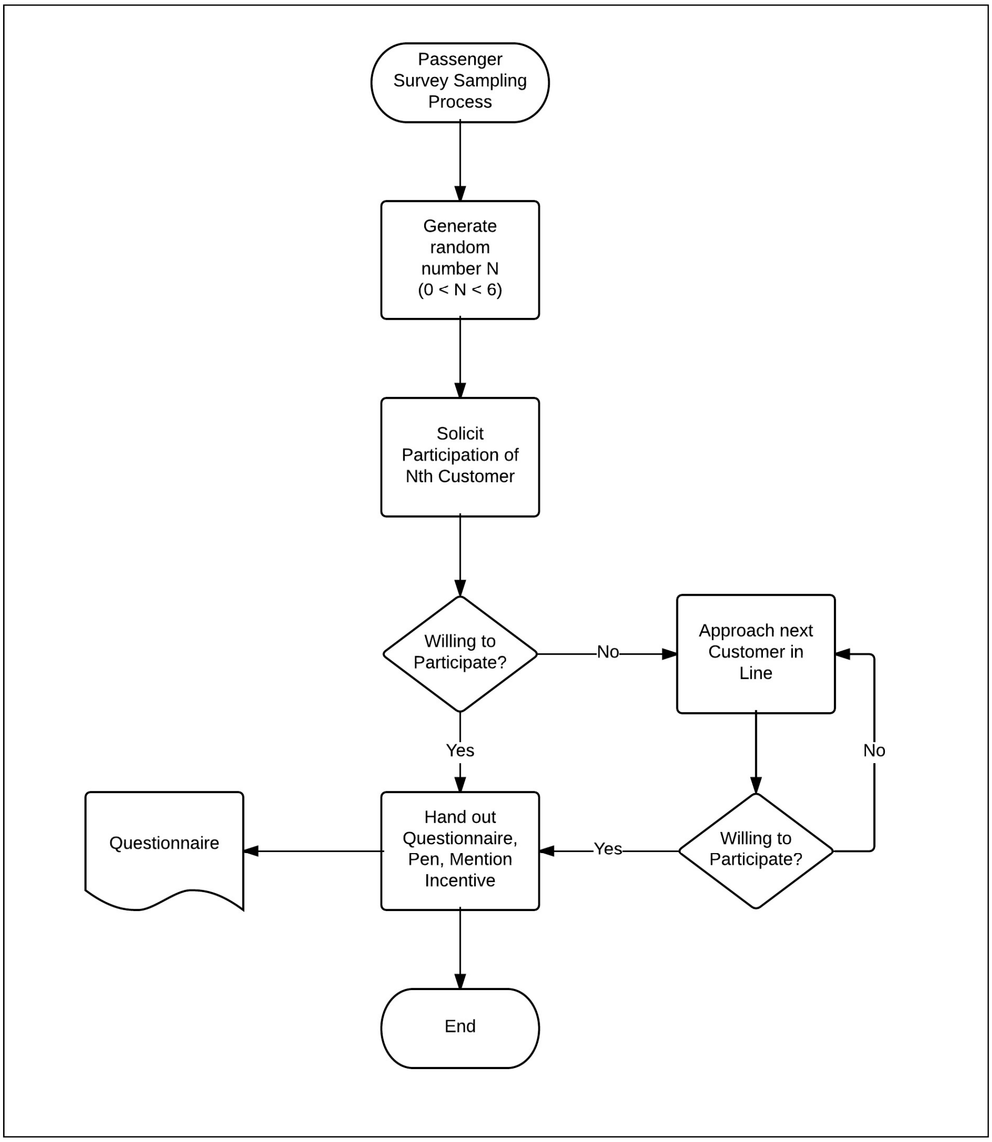
Table 20: Number of Guest Checks in airside outlets

Year	Month	AIR Bar	Cockpit Bar	Piccolino I	Piccolino II	Piccolino III	Departures Bar T4	Total
2014	Jul	36.315	14.988	361	2.529	2.538	7.121	63.852
2014	Aug	34.328	15.716	0	1.712	1.869	9.200	62.825
2014	Sep	34.518	14.477	247	1.485	1.747	7.983	60.457
2014	Oct	34.206	13.611	809	2.125	2.155	6.067	58.973
2014	Nov	27.461	9.259	721	434	1.776	2.332	41.983
2014	Dec	26.513	9.468	226	528	1.962	2.242	40.939
2015	Jan	21.723	7.166	418	591	1.483	1.099	32.480
2015	Feb	24.219	8.634	8	452	1.704	422	35.439
2015	Mar	29.745	10.784	0	337	2.385	2.598	45.849
2015	Apr	32.103	12.554	0	267	2.025	6.474	53.423
2015	May	39.241	15.644	2	971	2.880	9.215	67.953
2015	Jun	38.167	15.514	0	2.792	2.301	8.413	67.188
Total	_	378.539	147.815	2.792	14.223	24.825	63.166	631.361

Since, typically, each guest check represents one passenger's purchase, C. Wöllhaf GastroService served about 631.361 guests at their airside outlets at Stuttgart airport during that period. With C. Wöllhaf GastroService operating six and Autogrill operating another four outlets in the airside area (see section 3.9.3.2 above), it can be estimated that the overall number of passengers consuming at the airside outlets at Stuttgart airport within that period of one year can be approximated to be around 1.000.000. This can now be considered to be the estimated size of the yearly population of passengers consuming food and beverages in the airside setting.

Following design, the questionnaire was piloted with a number of individuals both in English and German language. Academics were asked to complete and comment on the questionnaire in order to assess the clarity of the questions asked. The questionnaire was then tested with a number of passengers in order to ensure the questions were understandable and reasonable in the airside context. Following the pilot phase, changes were made to clarify the meaning of certain questions as well as to the layout. The final questionnaire was then translated from German to English language and back-translated by another person to ensure consistency of meaning in both languages (K. H. Lee, Bonn, & Cho, 2015; Saunders et al., 2012). Questionnaires were then printed and shipped to Stuttgart airport. An agreement was found with C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH for concession staff to distribute questionnaires to customers at the AIR Bar (the busiest outlet that the company operates) upon completing their purchase. Passengers were offered a sweet as incentive for returning completed questionnaires. For completed questionnaires, a collection box was installed and management collected questionnaires on a daily basis in order to avoid a loss of questionnaires. A random element was introduced in the process of respondent selection in order to avoid selection bias. The operations manager was asked to randomly select those days of the survey period during which questionnaires were handed out to passengers. The operations manager was further briefed to decide on a random number N between 1 and 5 ($0 < N < 6$) for each day the survey was underway. Concession employees were then instructed to hand out a questionnaire to every N^{th} customer. Figure 7 below illustrates the passenger sampling process.

Figure 7: Passenger Survey Sampling Process



The final questionnaire can be found in Annex 3. Rating questions were presented in a five-point Likert-type scale (Saunders et al., 2012). Following Dillman, Smyth, and Christian (2014), possible responses were presented in straight lines and the same order of response categories was kept in order to avoid confusion. In order to allow both English and German speaking passengers to participate in the survey, the questions were presented in English and German language on the same line. The same applied for the introductory text at the top of the front page. The questionnaire was laid out to fit on two sides of A4 paper so that each questionnaire consisted of one sheet of (double-sided) A4 paper. 500 pens were bought and shipped to Stuttgart airport to be distributed with the questionnaires to ensure that passengers could complete the questionnaire, whether or not they had a pen on them.

The survey was conducted during the six-week period between 15 June 2015 and 24 July 2015. This period was chosen since it falls into the busy season at Stuttgart airport and both leisure and business travellers could be expected to be represented in that period. Although the survey was undertaken within a specific time window, the employed sampling approach can be considered to be a systematic random one since all units of the population had a specifiable probability of being included in the sample (Bryman & Cramer, 2005; Zikmund & Babin, 2006), in line with the approach used by Castillo-Manzano (2010) in a survey of Spanish air passengers. The application of a probability sampling approach is a precondition for inferential statistics, generalizing from the sample to the population. With an estimated population size of 1.000.000 consuming passengers per year, a minimum sample size of 384 is required in order to achieve a confidence level of 5% and a margin of error of 5% (Cavana et al., 2001; Saunders et al., 2012). A too large sample size of over 500 should be avoided, as Cavana et al. (2001) point out, since it may encourage Type I errors. Type I errors refer to accepting the existence of a relationship between variables when there is none (Bryman & Cramer, 2005). Overall, 322 valid completed questionnaires could be collected and analysed; this sample size is below the required range discussed above, resulting in a margin of error of 5.46% for a 5% confidence level (Systems, 2015).

The operations manager reported that an estimated 20% of the passengers approached refused to take the questionnaire with them right away. Since 108 unused questionnaires were left at the end of the survey period, 892 of the 1.000 questionnaires produced had been issued to passengers within the specified period. In total, 325 completed questionnaires were received. Out of the completed questionnaires received, 3 had to be removed from the sample since they contained obviously erroneous information, resulting in a total of 322 usable questionnaires that were subsequently analysed. This results in an overall active (Saunders et al., 2012) response rate of approximately 29%. Based on the survey being handed out to passengers after making a purchase and since a follow-up with non-respondents was impossible, it was not feasible to assess non-response bias (Lineback & Thompson, 2010).

This response rate may seem low, especially when compared to the response rate of 95.2% that Y.-H. Lin and Chen (2013) report from a survey using a self-administered questionnaire instrument they administered in Taiwan's Taoyuan airport. It needs however to be noted that Y.-H. Lin and Chen (2013) distributed questionnaires to respondents only after their willingness to participate was assessed and only excluded incomplete responses when calculating the response rate. In that sense, it can be stated that the true response rate reported by Y.-H. Lin and Chen (2013) has been calculated incorrectly. A similar approach has been reported by S. Y. Jang et al. (2015) in the South Korean context. Whilst they report a 86.7% response rate for a survey with customers in shopping malls and restaurants, their calculation of the response rate is based only on that part of the population that responded positively when "*asked whether they had an interest in filling out a questionnaire*" (S. Y. Jang et al., 2015, p. 607). Here, too, the true response rate can be seen to have been reported incorrectly.

In light of the fact that high survey response rates in other studies have been calculated on an inappropriate basis and based on the findings presented by Correia et al. (2008) that air passengers do not feel very strongly about food and beverage concessions, the response rate of ca. 29% achieved in this study can be considered appropriate.

Data collected through completed questionnaires was entered into a Microsoft Excel worksheet and subsequently imported into IBM SPSS version 21 for further analysis. In order to ensure coding accuracy, 10% of the questionnaires were checked by a second person not involved in the data entry process after coding had been completed. The completed questionnaires to be checked were identified using a random approach (Cavana et al., 2001).

3.10.5 Secondary data analysis

In this study, the analysis of secondary data was hoped to yield insights mainly into the second research question. C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH granted full viewing access to their concession sales reporting system. The company operates a Micros point of sales systems in all their outlets. On a corporate level, management has access to sales data through an integrated restaurant enterprise system. This system allows management to view reports and to analyse sales data through a web-based interface (Fidelio, 2015). Upon request, the company granted full viewing access to me. As such, all raw sales data and all pre-defined reports could be accessed. Since the in-situ data collection waves took mainly place during the month of November 2014, point of sales data for that month was selected and subsequently analysed. The system allowed to generate “revenue period” reports for individual days. These reports were generated for the AIR Bar, Woellhaf’s largest and busiest outlet in the Stuttgart airport airside setting. The reports could be downloaded from the system’s Internet interface in Microsoft Excel format. Data aggregation and analysis subsequently was done in Microsoft Excel as well as in IBM SPSS 21.

4 Findings

The findings of the study will be discussed in this section. Following the approaches to data collection and analysis discussed previously, this chapter is divided into two parts, presenting findings from qualitative and quantitative analysis respectively.

4.1 Findings from the qualitative data analysis

Findings achieved through the analysis of different types of qualitative evidence (collected in semi-structured interviews, unstructured observations, as well as the focus group discussion) will be presented in this section. The presentation of the findings will be structured in connection to the three research questions and findings will be presented as they emerged from different stages of the data collection process as described in section 3.10.

Whilst the literature review has indicated four a priori themes, the development and the application of the template has identified a number of relevant themes in connection with passenger behaviour in the airside context. Using template analysis (Brooks & King, 2014; King, 2012), a hierarchical coding template was developed. This template was subsequently used to code the qualitative data obtained from unstructured observations, semi-structured interviews, as well as the focus group discussion. All coding was done by myself, so the concept of inter-coder reliability (Bryman & Bell, 2011) does not apply. In order to increase the validity of the constructs derived from the coding process despite having one coder only, the identification, amalgamation, rejection and addition of codes was discussed in and informed by discussions held with the supervisory team. The final template is presented in Annex 2 of this thesis. Overall, a total of 137 different codes were identified and applied within the template. All codes were hierarchically arranged in four levels, relating back to the four top-level codes “*food and beverage outlet*”, “*airport*”, “*type of trip*”, and “*passenger*”.

Before presenting the findings structured in connection to the three research questions, I will present one exemplary theme and illustrate how it was developed through the coding process in more depth and will subsequently illustrate the development of codes and concepts throughout the qualitative analysis process and subsequently.

4.1.1 Exemplary Development of a core theme

Based on the review of literature, the airport context is understood to have an effect on air passenger behaviour (Bork, 2007; Omar & Kent, 2001; Rowley & Slack, 1999). As such, the *airport* had been identified as one of the four a-priori codes emerging from the literature. Whilst the a-priori code *airport* had been standing on its own initially, through the application of the template analysis method sub-codes were added throughout the process; in line with explanations given by Waddington (2004). The airport itself was used as a node in NVivo and was applied both when respondents made statements relating to the airport context in general, as well as when referring to the specific case of Stuttgart airport. Since the coding template was applied to all sources of qualitative data, this included statements by employees, caterer management, airport management and passengers, as well as my own field notes of unstructured observations.

Coding on *airport* thus also included statements that, at first sight, seem to be of little relevance to the research questions, such as this statement by an employee relating to the airside context as workplace:

> *"Of course, with working in the airside area, all knives have to be locked away, all cleaning material must always be securely stored and so on. Then there is the goods receiving; that is of course also different from virtually all other food and beverage operations. Everything has to be x-rayed before." (F&B outlet employee, male)*

This short statement illustrates that the airport environment constitutes a special context, an encapsuled or protected space; not only for passengers, but for employees alike.

Whilst evidence was also coded at the top-level node *airport*, it became evident in the process of coding, that sub-nodes were required in order to grasp the richness and the different meanings in the qualitative data collected. At the second level, the nodes *airport atmosphere* and *provision of information at the airport* were created. Whilst *provision of information at the airport* seems to be a very straightforward node, its application included evidence from the airport's managing director as well focus group participants. Exclusively frequent flyers with 20 or more segments in 2014 made statements that were coded at *provision of information at the airport*. Coding at that node revealed that for frequent flyers, the airport environment does not necessarily represent a special context, but rather one that requires a standardized procedure in order to cope with it:

> *"At the baggage check I directly ask where I have to go and where the nearest lounge access is, when I am at an airport outside of Germany; because in Germany it is normally a standard procedure for me." (focus group participant, male, frequent flyer)*

The node *airport atmosphere* then mainly refers to my own unstructured observations from the passenger and staff perspective, but was also applied to statements made by the airport's managing director. Evidence coded at this node suggests that the airport environment constitutes a special, an unusual context.

> *"This place is also especially protected, namely by the procedures that one has to undergo in the security control. It is an encapsuled space, a special space." (managing director, Stuttgart Airport)*

Under the node *airport atmosphere* five further sub-nodes then were created in order to allow further exploration and interpretation of the data. Those sub-nodes were: *atmosphere as an encapsuled place*, *atmosphere due to architecture*, *atmosphere due to security controls*, *uniformity of airports*, as well as *interesting atmosphere*.

The *uniformity of airports* will now be presented as an example for those sub-nodes. Only one reference was coded at this node, a statement made by a frequent flyer in the focus group:

> *"For me, all airports globally are more or less similar. Similar procedures, similar types of shops, similar lounges, whatever. Similar types of terminals and thus it doesn't really matter whether the airport is on an island or in the middle of a country." (focus group participant, male, frequent flyer)*

The airport as a place with an *interesting atmosphere*, in contrast, was mentioned by an infrequent traveller in the same focus group discussion:

"In my case, based on the fact that I mostly fly for leisure reasons, the day of departure is so to say the beginning of the holidays or the relaxing time and I find the atmosphere at the airport very interesting and generally enjoy being at the airport." (focus group participant, male, infrequent flyer)

After the template had been finalized and all qualitative data had been coded using it, the process of axial coding was initiated. In order to achieve this, coded material is grouped by code and followed by "*reading the segments and making the connections that are subsequently corroborated and legitimised*" (Waring & Wainwright, 2008, p. 86). The objective of this stage of analysis is to identify relationships between nodes and sub-nodes (Maznevski & Chudoba, 2000). In order to do this, a report "*Coding Summary By Node*" was extracted from NVivo. This document showed all the nodes and presented all data that was coded at each node. Through repeated reading and annotating of this report, the axial coding process ultimately resulted in the findings from the qualitative data analysis. Some of those relationships were evident in direct participant statements, others emerged from identifying patterns of nodes that seemed to co-occur or cause one another.

The node *airport* and its sub-nodes discussed above will serve as example here for the process and for the results of axial coding in this study. Whilst the airport context can be understood to be perceived as a special place in the literature, evidence from the focus group discussion here suggests that different passengers perceive the airport context differently. For very frequent and business travellers, airports represent a certain class of locations that trigger a standard procedure in order to pass through prescribed procedures smoothly.

For infrequent and leisure travellers, airports can be understood to be special places, that have a certain extraordinary atmosphere. Prior travel experience as well as the purpose of travel thus have an influence on the perception of the airport context. For infrequent travellers, air travel is perceived as an extraordinary activity, often paired with a certain uncertainty about the related procedures. This uncertainty is then combined with pleasant anticipation in the case of leisure travellers. Information that is provided by airport signage as well as by loudspeaker announcements is often not noticed by those passengers. These attributes then can lead to an emotional state of stress and nervousness influencing the overall perception of the airport. The phenomenon of perceiving the airport context as a special place thus, through the process of template analysis, could be connected to those attributes influencing it.

For the very frequent travellers, the airport is often representing a functional space rather than an exciting one. Procedures are known and, unless there are irregularities such as airline strikes, performed in routine ways. Flight and departure gate information is often actively gathered in order to be able to use time efficiently; the use of communication technology such as airline and airport apps has been reported. Air travel is not an extraordinary activity and the related procedures represent a nuisance rather than exciting events. Previous air travel experience results in much more detailed knowledge about the procedures and a more accurate estimation of expected waiting times. Very frequent travellers thus tend to arrive at the airport later and may experience stress in case of unforeseen delays.

This process of initial and axial coding as presented in the example above thus allowed analysing and interpreting the data in order to derive the findings presented in the following sections. The following sections will illustrate how the concepts were developed throughout the research process, the integration of the concepts into a framework will be presented in Figure 8 in section 4.1.6 below.

4.1.2 Development of concepts throughout the qualitative analysis

In this section, the development of concepts and their connection between the different frameworks and the qualitative analysis will be presented. In the following three tables (Tables 21 to 23), concepts listed in the column “emerged from literature” refer to factors identified in the literature review in chapter 2 that were included in the conceptual frameworks presented in sections 2.4.4 and 2.6. The column “concept in use in model” refers to the utilization of the respective concepts in the Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model. The columns in between intend to illustrate the “flow” of those concepts through the different stages of qualitative data collection and analysis.

4.1.2.1 Airport-related factors

The airport has been conceptualized as a special place in the literature, as the literature review has shown. The development of themes relating to the airport context and related factors interestingly was based almost exclusively on unstructured observations, interviews with management as well as the focus group discussion. In-situ interviews with passengers and concession employees did not yield themes related to the airport context.

The airport atmosphere has been broken down into a number of sub-nodes including the atmosphere as an encapsuled space (also based on security controls) as well as atmosphere based on architecture. Whilst the airport has been conceptualized as a place with an interesting atmosphere, the uniformity of airports has also been brought up in the focus group discussion. Table 21 below illustrates the codes that have emerged from the different data sources and how they have been amalgamated and used in the Airport Airside Consumption Model.

Table 21: Airport-related codes derived from Qualitative Analysis

Emerged from literature	Observations	Passenger Interviews	Staff Interviews	Management Interviews	Focus Group	Concept in use in model
Passenger Volume						Not in model
Existence of Crowds						Not in model
Type of Airport						Not in model
F&B Variety						Moved to outlet-related factors
Congestion						Not in model
Timelessness / spacelessness	Atmosphere as an encapsuled place			Atmosphere as an encapsuled place Interesting atmosphere Uniformity of airports	Interesting atmosphere Uniformity of airports	Timelessness / spacelessness
Environment				Atmosphere due to security controls Atmosphere due to architecture	Atmosphere due to security controls Atmosphere due to architecture	Airport Context
Cues	Provision of information at the airport			Provision of information at the airport	Provision of information at the airport	Environmental Cues
Other consumers						Moved to outlet-related factors

4.1.2.2 Passenger-related factors

Concepts as they have emerged from the qualitative analysis with regards to passenger-related factors are presented in Table 22 below.

Table 22: Passenger-related Codes derived from Qualitative Analysis

Emerged from literature	Observations	Passenger Interviews	Staff Interviews	Management Interviews	Focus Group	Concept in use in model
Demographics						Not included in model
Attitudes			Attitudes towards airside food and beverage		Attitudes towards airside food and beverage	
					Refusal to change terminals for airside food and beverage	
	Airside food and beverage as an experience				Airside food and beverage as an experience	
			Preferring service brands	Preferring service brands	Preferring service brands	Consuming at a branded outlet (patronage intention
		Preferring service brands for coffee	Preferring service brands for coffee	Preferring service brands for coffee	Preferring service brands for coffee	Included in outlet-related factors (branded outlet)
			Lack of relevance of service brands	Lack of relevance of service brands	Lack of relevance of service brands	
					Avoidance of service brands	
Prior Experiences			Outlet previously known	Outlet previously known	Outlet previously known	Not included in model

Emerged from literature	Observations	Passenger Interviews	Staff Interviews	Management Interviews	Focus Group	Concept in use in model
Environmental Consciousness						Not included in model
Variety-seeking	Factors influencing outlet choice	Factors influencing outlet choice			Factors influencing outlet choice	Not included in model
Involvement	Regular customers		Regular customers	Regular customers		Not included in model
Loyalty	Regular customers		Regular customers	Regular customers		Not included in model
Type of trip	Business trip Holiday trip		Business trip Holiday trip	Business trip Holiday trip	Business trip Holiday trip	Type of trip
Flight distance / duration		Expected duration of flight	Expected duration of flight	Expected duration of flight	Expected duration of flight	Not included in model
Type of airline				Type of travel		Not included in model
Travel class						Not included in model
Flight frequency & experience	Infrequent flyers		Frequent flyers Infrequent flyers	Frequent flyers Infrequent flyers	Frequent flyers Infrequent flyers	Flight frequency / experience
Available time	Perceived time pressure Passing through security early		Perceived time pressure Passing through security early	Perceived time pressure Passing through security early	Perceived time pressure Passing through security early	Emotional State (Stress)

Emerged from literature	Observations	Passenger Interviews	Staff Interviews	Management Interviews	Focus Group	Concept in use in model
Impulse openness				Impulse behaviour	Impulse behaviour	Not included in model
Emotional state			Fear	Fear		Emotional state (Stress / Fear / Enjoyment)
		Relaxed	Relaxed	Relaxed	Relaxed	
			Irritated		Irritated	
	Nervous		Nervous	Nervous	Nervous	
	Stressed		Stressed	Stressed	Stressed	
			Unease / doubtfulness			
					Pleasant anticipation	

4.1.2.3 Outlet-related factors

Outlet-related factors as they have emerged from the qualitative analysis are presented in Table 23 below.

Table 23: Outlet-related Codes derived from Qualitative Analysis

Literature	Observations	Passenger Interviews	Staff Interviews	Management Interviews	Focus Group	Concept in use in model
Atmosphere	Silence	Appealing atmosphere View onto the tarmac Relaxing atmosphere Absence of smoke	Appealing atmosphere	Appealing atmosphere Well-being	Appealing atmosphere View onto the tarmac Relaxing atmosphere Silence Entertainment	Atmosphere
Symbols						Not included in model
Cleanliness		Cleanliness				Atmosphere
Comfort	Comfortable furniture Light Seating accommodation Availability of smoking area	Comfortable furniture Seating accommodation Availability of smoking area	Light Availability of smoking area	Comfortable furniture Availability of smoking area	Seating accommodation Power plugs Availability of smoking area	Comfort

Literature	Observations	Passenger Interviews	Staff Interviews	Management Interviews	Focus Group	Concept in use in model
Food-related factors (incl. F&B variety, moved from Airport-related factors)			Offer rich in variety			Food-related factors
				Current, trendy offer		
	Attractive presentation of offer	Attractive presentation of offer	Attractive presentation of offer	Attractive presentation of offer		
		Attractive offer	Attractive offer		Attractive offer	
	Broad offer	Broad offer	Broad offer	Broad offer	Broad offer	
	Smell		Smell	Smell		
	Fresh offer	Fresh offer	Fresh offer	Fresh offer	Fresh offer	
		Healthy offer	Healthy offer	Healthy offer		
		Speciality coffee available	Speciality coffee available	Speciality coffee available	Speciality coffee available	
		Local specialities	Local specialities	Local specialities	Local specialities	
					High risk dishes	
	Perceived quality of offer	Perceived quality of offer	Perceived quality of offer	Perceived quality of offer	Perceived quality of offer	
		Hot dishes available	Hot dishes available	Hot dishes available	Hot dishes available	

Literature	Observations	Passenger Interviews	Staff Interviews	Management Interviews	Focus Group	Concept in use in model
Location				Location on the way to the gate		Location
		Not located in the main passageway			Not located in the main passageway	
	Located nearby the gate	Located nearby the gate	Located nearby the gate	Located nearby the gate	Located nearby the gate	
Staff	Friendliness of staff	Friendliness of staff	Friendliness of staff	Friendliness of staff	Friendliness of staff	Staff
			Passion of staff		Passion of staff	
	Professionalism of staff		Professionalism of staff	Professionalism of staff	Professionalism of staff	
Price / Value	Value for money	Value for money	Value for money	Value for money	Value for money	Not included in model
Brand	Concept		Concept	Concept		Brand
Size						Not included in model
Moved from Airport-related factors	Expected higher quality (heuristics)		Expected higher quality (heuristics)	Expected higher quality (heuristics)	Expected higher quality (heuristics)	Other passengers
	Expected waiting time	Expected waiting time			Expected waiting time	
			Speedy service			
		Speedy service			Speedy service	
			Queuing			
	Queuing	Queuing			Queuing	

4.1.3 Contextual and personal factors influencing patronage intentions

The first research question was: “What environmental and personal factors influence air passengers’ food and beverage outlet patronage intentions in the airside areas of commercial airports?”

In order to address this question, the effect of the airside context on passenger behaviour was assessed through unstructured observations, as well as through interviews and focus group discussions. For the unstructured observations, I took on the role of a passenger as well as that of a food and beverage outlet employee in several instances. Through the compilation of field notes, I intended to achieve a thick description of my experiences and observations. For a discussion of the role of thick description, please refer to section 3.10.1 above.

Accessing the airside area as an employee involves a prescribed security protocol, similar to the one passengers go through. At separate employee and goods checkpoints, employees gain access to the secure airside area. Through the description below, based on my field notes, it becomes evident that the airside area is a special place, an encapsulated space; for employees as well as for passengers. A place that can only be accessed (and left) adhering to specific rules and protocols.

> *I hold my employee badge against a card reader, and the first door of the double door system opens. Behind me, the door closes, I hold my badge against a second card reader and have to enter my four-digit PIN code and confirm with the button “E”. It is a frightening process to go through this double-door system. Only after that, the second door opens and I can leave. I am now an employee in the airside area and have to, at all times, visibly wear my employee badge. Besides this, I can move freely.*

In order to take on the employee perspective, I worked as frontline food and beverage employee at the AIR bar, a relatively new outlet centrally located in terminal one. From this perspective, I could observe that passenger arrivals in the airside area are irregular, not seeming to follow a specific pattern over time. Times with very high demand and customers queuing for service followed quieter times.

The airside context has shown to have an effect on behaviour from the passengers' perspective as well. Through unstructured observations from the passengers' perspective, I was able to experience this. After check-in, a certain level of uncertainty regarding the duration of security controls can be considered to be a '*pull*'-factor that encourages passengers to go through security as soon as possible. This then results in passengers spending increased amounts of time in the airside setting.

In semi-structured interviews that were conducted in-situ in the airside setting, the food and beverage outlet employees reported their perspectives on how air passengers react to the airside context. Nervousness and stress are typical reactions to the context, as the employees reported.

> *"Yes, I mean, stressed, yes. What I said earlier on, somehow they are all completely unrelaxed. The fact that they still are afraid of missing their plane, even though, in here, I mean in the airside area, everything is sorted and done. All they have to do is wait and then board the plane." (F&B outlet employee, male)*

Due to security controls and the specifics of the airside setting, passengers seem to show increased levels of stress and nervousness. Behaviour does not always follow rational decision-making processes in this setting.

> *"There are many people that just come in and sometimes they are shoving, they don't look left or right, they think they just have to have a coffee. Since they have to be here early, some passengers had to get up early." (F&B outlet employee, male)*

This impact of stress or nervousness was mentioned in interviews with F&B outlet staff, as well as with management of the catering company and airport management. Airport management furthermore pointed out that the perceived stress is more likely to occur with inexperienced travellers.

> *"When someone flies three or five times, or two times a year or only once, for this person it is still something special, it is vastly different from the daily, mundane experiential environment." (managing director, Stuttgart Airport)*

Participants in the focus group discussion mentioned that they usually did not feel stressed or nervous because of these processes and controls. This was interestingly the case for frequent and infrequent travellers alike. Participants however reported that air travel became stressful when they lost control over the events. This could be due to travelling with family and children or through unusual situations, such as late-minute gate changes or airline strikes.

> *It also depends on whether you are externally controlled since you are with your wife who doesn't fly often and who believes that we will not make it. As said, when I travel on my own, departing from Stuttgart, half an hour is enough. I rather try to circumnavigate the traffic jam and then I am here, up*

> *to now I have always made it, no matter how tight. But then somewhere else and with wife, oh my god, oh my god, and the time." (focus group participant, male, frequent flyer)*

The evidence collected from interviews with staff and management suggests that infrequent travellers show more signs of airside stress and nervousness than frequent travellers do. This concept of airside stress and nervousness however is mainly mentioned by employees and management, but not so much by passengers. This could either indicate that the effects of the airport context and its security protocols are not as strong as initially expected based on extant literature, or that consumption of food and beverages indeed has a reducing effect on the perceived levels of stress and nervousness. Interviews with employees revealed that the consumption of food and beverages is indeed understood to be one strategy for passengers to reduce said stress and nervousness.

> *"Yes, then they are more relaxed, for sure. Well, I don't know, does it have an effect that they had a coffee, or this calm […], well they become calm after eating and drinking and then … well, there are others as well, but the majority are more relaxed, calm." (F&B outlet employee, male)*

Besides the *airport* and its airside context, other factors have shown to have an influence on outlet patronage intentions. These were categorized as factors relating to the remaining three top-level themes *passenger*, *type of trip*, as well as the *food and beverage outlet*. Overall, these factors can thus be categorized into environmental and personal factors, linking back to the first research question.

The presence of other passengers has shown to have an effect on patronage intentions. On the one hand, passengers reported that they did not appreciate long waiting times and queues at the food and beverage outlets. Passengers have mentioned being able to receive quick service as an important point during both the in-situ interviews as well as the focus group discussion. Interestingly, the importance of quick service has not been raised by management, neither the caterer's nor the airport's. On the other hand, passengers also perceived the presence of other customers as a sign of quality for an outlet. This became evident in the focus group discussion where it was brought up by a number of participants.

> *"Well, high revenues mostly also stand for higher quality. [...] You know, when it is good and there are other people, then I go there as well." (focus-group participant, male, infrequent flyer)*

Furthermore, both airport and caterer management have brought up the influence of other passengers on outlet patronage intentions.

> *"… but when they see many people standing and sitting around the unit, people intuitively go there rather than a few steps further to another unit where there are hardly any guests. Well, the guest, the passenger, does not react and think wonderful, I do not have to queue there, he says this can't be possible that one outlet is busy and the other one is quiet." (managing director, catering company)*

Where the presence of other passengers at a food and beverage outlet can have a negative effect (expected waiting time) on outlet patronage intentions, it can also have a positive impact. As the analysis has revealed, passengers seem to prefer busy outlets over quiet ones, assuming that a higher demand represents a higher quality of the food and beverages on offer.

Airport management as well as food and beverage concession staff have mentioned the effect of smell on behaviour. At one outlet, the AIR Bar, bread and similar products are baked freshly on site throughout the day. The smell of fresh bakery products has been reported to have an influence on behaviour.

> *"…now we come to the question, how does the food and beverage on offer have to be presented to a passenger on his way to the gate, so that there is not only a visual cue, but also an olfactory one." (managing director, Stuttgart Airport)*

It is interesting to note that the effect of smell has not been mentioned by passengers. This could indicate that passengers may not perceive the effect of smell on behaviour consciously.

Further environmental factors that emerged were the look and feel of the outlet, as well as the food and beverages on offer. Whilst beer seems to be mainly sought after by male passengers, organic foods and beverages were mainly mentioned by female passengers. Passengers mentioned that they preferred a wide choice of products on offer, whereas outlet staff pointed out that the choice should not be too wide. High quality speciality coffees as well as local specials were mentioned by passengers to be attractive. Whilst speciality coffees are available at Stuttgart airport, neither food and beverage concession staff nor the caterer's management have mentioned local specials. This could indicate that they may possibly not be aware of this demand.

From a design and layout perspective, passengers mentioned the importance of the ambiance of the outlet. Besides the requirement for comfortable seating and a quiet ambiance, many passengers appreciated having a view on the tarmac, in line with the airport environment being a special place. This is a factor that was not mentioned by airport nor caterer management. Attractiveness of an outlet can thus be understood to include atmospheric and design components, but also smell and whether the outlet is busy.

Both the outlet's design and its layout, as well as proximity to the departure gate have shown to be factors influencing outlet patronage intentions with differing effects. Whilst some passengers preferred to remain close to their gate, others were willing to walk through the terminal in order to consume at an outlet they found to be more attractive.

During the focus group discussion, proximity to the gate was not perceived to be an important factor influencing outlet patronage intentions. Focus group participants reported that outlet attractiveness was more important for them than proximity to the gate. This could indicate that proximity to gate is only rated important when passengers find themselves in-situ.

A number of personal factors influencing outlet patronage intentions could be identified through the focus group discussion as well as the in-situ interviews with passengers. The significance of price was mentioned several times by passengers. Whilst there seems to be a general understanding for food and beverages to be more expensive in the airport airside environment than elsewhere, a number of passengers found the airside offer excessively overpriced, even though they still consumed. Since sales prices however typically are similar between different outlets, price does not constitute an important factor influencing outlet patronage intentions. Where the sales price is perceived to be too high, the choice is then reduced to non-consumption for passengers.

"When I know that it is excessively priced, well, then I don't have an understanding for it. Well, when it is a bit more expensive, ok, but when prices are exorbitant, so that you think it is not worth it for what you get, then I am a little bit more critical than usual." (Focus Group participant, male, frequent flyer)

Besides the personal attitude towards airside consumption, available time showed to play an important role in airside consumption decisions. The evidence suggests that most passengers tend to pass through security as soon as possible after check-in, due to a perceived uncertainty about the duration of the procedures and the subsequent uncertainty of available time before boarding. Whereas business travellers often arrive later and thus have less time available in the airside area prior to the departure of their flight, leisure travellers tend to arrive earlier and thus take more time. This will be discussed further in section 4.1.4 below.

The findings relating to the first research questions are now expressed in the form of testable propositions and will be presented in Section 4.2 below.

4.1.4 Types of passengers and airside behaviour

The second research question was: "To what extent do different types of passengers show different outlet patronage intentions in this context?"

Extant literature typically differentiates air travellers by their main motivation for travel into business and leisure travellers. When it comes to airside consumption behaviour, both the managing director of Stuttgart airport as well as management of the catering company preferred to differentiate between frequent and infrequent flyers.

The finding that business travellers fly more often than leisure travellers seems not surprising at first sight. Leisure passengers were reported to be more likely to stroll through the terminal after passing through security than business travellers, spending more time in the airside context. In this vein, airport management reported that frequent flyers tend to arrive later at the airport than infrequent flyers and thus spend less time in the airside context. Furthermore, frequent flyers were reported by the managing director of the airport company to be more likely to have airline lounge access and thus form a customer segment of less commercial attractiveness for the airport and for the caterer. In the focus group discussion, frequent flyers reported that they are very likely to make use of airline lounge access when it is granted to them.

The findings suggest to question the extant differentiation in business and leisure travellers. The evidence suggests that frequent travellers who usually travel for business purposes behave differently when they travel for leisure purposes. I will thus no longer refer to the extant categories of "*business traveller*" and "*leisure traveller*" but to passengers "*travelling for business*" and those "*travelling for leisure*".

The evidence collected in interviews and through observations suggests that passengers travelling for business tend to arrive at the airport later than those travelling for leisure. This may be explained with benefits linked to frequent flyer statuses that travellers may achieve after having flown a certain amount of segments. Such benefits typically include the right to use airline lounges as well as a security "fast lane" which in turn reduces the uncertainty about the duration of security controls and the time available in the airside area.

The main reason for passengers travelling for leisure to arrive earlier prior to departure than passengers travelling for business may be the fear of missing the flight, linked to the uncertainty about the duration of security controls. Another explanation for inexperienced travellers may however also be the intention to spend time at the airport and to experience the airport context as part of the overall travel experience.

> *"…the inexperienced flyer, and that is also the one that takes, let's say three trips a year, a city trip somewhere, visiting relatives, or a holiday, the less experienced flyer's behaviour is coined by a certain risk or fear. Under no circumstances, and that is above all, under no circumstances does he want to miss his plane. He wants to be on time, he wants to be included, and therefore he is there, he wants to fly, consume the transportation service. So what does he do, first he makes sure to get rid of the luggage as soon as possible, second the passenger announcements which the airlines order and which we partially thin out already, suggest him to come to his departure gate early, so that leads to pressure, time pressure, people get impatient at the passenger controls". (managing director, Stuttgart Airport).*

When triangulating the statements with other sources of evidence, such as interviews with staff and management and the focus group discussion, the concept of stress and nervousness was supported. F&B concession staff pointed out differences in stress levels as well as in behaviour between different passenger segments. Increased stress levels for passengers travelling for leisure may be due to lack of air travel experience, as evidence collected in interviews with food and beverage concession employees suggests:

> *"… people don't see it, since, in that moment, they worry about other things or they are stressed, maybe to find their gate, mostly people who do not know the place very well, who are not at the airport so often." (F&B outlet employee, male)*

Increased levels of stress and nervousness have also been attributed to travelling with family, especially with children:

> *"… and with children then anyway, when families are travelling, especially during main season, in season time, then everything is somehow under time pressure – completely. So even when they still have 1 ½ hours of time, at least, those people are completely stressed." (F&B outlet employee, female)*

Even though passengers did not mention perceived stress and nervousness (as discussed in section 4.1.3 above), both staff and management considered these to be important factors influencing behaviour. Based on the evidence collected, passengers travelling for leisure seemed to be more likely to experience a fear of missing their plane. Food and beverage consumption seems to be one behavioural strategy to reduce perceived stress and nervousness, as food and beverage concession employees have reported.

Strolling around in the airside area has been reported to be a welcome pastime for passengers travelling both for leisure and for business. During the focus group, passengers travelling for business pointed out they mainly enjoyed doing this in 'new' airports that they did not know well or had not travelled to before. Besides offering distraction and enabling passengers to experience the airport airside context, strolling around was also mentioned to be a kind of exercise in light of having to sit for extended periods of time during flights.

> *"…actually, I find strolling around quite good, since I like doing it. Not because I go shopping everywhere, but just because I sit in the office before*

and I sit in the airplane afterwards, when eating I sit, so I find it quite good to walk a few steps before the flight." (Focus Group participant, male, infrequent flyer)

Mainly for passengers travelling for leisure, strolling through the terminal was also seen to enable them to compare the food and beverages on offer and prices, as interviews with F&B concession staff revealed. For passengers travelling for leisure, the evaluation of the offering was reported to be more important than for those travelling for business. Evidence from interviews with food and beverage concession staff and airport management however also suggested that passengers travelling for leisure often are in a holiday mood and thus less price sensitive on their outbound flight segment. In that light, strolling around the airside area can also be connected to enjoying the airport context for both business and leisure travellers.

Where frequent (and thus mainly business) travellers normally show less interest in strolling through the terminals, are likely to arrive later at the airport, and to have access to airline lounges, the situation changes for them when they travel on leisure with their families, especially with children.

"…it is also differentiated between private and business, because for private things work slightly different. The kids want to first of all look around and get an impression and airport – great – and now again through security and until you have collected them again and taken them to the lounge, that takes a while…" (Focus Group participant, male, frequent traveller)

The evidence collected in interviews suggests that even frequent and thus experienced travellers are subject to stress and nervousness when travelling together with (inexperienced) family members. In those cases, their behaviour then seems to be similar to that of infrequent flyers.

This indicates that – in light of the research questions – passengers should not only be categorized by purpose of travel, but also by the amount of flights they take into frequent or infrequent travellers. As the evidence suggests, even frequent flyers can show behaviours that would otherwise be attributed to infrequent travellers in circumstances where they travel from airports previously unknown to them or with less air travel experienced family.

Where passengers travelling for business are likely to spend less time waiting at the airport on outbound trips, they reported to often have increased waiting times at the airport on inbound segments, on their way home. This then leads to increased airside food and beverage consumption on the inbound leg, especially on day trips. This finding was supported in the interviews with food and beverage concession staff. Passengers travelling for leisure, on the other hand, are often are in a holiday mood on the outbound segment and thus willing to spend more on food and beverages on the outbound leg.

Propositions in relation to the second research question will be presented in section 4.2 below.

4.1.5 The role of service brands in outlet patronage intentions

The third research question was: “Do service brands influence air passengers in their outlet patronage intentions, and if so, to what extent?”

The role of service brands has been researched in other contexts. However, in line with the finding that airside passenger behaviour has not been extensively researched to date, no literature could be identified that dealt with the role of service brands in the airside airport setting. The analysis of the qualitative evidence suggests that service brands only play a minor role in outlet patronage intentions. During the focus group discussion, two participants, both infrequent flyers, mentioned they actively avoided service brands altogether when consuming airside, since they preferred consuming local foods and beverages when travelling.

An exploration of the qualitative data revealed a more detailed picture of the importance of service brands in the airside context. Food and beverage concession staff reported that only few travellers ever asked for service brands. Those who did were mainly younger travellers and looking for branded fast food. Service brands that were mentioned were McDonald's and Burger King.

> *"…every now and then young people, about 16, 17, 18, 19 say 'is there a Burger King or a McDonald's or something similar?', but as mentioned, not often, only occasionally." (F&B outlet employee, male)*

Participants in the focus group discussion were of the opinion that the type of outlet and the types food and beverage on offer were more important than service brands.

Whilst there seems little demand for service brands in the airside setting, there also is little supply of branded food outlets in German airport airside areas. During the interview with airport management, a possible reason for the lack of food service brands in German airside areas emerged. With service brands, customers typically have the possibility to compare sales prices; something that airports try to avoid since sales prices are higher than outside.

"… for instance take a Burger King or a chain, a Vapiano or whatever that is, on the landside, then you very well have an idea of prices. And I think that is the reason, this price comparison would be possible to a large degree, that exactly those chains always like being on the landside and basically don't want to accept the special conditions in the airside, which also have to result in higher costs and thus higher prices, and thus keep away from the airside, at least not in Germany. This may be different in other countries."
(managing director, Stuttgart Airport)

Thus, if food service brands were available in the airside areas, passengers would get a better understanding of the level of price increases in the airside context of the airport versus high-street price levels. This is something that airport management apparently would like to avoid.

A theme that emerged from the focus group discussion as well as from the interview with airport management was the importance of service brands when it comes to coffee.

"… coffee, yes, because I find coffee, if it doesn't taste well, since sometimes it is bitter and consists of only water. And, well, I know, at Starbucks it tastes well, since there, I find, it tastes the same always". (focus group participant, female, infrequent traveller)

Besides avoiding the risk of getting coffee of lower quality through service brands, a certain brand loyalty has been identified as a potential factor influencing behaviour.

"… well, I would say, where I currently feel that a kind of brand awareness is developing, that is with the coffee brands. That means that it makes a difference whether someone is offering you Segafredo or Lavazza or Moro or SFCC; it makes a difference which coffee you offer, namely because also at home you prefer a certain coffee and there I feel something is coming". (managing director, Stuttgart Airport)

Propositions in relation to the third research question will be presented in section 4.2 below.

4.1.6 Findings emerging from the qualitative enquiry

As I have discussed above, the qualitative part of this study has led to a number of propositions regarding outlet patronage intentions in the airside setting. These findings have been aggregated into a number of testable conceptual propositions, which will be presented in Tables 24, 25 and 26 below. These propositions were then tested quantitatively through a passenger survey that was conducted at Stuttgart airport as well as through the analysis of secondary data that was obtained from the food and beverage concessionaire. Only those passengers that made a purchase at the AIR Bar (the busiest and largest outlet that C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH operates in Stuttgart) were invited to participate in the survey. The secondary data that was obtained also refers to the same outlet.

Table 24: Summary of Propositions Relating to Contextual and Personal Factors

Number	Category	Detail	Proposition	Linked to Factor in the Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model
1.1	**Airport-related factors**	Passengers typically cannot foresee the duration of security controls and thus tend to move through security as soon as possible.	Due to insecurity about the duration of security controls, passengers pass through security as soon as possible.	Airport Context
1.2	**Airport-related factors**	As an effect of the airside context and uncertainty about security protocols, levels of stress and nervousness may increase.	As an effect of the insecurity about security protocols and the airside context, passengers may experience increased levels of stress and nervousness.	Passengers' Emotional State
1.3	**Airport-related factors**	Consumption of food and beverages may reduce nervousness and stress.	The airside consumption of food and beverages may reduce nervousness and stress.	Passengers' Emotional State
2.1	**Outlet-related factors**	Atmosphere, design and layout of the outlet can influence behaviour.	The atmosphere, design, and layout of the F&B outlet can outlet patronage intentions. Passengers prefer outlets that they rate attractive and perceive to be comfortable.	Atmosphere

Number	Category	Detail	Proposition	Linked to Factor in the Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model
2.2	**Outlet-related factors**	Proximity to departure gate influences passenger choice behaviour.	Proximity to departure gate influences outlet patronage intention. Passengers prefer outlets that are close to their departure gate.	Location

Table 25: Summary of Propositions Relating to Types of Passengers

Number	Category	Detail	Proposition	Linked to Factor in the Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model
3.1	**Passenger-related factors**	Business travellers have shown to fly more frequently than leisure travellers.	Business travellers fly more often than leisure travellers.	Flight Frequency / Experience
3.2	**Passenger-related factors**	Leisure travellers tend to perceive air travel as a special occasion.	Leisure travellers are more likely to perceive air travel as a special occasion than business travellers.	Passengers' Emotional State
3.3	**Passenger-related factors**	Leisure travellers may experience higher levels of airside stress and nervousness.	Leisure travellers are more likely to experience airside stress and nervousness.	Passengers' Emotional State
3.4	**Passenger-related factors**	Leisure travellers tend to be in a holiday mood on outbound segment.	Leisure travellers tend to be in a holiday mood on the outbound segment and thus tend to consume more and show less price sensitivity.	Passengers' Emotional State
3.5	**Passenger-related factors**	Business travellers tend to show increased F&B consumption on the inbound segment.	Business travellers tend to consume more and show less price sensitivity on the inbound segment.	Passengers' Emotional State
3.6	**Passenger-related factors**	In response to the airside context, inexperienced travellers tend to immediately look for their departure gate and to consume close to their gate.	Inexperienced travellers tend to immediately look for their departure gate and prefer to consume close to their gate.	Flight Frequency / Experience

Number	Category	Detail	Proposition	Linked to Factor in the Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model
3.7	**Passenger-related factors**	More experienced travellers are more willing to move away from their departure gate and look for an outlet they perceive to be attractive.	More experienced travellers are more willing to move away from their departure gate and look for an outlet they perceive to be attractive.	Flight Frequency / Experience

Table 26: Summary of Propositions Relating to the Role of Service Brands

Number	Category	Detail	Proposition	Linked to Factor in the Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model
2.3	**Outlet-related factors**	Overall, service brands are not an important factor influencing patronage intentions for the majority of travellers.	The majority of passengers do not rate the service brand to be an important factor when choosing an airside food and beverage outlet.	Brand
2.4	**Outlet-related factors**	Food service brands play a role for younger travellers.	Food service brands are a factor influencing patronage intentions for younger travellers.	Passenger Type

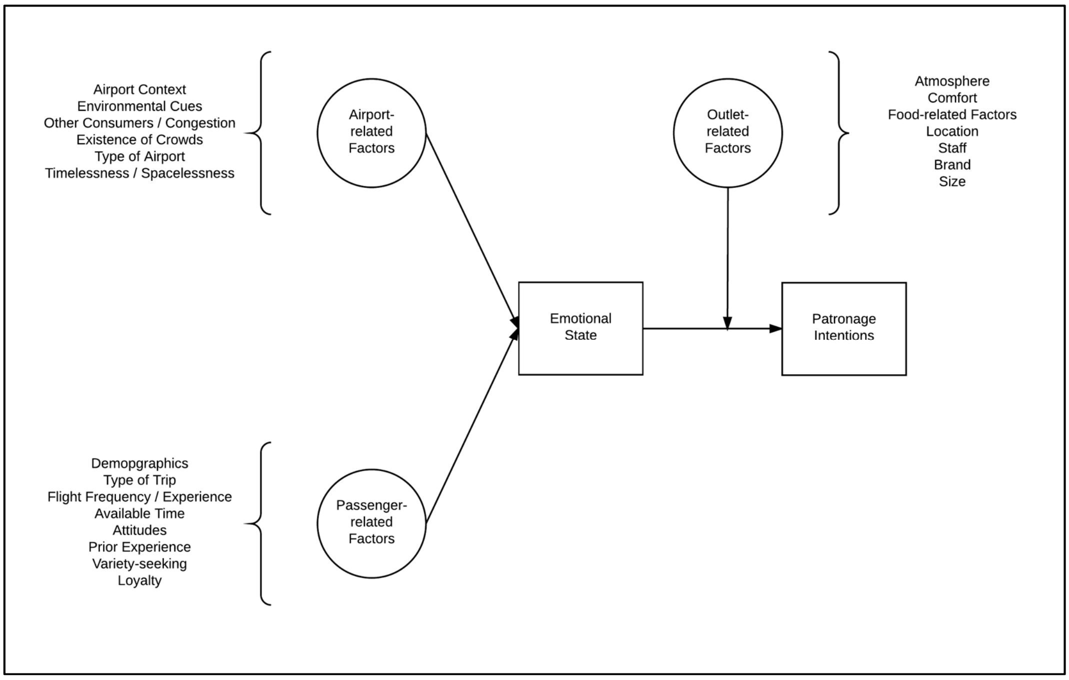
When aggregating the evidence collected in the qualitative enquiry, passengers' emotional states when travelling by air seem to be emerging key concepts influencing airside behaviour. The development of the template revealed a number of key emotional states that play a role in this context: *Fear* (e.g. of missing the plane, of getting lost in the airport), *Stress and Nervousness* (e.g. due to the unknown location and the security protocols) and *Enjoyment* or pleasure (e.g. of the airside context as a special space and in anticipation of the flight).

Whilst *Stress* and *Pleasure* have been defined in section 1.6 above, the concept of *Fear* relates to an emotion that signals danger (Kassin et al., 2008). Following Zimbardo (1992), the fear response arises from perceived danger. Danger thus needs not to be actually present, the perception of danger alone is sufficient to trigger fear.

Synthesizing the findings with the Conceptual Framework for Airside Outlet Patronage Intentions that was presented as Figure 2 in section 2.4.4 above and with the Conceptual Framework for F&B outlet patronage intentions that was presented as Figure 3 in section 2.6 above, outlet patronage intentions can then be understood to be based on three categories of factors: *airport-related*, *outlet-related* and *passenger-related*.

Figure 8 below illustrates the Initial Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model based on the qualitative analysis. For this preliminary framework, the *airport-related*, *outlet-related* and *passenger-related* factors were contextualized with the importance of passengers' emotional states. Whilst the qualitative enquiry has shown the influence of airport-related, passenger-related as well as of outlet-related factors on outlet patronage intentions, the nature of the relationship between passengers' emotional state and patronage intentions remains unclear. This is to be addressed through the quantitative analysis that follows below.

Figure 8: Findings from the Qualitative Exploration: Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model



4.2 Findings from the Quantitative Data Analysis

Quantitative analyses were based on a passenger survey that was conducted at Stuttgart airport as well as through the analysis of secondary data that was obtained from the food and beverage concessionaire. Only those passengers that made a purchase at the AIR Bar (the busiest and largest outlet that C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH operates at Stuttgart airport) were invited to participate in the survey. The secondary data that was obtained also refers to the same outlet. The findings from the quantitative data analysis will be presented in this section.

4.2.1 Secondary (point of sales) data analysis

The qualitative data analysis suggested that different passenger segments, namely passengers travelling for business and for leisure, show different consumption behaviours. As the evidence collected in interviews suggests, passengers travelling for business tend to arrive later at the airport on outbound segments and consume less. On inbound segments (on their way back home), passengers travelling for business however tend to arrive earlier at the airport and also spend more on food and beverages.

Passengers travelling for leisure, on the other hand, are more likely to consume more on the outbound segment, as the evidence suggested. This can be attributed to a number of factors: Passengers travelling for leisure tend to fly less often and are thus less experienced and thus tend to arrive at the airport earlier. They furthermore are more likely to be in a holiday mood on the outbound segment and thus less price sensitive.

In order to triangulate those findings from the interviews, secondary data was obtained from the point of sales system of the AIR Bar for the month of November 2014, the same month during which the semi-structured interviews and unstructured observations were conducted. Consumption patterns were then analysed for different time periods of different weekdays. In order to do this, the mean values for the variables *number of guest checks*, *total revenue* and *average guest check* were calculated for different time periods of the day for different weekdays. This approach allowed the analysis of consumption patterns for continuing time periods of the week. In order to assess differences between different weekdays statistically, the time periods were aggregated into morning (04h45 – 10h00), midday (10h00 – 14h00) and afternoon/evening (14h00 – 20h00).

Secondary data are presented in Annex 4, both in tabular as well as in graphical format. The number of guest checks table presented below in Table 21 illustrates the average number of guest checks at the AIR Bar for different periods of different weekdays. Each guest check represents one sales transaction and thus one customer making a purchase at the outlet. With the exception of Saturdays and Sundays, all days show a similar trend for the development of guest checks over time. Weekdays show a peak in the morning and then again in the late afternoon / early evening between 16:00 and 18:00. The majority of passengers leaving Stuttgart airport in the early hours of weekdays are typically passengers travelling for business on an outbound leg. The peaks in the afternoons, highest on Thursday and Friday, mainly represent passengers travelling for business on inbound segments (on their way back home). In order to follow the concept of data triangulation, this finding was supported through a follow-up enquiry with the operations manager of the concessionaire.

On the weekends, Saturday mornings feature a high number of guests in the morning, as the secondary data analysis reveals. The morning then is least busy on Sundays. As a follow-up enquiry with the operations manager of the concessionaire confirmed, Saturdays are typically days for mainly passengers travelling for leisure to depart from Stuttgart, both on charter and scheduled flights. Whilst Sunday mornings mainly show passengers travelling for leisure departing from Stuttgart, Sunday afternoons and evenings feature both returning passengers travelling for leisure and outbound passengers travelling for business en route to their destination the night before.

Table 27 below illustrates typical traffic patterns for Stuttgart airport as they have emerged during the qualitative data collection and analysis phase.

Table 27: Main Traffic Structure at Stuttgart Airport

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday	Sunday
Morning	Mainly business out-bound	Mainly business out-bound	Mainly business outbound	Mainly business outbound	Mainly business outbound	Mainly leisure outbound	Mainly leisure outbound
Mid-day						Mainly leisure Outbound	
Afternoon/ evening	Mainly business inbound	Mainly business inbound	Mainly business inbound	Mainly business inbound	Mainly business inbound	Mainly leisure outbound	Leisure inbound and business outbound

Whilst the plotting of the number of guests at the AIR Bar shows similar patterns with peaks in the morning and in the afternoon for most days, statistical analyses were conducted in order to test whether specific days show significantly different patterns. Table 28 below illustrates the development of guest checks during the time frames for different weekdays.

Table 28: Mean Number of Guest Checks at the AIR Bar

Mean Number of Guest Checks - AIR Bar - November 2014							
	MON	TUE	WED	THU	FRI	SAT	SUN
04:45 - 06:00	87	96	93	82	103	113	52
06:00 - 08:00	109	126	133	155	129	123	62
08:00 - 10:00	123	114	105	118	141	116	90
10:00 - 12:00	100	89	80	121	118	99	94
12:00 - 14:00	107	72	93	105	109	73	110
14:00 - 16:00	103	98	106	111	142	61	128
16:00 - 18:00	159	188	186	197	215	42	146
18:00 - 20:00	92	91	134	142	160	34	129

For the morning number of guest checks, an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) showed significant differences $F(6, 23) = 14.45$, $p < 0.001$. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test (Pallant, 2013) revealed differences between Sundays ($M = 203$, $SD = 35.9$) and all other days.

For the evening number of guest checks, the ANOVA showed significant differences as well $F(6, 23) = 50{,}25$, $p < 0.001$. A Tukey HSD rest revealed that Saturdays ($M = 137$, $SD = 19.5$) were significantly different from all other days and Fridays ($M = 515$, $SD = 62.3$) were significantly different from all other days except Thursdays ($M = 449$, $SD = 51.2$).

Whilst the number of guest checks indicates how busy the outlet has been, the average guest check indicates the average level of consumption per passenger consuming. The average guest check (AGC) is calculated by dividing the total revenue of the period by the number guest checks realized in that period (Davis et al., 2008; Schmidgall, 2013). The AGC thus measures the average amount of revenue that was generated per transaction.

The ANOVA for the AGC shows significant differences for the morning hours $F(6, 23) = 5.2$, $p < 0.05$. The Tukey HSD test indicated that Fridays ($M = 6.94$, $SD = 0.3$)

were significantly different from all other days except Thursdays (M = 6.45, SD = 0.37) and Saturdays (M = 6.60, SD = 0.49). Mondays to Wednesdays, as well as Sundays showed significantly lower values. Since, during weekday mornings, Stuttgart airport features mainly passengers travelling for business on their outbound segments, the analysis supports the finding that outbound passengers travelling for business have a lower willingness to spend than other passenger segments.

The majority of passengers departing from Stuttgart on Saturday and Sunday until afternoon are outbound passengers travelling for leisure. Especially Saturdays are the main leisure travel days for Stuttgart airport and show very little business traffic. Traffic on Sunday evenings then includes passengers travelling for business departing for their (work related) destination the evening before already. The high AGC value on Saturday mornings supports the finding that outbound passengers travelling for leisure have a higher willingness to spend on food and beverage than outbound passengers travelling for business.

For the afternoon / evening hours, the ANOVA shows significant differences as well $F (6, 23) = 13.3$, $p < 0.001$. The Tukey HSD test revealed that Wednesday (M = 7.35, SD = 0.24), Thursday (M = 7.54, SD = 0.47) and Friday (M = 7.34 ,SD = 0.42) showed significantly higher values than the other days. Based on the traffic structure at Stuttgart airport (see Table 27 above), these are mainly passengers travelling for business on their way back home (inbound). This interpretation of the secondary data supports the finding that passengers travelling for business are more likely to spend on food and beverages on their inbound segments. This finding will be further discussed in Chapters 5 and 7 below.

Since Average Guest Check is defined as total revenue divided by the number of guests, the total revenue is the product of AGC and number of guests. The total revenue per period and the distribution of daily revenue for different weekdays in Annex 4 thus shows clear differences from the daily trend for weekdays (mainly business travellers) and weekends (mainly leisure travellers). The findings of the secondary data analysis can thus be seen to support the findings from the qualitative analysis that passengers travelling for leisure are more likely to consume on the outbound segment whereas passengers travelling for business are more likely to consume on the inbound segment.

4.2.2 Survey data analysis

The analysis of survey data followed an exploratory approach and builds on the findings of the qualitative data analysis.

Initially, the propositions that emerged from the qualitative analysis were tested quantitatively through the survey (except propositions 3.5 and 3.6 that were addressed in section 4.2.1). Table 29 below shows the findings relating to the propositions.

Table 29: Summary of Results testing propositions

Number	Category	Proposition	Test used	Findings	Proposition supported?
1.1	Airport-related factors	Due to insecurity about the duration of security controls, passengers pass through security as soon as possible.	Frequency display (descriptive analysis)	57.8% of passengers agree or strongly agree to the statement and claim to pass through security as soon as possible after check-in.	Proposition supported.
1.2	Airport-related factors	As an effect of the insecurity about security protocols and the airside context, passengers may experience increased levels of stress and nervousness.	Frequency display (descriptive analysis)	43.3% of passengers disagree or strongly disagree to the statement of being stressed. Another 27.7% are neutral. This leaves only a minority that supports that claim. 59.2% of passengers disagree or strongly disagree to the statement of being nervous. Another 16.6% are neutral. This leaves only a minority that supports that claim.	Proposition not supported.

Number	Category	Proposition	Test used	Findings	Proposition supported?
1.3	Airport-related factors	The airside consumption of food and beverages may reduce nervousness and stress.	Frequency display (descriptive analysis)	35.8% disagree or strongly disagree to the statement. 24.6% of passengers are neutral and 39.7% agree or strongly agree.	Proposition not supported.
2.1	Outlet-related factors	The atmosphere, design and layout of the F&B outlet can influence outlet patronage intentions. Passengers prefer outlets that they rate attractive and perceive to be comfortable.	Frequency display (descriptive analysis)	41.8% of passengers disagree, 19.4% are neutral, and 36% agree to the statement.	Proposition not supported.
2.2	Outlet-related factors	Proximity to departure gate influences outlet patronage intentions. Passengers prefer outlets that are close to their departure gate.	Frequency display (descriptive analysis)	23.2% of passengers disagree to this statement, 24.2% are neutral and 54.7% of passengers agree to the statement.	Proposition supported.

Number	Category	Proposition	Test used	Findings	Proposition supported?
2.3	Outlet-related factors	The majority of passengers do not rate the service brand to be an important factor when choosing an airside food and beverage outlet.	Frequency display (descriptive analysis)	51.1% of passengers state that service brands are not important. 22.6% of passengers are neutral, and 24.9% rate service brands to be important.	Proposition supported.
2.4	Outlet-related factors	Food service brands are a factor influencing outlet patronage intentions for younger travellers.	Correlation table between passenger age and agreement to the importance of service brands.	No significant relationship was found between agreement to the importance of service brands and age.	Proposition not supported.
3.1	Passenger-related factors	Business travellers fly more often than leisure travellers.	T value table comparing mean number of flights for passengers travelling on business and leisure.	A significant difference in total number of flights could be identified with a mean difference of 18.23 flights that business travellers have more. Leisure travellers had a mean of 5.18 flights in the year to date, business travellers had a mean of 23.41 flights in the year to date.	Proposition supported.

Number	Category	Proposition	Test used	Findings	Proposition supported?
3.2	Passenger-related factors	Leisure travellers are more likely to perceive air travel as a special occasion than business travellers.	T value table comparing mean agreement to the statement of perceiving air travel as special occasion for passengers travelling on business and leisure.	A significant difference could be identified. Leisure travellers show stronger agreement to the statement of air travel being perceived as a special occasion. The mean difference is 0.93 with leisure travellers rating an average 3.64 and business travellers rating an average 2.71.	Proposition supported.

Number	Category	Proposition	Test used	Findings	Proposition supported?
3.3	Passenger-related factors	Leisure passengers are more likely to experience airside stress and nervousness.	T value table comparing mean agreement to the statement of experiencing stress and nervousness for passengers travelling on business and leisure.	No significant differences could be identified between business and leisure travellers regarding airside stress and nervousness.	Proposition not supported.
3.4	Passenger-related factors	Leisure travellers tend to be in a holiday mood on the outbound segment and thus tend to consume more and show less price sensitivity.	Secondary data analysis. See discussion in section 4.2.1.	During times when mainly leisure travellers make use of the airport, the average guest check increases.	Proposition supported.

Number	Category	Proposition	Test used	Findings	Proposition supported?
3.5	Passenger-related factors	Business travellers tend to consume more and show less price sensitivity on the inbound segment.	Secondary data analysis. See discussion in section 4.2.1.	During times when mainly business travellers on the return flight (inbound segment) make use of the airport, the average guest check increases.	Proposition supported.

Number	Category	Proposition	Test used	Findings	Proposition supported?
3.6	Passenger-related factors	Inexperienced travellers tend to immediately look for their departure gate and prefer to consume close to their gate.	Correlation between flights taken in the year to date and agreement to the statement of immediately looking for the departure gate.	Very weak correlation (r=-0.164) identified, significant at the p<0.05 level.	Proposition supported.
3.7	Passenger-related factors	Those passengers that experience higher levels of stress and nervousness prefer to consume closer to their gate.	Correlation of perceived stress and nervousness with agreement to the statement of consuming close to the gate.	A very weak significant relationship (r=0.168; p<0.01) was identified between perceived stress and agreement to consume close to the gate. No significant relationship was identified between perceived nervousness and agreement to consume close to the gate.	Proposition partly supported.

The findings of the qualitative analysis and the results emerging from the testing of the propositions suggested the need for a more detailed investigation. Passengers' emotional states seemed to influence air passenger airside behaviour, however a simple relationship could not be identified. Passengers' emotional states then furthermore seemed to be connected to *airport-related*, *outlet-related*, and *passenger-related* factors influencing outlet patronage intentions, as the analysis of qualitative data has shown (see section 4.1 above). The objective of the survey thus was to find support for the qualitative results and to further explore the relationships between passengers' emotional state and patronage intentions. The survey questionnaire was thus constructed based on the findings emerging from the qualitative data analysis. Table 30 below illustrates how the concepts emerging from the qualitative analysis were incorporated in the survey questionnaire.

Table 30: Mapping Qualitative Findings and Survey Questions

Factor Category	Finding	Proposition	Question_ID	Survey Question
Airport-related factors	Consumption reduces stress and nervousness	1.3	Q_11	Eating and/or drinking in the airside area helps me to relax prior to departure.
Airport-related factors	Increased levels of stress and nervousness based on airport context	1.2	Q_4	When I travel by plane, the processes and checks at the airport are stressful for me.
			Q_5	When I travel by plane, the processes and checks make me nervous.
			Q_6	After passing through security, I immediately see where my departure gate is located.
Airport-related factors	Uncertainty about duration of controls	1.1	Q_3	After check-in I move through security controls as soon as possible.
Outlet-related factors	Outlet atmosphere and design influences patronage intentions	2.1	Q_13	When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, I look for an outlet I like. The proximity to my departure gate is not as important.
			Q_15	Airside food and beverage outlets are attractive to me if they offer the following:
			Q_16	The decision, where I go to eat/drink in the airside area for me mainly depends upon the following:

Factor Category	Finding	Proposition	Question_ID	Survey Question
Outlet-related factors	Proximity to departure gate influences patronage intentions	2.2	Q_12 Q_16	When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, I usually do this as close as possible to my departure gate. The decision, where I go to eat/drink in the airside area for me mainly depends upon the following:
Outlet-related factors	Brands do not play an important role in outlet patronage intentions	2.3	Q_14 Q_16	When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, it is important for me to consume at an outlet of a service brand I know. The decision, where I go to eat/drink in the airside area for me mainly depends upon the following:
Outlet-related factors	Brands play a role in outlet patronage intentions for younger passengers	2.4	Q_14 Q_17 Q_16	When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, it is important for me to consume at an outlet of a service brand I know. Age The decision, where I go to eat/drink in the airside area for me mainly depends upon the following:
Passenger-related factors	Passengers travelling for business fly more often	3.1	Q_23, Q_24 Q_21	How many flights have you approximately had in the past 12 months? Is the main purpose of your trip business or leisure?
Passenger-related factors	Passengers travelling for leisure perceive air travel as something special	3.2	Q_2 Q_21	Travelling by plane is a special occasion for me. Is the main purpose of your trip business or leisure?

Factor Category	Finding	Proposition	Question_ID	Survey Question
Passenger-related factors	Passengers travelling for leisure perceive more stress and nervousness	3.3	Q_21, Q_25	Is the main purpose of your trip business or leisure?
				Which part of your flights was for business purposes?
			Q_4	When I travel by plane, the processes and checks at the airport are stressful for me.
			Q_5	When I travel by plane, the processes and checks make me nervous.
Passenger-related factors	Passengers travelling for leisure are in a holiday mood on the outbound segment	3.4	Q_7	After passing through security, I like wandering through the terminal and looking around.
			Q_21	Is the main purpose of your trip business or leisure?
Passenger-related factors	Passengers travelling for business tend to consume more on the inbound segment	3.5		Assessed through secondary data analysis (see section 4.2.1).
Passenger-related factors	Inexperienced travellers consume close to the departure gate	3.6	Q_23, Q_24	How many flights have you approximately had in the past 12 months?
			Q_12	When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, I usually do this as close as possible to my departure gate.
			Q_16	The decision, where I go to eat/drink in the airside area for me mainly depends upon the following:

Factor Category	Finding	Proposition	Question_ID	Survey Question
Passenger-related factors	Nervousness and stress lead to consuming close to the gate	3.7	Q_12	When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, I usually do this as close as possible to my departure gate.
			Q_4	When I travel by plane, the processes and checks at the airport are stressful for me.
			Q_5	When I travel by plane, the processes and checks make me nervous.
			Q_16	The decision, where I go to eat/drink in the airside area for me mainly depends upon the following:

A principal components analysis was conducted in order to explore underlying dimensions (Pallant, 2013), revealing different emotional states that passengers may experience. Multinomial categorical regression was then used to inspect factors influencing passengers' outlet patronage intentions. In light of the second research question, cluster analysis was conducted in order to further investigate differences in outlet patronage intentions for different passenger types. Since outlet patronage intentions are understood to be the resulting phenomenon of the three emotional states, the cluster analysis was based on passengers' emotional states. Once meaningful clusters were identified, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine whether different passenger clusters rated differently on those emotional states.

The following tables illustrate the demographics of the sample. Missing values relate to instances where passengers did not provide the information requested in the questionnaire.

Table 31: Language

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	German	289	89.8	89.8	89.8
	English	33	10.2	10.2	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

As Table 31 above illustrates, the majority of the respondents answered the survey questionnaire in German language.

Table 32: Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	173	53.7	57.9	57.9
	Female	126	39.1	42.1	100.0
	Total	299	92.9	100.0	
Missing	System	23	7.1		
Total		322	100.0		

Illustrated by Table 32 above, about 58% of the survey participants were male.

Table 33: Main Purpose of Travel

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Business	115	35.7	41.2	41.2
	Leisure	164	50.9	58.8	100.0
	Total	279	86.6	100.0	
Missing	System	43	13.4		
Total		322	100.0		

Since the survey was conducted during the summer months, both Business and Leisure passengers are represented, with Leisure passengers representing ca. 59% of the sample, as Table 33 above shows.

Table 34: Class of Travel

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Economy class	232	72.0	84.1	84.1
	Business class	44	13.7	15.9	100.0
	Total	276	85.7	100.0	
Missing	System	46	14.3		
Total		322	100.0		

The vast majority of respondents (84.1%) were travelling in Economy Class, as Table 34 above illustrates.

Table 35: Descriptive Statistics for ratio variables

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	268	12	73	37.35	13.266
How far did you have to travel to the airport today (in kilometres)	242	0	420	49.95	49.969
How far in advance before departure (in hours) did you arrive at the airport?	259	.20	5.00	1.9604	.84891
How many flights have you approximately had in the past 12 months from Stuttgart?	243	0	78	6.03	10.537
How many flights have you approximately had in the past 12 months in total?	214	0	100	12.70	18.781
Which part of your flights was for business purposes? (in percent):	225	.0	100.0	35.627	39.7296
Valid N (listwise)	176				

Table 35 above presents descriptive statistics for variables measured at interval/ratio level.

Table 36 below illustrates the level of agreement of the sample to different statements in the questionnaire expressed with 1 standing for “strongly disagree”, 5 representing “strongly agree”, and 3 representing “neutral”.

Table 36: Descriptive Statistics Agreement

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Travelling by plane is a special occasion for me.	316	3.24	1.480
After check-in I move through security controls as soon as possible.	315	3.56	1.349
When I travel by plane, the processes and checks at the airport are stressful for me.	314	2.82	1.296
When I travel by plane, the processes and checks make me nervous.	314	2.43	1.351
After passing through security, I immediately see where my departure gate is located.	313	3.75	1.376
After passing through security, I like wandering through the terminal and looking around.	312	3.44	1.366
After passing through security, I perceive shopping and food and beverage as a welcome pastime.	313	3.45	1.307
Prior to departure, I like to go to eat and/or drink something	305	3.63	1.269
Eating and/or drinking in the airside area helps me to relax prior to departure.	305	3.08	1.325
When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, I usually do this as close as possible to my departure gate.	302	3.46	1.287
When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, proximity to gate is more important for the outlet choice than outlet attractiveness	299	3.02	1.406
When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, it is important for me to consume at an outlet of a service brand I know.	305	2.60	1.390
Valid N (listwise)	285		

4.2.2.1 Principal components analysis

In order to examine how passengers' emotional states influence patronage intentions, a principal components analysis was conducted with those variables that measured participants' agreement to certain aspects of airside behaviour. This approach was based on the intention to link back to the role of the emotional states emerging from the qualitative analysis. Principal components analysis is a technique that summarizes a larger set of variables using a smaller set of components (Pallant, 2013, pp. 1162). The objective is to identify possible dimensions that are underlying a set of variables. Variables included in the analysis are listed in Table 37 below.

Table 37: Variables used for Principal Components Analysis

Variable Name	Variable label
Q_2	Travelling by plane is a special occasion for me.
Q_3	After check-in I move through security controls as soon as possible.
Q_4	When I travel by plane, the processes and checks at the airport are stressful for me.
Q_5	When I travel by plane, the processes and checks make me nervous.
Q_6	After passing through security, I immediately see where my departure gate is located.
Q_8	After passing through security, I perceive shopping and food and beverage as a welcome pastime.
Q_10	Prior to departure, I like to go to eat and/or drink something
Q_11	Eating and/or drinking in the airside area helps me to relax prior to departure.

Variables relating to outlet patronage intentions (Q_7, Q_12 – Q_14) were not included in the principal component analysis, since outlet patronage intentions are understood to be the effect. The analysis resulted in three components with eigenvalues above 1, explaining 25.49%, 20.47%, and 16.1% of variance respectively. Furthermore, scree plot analysis and a Monte Carlo simulation parallel analysis (Costello & Osborne, 2009; Ledesma & Valero-Mora, 2007; O'Connor, 2000), suggested retaining three components (Pallant, 2013), as Figure 9 below illustrates.

Figure 9: Parallel Analysis Results

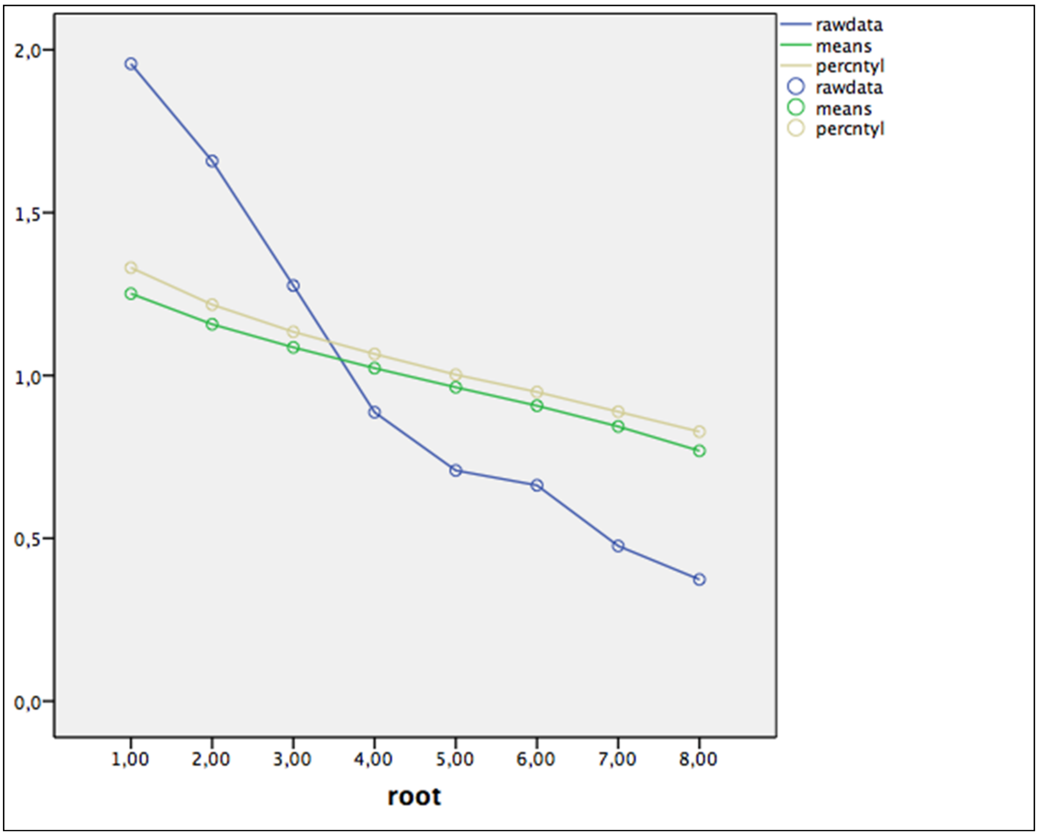


Table 38 below shows the rotated factor loadings for the components with loadings < 0.3 omitted, Table 39 shows the descriptive statistics and correlation matrix.

Table 38: Pattern / Structure coefficients

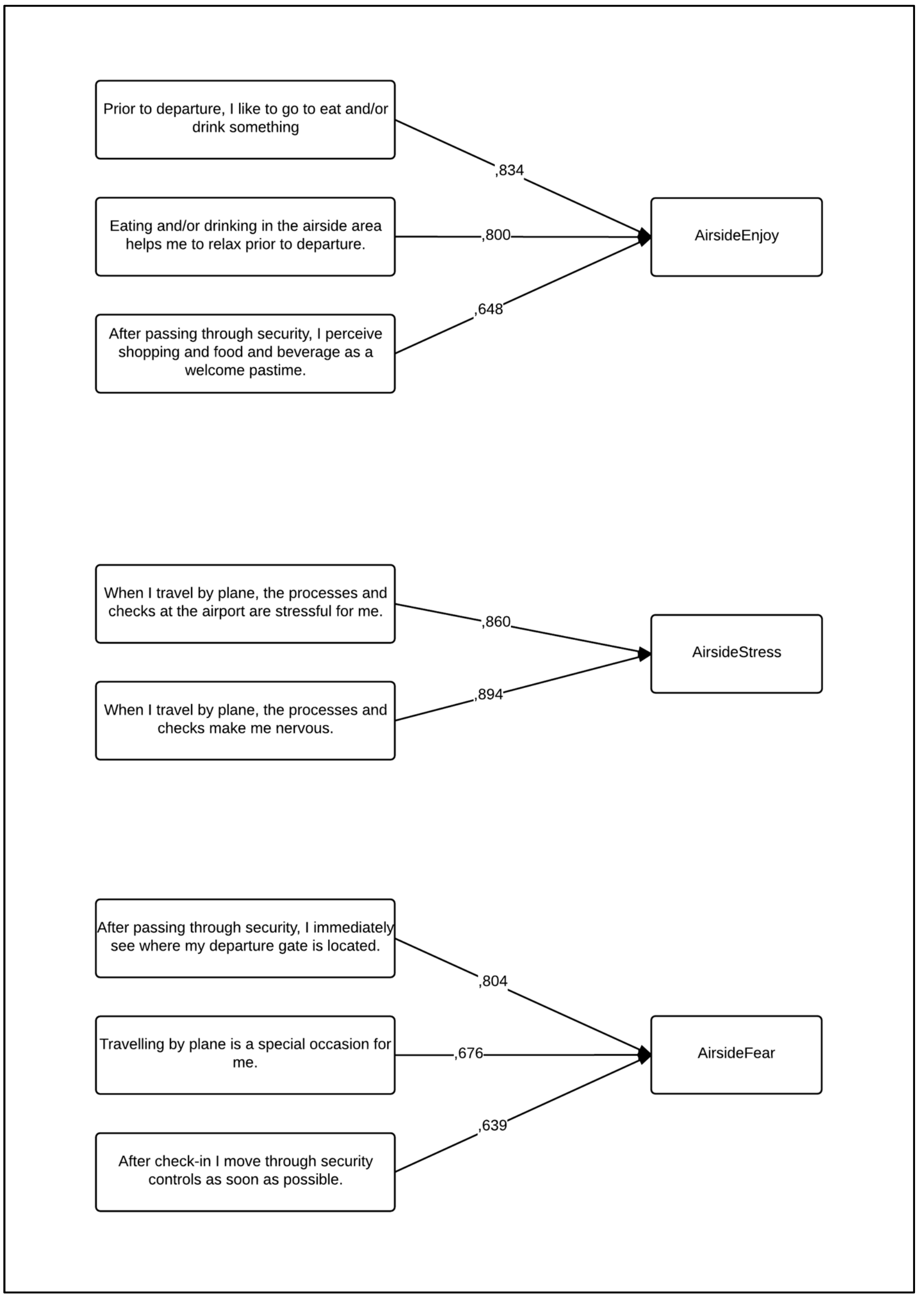
	Factor loadings		
	AirsideEnjoy	AirsideStress	AirsideFear
Prior to departure, I like to go to eat and/or drink something [ENJOY]	**0.834**		
Eating and/or drinking in the airside area helps me to relax prior to departure. [ENJOY]	**0.800**		
After passing through security, I perceive shopping and food and beverage as a welcome pastime. [ENJOY]	**0.648**		
When I travel by plane, the processes and checks make me nervous. [STRESS]		**0.894**	
When I travel by plane, the processes and checks at the airport are stressful for me. [STRESS]		**0.860**	
After passing through security, I immediately see where my departure gate is located [FEAR]			**0.804**
Travelling by plane is a special occasion for me. [FEAR]			**0.676**
After check-in I move through security controls as soon as possible. [FEAR]			**0.639**
Eigenvalue	2.039	1.636	1.284
Initial percent of variance explained	25.487	20.446	16.051
Rotation sum of squared loadings (total)	1.794	1.6098	1.556
Percent of variance explained	22.427	20.110	19.446
Cronbach α (sample N)	0.65	0.73	0.51

Table 39: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix

Variables	Mean	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
AirsideEnjoy										
1. Prior to departure, I like to go to eat and/or drink something.	3.63	1.27	1.00	.522**	.333**	-0.011	-0.105	-0.022	0.096	0.073
2. Eating and/or drinking in the airside area helps me to relax prior to departure.	3.08	1.32		1.00	.293**	.131*	.129*	0.012	0.107	.145*
3. After passing through security, I perceive shopping and food and beverage as a welcome pastime.	3.45	1.37			1.00	0.042	0.052	0.058	.160**	0.028
AirsideStress										
4. When I travel by plane, the processes and checks at the airport are stressful for me.	2.82	1.30				1.00	.575**	.203**	0.078	.186**
5. When I travel by plane, the processes and checks make me nervous.	2.43	1.35					1.00	0.034	0.075	0.092
AirsideFear										
6. After passing through security, I immediately see where my departure gate is located.	3.75	1.38						1.00	.309**	.304**
7. Travelling by plane is a special occasion for me.	3.24	1.48							1.00	.184*
8. After check-in I move through security controls as soon as possible.	3.56	1.35								1.00

The result suggests three underlying dimensions consisting of three, two and three components respectively. These were created as variables in SPSS by computing factor scores of the underlying variables (Hair et al., 2014) and were labelled *AirsideEnjoy*, *AirsideStress*, and *AirsideFear*. As Costello and Osborne (2009) elaborate, factors with less than three items are generally considered weak and unstable. Raubenheimer (2004) however notes that scales might be identified with as little as two items per component, which is supported by Walker and Maddan (2008). Brauer (2015) also notes that in this case the component may be reliable if the two variables are highly correlated with each other and relatively uncorrelated with the other variables, which was the case for the two variables constituting *AirsideStress*. Figure 10 below illustrates the three dimensions and their components.

Figure 10: Dimensions and their components



The three dimensions that emerged from the principal components analysis can be understood to represent three different emotional states. The dimension *AirsideEnjoy* conceptually relates to enjoying the stay in the airside setting and to perceiving food and beverage consumption as something relaxing. *AirsideStress* relates to the concepts of perceived stress and nervousness, linked to the procedures and protocols of commercial air travel and of entering the airside area. *AirsideFear* then is linked to the fear of missing the plane and thus moving through security as soon as possible and looking for the departure gate immediately when entering the airside area. The result of the principal components analysis can thus be seen to support the qualitative analysis and the finding that passengers' emotional states influence air passengers' airside behavioural intentions.

The reliability of the emerging components was supported by the simple structure with all items clearly loading on only one component and with no crossloadings in the 0.3 to 0.7 range (Garson, 2016). The reliability of the three scales was subsequently assessed using Cronbach Alpha, amongst other indicators. Although it is typically accepted that the Cronbach alpha value of a scale should be above 0.7 (DeVellis, 2012), Cavana et al. (2001) suggest that Cronbach alpha values of 0.6 and above are acceptable for initial investigations. Garson (2013) claims the same for exploratory purposes. It is furthermore common to find quite low values for scales with fewer than ten items, as Leech et al. (2012) elaborate, in agreement with Pallant (2013). In those cases, it may be appropriate to inspect the mean inter-item correlation for the items, with 0.2 to 0.4 being an optimal range (Pallant, 2013).

For the *AirsideEnjoy* scale, the Cronbach alpha value was 0.65. *AirsideStress*, consisting of only two components had a Cronbach alpha value of 0.73. *AirsideFear* indicated the lowest Cronbach alpha value for the three scales with a value of 0.51. The inter-item correlation for *AirsideFear* of 0.26 however was well within the range indicated by Pallant (2013). Based on the relatively low Cronbach alpha value for *AirsideFear*, the composite reliability (CR), as well as the average variance explained (AVE) were further assessed (Hair et al., 2014). *AirsideEnjoy* had CR = 0.76 and AVE = 0.71, *AirsideStress* showed values of CR = 0.87 and AVE = 0.86 and *AirsideFear* had CR = 0.7 and AVE = 0.61. The composite reliabilities of each component met or exceeded the benchmark of 0.7, the values of AVE all exceeded the threshold of 0.5 (Tajeddini, 2016). Despite the somewhat low Cronbach Alpha value for AirsideFear, it can be concluded that all three scales showed acceptable levels of reliability.

This suggests that the three scales are of acceptable reliability, based on Cronbach alpha values for *AirsideEnjoy* and *AirsideStress* and based on the inter-item correlation for *AirsideFear*. In order to investigate the factors influencing airside outlet patronage intentions further, multinomial categorical regression was employed.

4.2.2.2 Multinomial Categorical Regression

Multinomial categorical regression was used in order to further investigate the factors influencing outlet patronage intentions. With 75 valid cases and 7 independent variables, the ratio was 10.7 and the requirement for a minimum ratio of 10 to 1 for valid cases to independent variables was satisfied (Hair et al., 2014).

The dependent variable, outlet patronage intention was measured through open questions in the survey instrument. Open responses received were then coded thematically, resulting in four distinct categories. The variable was thus coded at nominal level (1 – Price; 2 – Offering; 3 – Atmosphere/Staff; 4 – Distance/Time). From a total of 322 survey responses, 75 cases reported a clear preference of outlets; therefore only the subsample could be included in the multinomial categorical analysis. The analysis then allowed linking emotional states to outlet patronage intentions.

Following Field (2014), stepwise methods should be avoided for deductive theory testing. In theory building however, and in situations where a model is sought to fit the data, they may be usefully employed. A stepwise approach was thus chosen, first assessing the main effects of the variables and then the interaction effect between Attractiveness and *AirsideEnjoy*. Conceptually, this interaction effect can be understood to exemplify that enjoyment of the airside context (e.g. in anticipation of the journey) is connected to a food and beverage outlet (or in other cases a retail store) which is perceived to be attractive and then allows the fulfilment of enjoyment. The outlet then serves as a means to realize the enjoyment. Variables entered into the model are listed below in table 40 below.

Table 40: Step Summary

Model	Action	Effect(s)	Model Fitting Criteria			Effect Selection Tests		
			AIC	BIC	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square[a]	df	Sig.
0	Entered	Intercept, AVAILABLE TIME, AIRSIDEFEAR, AIRSIDEENJOY, ATTRACTIVENESS, GENDER, AIRSIDESTRESS, RATIONAL SELECTION	202.203	271.728	142.203	.		
1	Entered	ATTRACTIVENESS * AIRSIDEENJOY	193.402	283.784	115.402	26.801	9	.002

Stepwise Method: Forward Entry

a. The chi-square for entry is based on the likelihood ratio test.

Available time was measured through variable Q_7 in the survey instrument: „After passing through security, I like wandering through the terminal and looking around.“ The variable can thus conceptually be understood to measure respondents' agreement to having available time and to enjoying spending it whilst in the airside setting and has thus been labelled 'available time' in the model.

Rational outlet selection was measured through variable Q_13 in the survey instrument: „When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, I look for an outlet I like. The proximity to my departure gate is not as important.“ This relates to a rational approach to airside outlet patronage decision-making in the sense of comparing outlets before choosing one. The variable was thus re-labelled 'rational selection' in the model.

Table 41 below illustrates the Model Fitting Information.

Table 41: Model Fitting Information

Model	Model Fitting Criteria			Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	AIC	BIC	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	206.227	213.180	200.227			
Final	193.402	283.784	115.402	84.826	36	.000

With a Model $\chi^2(36) = 84.826$, $p < .001$, the final model was significant. Pearson and Deviance statistics showed non-significant values of 0.845 and 1.000 respectively, indicating a good model fit (Field, 2014). The model as a whole explained between 67.7% (Cox & Snell R square) and 72.8% (Nagelkerke R square) of the variance and correctly classified 70.7% of cases. It needs to be noted that, due to the data collected in open entry fields of the survey instrument, a subsample of 75 cases is included in the analysis.

The model classification is shown in Table 42 below illustrates. Whilst with 55.6%, the value for Atmosphere/Staff is lower than for the other categories, the validity of the overall model is still very high with 70.7% of the cases correctly classified.

Table 42: Classification

Observed	Predicted				
	1.00 Price	2.00 Offering	3.00 Atmosphere/Staff	4.00 Distance/Time	Percent Correct
1 Price	16	0	0	5	76.2%
2 Offering	1	7	0	2	70.0%
3 Atmosphere/Staff	1	0	10	7	55.6%
4 Distance/Time	1	2	3	20	76.9%
Overall Percentage	25.3%	12.0%	17.3%	45.3%	70.7%

Table 43 below illustrates the Likelihood Ratio Tests.

Table 43: Likelihood Ratio Tests

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria			Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	AIC of Reduced Model	BIC of Reduced Model	-2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept	193.402	283.784	115.402[a]	.000	0	.
ATTRACTIVENESS	214.922	284.447	154.922	39.521	9	.000
AIRSIDESTRESS	202.024	285.454	130.024	14.623	3	.002
ATTRACTIVENESS * AIRSIDEENJOY	202.203	271.728	142.203	26.801	9	.002
RATIONAL SELECTION	198.224	281.654	126.224	10.823	3	.013
AIRSIDEFEAR	195.766	279.195	123.766	8.364	3	.039
GENDER	192.786	276.216	120.786	5.385	3	.146
AVAILABLE TIME	191.660	275.089	119.660	4.258	3	.235
AIRSIDEENJOY	193.402x	283.784	115.402[a]	.000	0	.

The chi-square statistic is the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final model and a reduced model. The reduced model is formed by omitting an effect from the final model. The null hypothesis is that all parameters of that effect are 0.

a. This reduced model is equivalent to the final model because omitting the effect does not increase the degrees of freedom.

Table 44 below illustrates the parameter estimates as results of the multinomial categorical regression. Price was chosen as baseline category.

Outlet Attractiveness („Airside food and beverage outlets are attractive to me if they offer the following:" was coded as follows: 1 – Price-related comment; 2 – Offering-related comment; 3 – Atmosphere/Staff-related comment; 4 – more than one comment.

Outlet Patronage („The decision, where I go to eat/drink in the airside area for me mainly depends upon the following:“) was coded as follows: 1 – Price; 2 – Offering; 3 – Atmosphere/Staff; 4 – Distance/Time

Table 44: Parameter Estimates

The decision, where I go to eat/drink in the airside area for me mainly depends upon the following:[a]		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B)	
								Lower Bound	Upper Bound
2.00 Offering	Intercept	-18.091	11223.127	.000	1	.999			
	AIRSIDEFEAR	2.062	.780	6.981	1	.008	7.860	1.703	36.277
	RATIONAL SELECTION	1.718	.631	7.407	1	.006	5.573	1.617	19.204
	AIRSIDESTRESS	2.009	.862	5.425	1	.020	7.453	1.375	40.398
	[GENDER=MALE]	-3.200	1.598	4.013	1	.045	.041	.002	.933
	[GENDER=FEMALE]	0[c]	.	.	0	.	.	.	.
	AVAILABLE TIME	-1.198	.639	3.510	1	.061	.302	.086	1.057
	AIRSIDEENJOY	1.356	3.404	.159	1	.690	3.879	.005	3062.653
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=1.00]	14.306	11223.127	.000	1	.999	1633443.089	.000	.[b]
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=2.00]	19.830	11223.127	.000	1	.999	409204213.537	.000	.[b]
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=3.00]	15.176	11223.128	.000	1	.999	3899729.394	.000	.[b]
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=4.00]	0[c]	.	.	0	.	.	.	.
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=1.00] * AIRSIDEENJOY	-2.552	3.907	.427	1	.514	.078	.000	165.055
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=2.00] * AIRSIDEENJOY	-3.283	3.609	.827	1	.363	.038	.000	44.325
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=3.00] * AIRSIDEENJOY	4.978	.000	.	1	.	145.224	145.224	145.224
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=4.00] * AIRSIDEENJOY	0[c]	.	.	0	.	.	.	.

The decision, where I go to eat/drink in the airside area for me mainly depends upon the following:[a]		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B)	
								Lower Bound	Upper Bound
3.00 Atmosphere/Staff	Intercept	2.372	2.414	.965	1	.326			
	AIRSIDESTRESS	1.358	.617	4.837	1	.028	3.888	1.159	13.038
	AVAILABLE TIME	-.443	.503	.778	1	.378	.642	.240	1.720
	AIRSIDEFEAR	1.013	.602	2.828	1	.093	2.753	.846	8.965
	AIRSIDEENJOY	.768	1.302	.348	1	.555	2.154	.168	27.618
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=1.00]	-3.358	1.589	4.466	1	.035	.035	.002	.784
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=2.00]	.800	1.466	.298	1	.585	2.225	.126	39.396
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=3.00]	-1.154	1.903	.368	1	.544	.315	.008	13.128
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=4.00]	0[c]	.	.	0	.	.	.	.
	[GENDER=MALE]	-1.552	1.097	2.001	1	.157	.212	.025	1.819
	[GENDER=FEMALE]	0[c]	.	.	0	.	.	.	.
	RATIONAL SELECTION	.442	.400	1.224	1	.269	1.557	.711	3.408
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=1.00] * AIRSIDEENJOY	-.197	1.610	.015	1	.903	.821	.035	19.282
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=2.00] * AIRSIDEENJOY	-1.070	1.558	.471	1	.492	.343	.016	7.275
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=3.00] * AIRSIDEENJOY	2.617	2.017	1.683	1	.195	13.689	.263	713.046
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=4.00] * AIRSIDEENJOY	0[c]	.	.	0	.	.	.	.

The decision, where I go to eat/drink in the airside area for me mainly depends upon the following:[a]		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B)	
								Lower Bound	Upper Bound
4.00 Distance/Time	Intercept	2.081	2.371	.770	1	.380			
	AIRSIDEFEAR	1.153	.569	4.106	1	.043	3.167	1.039	9.659
	AVAILABLE TIME	-.464	.517	.807	1	.369	.629	.228	1.731
	AIRSIDEENJOY	.437	.899	.237	1	.627	1.549	.266	9.023
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=1.00]	-574.481	22605.847	.001	1	.980	.000	.000	.[b]
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=2.00]	.956	1.297	.544	1	.461	2.602	.205	33.059
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=3.00]	-.185	1.693	.012	1	.913	.831	.030	22.938
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=4.00]	0[c]	.	.	0	.	.	.	.
	[GENDER=MALE]	-.891	1.054	.713	1	.398	.410	.052	3.242
	[GENDER=FEMALE]	0[c]	.	.	0	.	.	.	.
	AIRSIDESTRESS	.174	.604	.083	1	.773	1.190	.365	3.883
	RATIONAL SELECTION	.534	.396	1.817	1	.178	1.706	.785	3.711
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=1.00] * AIRSIDEENJOY	-317.449	12525.311	.001	1	.980	.000	.000	.[b]
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=2.00] * AIRSIDEENJOY	-.445	1.207	.136	1	.712	.641	.060	6.821
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=3.00] * AIRSIDEENJOY	2.062	1.703	1.465	1	.226	7.858	.279	221.245
	[ATTRACTIVENESS=4.00] * AIRSIDEENJOY	0[c]	.	.	0	.	.	.	.

a. The reference category is: 1.00 Price.
b. Floating point overflow occurred while computing this statistic. Its value is therefore set to system missing.
c. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

The multinomial categorical regression shows that experiencing *AirsideFear* (odds = 7.86, 1 d.f., Wald = 6.98) and *AirsideStress* (odds = 7.45, 1 d.f., Wald = 5.43) increase the likeliness of consuming at an outlet based on the perceived attractiveness of the offering, all other things being equal. Rating high on rational selection furthermore increases the likeliness of choosing an outlet based on offering (odds = 5.57, 1 d.f., Wald = 7.4). It is interesting to note that in the model available time does not significantly contribute to predicting outlet patronage intentions. Male passengers are less likely than female passengers to be influenced by the offering over price in their outlet patronage intentions (odds = .041, 1 d.f., Wald = 4.0). Rating high on *AirsideStress* then increases the likeliness of consuming at an outlet based on its atmosphere and staff (odds = 3.888, 1 d.f., Wald = 4.84), all other things being equal. Passengers that rate outlets to be attractive based on price then are less likely to choose the outlet based on atmosphere/staff (odds = .035, 1 d.f., Wald = 4.466). Experiencing *AirsideFear* increases the likeliness of selecting the outlet based on distance and available time (odds = 3.167, 1 d.f., Wald = 4.106). Although significant in the overall model as well as in the likelihood ratio tests, the interaction effect of Attractiveness and *AirsideEnjoy* did not contribute significantly in the parameter estimates. This supports the interpretation that *AirsideEnjoy* relates to enjoying the airside context more generally and connected with airside consumption (or shopping) activities, however without reference being made to specific food and beverage (or retail) outlets.

Whilst passengers may perceive Stress, Fear and Enjoyment whilst in the airside setting, only perceived Stress and Fear seem to influence airside outlet patronage intentions.

4.2.2.3 Cluster analysis

In order to address the second research question and to explore whether different types of air passengers show different outlet patronage intentions, a two-step cluster analysis was initially conducted in IBM SPSS 21 (Garson, 2014) in order to establish whether meaningful passenger clusters could be identified.

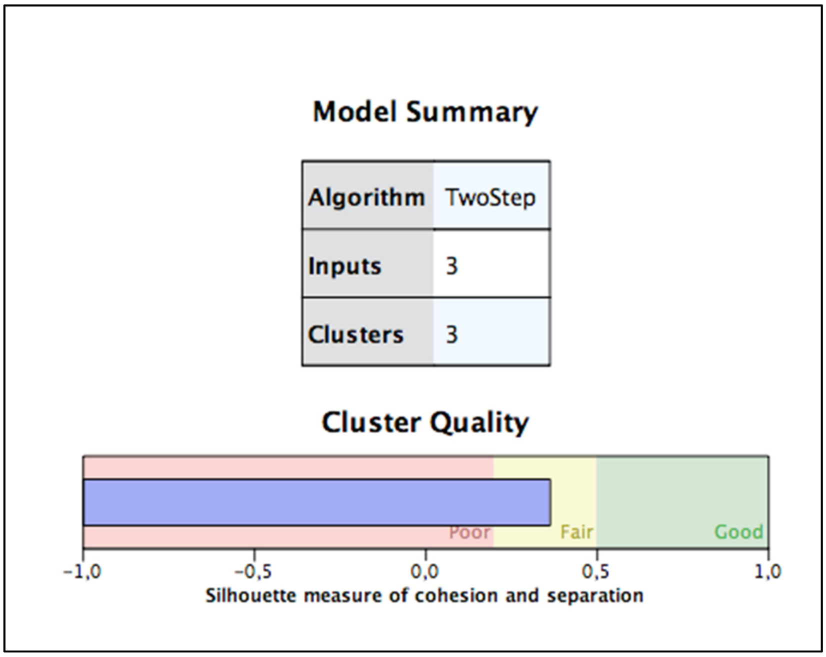
The three different emotional states that passengers can find themselves in the airside setting (*AirsideStress, AirsideFear, AirsideEnjoy*) have been identified as antecedents to outlet patronage intentions. For ease of reference, it needs to be noted that the (standardized) factor scores of the underlying values were used for the purpose of clustering. The silhouette measure of cluster cohesion and separation was .4, indicating fair model summary with 3 clusters, as Figure 11 below illustrates (Kuljanin & Kalić, 2015). The result of a subsequent ANOVA analysis showed that all three factors were significantly different across the identified clusters, as can be seen in Table 45 below.

Table 45: ANOVA for clusters

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Between Groups	28,106	2	14,053	15,449	,000
AIRSIDEENJOY	Within Groups	262,894	289	,910		
	Total	291,000	291			
	Between Groups	183,747	2	91,874	247,559	,000
AIRSIDESTRESS	Within Groups	107,253	289	,371		
	Total	291,000	291			
	Between Groups	117,613	2	58,806	98,018	,000
AIRSIDEFEAR	Within Groups	173,387	289	,600		
	Total	291,000	291			

It needs to be noted however that the factors emerging from the principal components analysis accounted for 62.06% of the total variance only. With the cluster analysis building on those factors, predictive power is reduced.

Figure 11: Model Summary for the Cluster Analysis



This cluster quality graph is based on an SPSS algorithm that "*combines within-cluster cohesion and between-cluster separation in a single index plotted as a horizontal line"* (Garson, 2014). The size of the smallest cluster was 79, and the largest cluster contained 111 cases, resulting in a ratio of sizes of 1.41. Due to non-responses to individual questions in the data set, 292 of the 322 cases in the data set were included in the cluster analysis. Table 45 below shows an overview of the clusters identified. A cluster membership variable was created in SPSS for further analysis.

Table 46: Passenger Clusters

Cluster Number	Cluster Name	Cluster size (passengers)	Airside-Fear (Mean)	Airside-Enjoy (Mean)	Airside-Stress (Mean)	Flights this year to date (Mean)	Percen-tage of Passengers on Business Trip
1	Infrequent Flyers	111	.764	-.307	-.489	9.12	33%
2	Very Frequent Flyers	79	-.776	.472	-.703	16.75	35%
3	Frequent Flyers	102	-.230	-.032	1.07	14.62	40%

It shows that the three clusters differ when it comes to the split of business versus leisure travel. Cluster 1 hosts Infrequent Flyers that are mostly travelling for leisure purposes. Cluster 2 contains the Very Frequent Flyers. They are slightly more likely to travel for leisure purposes. Cluster 3 contains Frequent Flyers. They travel more for business purposes. The result of the cluster analysis supports the claim made in section 4.1.4 that air passengers should also be differentiated and classified by their air travel experience and not only by their purpose for travel.

Table 47 below illustrates the cluster centroids on the three measured variables relating to outlet patronage intentions. Since the standardized factor values were used for clustering, the combined means of the centroids over all clusters equal zero with a standard deviation of one (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 47: Cluster Centroids

		AIRSIDEENJOY		AIRSIDESTRESS		AIRSIDEFEAR	
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation
Cluster	1	-.307	.977	-.489	.678	.764	.529
	2	.472	.819	-.703	.488	-.776	.811
	3	-.0315	1.023	1.076	.614	-.230	.951
	Combined	.000	1.000	.000	1.000	.000	1.000

4.2.2.4 Analysis of Variance

In order to assess whether different traveller types (identified through the cluster analysis) showed different airside behavioural intentions, one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted. Cluster membership was used as independent variable (factor), and the scores on the three variables measuring airside behavioural intentions as dependent variables. The ANOVA showed significant differences at the $p < 0.05$ level between the groups for the intention to look for an outlet close to the departure gate $F (2, 288) = 5.77$, $p = 0.003$ and at the $p < 0.001$ level for the intention to look for a branded outlet $F (2, 291) = 12.99$, $p < 0.001$.

The effect size, calculated using *Eta squared* was small with 0.04 for the intention to look for an outlet close to the departure gate and medium with 0.08 for the intention to look for a branded outlet (Pallant, 2013). Table 48 below illustrates the result of the one-way ANOVA.

Table 48: Analysis of Variance

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, I usually do this as close as possible to my departure gate.	Between Groups	18.439	2	9.219	5.769	.003
	Within Groups	457.084	286	1.598		
	Total	475.522	288			
When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, I look for an outlet I like. The proximity to my departure gate is not as important.	Between Groups	10.634	2	5.317	2.736	.067
	Within Groups	553.945	285	1.944		
	Total	564.580	287			
When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, it is important for me to consume at an outlet of a service brand I know.	Between Groups	45.919	2	22.959	12.991	.000
	Within Groups	510.766	289	1.767		
	Total	556.685	291			

Since the Analysis of Variance showed significant differences between the groups for the intention to look for an outlet close to the departure gate as well as for the intention to look for a branded outlet, post-hoc analysis was conducted (Pallant, 2013). Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that for the intention to look for an outlet close to the departure gate the mean score of cluster 1 (M = 3.75, SD = 1.15) was significantly different from cluster 2 (M = 3.13, SD = 1.34). For the intention to look for a branded outlet, post-hoc analysis showed that cluster 3 (M = 3,12, SD = 1.52) was significantly different from cluster 1 (M = 2.22, SD = 1.71), as well as from cluster 2 (M = 2.43, SD = 1.28).

The Analysis of Variance and the post-hoc analysis showed that the clusters showed significant differences for the intention to look for an outlet close to the departure gate as well as for the intention to look for a branded outlet. For the intention to look for an outlet close to the departure gate, cluster 1 (Infrequent Flyers) rated significantly higher than cluster 2 (Very Frequent Flyers). For the intention to look for a branded outlet, cluster 3 (Frequent Flyers) rated significantly higher than clusters 1 (Infrequent Flyers) and 2 (Very Frequent Flyers). Infrequent Flyers thus showed a higher intention to consume close to their departure gate and Frequent Flyers showed a higher intention to consume at a branded outlet.

Table 49 below illustrates the clusters, how they rate in *AirsideStress* and *AirsideFear*.

Table 49: Outlet Patronage Intentions per Cluster

Cluster Number	Cluster Name	Emotional States	Patronage Intentions
1	Infrequent Flyers	Highest *AirsideFear*	Higher intention to consume close to the gate
2	Very Frequent Flyers	Highest *AirsideEnjoy*	Higher intention to look for an attractive outlet (not significant)
3	Frequent Flyers	Highest *AirsideStress*	High intention to consume at a branded outlet

Frequent Flyers (who are more likely to travel for business) in cluster 3 then showed a significantly higher intention to consume at a service brand, in connection with higher levels of *AirsideStress*.

Infrequent Flyers (mainly passengers travelling for leisure) in cluster 1 are more likely to consume close to their departure gate, combined with higher levels of *AirsideFear*.

Very Frequent Flyers in cluster 2 showed higher levels of *AirsideEnjoy*, the effect on airside behavioural intentions however was not significant.

4.3 Summary

In combination with the qualitative inquiry, the findings of the principal components analysis, the multinomial categorical and the regression suggest that the differences in consumption behaviour for different clusters of air passengers can be linked to two of the three emotional states that emerged in the analysis.

Based on the qualitative inquiry, it was conceptualized that passengers' emotional states influence on outlet patronage intentions. The quantitative analyses then supported this finding and showed that emotional states have an influence on food and beverage outlet patronage intentions. Furthermore, different types of passengers showed to rate differently on two of the three emotional states.

Infrequent Flyers are likely to consume close to their departure gates, whilst Frequent Flyers (often travelling for business) then are more likely to consume at a branded outlet.

In the following chapter, I will discuss the findings in light of extant literature and develop an Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model.

5 Discussion

In this section, the findings of the empiric investigation will be discussed in light of extant literature. Furthermore, the contributions as well as the limitations of this thesis will be presented in this section. The chapter closes by discussing research agendas emerging from this thesis.

5.1 Discussion of the findings of this thesis

The three emotional states that emerged from the empiric investigation will serve as guiding framework to structure the discussion. Thereafter, the findings of this thesis are discussed in relation to the three research questions. Based on the discussion of the findings, an Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model is developed.

The motivation for this study was initially rooted in a gap in current knowledge that became evident during the review of literature as well as in a personal interest in consumer behaviour in the airside context.

The aim of this study was to answer the following research questions:

- What environmental and personal factors influence air passengers' food and beverage outlet patronage intentions in the airside areas of commercial airports?
- To what extent does the type of passenger have an effect on outlet patronage intentions in this context?
- Do service brands influence air passengers in their outlet patronage intentions, and if so, to what extent?

The empiric investigation has revealed the importance of the three emotional states that passengers may experience in the airside setting, namely *AirsideFear*, *AirsideStress*, and *AirsideEnjoy*. These three emotional states will now be discussed in light of extant literature.

5.1.1 The role of passengers' emotional states

As discussed in section 2.4 above, the airside context has been shown to have an effect on air passenger behaviour. Extant literature has applied the concept of air travel stress (Bork, 2007; Bowes, 2002) in order to explain the phenomena observed. The findings of this thesis however highlight the need for a more detailed investigation of air passengers' emotional states and suggest three underlying dimensions, namely stress, fear, and enjoyment. Although discussed separately in the following sections, the three concepts should be understood in connection to each other. Passengers thus can be seen to have the potential for the different emotional states, depending on the context of their travel.

The quantitative analysis presented in section 4.2.2 showed that passengers' emotional states influence outlet patronage intentions. *AirsideStress* and *AirsideFear* were shown to influence passengers' outlet patronage intentions, and that the emotional state can supersede perceived outlet attractiveness in the development and execution of patronage intentions.

5.1.1.1 AirsideStress

Bowes (2002) introduced the concept of travel stress, indicating that passengers perceived decreased levels of pleasure and increased levels of arousal during airport security screenings. Engaging in airside shopping activities after undergoing the security checks in turn increased pleasure levels, Bowes (2002) reported. Omar and Kent (2001) agreed that stress levels decreased after passengers had passed through security, but claimed for excitement levels to remain high. Crawford and Melewar (2003), based on those findings, developed an airside travel-stress model visualizing that travellers were most captive for impulse behaviour during the period after passing through security and prior to boarding. This concept of the travel-stress-curve was supported by Bork (2007). Little further research has been published on the travel-stress model and it needs to be noted that, with the exception of Bowes (2002) who was using a survey methodology with a sample of 100 passengers, authors have failed to present empiric evidence for this phenomenon. The findings of this study partially support the idea of a travel-stress model. The concept of air travel stress was furthermore extended by differentiating between perceived stress, nervousness and fear. It emerged that those travellers that rated high on *AirsideStress* and *AirsideFear* claimed to move through security as soon as possible after check-in. Those passengers that perceived high levels of stress also reported to be nervous when travelling by air. Surprisingly, mainly frequent (business) travellers rated high on *AirsideStress*.

The concept of *AirsideStress* as it has emerged in this thesis can be understood to be different from the travel stress concept that Bowes (2002) first introduced. Here, stress not only relates to the nervousness and the unease that the airside context produces; but also includes a temporal dimension. Especially passengers travelling for business who arrive at the airport later reported to experience stress in the sense of temporal pressure.

When interviewed in-situ, passengers reported very little perceived travel-related stress or nervousness. This was supported by the focus group interviews. Food and beverage concession staff as well as management however reported passengers to often act stressed and nervous when entering the airside area; unstructured observations conducted in-situ supported this. An explanation for the lack of stress-related symptoms during in-situ interviews may be the relaxing effect of consumption that has been brought up during interviews and the focus group discussion; in-situ passenger interviews were held after passengers had made a purchase and as they consumed.

Food and beverage concession employees furthermore pointed out that the consumption of food and beverages seemed to reduce passenger stress and nervousness. This was supported by the survey data which indicates that food and beverage consumption helps passengers relax in the airside setting. This is in line with findings presented by Bowes (2002) for airside shopping behaviour and can be seen to support the concept of psychological reactance (Brehm, 1966) which posits that a perceived loss in freedom (such as it occurs in the airside setting) may be compensated by alternative behaviour (such as food and beverage consumption or shopping). As the discussion of the findings in connection with outlet-related factors in section 5.1.2.1 will further show, the airside consumption of foods and beverages can help reduce stress and nervousness.

Rating high on the *AirsideStress* scale was a factor influencing an outlet based on its offering, but also based on its atmosphere and staff. Passengers rating high on AirsideStress (mainly Frequent Flyers who are often flying for business reasons) also were more likely to consume at a branded outlet.

5.1.1.2 AirsideFear

Fear may be considered to be a strong word for the emotional state influencing air passenger behaviour. The name for the concept *AirsideFear* however seems appropriate, based on its importance and its effects on air passenger behaviour. Whilst extant literature has applied the concept of airside stress to influence air passenger behaviour, this thesis has shown that certain passengers experience an emotional state that can best be described using the concept of fear. *AirsideFear* as a concept is grounded in passengers' uncertainty about procedures and controls they need to undergo before the flight can be boarded, connected with the perception of air travel as an extraordinary activity. As such, it refers to the fear of missing the plane, of not being able to consume the transportation service procured. Mainly infrequent travellers have shown to perceive fear based on the unknown and special setting of the airside area.

The survey data suggests that passengers travelling for leisure tend to arrive at the airport earlier than those travelling for business, thus spending more time in the airside setting. Evidence collected in semi-structured interviews with employees and management supports this phenomenon. This can be seen to support findings presented by Brechin (1999) as well as by Torres et al. (2005). The analysis showed that Infrequent Flyers rated high on *AirsideFear*, resulting in a higher likeliness to consume close to their departure gate. This finding is in line with claims by Graham (2013a).

This finding can be seen to support claims by Vänniä (2013) that once passengers are accustomed to a specific airport, impulse behaviour seems to be reduced due to an increased familiarity with the outlets. This increased familiarity can be seen to decrease fear.

Besides increasing the likeliness to select an outlet based on its location, rating high in *AirsideFear* also increased the likeliness to choose the outlet based on its offering. This finding could be interpreted in connection with service brands and the reduction of perceived risk that can be achieved by consuming at branded outlets. This will be discussed further in section 5.1.4 below.

5.1.1.3 AirsideEnjoy

The consumption of food and beverages can help passengers relax and enjoy their time in the airside setting. Airside consumption and shopping behaviour, as well as strolling through the airport, connects well to the service quality dimension of diversion that Fodness and Murray (2007) introduced in their airport service quality model. By offering shopping and consumption opportunities, the dimension of diversion in this context allows passengers to forget that they are in fact trapped in the airside area. Following Fodness and Murray (2007), diversion is one of three service quality dimensions besides function and interaction. Diversion includes elements of productivity, décor and maintenance within an airport. In the context of this thesis, the notion of diversion has been brought up mainly by passengers travelling for leisure when on the outbound and by passengers travelling for business when on the inbound segment, especially from prior unknown airports. In that light, *AirsideEnjoy* can furthermore be understood to connect to diversion as it was conceptualized by Fodness and Murray (2007). The concept of *AirsideEnjoy* furthermore links well to consumers' variety-seeking tendencies in food and beverage choices that were explored by Beldona et al. (2010), as well as Harrington et al. (2011) and by Ha and Jang (2013). Although in a different context, Harrington et al. (2011) found that variety-seeking was one of the most important factors influencing restaurant choice. It is interesting to note that extant literature on airside passenger behaviour has not picked up the concept of diversion. In this sense, this thesis contributes to theory by investigating the concept empirically.

Strolling through the terminal in order to evaluate the food and beverages on offer was mentioned by passengers travelling for leisure and by those travelling for business on inbound segments from airports previously unknown to them. The survey data revealed no significant differences between passengers travelling for business and those travelling for leisure and the intention to stroll around the airside area.

The airside setting has also been brought in connection with impulse behaviours as well as with a relative insignificance of price (Graham, 2003; Omar, 2002), especially for leisure travellers. Evidence collected in this thesis partially supports these findings. When interviewed in-situ as well as during the focus group discussion, passengers showed high levels of awareness of the prices in the airside setting and voiced frustration when they felt they were excessive. Although passengers showed understanding for prices to be higher in the airside setting, it would be inappropriate to speak of an insignificance of price based on the evidence collected. When travelling on the outbound segment of their trip, passengers travelling for leisure were however found to be willing to consume more, indicating a lower significance of price. Especially for passengers travelling for leisure, airside consumption has furthermore been brought in connection with impulse behaviour. The phenomenon of impulse behaviour in airport airside areas has been investigated by a number of authors (Bork, 2007; Omar, 2002; Omar & Kent, 2001). The evidence collected in this thesis suggests that airside impulse behaviour regarding food and beverage consumption materialized more for passengers travelling for leisure than for those travelling on business when on the outbound segment. The notion of being in a holiday mood has been reported to have a positive effect on willingness to spend in that setting and can be connected to the intention to stroll through the airside environment and thus to the concept *AirsideEnjoy*. Passengers travelling for leisure can thus be seen to be more likely to impulse consume than those travelling for business when on the outbound segment.

When it comes to outlet patronage intentions it is interesting to note that AirsideEnjoy was not a significant predictor of outlet patronage. It can thus be understood that *AirsideEnjoy* has an effect on airside behavioural intentions, but – based on the quantitative analysis – can not be linked to selecting an outlet to consume at based on certain attributes. Enjoyment of the airside area can thus best be understood to manifest itself with retail or food and beverage outlet patronage; however a connection to certain outlet attributes could not be established.

No evidence could be found in this study to support the concept of low social visibility increasing impulse behaviour that was presented by Omar (2002) who claimed that passengers travelling on their own would feel less inhibited to impulse shop whilst at the airport.

5.1.2 Environmental and personal factors influencing outlet patronage intentions

It has emerged that, for many travellers, airside food and beverage consumption forms an integral part of the overall travel experience. Outlet patronage intention then is influenced by a number of different factors. The findings of this study suggest that these factors can be related to two of the three main concepts, namely *AirsideFear* and *AirsideStress*, which can be seen to represent different emotional states that passengers find themselves in. Besides passengers' emotional states, the perceived attractiveness of an outlet has shown to play a role in the development of outlet patronage intentions. Based on the analysis and discussion of evidence, it emerges that air passengers' emotional states are influenced by the airside context. The security and other air-travel related procedures can induce stress and nervousness, but also enjoyment. Infrequent travellers may perceive fear based on the unknown and special setting of the airside area. Consumption of food and beverages then can help passengers relax and enjoy the time in the airside setting. This leads to the understanding that whilst the airside context can create stress and fear (represented through the dimensions *AirsideStress* and *AirsideFear*), it can also allow passengers to relax and enjoy the setting (represented by the dimension *AirsideEnjoy*). The emotional states can then be understood in the sense of a potential that travellers have, depending on the context of their travels.

Correia et al. (2008) eliminated food and beverage concessions from their airport service quality model, claiming that this component of air travel was of low importance to travellers. This is surprising in light of the findings of this thesis which, in line with findings presented by Perng et al. (2010), suggest that for many travellers airside food and beverage consumption is part of the overall air travel experience. Whilst Mason et al. (2013) suggested that utilitarian values prevail in the context of quick service restaurants, it emerges that this is not the case for the airside context. The findings of this study suggest that food and beverage consumption in the airside setting serves additional purposes, besides the utilitarian satisfaction of physiological needs.

Extant literature provides evidence that there is an effect of the airport context on passenger behaviour and that hedonic consumption seems to prevail in this setting. Whilst Rowley and Slack (1999) explored the concept of temporal and spatial disorientation in airport airside departure areas, no evidence of this phenomenon could be identified in this study. A reason for this can be found in the fact that Stuttgart airport almost exclusively handles origin & destination traffic and that only 2% of passengers are in transit at Stuttgart. The spatial and temporal disorientation that Rowley and Slack (1999) referred to was limited to airside transit areas where passengers were waiting between an arriving and a departing flight. With Stuttgart airport handling almost exclusively origin & destination traffic, such effects could thus neither be expected nor observed.

5.1.2.1 Outlet-related factors influencing patronage intentions

A number of outlet-related factors influencing patronage intentions have emerged from the analysis of evidence. These include the quality of food and beverages, the offering, the atmosphere of the outlet as well as the presence of other passengers.

Food quality has been reported by a number of authors to be one of the primary factors influencing restaurant choice in other contexts (Cullen, 2005; Y.-S. Kim et al., 2010; Upadhyay et al., 2007). This has however shown to be of relevance for few passengers only in the airside setting. Strolling through the terminal was mentioned by passengers travelling for leisure and by those travelling for business mainly when leaving from airports previously unknown to them. Strolling was mentioned as a form to both experience the airport airside context and in order to evaluate the food and beverages on offer. The survey data revealed no significant differences between business and leisure travellers and the intention to stroll around the airside area. The evidence collected in interviews and the focus group suggests that the majority of passengers however chose the outlet not based on (expected) food quality but rated the location, the atmosphere and the look and feel of the outlet as more important. This was supported through the quantitative analysis. Since food quality can only be evaluated once consumption has taken place, it has been classified as an experience attribute (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011). From a rational-choice perspective, this results in a perceived risk for consumers. Passengers then can apply various strategies to reduce the perceived risk that is inherent to services consumption. These strategies include the choice of busy outlets over quiet ones as well as the choice of branded outlets over unbranded ones (Fliess, 2009). Both mechanisms have become evident in the analysis of evidence in this study, as will be discussed further below.

As the multinomial categorical regression has shown, passengers rating high on selecting the outlet based on rational decision-making (RATIONAL SELECTION) were more likely to consume at an outlet based on its offering. Choi and Zhao (2010) identified a variety of healthy meals and the nutritional value of the meals as a factor influencing restaurant choice in the United States context. This view was shared by Alonso et al. (2013). In the context of this thesis, a healthy offering was only important for very few, mainly female and older passengers. The availability of beer, on the other hand, was an important factor influencing outlet patronage intentions mainly for male passengers. The evidence furthermore suggests that the availability of local specials is an important factor for passengers when deciding where to consume. This is in line with findings presented by Y. G. Kim et al. (2009) who found that local foods and beverages can be part of the tourism experience. Interestingly, both leisure and business travellers seemed to have an interest in local foods and beverages in the airside context. Especially infrequent flyers claimed that they wished to experience something new when consuming at an airport. In that vein, consumption of local food and beverages could also add to a tourist experience of the destination, following claims by Batra (2008) for the Thai context. The evidence suggests that both airport and caterer management may not be aware of the potential effect that local food and beverages could have for passengers' travel and consumption experience. Concession staff and caterer management did not mention this requirement. Offering local foods and beverages could thus be a strategy to attract more customers to a food and beverage outlet and thus to increase revenues.

In the context of healthy nutrition, it is interesting to note that food safety was not brought up as a factor influencing outlet patronage intentions. This can be seen to support findings presented by A. J. Knight et al. (2007) who showed for the United States context that food safety was of relatively little importance in restaurant choice decisions. The relative insignificance of food safety for passengers in the airside setting is especially remarkable in light of the risks of food-borne illnesses to occur in flight and the related potential inconvenience for passengers and crew alike (McMullan et al., 2007; Merkle & Lewis, 2016).

Comfort has been identified as a factor influencing patronage intentions by Y.-S. Kim et al. (2010) in the context of Las Vegas. Whilst the comfort of an outlet was mentioned in the focus group discussion as an important factor influencing outlet patronage intentions, no relation with specific passenger types could be made. Expected comfort thus seems to be a factor influencing all passenger types. Whilst passengers travelling for business indicated that they would also want to work at food and beverage outlets and thus would need comfortable chairs, tables and power plugs, those travelling for leisure mentioned the importance of comfort in a more general sense. In the airside setting, comfort can thus relate to the perceived attractiveness of an outlet, as well as to the availability of sitting accommodations. This finding is in line with the fact that a number of airports have reduced the availability of sitting accommodations in the airside departure areas in order to encourage passengers to consume at the airside food and beverage outlets.

Even though it has been mentioned by a number of authors in different contexts (Aksoydan, 2007; Alonso et al., 2013; Cullen, 2005), cleanliness was not explicitly mentioned as a factor influencing outlet patronage intentions in the airside setting. This may be due to a relatively high level of general cleanliness that is already present in the terminal building as well as the food and beverage concessions. As Hoffman and Turley (2002) note, atmospheric variables can also help reduce consumers' perceived risk. The atmosphere is perceived through a combination of visual, aural, tactile and olfactory cues (Babin & Harris, 2011). As Ha and Jang (2013) have shown, perceived atmospheric quality reduces the intention to seek an alternative dining option. In line with claims by Reimer and Kuehn (2005) and by Ryu and Jang (2008b), the atmosphere as well as the look and feel of the food and beverage concession have shown to have an influence on outlet patronage intentions for a number of passengers in the airside context. Especially those passengers that rated high on *AirsideStress* showed a higher likeliness to consume at an outlet based on its atmosphere. There is a growing body of literature on the effect of the physical environment on consumer behaviour, mostly taking on a behavioural influence perspective, as the literature review has shown. Following Wansink and Sobal (2007), environmental cues can influence consumers unconsciously and thus unknowingly. Especially aroma has shown to have an effect on passengers' patronage intentions, as the evidence suggests. This is in line with findings presented by Guéguen and Petr (2006), as well as by Ward et al. (2007). The fact that olfactory cues were mentioned by concession staff, caterer and airport management, but not by passengers, supports findings presented by Ward et al. (2007) who, in a retail context, found that only 10% of the consumers were aware of the aromas used.

In behavioural psychology, cues are defined as a "*stimulus prompt as an introduced antecedent that will evoke a desirable behaviour*" (McGrath Davis, Sampilo, Gayes, Smith, & Steele, 2013, p. 354). Cue-elicited behaviour is considered to be based on the concept of behavioural conditioning (Laibson, 2001), thus connecting well to the behavioural-influence perspective of consumer behaviour. As Wansink (2004) elaborates, food cues (which could be olfactory or visual, including packaging and presentation) influence eating and drinking behaviour. Cues can furthermore increase consumers' craving for certain food or beverage items; this relationship has been shown to be especially strong for alcoholic beverages (Stojek, Fischer, & MacKillop, 2015). Cues however do not only influence pre-purchase behaviour, but can also complement consumption itself. As Laibson (2001) claims, cues can raise the marginal utility derived from consumption. Cue theory of consumption thus posits that, if a certain cue has been associated with consumption in the past, the presence of that cue in a current consumption situation will increase the current marginal utility. Since the service value of a transaction is considered to be the difference between utility and cost of the transaction (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011), the presence of cues can thus increase the service value of a transaction.

Passengers can be understood to perceive the attractiveness of an outlet through visual, auditory and olfactory cues (Babin & Harris, 2011). It has been shown that passengers rating high on *AirsideStress* (mainly Frequent Flyers) seek to consume at an outlet they perceive to be attractive and prefer service brands. This finding can thus be seen to support the cue theory of consumption and claims made by Laibson (2001). If a certain cue (e.g. a service brand) has been associated with consumption in the past (e.g. a relaxing moment after passing through security and before boarding during a previous trip), the presence of the same cue would then increase the marginal utility of consumption and thus promote repeat behaviour and loyalty. Since service brands are usually present on several airports, this relationship can help explain the importance of service brands for Very Frequent Flyers. This thesis thus furthermore contributes to the application of cue theory in the airport airside setting.

The presence of other customers has shown to be a factor influencing outlet patronage intentions in the airside context. Parsa et al. (2012) found that, for quick service restaurants, speed of service was more important than atmosphere. In contrast to these findings, there was evidence that the presence of other customers was perceived as a positive sign since it signalled outlet attractiveness in the airside context, despite passengers having limited available time. As Wall and Berry (2007), as well as Babin and Harris (2011) claim, the presence of other customers can serve as a quality indicator for potential customers. As Kardes et al. (2010) further elaborates, heuristics are simplified decision-making approaches that help finding satisfactory solutions based on experience. The concept of heuristics is applied in contrast to the rational choice perspective and fits very well with the behavioural-influence perspective (Fox, 2015). Especially in the domain of food science, there has been a move away from the rational choice perspective and heuristics have been playing an increasing role when it comes to understanding how consumers make food choices (Schulte-Mecklenbeck, Sohn, de Bellis, Martin, & Hertwig, 2013). Simple heuristics then serve as a decision strategy that is based on very few important pieces of information (Hilbig, 2012). In the case of food choice, visual cues often represent such pieces of information (Gomez, 2013). In that sense, the importance of the presence of other customers as a factor influencing outlet patronage intentions can be seen to support the concept of heuristics.

The level of occupancy can thus furthermore serve as indicator for quality of an outlet. In those cases, passengers rather seemed to apply the heuristic of the presence of other customers to reduce perceived risk, in line with findings presented by N. Kim and Lee (2012) and earlier findings presented by Tse et al. (2002). Since services cannot be evaluated prior to their consumption, they consist of mainly experience attributes (Fliess, 2009; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011), resulting in a certain inherent perceived risk. It can now be understood that passengers use other passengers' presence and consumption behaviour and perceived experience as point of reference, i.e. they apply the heuristic and reduce their perceived risk by consuming at an outlet that is busy rather than at a quiet one. The use of heuristics is furthermore an indicator of low levels of involvement in the decision process, as Kardes et al. (2010) state in line with claims presented by Fox (2015).

Outlet-related factors have however shown to be of different importance for different types of passengers. Those passengers that rated high on *AirsideFear* preferred to consume close to their departure gate and rated outlet atmospherics not as important. Passengers rating high on *AirsideStress* were putting more importance on consuming at an outlet of a service brand they knew. This now leads to the discussion of personal factors influencing outlet patronage intentions in the following section.

5.1.2.2 Personal factors influencing patronage intentions

Alonso et al. (2013), for the context of restaurants in the southeastern USA, found prior experience with a restaurant to be the single most important factor for patrons in their choice of restaurants. For the airside setting, evidence collected in this study suggests prior experience with an outlet not to be an important factor.

Only Very Frequent Travellers have been reported by caterer management and by concession staff to be influenced by prior experience. Especially infrequent flyers claimed that they wished to experience something new when consuming at an airport. In that vein, consumption of local food and beverages can also be understood to add to a tourist experience of the destination, as Batra (2008) claims for the Thai context. The evidence suggests that both airport and caterer management may not be aware of the potential effect that local food and beverages could have for passengers' travel and consumption experience.

Similarly, Pedraja and Yagüe (2001) found the prior level of knowledge about a restaurant to be one of the main determinants of the amount of effort that customers invested in their search for information about a restaurant in the Spanish context. This is in line with findings presented by Alonso et al. (2013) for the context of the United States. The existence of prior information has further been investigated by Gregory and Kim (2005), who found that patrons who did not have prior information rated location as more important than those who did. This phenomenon, although investigated within the United States context, may serve as an explanation for the findings in connection with location of the outlet presented in section 4.1.3 above. In this vein, passengers with little or no information about the food and beverage infrastructure of an airport (infrequent travellers) are more likely to rate a location close to their departure gate as an important factor. On the other hand, passengers that do have information about the food and beverages on offer (frequent travellers) rate other factors such as service brand or atmosphere more important.

The survey data suggests that passengers travelling for leisure tend to arrive at the airport earlier than those travelling for business, thus spending more time in the airside setting. Evidence collected in semi-structured interviews with other stakeholders supports this phenomenon. This can be seen to support findings presented by Brechin (1999) as well as by Torres et al. (2005). No support was however found for claims by L. Fisher (2011) that leisure travellers were more price sensitive than business travellers. It has rather shown that passengers travelling for leisure may often be less price sensitive on the outbound segment of their trip, whereas the same is often the case for passengers travelling for business on the inbound segment.

Volkova and Müller (2012) claimed that business travellers tend to spend less on airside food and beverages than leisure travellers. This claim could thus not be supported in such generality. It has however emerged that the purpose of trip plays an important role in the assessment of food and beverage expenditure for different traveller segments. The evidence suggests that passengers travelling for leisure tend to spend more on the outbound segment, whereas those travelling for business have been reported to spend more on inbound segments. This can be seen to support the findings presented by Torres et al. (2005) that business travellers consume more than leisure travellers for very long waiting times. The evidence collected in this study furthermore suggests that passengers travelling for business are more likely to have longer waiting times on the inbound (return) segment of their trips and would then be more likely to consume. Torres et al. (2005) however also reported that business travellers also consumed more than leisure travellers for very short waiting times. No support for this claim could be found in the evidence analysed for this study. The findings indicate that passengers travelling for leisure show higher levels of consumption when on the outbound segment of their trip. This can be seen to partly support claims by Castillo-Manzano (2010), who found that leisure travellers were more likely to consume food and beverages at the airport than business travellers. It needs to be noted however that Castillo-Manzano (2010) investigated the likeliness to consume, whereas other authors as well as this thesis explored the amount consuming passengers spent on food and beverages. These are two different measures that, albeit connected, indicate different aspects of the same phenomenon.

Bowden (2009) claimed that, whilst new customers tend to base their evaluations of food service outlets on functional benefits, repeat customers to restaurants "*displayed a strong tendency to evaluate service performance based on the extent to which the service provider offered them with relational benefits (i.e. affiliation, personal recognition, rapport, empathy)*" (Bowden, 2009, p. 591). The evidence collected in this study suggests that this is the case for frequent (and thus mainly business) travellers. Often, these passengers tend to consume at the same outlet when travelling and food and beverage concession staff, as well as management, reported that discussions between staff and those regular customers often went beyond the necessary and included private topics. As such, food and beverage concessions can offer more than just food and beverages to their regular customers by providing relational benefits. This may also be seen to support the Theory of Relational Cohesion (Lawler et al., 2000) which posits that social exchanges produce positive emotions that, in turn, promote consumers' staying in a relationship, thus encouraging customer loyalty. The evidence collected can thus be considered to support similar claims by Sierra et al. (2009) that positive emotions from a service encounter lead to increased customer loyalty towards the service provider.

There is an increasing body of literature dealing with low-cost-carriers and their effects on airport commercial operations, as well as on passenger airside behaviour. Whilst Njoya and Niemeier (2011), as well as Graham (2013b), Castillo-Manzano (2010) and Gillen and Lall (2004) claim that passengers of low-cost-carriers spend more on airside concessions than passengers of full-service-airlines, a number of studies disagree with this and claim the opposite (Castillo-Manzano & López-Valpuesta, 2013; Lei & Papatheodorou, 2010; Papatheodorou & Lei, 2006; Volkova & Müller, 2012). The evidence collected in this thesis does not support any of the two claims, but rather suggests the need for a more differentiated exploration. Interview data collected during the focus group discussion, as well during interviews with staff and management suggests that full-service-airlines and low-cost-carriers are becoming more and more interchangeable in the context of Stuttgart airport. Depending on their destination, travellers reported to be using full-service-airlines and low-cost-carriers alike; the destination of the trip thus becoming the main determinant of the type of airline to be used. Especially with the growth of Germanwings[4] at Stuttgart airport, it has become more and more common to use low-cost-carriers when travelling from and to Stuttgart. In 2014 Germanwings, a low-cost subsidiary of German Lufthansa Group, has taken over all those Lufthansa flights that do not connect to the airline's hubs in Frankfurt and Munich. As such, Stuttgart has become a Germanwings hub of its own, covering 21 international and four domestic routes (afm, 2013). The differentiation between low-cost-carriers and full-service-airlines thus becomes less important at Stuttgart Airport, and other factors seem to prevail.

Furthermore, no support was found for claims by Appold and Kasarda (2006) about a relationship between the distance to be flown and airside food and beverage concession expenditure. Frequent flyers in the focus group discussion however reported that their airside consumption behaviour was rather influenced by the airline they were booked on for long-haul flights. Whereas some airlines were reported to serve good food, others were not and thus encouraged passengers to consume food and beverages at the airport.

The discussion of the findings of this thesis shows that there is remarkable discussion in the literature regarding the influence of personal factors on airside food and beverage consumption behaviour. This study has shown that the type of trip (business / leisure), the frequency of flying, as well as the direction of travel (outbound / inbound) have an effect on air passenger behaviour. The next section will thus aim at exploring air passenger typologies.

[4] Germanwings was later re-branded to Eurowings

5.1.3 Air passenger typologies

The construction of typologies has been understood to be a useful tool in helping to understand phenomena (Wickens, 2002). In the quantitative analysis, the principal components analysis revealed three underlying dimensions of passengers' emotional states, as discussed in section 4.2.2.1. These emotional states were then used as clustering variables. The cluster analysis resulted in three distinct passenger clusters that were discussed in section 4.2.2.3 above. Furthermore, the analysis of variance (presented in section 4.2.2.4) showed that different passenger clusters showed different airside behaviour resulting in different outlet patronage intentions. It can thus be considered appropriate to discuss the communalities of air passenger types of behavioural intentions, based on the cluster analysis that was conducted.

Meaningful passenger clusters could be derived based on passengers' emotional states. These clusters then showed to rate significantly different when it comes to behavioural intentions.

Frequent Flyers, who are more likely to travel for business, have shown higher levels of *AirsideStress*. The Frequent Flyers' higher intention to consume at a branded outlet that emerged from the empirical investigation is thus in line with the expectations. As the discussion of the findings has shown, the airside consumption of foods and beverages can help reduce stress, which can now be considered to be of higher importance for Frequent Travellers. Since services are high in experience attributes, they have an inherent perceived risk for the consumer (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011). A strategy to reduce said perceived risk is then to consume at branded outlets (Fliess, 2009), an approach that Frequent Flyers seem to utilize.

The analysis does not present such a clear picture for the cluster containing Very Frequent Flyers. Very Frequent Flyers showed slightly higher levels of *AirsideEnjoy* and also a slightly higher intention to wander through the terminal after passing through security. This did however not result in specific outlet attributes that this group was looking for.

Infrequent Flyers rated very high on *AirsideFear*, in connection with the intention to consume close to their departure gate. This finding fits well to the interview statement made by the managing director of Stuttgart Airport in the semi-structured interview:

> *"the inexperienced flyer, and that is also the one that takes, let's say three trips a year, a city trip somewhere, visiting relatives, or a holiday, the less experienced flyer's behaviour is coined by a certain risk or fear. Under no circumstances, and that is above all, under no circumstances does he want to miss his plane. He wants to be on time, he wants to be included, and therefore he is there, he wants to fly, consume the transportation service. So what does he do, first he makes sure to get rid of the luggage as soon as possible, second the passenger announcements which the airlines order and which we partially thin out already, suggest him to come to his departure gate early, so that leads to pressure, time pressure, people get impatient at the passenger controls". (Managing director, Stuttgart airport).*

The analysis showed that the cluster of Infrequent Flyers rated high on *AirsideFear*, resulting in a higher likeliness to consume close to their departure gate and supporting claims by Graham (2013a), When it comes to airside food and beverage consumption, Infrequent Flyers prefer to remain close to their gate, based on the fear of missing their flight.

It is thus appropriate to differentiate air passengers by their frequency of flying and by their main purpose of trip with passengers travelling for business being more likely to be frequent flyers. Infrequent (leisure) travellers then are more likely to consume close to their departure gates and very frequent (business) travellers are more likely to consume at a service brand.

5.1.4 The role of service brands

Despite opposing claims by H.-B. Kim and Kim (2005), the literature review has shown that only very few studies identified the reputation and brand to be important factors influencing restaurant choice (Cullen, 2005; Heung, 2002). Where the review of literature suggests that brands play only a minor role in food and beverage consumption decisions, the findings of this study can be seen to partly support this view. Interview data suggests that in the airside context, service brands have shown to be of importance for the consumption of coffee mainly. The brand here can be seen to serve as a signal for quality (Fliess, 2009), reducing the perceived risk for consumers. Iglesias and Guillén (2002) have applied the concept of perceived risk in the context of restaurant choice in Spain showing that high levels of perceived risk resulted in consumers asking friends and family for advice. It is however surprising to note that this has shown to be the case for coffee only in this study. Passengers seem to fear adverse consequences mainly with coffee products and aim to reduce this perceived risk by consuming coffee from branded outlets. It is interesting to note that this mechanism seemed not to be of importance when it comes to other beverages or food items. In addition to this, food and beverage concession employees reported that only a few younger travellers had been actively asking for branded fast food service outlets. However, the survey data did not support this since it revealed no significant relationship between age and the importance of service brands.

For passengers that rate high on the *AirsideStress* scale however, a significant relationship with the importance of service brand could be identified in the survey data. Passengers with high levels of *AirsideStress* (mainly Frequent Flyers as the analysis has revealed) are thus more likely to consume at a branded outlet, as has been discussed in section 5.1.3 above.

In line with the discussion of the role of cues (see section 5.1.2.1 above), service brands represent visual cues. Cues do not only influence choice behaviour (McGrath Davis et al., 2013), but also can have an effect on the net utility of the consumption behaviour, if the cue (e.g. the service brand) has been has been associated with consumption in the past (Laibson, 2001). For the airport airside setting, this can be expected to be the case for Frequent Travellers mainly. The use of branded outlets can thus be understood to be a strategy for Frequent Flyers to (unconsciously) increase the net utility of the consumption, thus maximizing their perceived service value.

5.2 Developing an Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model

As discussed in the literature review, extant consumer behaviour literature claims for consumption decisions to be either based on cognition, habit, or affect, representing the three perspectives respectively. The so-called ABC model that is based on this understanding has been widely accepted in the consumer behaviour literature (Babin & Harris, 2011; Kardes et al., 2010; Solomon, 2015). Following the ABC model of attitudes, different hierarchies of effects can be differentiated in consumer behaviour, depending on the setting. Table 50 below illustrates these so-called standard hierarchies of effects.

Table 50: Hierarchies of Effects

Hierarchy	Perspective	Order of events	Attitude development
Standard Learning Hierarchy	Rational Choice Perspective	Cognition -> Affect -> Behaviour	Based on cognitive information processing
Low-Involvement Hierarchy	Behavioural Influence Perspective	Behaviour -> Affect -> Cognition	Based on behavioural learning processes
Experiential Hierarchy	Experiential Perspective	Affect -> Behaviour -> Cognition	Based on hedonic consumption

In line with Table 50 above, Solomon (2015) claims that for food and beverage consumption decisions a low-involvement hierarchy of effects is applicable, habitual decision-making usually being the case. Consumers are thus seen to act without much consideration on the basis of limited knowledge and then form an evaluation afterwards, influencing their attitude towards the service or product.

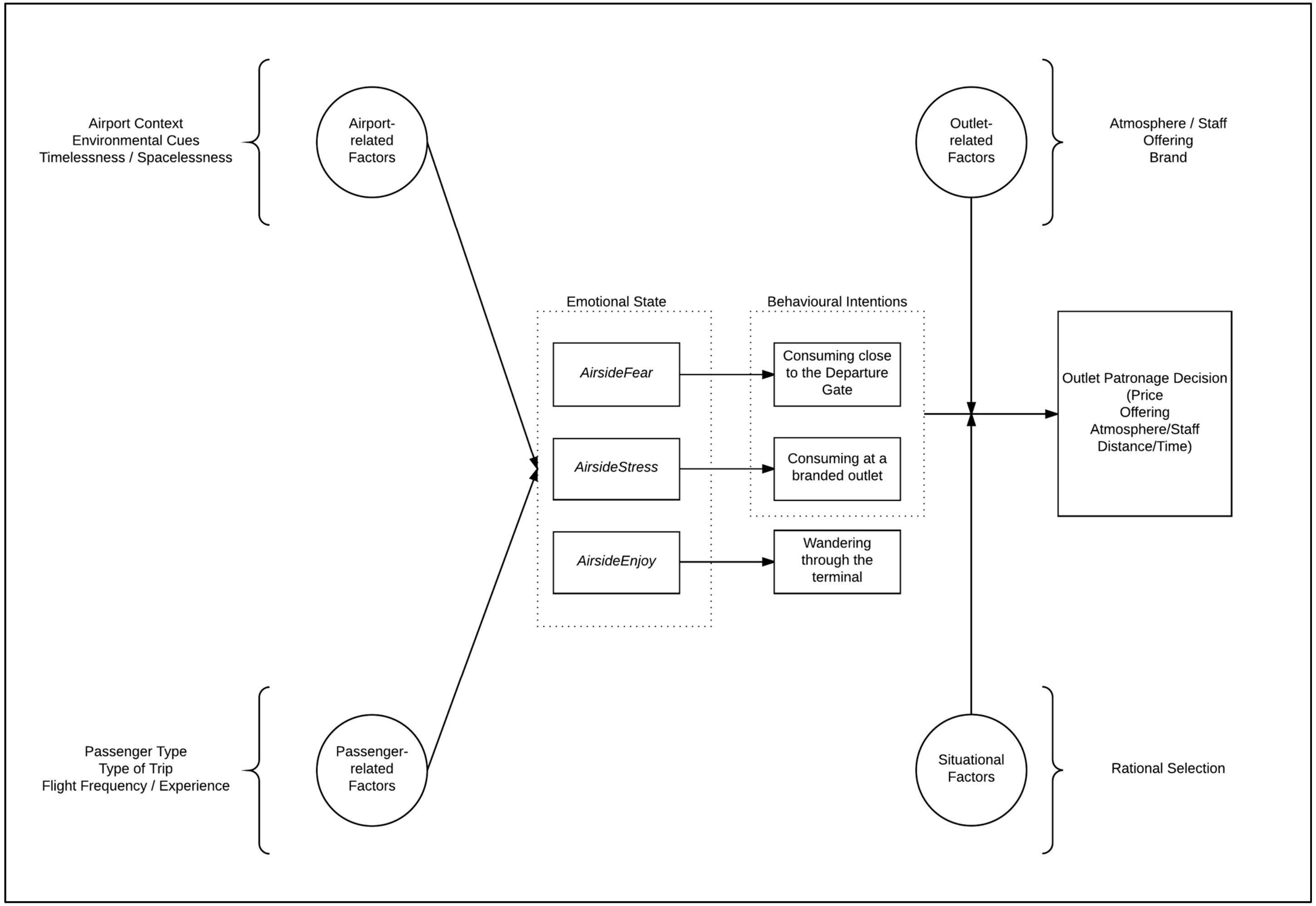
The experiential hierarchy of effects then relates to the concept that emotions influence behaviour (Evans, Jamal, & Foxall, 2006). In extant consumer behaviour literature, these emotions are influenced by product attributes, brand names, or package design. In contrast to extant literature, the findings of this thesis now reveal that, in the airside setting, it is not the product but the context that has an effect on passengers' emotions. These emotions then, in turn, influence consumption and outlet patronage intentions in line with the experiential hierarchy shown above. It can thus be understood that, for the airside setting, the experiential hierarchy better serves at explaining the phenomenon.

The discussion of the findings of this thesis leads to the synthesis of the environmental and personal factors in light of the three emotional states that the analysis revealed. Passenger- and airport-related factors have shown to contribute to the emotional states *AirsideStress*, *AirsideFear*, and *AirsideEnjoy*. The findings presented above are now synthesized into an Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model.

Through the review of literature, four a priori themes influencing outlet patronage intentions in the airside setting had emerged, namely “*food and beverage outlet*”, “*airport*”, “*type of trip*” and “*passenger*”. These four a priori themes then also became the top-level themes of the coding template that was developed (Brooks & King, 2014; King, 2012) for the analysis of the qualitative evidence collected. The findings of the study and their discussion in light of extant literature have identified a number of factors that influence air passengers in their airside consumption behaviour. Based on the analysis and discussion of those factors, a Preliminary Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model was developed. For the purpose of developing the framework, the two a-priory themes “*type of trip*” and “*passenger*” were combined into “passenger-related factors”. This then results in the factors influencing patronage intentions to be categorized into “*food and beverage outlet-related factors”*, “*airport-related factors”* and “*passenger-related factors”*. Based on the quantitative findings of this thesis, a number of the factors that had previously emerged were removed or combined. The quantitative analysis thus allowed further analyses, based on the qualitative findings. It can be understood that airport-related and passenger-related factors influence passengers’ emotional states in the airside setting during the period of presence. Air passengers’ emotional states then influence outlet patronage intentions; outlet-related factors then have a further influence on consumption behaviour. The analysis of the evidence suggests that three distinct emotional states play a role in the airside context, namely *AirsideStress*, *AirsideFear* and *AirsideEnjoy*. These three emotional states can then be seen to influence patronage intentions through the factors discussed. It should however be noted that it cannot be assumed that passengers always experience the same emotional state, these emotional states should rather be understood in the sense of potentials. This thesis does not further investigate sequential emotions which constitutes a limitation of the thesis to be discussed in section 5.4 below.

The Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model as it was developed in the course of this thesis thus assumes that the factors have an influence on the passengers' emotional state. The emotional state then is understood to influence behavioural intentions that result in outlet patronage intentions, influenced by outlet-related and by situational factors. The analysis of the evidence and the synthesis of the findings leads to the development of an airside consumption model (see illustration in Figure 12 below). In this model, passengers' emotional states (influenced by airport-related and by passenger-related factors) then influence outlet patronage intentions. The relationship between patronage intentions and outlet patronage then is mediated by outlet-related and by situational factors (rational selection). The model also illustrates that, based on the quantitative analysis, passengers' emotional state plays a more important role in patronage intentions than the outlet's perceived attractiveness.

Figure 12: Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model



The Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model is based on passenger- and airport-related factors influencing air passengers' emotional states (*AirsideStress*, *AirsideFear*, and *AirsideEnjoy)*. Each of these states is understood to influence patronage intentions. Outlet-related factors then can be seen to be linked to outlet patronage decisions. The model also includes the finding that different passenger types can show different behaviours.

Airport-related factors in this framework relate to the airport setting and the airport context as a special place. Passengers may perceive increased levels of stress and nervousness or may perceive a certain uncertainty about the duration of controls. Passenger-related factors were classified mainly based on the analysis of quantitative data. An air passenger typology was developed and the analysis shows that different types of air passengers look for different attributes when deciding which outlet to consume at. In addition, outlet-related factors influence passengers' outlet patronage intentions.

5.3 Contributions of this thesis

The contributions of this thesis will be presented in three different categories: contributions to theory, methodological contributions and recommendations to practice.

5.3.1 Contributions to theory

As the literature review has shown, only limited research has been conducted regarding consumer decision making in the pre-purchase stage and extant research is almost exclusively based on the rational choice paradigm. Studies dealing with the pre-purchase stage were mostly quantitative, employing either a survey or an experimental methodology. The literature review revealed that applying a singular perspective (such as the rational choice perspective) does not allow for a holistic understanding of consumer behaviour in the airside context, where behaviour is often not following rational decision-making (Bork, 2007; Perng et al., 2010; Vänniä, 2013). This re-illustrated the need for further research in the field of consumer behaviour in the context of airside food and beverage outlets, applying a more holistic approach. This study thus contributes to knowledge in the field by critically reviewing the literature and by identifying the need for a more holistic and less paradigm-dependent approach on the investigation of air passenger behaviour in this context.

The main contribution to knowledge of this study then relates to the exploration of airside consumer behaviour and to aiming at closing that gap by exploring the factors influencing passengers in their decision where to consume in the airport airside setting. Besides identifying the factors that influence patronage intentions in this context, they were furthermore synthesized with the three different emotional states of air passengers into an Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model. This model suggests that airside patronage intentions are influenced by *airport-related*, *outlet-related* and by *passenger-related* factors. Those factors were furthermore shown to be linked to passengers' emotional state, represented by the three dimensions *AirsideStress*, *AirsideFear* and *AirsideEnjoy*. In that sense, the model can furthermore be seen as an extension of the Mehrabian-Russell Model (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974) in a way that it includes actual decisions about outlet patronage in airport airside settings. Whereas extant literature has shown to take one of the three distinct perspectives on consumer behaviour, the Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model aims at integrating elements of each perspective into a more holistic framework. In line with the finding that each of the three perspectives is especially good at explaining different parts of the phenomenon, the model allows the integration of the effect of the airside context, of emotional states, but also of elements of rational decision-making. In that sense, following Rüegg-Sturm (2002) as well as Hugentobler, Schaufelbühl, and Blattner (2010), it can serve as a model reducing complexity and can be understood to represent relationships in order to facilitate sense making in a complex world. As Luhmann (1987) elaborates, models then are contingent, meaning that they may, but not necessarily do, represent the real world. As contingent constructs, they have the possibility to fail. In that sense, in line with the critical realist stance, the model can now be applied and tested. Since, besides food and beverage consumption, airside shopping plays an important role for air passengers, the model could furthermore be tested for its applicability with regards to airside shopping behaviour.

A further theoretical contribution of this study lies within the exploration of air travel stress. During the course of this study, this phenomenon was empirically investigated. The concept of air travel stress had repeatedly been brought up as a key concept in the literature (Bork, 2007; Bowes, 2002), but very little empiric evidence of research on this phenomenon could be located in the literature. This thesis thus contributes to theory by empirically exploring the concept of air-travel related stress and by revealing that different types of passengers show different levels of air travel related stress. Furthermore, the concept of air travel stress was expanded to include the notion of nervousness, as well as that of fear. This thesis supports findings of cue theory as well as the application of heuristics in the airside setting.

In line with the exploration of air travel stress, this thesis contributes to theory by revealing the importance of passengers' emotional states and their effect on outlet patronage intentions in the airport airside context. Whilst extant literature has seen air travel stress to be a factor influencing air passenger airside behaviour, a contribution of this thesis is the insight of air passengers' emotional states influencing behaviour to include *Stress*, *Fear*, as well as *Enjoyment*.

An investigation of air passenger typologies as part of this thesis reveals that different types of air passengers rate differently on the three emotional states and subsequently show different outlet patronage intentions. This finding contributes to consumer behaviour theory and extends the body of knowledge in that field.

5.3.2 Methodological contributions

From a methodological standpoint, this study contributes by applying a mixed-methods case approach in the airport airside setting. As the literature review has revealed, previous studies relied on mono-method research designs applying one of the three perspectives on consumer behaviour. A less paradigm dependent and more holistic approach was applied in order to better understand consumer behaviour in this setting. This study contributes by applying such an approach and by integrating different extant theoretical perspectives. The mixed-method case approach applied in this thesis furthermore included elements of action research, as the discussion of my reflections has shown (Saunders et al., 2012). The methodology applied allowed collecting rich data, each stage influencing the next one. As such, it can be understood that achieving these findings was only possible based on this rich methodology. This finding now allows other researchers to use similar, rich, approaches when investigating similar contexts. As a result of the inquiry, it has been shown that each of the three perspectives can help explain parts of the overall phenomenon and that applying this new methodological approach has helped understand the phenomenon more holistically.

Whilst the data analysis methods that were used for the quantitative methods in this thesis were well explored and tested, the application of template analysis for the qualitative data (Brooks & King, 2014; King, 2012) in the context of the mixed-methods case study in the field of consumer behaviour constitutes a methodological contribution. Although the method is more and more applied in business and management research (King, 2012), its main domain is healthcare qualitative research (Waring & Wainwright, 2008). Applying the method in a novel context and in connection with quantitative methods as part of a case study research design represents a contribution to methodology based on the novelty of the approach.

5.3.3 Recommendations to practice

The findings of this thesis are of relevance for practitioners as well. Not only based on the relationship and the cooperation with the food and beverage concessionaire at Stuttgart Airport, it is important to share these findings with the practitioner community as well.

Initially, the Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model that was developed in this thesis can be usefully applied in airport airside settings. The findings show that Infrequent Flyers and Frequent Flyers often stay close to their gate, based on a fear of missing their plane. At the same time, these passengers spend extended periods of time in the airside setting and have an interest to consume, especially when on the outbound segment. Since gate allocations however usually lie within the responsibility of the airport management company (Klann, 2009) and since passengers travelling for leisure and business have peak periods at different times of the week, it is not advisable to permanently move existing food and beverage concessions based on this finding. Enabling leisure passengers to increase consumption could however be achieved through the use of mobile units. Mobile units have successfully been in use in sport stadium public catering (FIFA, 2012), as well as in trade fairs. These units, often resembling pushcarts, could temporarily be moved to the relevant gates at which leisure travellers are expected in order to facilitate consumption and to increase revenues. Besides economical benefits for the concessionaire and the airport operator based on increased revenues, the use of more mobile units could also improve passengers' airside experience.

Interviews with passengers as well as the focus group have revealed the importance of local food and beverages. Local food and beverages can add to the tourist experience (Batra, 2008) and can also be a way for business travellers to experience cultural aspects of the region they have visited. Interestingly, neither the concessionaire's employees nor the managing director of the airport company mentioned the importance of local specials. This suggests that there is a potential gap in the offering at Stuttgart Airport. Offering local foods and beverages thus could result in increased sales revenues.

Although service brands seem to play a minor role in general, the Very Frequent Flyers have indicated to prefer consuming at a branded outlet. It would thus be advisable for food and beverage concession operators to consider increasing the availability of branded outlets, especially for coffee.

There seems to be a lack of agreement in extant literature when it comes to air passenger airside consumption behaviour. Francis et al. (2003), as well as Gillen and Lall (2004) claim that passengers of low-cost airlines tend to spend more on food and beverages at the airport, since they could not expect to be served a meal on board and therefore were more likely to buy food and beverages at the airport. In contrast, Castillo-Manzano (2010) found the behaviour shown by passengers of low-cost carriers to be very similar to that shown by passengers of full-service airlines. In a later study, Castillo-Manzano and López-Valpuesta (2013) found that passengers of low-cost carriers consumed less than passengers of full-service airlines, contrary to earlier findings. Volkova and Müller (2012) claim that business travellers tend to spend less on food and beverages at the airport than leisure travellers. The findings of this thesis call for a more detailed evaluation of the evidence and suggest not only to consider the purpose of trip (business / leisure), but also whether a passenger is on the outbound or inbound segment of the trip, since this has a significant effect on consumption behaviour.

5.4 Limitations of this thesis

As with all research, this study has certain limitations to it. I will present and discuss the limitations of this study in this section.

The mixed-method case approach comes with the advantage of allowing multiple sources of evidence to be included in the analysis. Whilst the case study as research strategy allows "*getting a rich picture and gaining analytical insights from it*" (Thomas, 2011, p. 23), it does not allow for generalisation in a positivist sense. Positivist researchers might thus consider this lack of generalizability a weakness of this study. The case methodology, however, gains its legitimacy and power from an exemplary knowledge rather than from statistical generalizability, as Thomas (2011) further elaborates. In that sense, case research does not aim at statistical generalisations, but at expanding theory.

Using a German medium-sized commercial (non-hub) airport as typical case for its class in the case research allows expanding the findings to this class of airport. When transferring the findings of this thesis to other classes of airports, such as hubs or commercial airports in other (European) countries, caution should be exercised. One of the key attributes of the class of airport under investigation is for passengers to be able to move between all airside areas freely, irrespective of which entrance they have used. The Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model that was developed in the course of this study however could be tested for its applicability and refined in other airport types and other geographic regions as well.

For the data collection approaches applied for this study, there are operational limitations that need to be discussed. The timeframe during which survey data could be collected was limited by operational constraints on the concessionaire's side. It can, however, be argued that collecting the survey data in the summer months increased the representativeness of the sample since this falls into the busy season with both business and leisure travellers being adequately represented. Another limitation relates to not asking passengers in the survey instrument whether they are on an in- or an outbound segment of their trip and asking how much they had spent. The finding that both business and leisure travellers show different consumption behaviour on the in- and outbound segment of their trip became evident at a time when the survey was already underway. This can be seen to have limited the analytical possibilities when triangulating this finding, could however be overcome through the analysis of secondary (point of sales) data.

The development of the scales to measure the three dimensions of air passengers' emotional states, namely *AirsideStress*, *AirsideFear*, and *AirsideEnjoy* was based on a relatively small sample. Whilst all three scales showed appropriate reliability levels, there is a need for further research in order to test, refine, and improve the concepts and their measurements. The cluster analysis is based on the three emotional states that had resulted from the principal components analysis. The predictive power of the cluster analysis has to be seen in line of the fact that the principal components analysis only explained 62.06 percent of the total variance.

On a theoretical level, this thesis and the Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model that was developed as a part of it, allows new insights into air passenger consumption behaviour. Whilst the importance of passengers' emotional states has been highlighted throughout this thesis, the findings might be understood in a way that a passenger's emotional state is singular and stable. The approach chosen and the evidence collected do not allow the investigation of mixed or sequential emotions, in line with the view that emotional states represent potentials rather. It thus remains for further research to explore this dimension of airside outlet patronage intentions. The concept of mixed or sequential emotions in the field of airside airport consumption should thus be further explored.

5.5 Emerging research agendas

In light of its contributions to knowledge (see section 5.3 above), this study has also revealed the need for further research in the field. Research agendas that emerged from this study deal with a number of issues.

The concept of air travel stress had been brought up in the literature in the early 2000's (Bowes, 2002; Omar & Kent, 2001). However, despite its importance in the context of commercial airport operations, little empiric research has been conducted on this topic. Whilst this study has contributed to knowledge by empirically exploring the concept of air travel stress (*AirsideStress*) and by extending it with the notion fear (*AirsideFear*), further research is needed in order to better understand how air travel related stress and fear influence air passenger behaviour. Furthermore, based on the discussion of the findings of this thesis, the concept of sequential (or changing) emotions deserves further investigation.

On a methodological level, this study has applied a mixed-methods case approach that resulted in a very rich methodology. Each step of the empiric investigation has informed the next one, leading to the development of the Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model. This innovative and rich methodological approach leaves room for further application and improvement in similar contexts where little is known about the phenomena to be investigated.

This study's main contribution is the empiric development of an Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model. In line with the ideas of critical realism and the lines of thought of Poser (2009) and Bhaskar (2008), the model should now be tested for its applicability and improved in further studies. The model is furthermore based on a case approach in the context of a medium-sized German commercial airport. Further research is needed in order to explore to what extent this model is applicable to other geographic regions.

The nature of the research was exploratory and the scales development followed the inductive approach of this study. Future research is thus needed to test and to refine these scales in the airside context.

Extant consumer behaviour literature suggests that, in the experiential hierarchy of effects, emotions towards a product influence behaviour. On a theoretical level, this study has suggested that for the airside context, unlike in many other contexts, emotions are rather influenced by the setting than by the products on offer. This finding suggests for more research to be conducted.

The findings of this study may also be applicable to other contexts where consumers find themselves in constraint environments resulting in limited behavioural freedom, such as sports venues or trade fair grounds. The Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model could be tested for its applicability in such contexts as well.

6 Reflections

The importance of reflexivity when conducting research in the social sciences has been brought up by a number of authors (Haynes, 2012; Weick, 2002). In organizational research, the term reflexivity is widely used to describe the researcher's awareness of his or her own role and the way that he or she influences the research processes outcomes (Haynes, 2012). As Bryman (2012) elaborates, researchers should be reflective about the research process, as well as their position in the context in order to be reflexive. Gilgun (2010) agrees in stating that reflexivity enables researchers to become aware of the influences they have on the research process and that the research process has on them. Following Creswell (2009), reflexivity helps researchers to explicitly identify their biases, values, and personal backgrounds that might inform their interpretations. Reflexivity is furthermore part of the critical realist methodology, as Roberts (2014) points out. As such, the notion of reflexivity is closely linked to reflective practice. Reflective practice is not to be understood as a theory of its own, but rather as a model (Cox, 2005; Osterman & Kottkamp, 2004). As discussed in section 3.10.1 above, reflective practice is also an important tool when conducting unstructured observations in research. However, as I have discussed, the notion of being reflective goes further than merely facilitating the application of a particular method of inquiry.

At this point, I find it important to point out that I did not always feel comfortable with the concept of reflective practice. When this was first introduced to me at the beginning of my doctoral studies, I had difficulties seeing the benefit and felt uncomfortable with the idea of engaging in this practice. Having obtained my undergraduate and postgraduate degree at German Universities of Applied Sciences, the concept of critical reflection had not been introduced to me previously. Questioning my own role in the research and how it would influence the research process and outcomes was not something that would have been considered in that environment. I soon realized that I had shortcomings in this regard and decided to actively engage in the process in order to become a reflective practitioner. This is very much in line with claims by Bolton (2010) that reflective practice can only be learnt by engaging in it, not by reading about it. Engaging in the practice allows not only to gain distance and stand back from events, but also to challenge own ideas and to ultimately review and reflect on the reflective process itself (Moon, 2006). Since I was, at the time, enrolled in a DBA course, I also had to pass a module that required evidence of reflective practice.

As Scales (2012) and Watt (2007) point out, the most commonly used tools for reflective practice are probably reflective journals. Such journals then become vehicles for reflection (Moon, 2006) as they facilitate researchers' ability to reflect and to think (Moon, 1999a). Throughout my doctoral studies, I have kept a reflective diary in the form of a Moleskine notebook that I always had with me, also when I travelled. I noticed that it was easier for me to be reflective when I was travelling. However, I need to admit that my entries were irregular. I did however make it a habit to often go back to my notebook and read my journal entries in order to reflect about them and in order to 'audit' my progress in the research project. In line with claims by Moon (2006), the journal thus not only serves as a tool for the recording of experiences, but also facilitates learning.

6.1 The development of my research project

When proposing the research topic to the University of Gloucestershire, the research questions and research objectives for my study were, based on a preliminary review of literature, framed from a rational choice perspective. The notion of perceived risk was seen as a central factor influencing airport airside outlet patronage intentions. At that point in time, it was difficult for me to believe that conducting a thorough literature review would influence, and possibly even change, my research questions and objectives.

As I conducted the literature review and as my knowledge of the extant literature in the field was growing, I started to move away from the rational-choice perspective to a behavioural-influence model and then towards an experiential perspective. I felt this to fit better with the exploratory and the mainly qualitative nature of the study. As I synthesised the findings of the literature review into a conference paper that I presented in Manchester (Merkle, Vlachos, & Keane, 2015), I realised that none of the three perspectives on consumer behaviour fitted neatly with air passengers' airside outlet patronage intentions and the concept of travel stress. As such, I had to abandon the idea of being able to follow one paradigm. It became evident to me that my methodological approach for the exploration of this phenomenon had to be independent of the perspectives and would need to allow for a more holistic view. I then decided to follow this through a case study approach. The literature review has thus informed my research methodology to a large degree, something that I had come across in textbooks and discussions with colleagues, but still had found hard to believe, before experiencing it.

Coming from a positivist background initially, my doctoral journey has also influenced my philosophical position, resulting in me adopting a critical realist stance for this study. The synthesis of my literature review then led me to consider a mixed-methods methodology, something that I hadn't done before. Since I also had no previous experience in applying qualitative methods, I felt a certain level of fear and respect of what was yet to come. On the other side, I had done some quantitative research before and also felt keen to get experienced in qualitative methods. Even though the majority of my case study was then of qualitative nature, I had to be flexible and adapt my methodology once I was in the field. As I started interviewing food and beverage concession staff, I realized that semi-structured interviews with passengers would not be possible to be conducted in situ. I thus had to use structured interviews instead, since I still wished to interview passengers in-situ. Those interviews then became the pilot for a larger passenger survey that I administered subsequently. This can be seen to exemplify the concept of reflection-in-action (Tummons, 2010).

6.2 Factors that influenced the progress of the research

Writing the literature review became a somewhat ongoing process for me, since I kept on scanning the relevant journals for relevant articles as my research was progressing. Having received positive feedback on the literature review however was a big milestone and achievement for me since it meant that I had ‘produced’ an acceptable piece of work. Turning this into a conference paper that was subsequently accepted (Merkle et al., 2015) was another important moment as my research progressed. When I started writing the methodology and methods chapter, I was at the same time asked to co-teach a research methods course for postgraduate students at the institution that I work at. Even though in my teaching I had to focus on the quantitative part of the course, I am convinced that having to teach the subject helped me very much structure and justify my own approach.

Whilst my supervisors were reviewing the methodology section, I started planning the data collection phase. Since a number of stakeholders were involved, I had to plan at rather long notice. Furthermore, my travel to Stuttgart airport as well as access to the airside setting needed to be arranged. Achieving confirmation of dates and exact requirements was difficult and turned out to be a lengthy process. I felt that it took a lot of effort to get everything arranged and approved. About a month before I embarked on the first ‘wave’ of data collection, I received my supervisors’ feedback on my methodology section. Subsequently, I was entering and leaving the field collecting evidence (following my data collection schedule that is found in Annex 1), and at the same time incorporating my supervisors’ feedback in order to improve my methodology section. At this point in time, my research was no longer following the clean ‘linear’ process that I had developed as part of my project plan. I was handling numerous different tasks at the same time (something I was used to in the professional context but did not expect to happen in research) and I began to understand why some scholars claim research to be 'messy' at times.

The qualitative data collection phase prove to be much more demanding than I had initially anticipated. The first wave included unstructured observations from the food and beverage concession employees' and the passengers' perspective as well as in-situ interviews with concession staff. It was whilst conducting these interviews when I realized that the unstructured interviews with passengers that I had initially planned would not be feasible. Based on the experiences gained from interviewing concession staff, I decided to use a structured approach to conduct passenger interviews.

During the qualitative data collection phase, I often felt exhausted. The amount of effort it took to collect the evidence was at times overwhelming. The 'management' of various stakeholders became quite a task, especially since it was difficult to pre-arrange meetings for interviews with operational employees. Also, most of the interviews with operational managers, although scheduled in advance, had to be re-confirmed and re-scheduled at short notice due to unforeseen operational requirements. When arranging the details for the focus group discussion, I had the same feeling. Although I had been able to recruit participants and obtained their informed consent, there was a certain fear that they would cancel at short notice or not show up at all on the day. Luckily, that was not the case and they all attended the session as indicated.

When I arrived for the first day of unstructured observations from the employees' perspective, I met the duty manager, was shown around the airport and the concessions, and received a uniform. Thereafter, I was introduced to the team at the AIR Bar as 'someone who would be helping and looking around for a few days'. As the duty manager left, I could sense uncertainty and confusion with the employees. Although I had been in contact with the operational management beforehand and sent them my plans (schedules, as well as consent forms), concession staff members had not been briefed about my role and about my intentions. It was thus up to me to explain why I was spending time at their outlet and what the purpose of my research was. Once this was clarified, I very soon felt welcome and respected within the team. Most of the food and Beverage concession staff members then were eager to share their experiences with me and I got the impression that they were happy that I as a researcher showed interest in their professional lifes. At the same time, since my observations were covert in relation to the passengers, I had to immerse in the role of a food and beverage outlet employee. Just as there had been no clear briefing to the concession staff members, there had also been no training for me. I felt very much thrown into the deep end when I was behind the counter of the AIR Bar and customers started approaching me. I neither knew the exact products on offer, nor the prices, nor had I got a briefing on how to operate any of the equipment. Even though my professional background in food and beverage helped me master the situation, I felt uncomfortable since I was visibly lacking competence in my job. I soon took on the position of a ‘helping hand’, took customer orders, fetched the articles ordered and passed them on to the main counter where another employee would ring them up and handle payment. This way, I could be part of the operation and conduct my observations without being a disruption to the processes, something which was very important for me.

As the body of evidence collected was growing with each ‘wave’ of data collection, I started anticipating the analysis phase. Whilst I was often reflecting on the experience in the field, I did not want to start analysing the evidence before the collection phase was over. In retrospect I feel that through this I wanted to reduce the level of ‘messiness’ in my research and get back to a more ‘linear’ process. Only once all the evidence was collected and all the interview data was transcribed, did I start with the analysis phase. I had chosen to use NVivo for the analysis of interview and observational data. Before embarking on the doctoral journey, I had no experience interviewing people and also hadn't worked with NVivo before. Long before the empiric phase of my PhD study, I realized that I should develop my skills in this regard. In order to achieve this, I started writing teaching case studies together with a good friend of mine (Merkle & Lewis, 2014, 2016). This way, I felt that I could improve my interviewing skills, get experienced using NVivo (I used the software to analyse the interview transcripts for the case studies as well) and also improve my writing skills. After the qualitative data had been coded and the template had emerged, I printed a "coding summary by node" report of all coded material from NVivo. This resulted in a 175 page strong document that I constantly had with me during an extended period. Following an approach presented by Watt (2007), having this document allowed me to think, to connect, and to reflect about the connections and the patterns that emerged from the data, thus performing the axial coding process (Saunders et al., 2012).

Once the qualitative data analysis had progressed, it was time to conduct the passenger survey as well as the secondary data analysis. After the survey instrument had been developed, pilot-tested, translated and approved, the logistics of administering the survey were overwhelming. The owner-manager of C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH had promised full support with the survey administration. Although it was still difficult to solve the logistics and to communicate expectations to the operational managers, the support was outstanding. Guided through my briefings, the operational managers briefed the concession staff employees to issue questionnaires. Completed questionnaires were then mailed to me in waves for data capturing and subsequent analysis. Data analysis for me also meant that I had to re-fresh my knowledge of quantitative methods and to get acquainted with techniques such as cluster and principal components analysis.

In retrospect it is interesting to note that I felt quite worried during the time between the data collection and the data analysis. I had developed the fear that there might be ‚nothing to be found' in the evidence. Speaking with other doctoral students I learned that this is not an uncommon fear to have. Reflecting over it I think that it is grounded in the fear that all the effort that has gone into the study thus far may lead to nothing worth reporting. Looking back I think that, although it was a very unpleasant emotion to deal with, it has helped me to be both open and critical during the data analysis.

6.3 My personal development throughout the research project

Based on my academic background that was rooted in the applied sciences, I felt it was more appropriate to register for a Doctorate in Business Administration (DBA), since this course offered a modular approach and included courses on research methodology, amongst others. After enrolling into the course, I found the academic environment to be very attractive and wanted to move into academia professionally as well. About a year after starting my doctoral studies, I had managed to get part-time lecturing posts at five different Swiss higher education institutions. Shortly after that, I was appointed full-time faculty at César Ritz Colleges in Brig, Switzerland. The campus is located very near to where I live and the postgraduate program I was teaching in was delivered in partnership with Manchester Metropolitan University. This partnership later on was terminated and the postgraduate program was then validated by the University of Derby. This resulted in me also having accredited lecturer status as well as access to their online resources. I was very lucky to be offered the post at César Ritz Colleges. Not only has teaching in the higher education context helped me develop my own thinking and writing, but also have I gained further insight in the UK higher education system. After I had completed all the modules for the DBA, I decided to change my degree sought to a PhD. Although that meant it would take me longer to finish my doctorate, I felt that the PhD was the more appropriate degree in the academic environment that I had joined. My employer furthermore asked me to complete a Postgraduate Certificate in Higher Education at the University of Derby as part of the accreditation requirements that the company had to fulfil. Although it meant additional work, this also has helped me grow as an academic and as a scholar whilst working on my PhD.

Having become an instructor myself, giving feedback to students became part of my professional role. Receiving feedback from my supervisors however was not always easy. Both of them being full-time faculty at respected universities, I knew that they were very busy and had to make the time to provide feedback on my work. I thus tried to send them work which I deemed complete or nearly complete to comment on. The comments I received from my supervisors were very helpful and allowed me to give appropriate direction to my research. Being the learner in that relationship, I saw it as my responsibility to manage the process and to pro-actively follow up and ask for feedback on drafts that I had submitted to my supervisors. At times, this felt difficult to me – especially when comparing with the (generally low) levels of engagement and process ownership that my own students showed. In retrospect, however, I feel that the management of this process is part of the overall learning experience of pursuing a doctorate. Accepting the feedback and incorporating it in my own work was at times difficult to do. I had got very ‘close’ to my work and accepting critical comments was not always easy. I learned that I had to take time to read and fully understand the comments provided. Had I been used to reading documents ‘on the go’ in my previous professional environment, that was not something I could do with the comments my supervisors provided. It was not only that I had to have the time and room to go through the comments, I also had to be ‘ready’ to accept it without feeling personally attacked. Having put large efforts into this thesis, I found it at times difficult to accept their comments and suggestions for changes. Here again, reflective practice has helped me find a way to accept my supervisors’ comments from scholar to scholar.

6.4 My influence on the research

As part of my doctoral journey, I have come to understand that not only my philosophical position, but also my personal values have an influence on the research process as well as the interpretation of the results (Saunders et al., 2012). For me, this is especially the case, since the qualitative aspects of my methodology involve interpreting what other people have said and done. In this vein, I feel that a certain moral duty lies on the researcher to do this accurately and not to purposely misrepresent or misinterpret what research participants have said and done. This resulted in me going back and forth between the analysis of evidence and the writing up of the findings and the discussion. Had I hoped for the project to become 'linear' and procedural in this stage, that clearly was not the case. Once I had analysed the data and moved on to writing up the findings, I went back into the analysis, which then in turn informed my interpretation and writing up again. I started to understand this to be an iterative process and it took me more time and effort than anticipated to complete this.

During the qualitative data collection phase, I had to take on different positions and different perspectives. I tried to do facilitate that by physically leaving the airport building when switching between positions. After working in the food and beverage concession and observing passengers from this perspective, I took on the passengers' perspective as part of my travels back to Switzerland. Whilst I tried to mentally separate the two different stages, it is still possible that my passenger observations have been influenced by my employee observations. When analysing the data, I was dealing with evidence of different sorts. This included field notes based on my observations, interview transcripts and transcripts of the video recording from the focus group discussion. The analysis of the qualitative data at times 'mentally' took me back to the situation when the data was made. Having reflected over this, I feel this is not a disadvantage but it rather allowed me to investigate and interpret the evidence in a better way, since I was 'closer' to the data and the circumstances under which it was made. Critically reading my own work and reflecting over what I had produced then allowed me to evaluate my work with more distance and to ensure it was transparent. This movement between being 'close' to the data and moving away from it also became an important aspect when coding the qualitative data. The template was developed based on the data and then used to attach codes or themes (King, 2012). Here, the development of the template and its application can be seen as iterative processes. The template was developed and then applied. Based on the coding, the template then was reviewed to fit better the structure of what was found. It took a number of iterations until I found that the template was suitable and until I felt that the coding was complete. Here again, reflective practice helped me engage in this process and follow it through, despite it feeling rather 'messy' and non-linear.

The quantitative part of the analysis was, at times, coined by a certain level of excitement. Every time that I received a batch of completed questionnaires, I felt that I couldn't wait to get them entered and loaded into SPSS in order to conduct analyses and search for relationships between variables. Having set up certain routines in SPSS allowed running analyses and seeing results quickly after new data sets had been added. Even though the process was very different from the qualitative analysis, the two parts were very much connected and influenced each other.

6.5 Effects on the Organisation – an Action Research perspective

As I have discussed in section 3.8 above, this research was possible based on a long-standing relationship between Claus Wöllhaf, the owner of C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH and myself. Whilst I had initially mainly considered effects of the research on the relationship, it became evident during data collection and analysis that there is also a (potential) effect of the research on the organisation.

Although I hold a freelance consulting mandate only and although my responsibilities exclusively involve international projects, the process as well as the results of this research can not be considered to be without effect on the organisation. As such, following Reason and Bradbury (2008), this research includes elements that can be classified as Action Research. Those elements include its collaborative approach, its focus on both a real-life practical issue and academic theory, as well as the intention to improve the situation under investigation (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

It needs to be noted though, that Action Research typically is performed in cyclical iterations with phases of diagnosing and of implementing change (Saunders et al., 2012). In that sense, the process and outcome of this thesis could be considered the beginning of an Action Research cycle. Should the organisation decide to implement some of the recommendations to practice discussed in section 5.3.3 above, this could in turn lead to an evaluation and induce a second Action Research cycle.

Besides making copies of the final thesis available, I have offered the organisation to present the findings of this study through a workshop. My hope is that findings of this thesis would be considered significant for the organisation and be implemented, thus initiating change as well as organisational learning in an Action Research sense.

7 Conclusions

This chapter concludes the thesis by reviewing the research questions and objectives and by critically reflecting to which extent they have been achieved. From a theoretical perspective, the three perspectives on consumer behaviour and the three stages model of services consumption are reviewed in light of the findings of this thesis. Thereafter, a new perspective on airside consumption is discussed in light of boundary theory.

7.1 Research Questions and Research Objectives

The research questions for the study were as follows:

- What environmental and personal factors influence air passengers' food and beverage outlet patronage intentions in the airside areas of commercial airports?
- To what extent do different types of passengers show different outlet patronage intentions in this context?
- Do service brands influence air passengers in their outlet patronage intentions, and if so, to what extent?

Based on the reviewed research questions, the following reviewed research objectives were stated:

- To explore the environmental and personal factors that influence air passengers' food and beverage outlet patronage intentions in the airside areas of commercial airports.

- To elaborate whether different types of air passengers show specific outlet patronage intentions in this context.
- To explore the role that service brands play in air passengers' food and beverage outlet patronage intentions.

Through a mixed-method case study approach that included elements of Action Research, the research questions and objectives were addressed. The factors influencing passengers' food and beverage outlet patronage intentions could be classified into *airport-related*, *passenger-related* and *outlet-related* factors. Through the empiric analysis of evidence, the importance of the three different emotional states *AirsideStress*, *AirsideFear*, and *AirsideEnjoy* on air passenger outlet patronage intentions was identified. It was furthermore shown that different passenger types rate differently on the three emotional states and thus show different outlet patronage intentions.

Based on these findings, an Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model was developed. As part of this model, the passenger-related factors relate to the second research question. In light of that research question, an air passenger typology was developed in order to illustrate how different passenger types showed differing food and beverage outlet patronage intentions, based on the prevalence of emotional states. In order to address the third research question, the role of service brands in outlet patronage intentions was assessed. Whilst service brands in general do not play an important role in the airside context, it became evident that service brands play a more prominent role for the Frequent Flyers. Furthermore, the evidence suggests that service brands play a role when it comes to the consumption of coffee in the airside setting.

This approach of developing a model based on evidence is in line with the critical realist stance since it has allowed its development (*context of discovery*) and since, following Schneider (1998), I do not claim for it to be generally valid (*context of justification*). Following lines of thought of Poser (2009) and Bhaskar (2008), the framework that has been developed as part of this inductive process can now be subject to falsification in following studies.

It can therefore be concluded that the three research questions could be answered, and thus the research objectives achieved. Besides that, this study has revealed a number of findings in connection with air passenger airside behaviour that were not initially anticipated. Reflecting over different passenger types' consumption behaviour has allowed viewing the airside setting as a liminoid space and the phenomenon in light of boundary theory, as I will discuss in section 7.4 below.

The application of a mixed-methods single case research design then might raise questions as to whether the findings can be generalized. As Yin (2009) however elaborates, the goal of the case study is to "*expand and generalize theories* (…) *and not to extrapolate probabilities*", thus not a statistical generalization. In that sense, the Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model that was developed and the claims that were derived from the empirical analysis serve to expand consumer behaviour theories in the airside context. Whilst, through the discussion and rigorous application of research methods, it can be claimed that the findings may well be valid for other cases (such as the group of medium-sized German commercial airports that Stuttgart is a typical case of), it is up to further empiric investigation to explore whether the findings can be applied to other contexts as well.

7.2 Perspectives on consumer behaviour

As the literature review has shown, the majority of literature in the field of consumer behaviour in a food and beverage context can be classified into the rational-choice, the behavioural influence, or the experiential perspective.

The rational choice perspective assumes consumers to act in rational ways, viewing their behaviour in terms of 'homo economicus'. As Babin and Harris (2011) claim, this perspective fits very well with the concept of utilitarian value. Within that perspective, consumers are participants in markets and as such are looking for favourable exchange transactions. Market participants show stable preferences, have limited information and intend to act rationally (Fliess, 2009). Each individual's goal is to maximize utility, thus to be in a more favourable position after the transaction has taken place than before (Kirzner, 1978). In the pre-purchase phase, the focus of the literature is on consumers aiming to reduce the perceived risk to their utility as a rational choice (Fliess, 2009).

A good illustration of the application of the rational choice perspective can be seen in a paper by Iglesias and Guillén (2002). They applied the concept of perceived risk when assessing the search for external information in restaurant selection in the Spanish context, using a 10-point scale to measure and assess the influence of perceived risk. This was operationalized as "*the probability of suffering adverse consequences, such as leaving hungry, being uncomfortable, having digestion problems, because of making a bad restaurant choice*" (Iglesias & Guillén, 2002, p. 40). Perceived risk was found to influence personal communication; low levels of perceived risk correlated with asking for less advice from family or friends.

The behavioural influence decision-making perspective assumes that many decisions are responses to environmental influences (Babin & Harris, 2011; Baumeister & Bushman, 2010; Zimbardo, 1992). This perspective emphasizes the influences of environmental stimuli on behaviour (Mowen, 1988). External stimuli are considered to be influencing an intervening response system which in turn results in behaviour. The causation of behaviour is thus explained by external events (Bray, 2008). The behavioural influence perspective has been the basis for the Mehrabian-Russell (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974), as well as for the servicescape model (Bitner, 1992). The Servicescape model is based on work by Mehrabian & Russell and assumes that the perceived service is influenced by the environment in which the service is provided.

An illustration of the behavioural influence perspective can be seen in a study by Ryu and Jang (2008b) who explored the influence of the physical environment on emotion and behavioural intention. Especially in hedonic consumption situations, customer reactions to the physical environment were more related to emotional than to cognitive evaluation, they claim. Following the Mehrabian-Russel model (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974), the degrees of experienced pleasure and excitement in a hedonic service encounter have an influence on satisfaction and post-encounter intentional behaviours.

There has been a move from the utilitarian business approach, focused on rational decision making, towards an experiential perspective in the consumer behaviour literature, as Morgan et al. (2008) claim. This experiential perspective on consumer behaviour fits well with hedonic values, Babin and Harris (2011) note. It highlights the importance of intangible product attributes, such as the nature of the setting in which the experience occurs (Solomon, 2015). The experiential perspective on consumption in the services segment is often linked with post-modernism and focusses on experience, as well as ritual, myth and symbolism (De Rezende & De Avelar, 2012; Williams, 2012). It "*assumes that consumers often make purchases and reach decisions based on the affect, or feeling, attached to the product or behaviour under consideration*" (Babin & Harris, 2011, p. 251).

The experiential perspective is well illustrated through an example by Tian and Tian (2011) who used an anthropological case study approach to investigate consumer behaviour in the context of an ethnic restaurant in the United States. Besides the utilitarian motives of satisfying hunger, visits to restaurants also serve social purposes. Tian and Tian (2011) introduced the differentiation between 'body food' and 'soul food', based on those different purposes, thus linking the meal experience to utilitarian and hedonic consumption. The consumption of food can thus also be seen as a manifestation of cultural values.

The rational-choice perspective and the concept of perceived risk were initially the basis for this thesis; the research proposal that was accepted was based on this approach. Based on the literature review, this approach however seemed inappropriate and a more holistic and less paradigm-dependent case study approach was chosen. It was very interesting to learn through the empiric inquiry that the notion of perceived risk, which is linked to the rational choice perspective, did emerge from the evidence as appropriate for parts of the investigation. This suggests that parts of airside consumption behaviour can be explained using the rational choice paradigm. Examples of this phenomenon are the importance of service brands when it comes to the consumption of coffee, or the Very Frequent Flyers' strategy to consume at branded outlets. The application of the heuristic of choosing busy outlets over quiet ones can also be understood to be a strategy to reduce perceived risk. The rational-choice perspective can thus be seen to serve at explaining parts of the phenomena under investigation.

The behavioural influence perspective has shown to be useful when it comes to exploring the effect of the environment on consumer behaviour. The Servicescape model proposed by Bitner (1992) however considered only the interior of a single restaurant outlet as the Servicescape. Based on the findings of this study, the whole of the airside area however can be understood to form one large servicescape in the sense of an environment that has an effect on consumer behaviour. Passengers can be understood to perceive external stimuli that can then influence their behaviour. Even though, due to the reasons discussed above, the Servicescape model was considered not suitable for this study, certain aspects of the findings can be evaluated from a behavioural influence perspective in which atmospheric stimuli influence behaviour. The evidence suggests that this is the case where passengers are influenced by external stimuli, such as aroma. In light with claims made by Ward et al. (2007), the evidence furthermore suggests that such olfactory stimuli often are not perceived consciously.

As Babin and Harris (2011), as well as Solomon (2015) claim, the experiential perspective fits well with hedonic values. Hedonic values have shown to influence airside consumption mainly for passengers travelling for leisure when on the outbound segment and those travelling for business when on the inbound leg. In this vein, the experiential perspective on airside consumption behaviour has proven helpful to explain some of the phenomena encountered. The symbolic meaning of meals to be used to "*mark special occasions, to celebrate rites of passage or to reinforce bonding*" (Morgan et al., 2008, p. 114) can serve as explanation for behaviour. Hedonic consumption, impulse behaviour and a relative insignificance of price link well with the concept of the airside area being a liminoid place, a place in-between (Christiansen, 2010; Eriksen & Døving, 1992; Lloyd, 2003; Turner, 1987). Outbound leisure travellers can be understood to be no longer at home but not yet at their holiday destination. Inbound business travellers in turn can be understood to be no longer at work but not yet at home. As such, both passenger groups that showed hedonic consumption and impulse behaviour can be considered to be in-between places. A number of passengers furthermore reported that the consumption of food and beverages was seen to be part of the overall air travel experience. As such, the experiential perspective on consumer behaviour can offer insight into parts of the phenomenon.

Extant literature in the field of food and beverage consumer behaviour has taken on of the three perspectives, as the literature review has shown. Based on this finding and based on the specifics of the airside context, a more holistic and less paradigm-dependent case study methodology was applied for this study. The analysis and the discussion of the findings of this study suggest that all three perspectives can help understand different aspects of the phenomenon encountered. It has emerged that each of the three perspectives can be usefully applied for the explanation of certain aspects of airside behaviour only. As the discussion of the findings has shown, none of the perspectives on its own allowed for a holistic understanding of the phenomenon in question.

Where airside consumption behaviour can be partly understood from a rational-choice perspective (e.g. reduced perceived risk in the case of coffee consumption), from a behavioural influence perspective (e.g. the effect of aroma on behaviour), and from an experiential perspective (e.g. airside consumption as part of a liminoid experience), none of the three perspectives on its own allows for a thorough investigation of the phenomenon. From an epistemological perspective, this can be understood to be an illustration of Popper's searchlight theory (Wurzer, 1997). The case approach that was chosen for this study thus represents a methodological contribution of this study, since it is less paradigm-dependent and allowed the inclusion of various types of evidence and theoretical perspectives. The synthesis of the three perspectives has then led to the development of the Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model.

7.3 Review of the three-stages model of services consumption

Extant literature typically differentiates the service consumption process using the three-stages model of services consumption (Fliess, 2009; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011). This model was also used to categorize the literature that was reviewed for this study. It differentiates the pre-purchase stage, the purchase (or consumption) stage and the post-consumption stage.

In the pre-purchase stage, consumers formulate consumption decisions, evaluating alternatives and assessing the perceived risk of the transaction (Fliess, 2009). During the consumption stage, the service is delivered; or co-produced between the consumer and the service providers' frontline staff (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011). In the post-purchase stage, consumers evaluate the services received. Behavioural intentions, such as word-of-mouth, feedback, or re-purchase intentions manifest themselves in the post-purchase phase (Bruhn & Georgi, 2006). In the field of food and beverage management the focus of extant literature is on the pre-purchase and the consumption phase.

In the pre-purchase stage, consumers decide whether or not to consume and which outlet to visit (Williams, 2012). Based on this model and based on the research questions, the focus of this study lied on the pre-purchase stage during which alternatives are evaluated and consumption decisions are formulated. In light of the findings of this thesis, the three-stages model of service consumption can be considered an appropriate representation of reality in the context of airside food and beverage consumption. As the literature review has shown, extant literature typically takes on a rational-choice perspective when investigating behaviour in the pre-purchase stage. As this thesis has shown, this perspective is useful at explaining parts of the phenomenon. For the airside context, air passengers' emotional states play a role in determining airside food and beverage consumption behaviour.

Especially for very frequent flyers, it has emerged that such a linear perspective on behaviour is not always appropriate. For those passengers, the post-consumption stage thus can also be considered to represent a pre-purchase stage. As such, consumption experiences gained would influence future consumption behaviour and 'learning' takes place. The Airport Airside Outlet Patronage Model thus has been extended to include "travel experience" as a factor influencing patronage intentions.

7.4 A new perspective on airside consumption

Whilst this study has explored the factors that influence air passenger airside outlet patronage intentions and has reviewed the findings in light of extant literature, an overarching understanding of the role of consumption in the airside context still seems to be missing. As extant literature shows, food and beverage consumption serves a number of purposes and can be viewed from different perspectives in order to make sense. Besides its nutritional function, food and beverage consumption has also been discussed from a sociological perspective. The importance of food and beverages in the production of ethnic, national, class, gender and local community identities has been discussed by Wilson (2005). Douglas (1987) for instance claims that drinking marks the boundaries between personal and group identities, making it a practice of inclusion and exclusion; a statement that is supported by Anderson (2014). This concept fits well the interview statement of one concession employee who said that when he travelled by plane himself, he went to drink beer at the airport like the businessmen do, because he wanted to feel part of that. Food and beverage consumption has also been brought in connection with showing the social status of those that consume (Anderson, 2014), as well as with a cultural meaning where eating and drinking form part of sacred experiences (Delaney & McCarthy, 2014). In that sense, eating and drinking can even become a ritual activity (Hegarty & O'Mahony, 1999).

When putting the phenomena in a bigger theoretical context, the sociological concept of boundary theory (Fonner & Stache, 2012) offers itself as an aid to explain them. This theoretical framework focuses on individuals' transitions between social roles, such as between work and home roles. Following Myrie and Daly (2009), as well as Kreiner, Hollensbe, and Sheep (2009), people impose boundaries over the natural non-order of things in order to simplify and classify the world around them. Nippert-Eng (1996) coined the term boundary work to illustrate the strategies that people employ to differentiate, or to segment, between the work- and the home-realm. Boundary work then includes both the placement as well as the crossing of those boundaries and as such occurs both on a mental and on a physical level (Myrie & Daly, 2009). As Fonner and Stache (2012, p. 244) elaborate, "*boundary theory examines the choices individuals make regarding the creation and maintenance of the work-home boundary and their transitions between work and home roles*." In that sense, a commute becomes a journey between the home realm and the work realm during which people employ certain routines to facilitate the transition between those boundaries. Besides routines and certain artefacts that help create and transcend the boundaries, food and beverage consumption has been shown to play a role in this process (Nippert-Eng, 1996).

As Kaern (1994) elaborates, the mental travel between work and home can be symbolized by the bridge metaphor; since bridges allow transcending the limits of one territory to another (Adams & Sydie, 2002). Where Nippert-Eng (1996) now claims that home-work transitions can be seen as mental bridges, this concept of transcending from one territory to another is also applicable to the airside setting of the airport. The airport airside setting itself then becomes a place where people transcend between realms. In that sense, the airside airport context can be understood to be a liminoid place. Liminality, according to Turner (1987), is the ambiguity that occurs during rituals when participants are no longer in the pre-ritual state and are not yet in the state that follows once the ritual is complete (Bigger, 2009). The airport setting has been conceptualized as a liminoid place by a number of authors (Christiansen, 2010; Eriksen & Døving, 1992; Lloyd, 2003). In this vein, passengers have been understood to be "in between" at the airport, namely no longer at their origin but not yet at their destination. Using the terms coined by Gennep (1960), the "rites of passage" contain three phases, namely preliminal (separation), liminal (transition), and postliminal (incorporation). This notion of "rites of passage" has also served as explanation when conceptualizing the transition between home and work roles (Fonner & Stache, 2012). The stay in the airside departures lounge thus can be understood to be a liminal experience relating to the transition phase. As Bigger (2009) points out, the liminal period itself is outside of the official social structure and may even acquire a quasi-structural position of its own (Nippert-Eng, 1996).

In connection with the concept of boundary work, however, this liminoid space at the airport then obtains a new dimension. Passengers are not only in between places physically; they can also be seen to be in between realms of work and home mentally. The concept of boundary work can thus help explain air passengers' food and beverage consumption behaviour in the sense that consumption itself may become a rite of passage in the liminoid space. Not only is the transition between realms facilitated through rituals, these rituals usually also differ whether one is moving from home to work or from work to home. Consumption can now be understood to be part of that mental transition between realms, classified as a behavioural tactic in the terminology suggested by Kreiner, Hollensbe, and Sheep (2006). This understanding is rooted not only in certain food and beverage items' physiological effects, but also "*because of their even more overwhelming symbolic characteristics*" (Nippert-Eng, 1996). Nippert-Eng (1996) furthermore discusses the use of different foods and beverages as part of the mental transition between the home and the work realm. This can now be seen to explain why leisure travellers tend to consume more on their outbound segment whereas business travellers tend to consume more on the inbound segment. In that sense, alcoholic drinks after work for instance have become a common custom in many societies, since they help relax and unwind at the end of a workday. Passengers travelling for business on their way back home (inbound segment) are typically transcending from work to the home realm. In a larger context, the same applies for leisure travellers on the outbound segment. Typically, they are transcending into the non-work or home realm. The concept of boundary work here helps explain what other authors have described as *holiday mood* to serve as explanation for the consumption behaviour of passengers travelling for leisure. Coffee and caffeine beverages, on the other hand, are connected with preparations for serious activities, such as work. When transitioning from home to work, coffee is thus the common choice of drug. The same can be observed with (business) passengers' choice of beverage on outbound segments. Air passengers' consumption behaviour can thus be interpreted in light of the concept of boundary work to be part of their transition from the home to the work realm.

Understanding the airport airside area as a liminoid space and using the concept of boundary work for the transition between home and work (and back again) can thus serve as a frame of reference to help understand the phenomena that were observed and analysed in this study.

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Annex 1 – Data Collection Schedule

Data Collection schedule PhD studies Thorsten Merkle 30.07.15

Wave	Date	Day	Action	Detail	required	To-Do's	Notes:		travel cost	other expenses	cost other
1	01.11.14	Saturday	Travel to STR	ZRH-STR	flight ; accomm	arrange accomm arrange flights	01NOV ZRH-STR // 24NOV STR-ZRH: 113,98€ // fluege.de	Flight booked	113.98 €		
1	02.11.14	Sunday	unstructured observations Staff perspective		notebook iphone	arrange employee access training? Clothes?	01NOV - 03NOV Mövenpick $255,66 // getaroom	Hotel booked	201.88 €		
1	03.11.14	Monday	unstructured observations Staff perspective unstructured observations Passenger perspective travel to ZRH	STR-ZRH	notebook ipad iphone	arrange employee access training? Clothes?	03NOV STR-ZRH // 15NOV ZRH-STR: 103,45€// LTUR 03NOV - 04NOV Radisson ZRH CHF 97,04 // Radisson	flight / Hotel booked	80.20 €	transcripts	50.00 €
Wave	Date	Day	Action	Detail	required	To-Do's	Notes:				
2	15.11.14	Saturday	Travel to STR	ZRH-STR	flight ; accomm	arrange accomm arrange flights	03NOV STR-ZRH // 15NOV ZRH-STR: 92,98€ // fluege.de	flight booked	92.98 €		
2	16.11.14	Sunday	Interviews concession staff		ipad iphone microphone	arrange access to staff	15NOV - 18NOV Mövenpick 300,40€ ÜF // Mövenpick	Hotel booked	300.40 €		
2	17.11.14	Monday	Interviews concession staff Interviews management C. Wöllhaf GastroService interviews management Airport		ipad iphone microphone	arrange access to staff arrange access to management CWGS arrange access to management airport					
2	18.11.14	Tuesday	unstructured observations Passenger perspective travel to ZRH	STR-ZRH	notebook ipad iphone		18NOV STR-ZRH // 22NOV ZRH-STR: 83,98€ // fluege.de	flight booked	83.98 €	transcripts	147.13 €
Wave	Date	Day	Action	Detail	required	To-Do's	Notes:				
3	22.11.14	Saturday	Travel to STR	ZRH-STR	flight ; accomm	arrange accomm arrange flights	18NOV STR-ZRH // 22NOV ZRH-STR: 83,98€ // fluege.de	flight booked			
3	23.11.14	Sunday	interviews passengers		ipad iphone microphone		22NOV - 24NOV Mövenpick 209,4€ ÜF // Mövenpick	Hotel booked	209.40 €		
3	24.11.14	Monday	interviews passengers Backup: Interviews concession staff Interviews management CWGS interviews management Airport interviews passengers (morning) unstructured observations Passenger perspective travel to ZRH		notebook ipad iphone microphone		24NOV - 25NOV Radisson ZRH CHF 187,20 // Radisson 01NOV ZRH-STR // 24NOV STR-ZRH: 113,98€ // fluege.de	Hotel booked flight booked	155.63 €		
Wave	Date	Day	Action	Detail	required	To-Do's	Notes:				
4	30.11.14	Sunday	Travel to STR		ipad iphone microphone		Anreise Bahn 29/11 // 49€ Bahn		49.00 €		
4	01.12.14	Monday	interviews passengers (morning) Focus group (evening) Backup: Interviews concession staff Interviews management CWGS interviews management Airport		ipad iphone microphone videographer conference room thank you vouchers	recruit focus group participants videographer booked arrange conference room arrange vouchers book dinner table	30NOV - 02DEC Mövenpick 238,10€ ÜF // Mövenpick	Hotel booked	238.10 €	Videographer, transcripts, dinner invitation	1'174.05 €
4	02.12.14	Tuesday	interviews passengers (morning) Travel to ZRH		ipad iphone microphone		02DEC STR-ZRH: 64,98€ // fluege.de	flight booked	64.98 €		
Wave	Date	Day	Action	Detail	required	To-Do's	Notes:				
5	12.06.2015 - 24.06.2015		Passenger survey		questionnaires pens collection box staff briefing logistics					printing, pens, collection box, shipping, data entry	644.22 €
									1'590.53 €		2'015.40 €

Total expenses **3'605.93 €**

Annex 2 – Coding Template

Theme - German	Theme - English
F&B Outlet	F&B Outlet
andere Passagiere	other passengers
erwartete höhere Qualität (Heuristik)	expected higher quality (heuristics)
erwartete Wartezeit	expected waiting time
rasche Bedienung	speedy service
Schlangenbildung	queuing
Stossweises Passagieraufkommen	demand in bursts
Angebot	Offer
abwechslungsreiches Angebot	offer rich in variety
aktuelles, trendiges Angebot	current, trendy offer
ansprechend präsentiertes Angebot	attractive presentation of offer
attraktives Angebot	attractive offer
Bier im Angebot	availability of beer
Bio-Angebot	organic offer
breites Angebot	broad offer
Duft	smell
frisches Angebot	fresh offer
gesundes Angebot	healthy offer
Kaffee-Spezialitäten im Angebot	speciality coffee available
lokale Spezialitäten	local specialities
Risiko-Speisen	high risk dishes
Wahrgenommene Qualität des Angebots	perceived quality of offer
warme Speisen im Angebot	hot dishes available
Atmosphäre Outlet	atmosphere of the outlet
Ansprechende Atmosphäre	appealing atmosphere
Aussicht aufs Rollfeld	view onto the tarmac
Entspannte Atmosphäre	relaxing atmosphere
kein Rauchgeruch	absence of smoke
Ruhe	silence
Sauberkeit	cleanliness
Unterhaltung	entertainment
Wohlfühlen	well-being
Automaten	vending-machines
Konzept	concept
authentisches Konzept	authentic concept
Porzellan Service	china service
Lage des Outlets	location of outlet
Lage auf dem Weg zum Gate	located on the way to the gate
Lage ausserhalb des Durchgangsbereichs	not located in the main passageway
Lage in Nähe zum Gate	located nearby the gate
Layout Outlet	layout of outlet
bequeme Möblierung	comfortable furniture
Licht	light
Sitzgelegenheiten	seating accommodation

Steckdosen	power plugs
Verfügbarkeit Raucherbereich	availability of smoking area
Personal	staff
Freundlichkeit Personal	friendliness of staff
Leidenschaft Personal	passion of staff
Professionalität Personal	professionalism of staff
Preis-Leistungsverhältnis	value for money
Flughafen	airport
Atmosphäre Flughafen	atmosphere airport
Atmosphäre als gekapselter Ort	atmosphere as encapsulated place
Atmosphäre aufgrund Architektur	atmosphere due to architecture
Atmosphäre aufgrund Sicherheitskontrollen	atmosphere due to security controls
Gleichförmigeit von Flughäfen	uniformity of airports
interessante Atmosphäre	interesting atmosphere
Informationsbereitstellung im Flughafen	provision of information at the airport
Flugreise	Type of Travel
Art des Flughafen-Aufenthalts	type of stay at airport
Origin-and-Destination Verkehr	origin-and-destination traffic
Transit - Verkehr	transit traffic
Reisetyp	type of trip
erwartete Verpflegung an Bord	expected on board catering
Hinreise	outbound trip
Rückreise	inbound trip
vorhergesehene Flugdauer	expected duration of flight
Passagier	passenger
Einstellungen	attitudes
Einstellungen zu Airside Gastronomie	attitudes towards airside food and beverage
Ablehnung Terminalwechsel für Airside - Gastronomie	refusal to change terminals for airside food and beverage
Airside-Gastronomie muss folgendes bieten	airside food and beverage has to offer the following
die beste Airport-Gastronomie überhaupt	world's best airport food and beverage outlet
Einflussfaktoren bei der Wahl des Outlet	factors influencing outlet choice
Erlebnis Airside - Gastronomie	airside food and beverage as an experience
Genuss braucht Zeit	pleasure takes time
überteuerte Airside - Gastronomie	overpriced airside food and beverage
Einstellungen zu Airside Shopping	attitudes towards airside shopping
Einstellungen zu Dienstleistungsmarken	attitudes towards service brands
Bevorzugung von Marken	preferring service brands
Bevorzugung von Marken bei Kaffee	preferring service brands for coffee
keine Bedeutung von Marken	lack of relevance of service brands
Vermeidung von Marken	avoidance of service brands
Gefühlszustand	emotional state
Angst	fear
beruhigt	relaxed
Durstig	thirsty
Fliegen als etwas Alltägliches	air travel as an ordinary activity
Fliegen als etwas Besonderes	air travel as an extraordinary activity
genervt	irritated
Hungrig	hungry
Nervosität	nervous

Stress	stressed
Unsicherheit	unease / doubtfulness
Unsicherheit bezüglich Dauer der Kontrollen	uncertainty regarding duration of security controls
Urlaubsstimmung	holiday mood
Vorfreude	pleasant anticipation
Herkunft	origin
Kenntnis des Outlets	knowledge about the outlet
Outlet bisher bekannt	outlet previously known
Vorliegen von Empfehlungen zum Outlet	availability of recommendations for an outlet
Mitgeführte Menge an Handgepäck	amount of carry-on lugagge
Passagiertypen	types of passengers
Einzelreisende	single travellers
Ethnischer Verkehr	ethnic tavellers
Familien mit Kindern	families with children
Gruppen	groups
Loungeberechtigte	passengers with lounge access
Gleichförmigkeit von Lounges	uniformity of lounges
Lounges geöffnet	lounges being open
Qualität des Angebots in der Lounge	quality of offer in the lounge
Überfüllte Lounge	crowded lounge
Stammkunden	regular customers
Vielflieger	frequent fliers
Wenigflieger	infrequent fliers
Reisezweck	purpose of travel
Geschäftliche Reise	business related travel
Geschäftsreise	business trip
Pendler	commute
Touristische Reise	touristic related travel
Urlaubsreise	holiday trip
Wochenendreise	weekend trip
verfügbare Zeit	availablel time
Empfundener Zeitdruck	perceived time pressure
Unsicherheit über verfügbare Zeit	uncertainty about available time
Verweilzeit im Airside - Bereich	dwelling time in the airside area
frühzeitig durch die Sicherheitskontrolle	passing thorugh security early
Landside - Konsum	landside consumption
ohne Eile durch die Sicherheitskontrolle	no rush to pass through security
Verhalten im Sicherheitsbereich	behaviour in the airside area
Impulsverhalten	impulse behaviour
Shopping	shopping
Speisen- und Getränkekonsum	food and beverage consumption
Suche nach dem Gate	searching for the gate
Umherschlendern	strolling around
Zeitvertreib	pastime

Annex 3 – Survey Questionnaire

Konsumverhalten am Flughafen

Diese Befragung ist Teil eines Promotionsprojektes an der Britischen University of Gloucestershire und wird in Zusammenarbeit mit der C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH am Flughafen Stuttgart durchgeführt. Alle erhobenen Daten werden anonym und ausschliesslich für Studienzwecke erhoben. Die Teilnahme ist freiwillig. Die Richtlinien des Datenschutzes werden eingehalten. Bitte geben Sie den ausgefüllten Fragebogen an der Kasse ab oder werfen Sie ihn in die vorgesehene Box. Wir bedanken uns für Ihre Teilnahme mit einer kleinen Überraschung. Für Fragen und Anmerkungen wenden Sie sich bitte an den Autor der Studie, Herrn Thorsten Merkle (merkle@merkle.org).

Bitte beantworten Sie folgend einige Fragen zu Ihrer Person und zu Ihrem Reiseverhalten. Vielen Dank!

Verhalten am Flughafen
(1 stimme nicht zu …… 5 stimme voll zu)

Eine Flugreise ist immer wieder etwas Besonderes für mich
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

Nach dem Check-In gehe ich so schnell als möglich durch die Sicherheitskontrollen.
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

Wenn ich fliege, fühle ich mich durch die Prozesse und Kontrollen am Flughafen gestresst.
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

Wenn ich fliege, machen mich die Prozesse und Kontrollen am Flughafen nervös.
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

Wenn ich durch die Sicherheitskontrolle bin, schaue ich zu allererst, wo sich mein Abfluggate befindet.
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

Wenn ich durch die Sicherheitskontrolle bin, schlendere ich gerne durch das Terminal und schaue mich um
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

Wenn ich durch die Sicherheitskontrolle bin, Ich empfinde ich Shopping und Gastronomie als willkommene Abwechslung.
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

Weitere Kommentare: ______________________________

____

____

HOLEN SIE SICH IHRE ÜBERRASCHUNG AN DER KASSE!

Airport Consumption

This survey is part of a PhD project at the University of Gloucestershire (UK) and is conducted in co-operation with C. Wöllhaf GastroService GmbH at Stuttgart Airport. The survey is anonymous and data will only used for this study. Participation is voluntary. The data protection regulations are respected. Please return the completed questionnaire to the cashier. We will reward your participation with a small surprise. For any comments or questions you may have, feel free to contact the author of the study, Mr. Thorsten Merkle (merkle@merkle.org).

Please answer a few questions about your person and your consumption behaviour in airports below.

Thank you very much!

Behaviour at the airport
(1 strongly disagree …… 5 strongly agree)

Travelling by plane is a special occasion for me.
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

After check-in I move through security controls as soon as possible.
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

When I travel by plane, the processes and checks at the airport are stressful for me.
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

When I travel by plane, the processes and checks make me nervous.
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

After passing through security, I immediately see where my departure gate is located.
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

After passing through security, I like wandering through the terminal and looking around.
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

After passing through security, I perceive shopping and food and beverage as a welcome pastime.
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

Further comments: ______________________________

____

____

⇨

GET YOUR SURPRISE AT THE CASH POINT

Konsumverhalten am Flughafen

Verhalten im Sicherheitsbereich
(1 stimme nicht zu …… 5 stimme voll zu)

Vor dem Abflug esse und/oder trinke ich gerne etwas
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

Der Konsum von Speisen und Getränken im Sicherheits-Bereich hilft mir vor Abflug zu entspannen.
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

Wenn ich vor dem Abflug im Sicherheitsbereich etwas esse und/oder trinke, dann mache ich das in der Regel möglichst nahe an meinem Abfluggate.
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

Wenn ich vor dem Abflug im Sicherheitsbereich etwas esse und/oder trinke, dann suche ich ein Outlet, das mir gefällt. Die Entfernung zu meinem Abfluggate ist mir nicht so wichtig
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

Wenn ich vor dem Abflug im Sicherheitsbereich etwas esse und/oder trinke, dann lege ich Wert darauf, bei einer mir bekannten Dienstleistungsmarke zu konsumieren.
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

Gastronomie im Sicherheitsbereich ist attraktiv für mich, wenn sie folgendes bietet:

____

Die Entscheidung, wo ich vor Abflug im Sicherheitsbereich esse und/oder trinke, hängt für mich von Folgendem ab:

____

Demographische Angaben

Alter: _______ Jahre Geschlecht: ☐ M ☐ W

Wie weit war Ihre Anreise zum Flughafen heute in Kilometern? ______ KM

Wie lange vor Abflug (in Stunden) sind Sie am Flughafen angekommen? ______ Std.

Reisen Sie heute mehrheitlich geschäftlich oder privat?
☐ geschäftlich ☐ privat

In welcher Reiseklasse fliegen Sie heute ab Stuttgart?
☐ economy class ☐ business class

Wie viele Abflüge haben Sie in den vergangenen 12 Monaten etwa gemacht?
Ab Stuttgart: ____Flüge Insgesamt: ___ Flüge

Welcher Anteil der Flüge war geschäftlich motiviert (in Prozent): ____ Prozent

HOLEN SIE SICH IHRE ÜBERRASCHUNG AN DER KASSE!

Airport Consumption

Behaviour in the airside area
(1 strongly disagree …… 5 strongly agree)

Prior to departure, I like to go to eat and/or drink something
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

Eating and/or drinking in the airside area helps me to relax prior to departure.
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, I usually do this as close as possible to my departure gate.
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, I look for an outlet I like. The proximity to my departure gate is not as important.
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, it is important for me to consume at an outlet of a service brand I know.
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

Airside food and beverage outlets are attractive to me if they offer the following:

____

The decision, where I go to eat/drink in the airside area for me mainly depends upon the following:

____

Demographic information

Age: _______ years gender: ☐ M ☐ F

How far did you have to travel to the airport today (in kilometres) ______ KM

How far in advance before departure (in hours) did you arrive at the airport? ______ hours

Is the main purpose of your trip business or leisure?
☐ business ☐ leisure

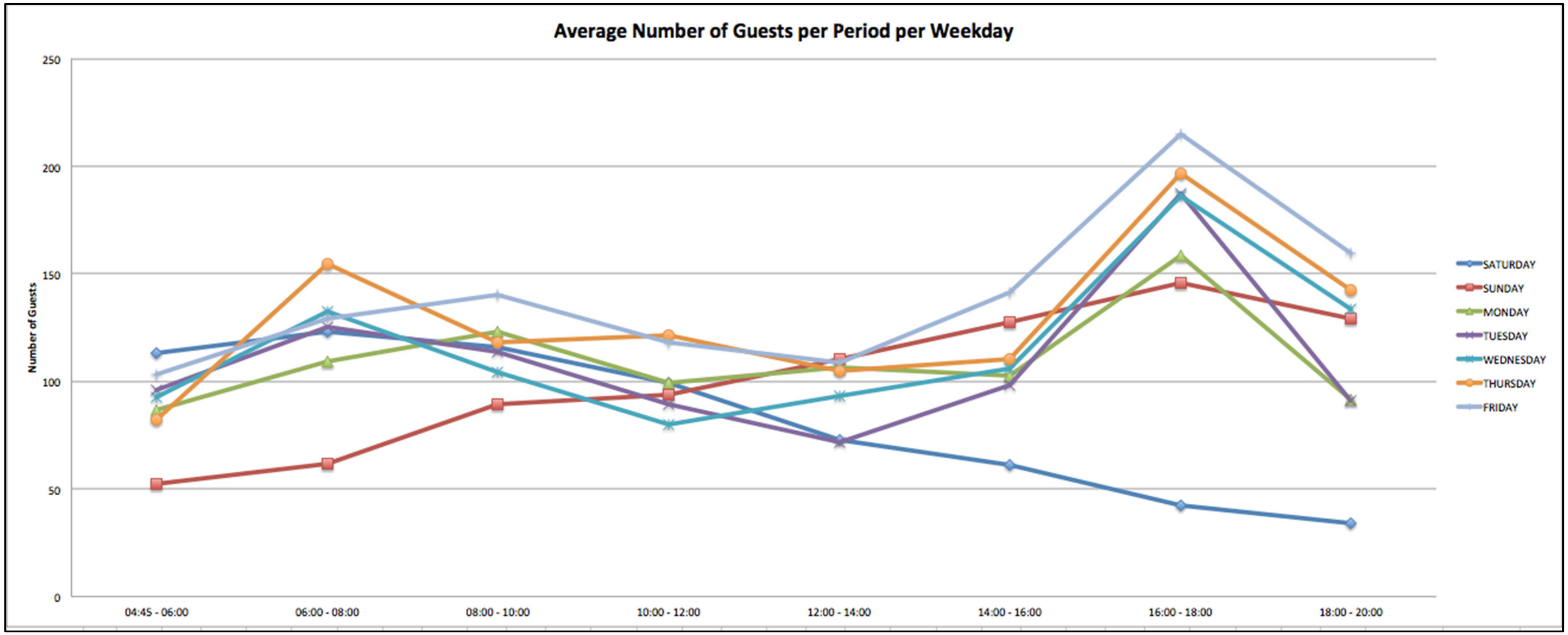
Which is your travel class for the flight from Stuttgart
☐ economy class ☐ business class

How many flights have you approximately had in the past 12 months?
From Stuttgart: ____flights Total: ___ flights

Which part of your flights was for business purposes? (in percent): ____ percent

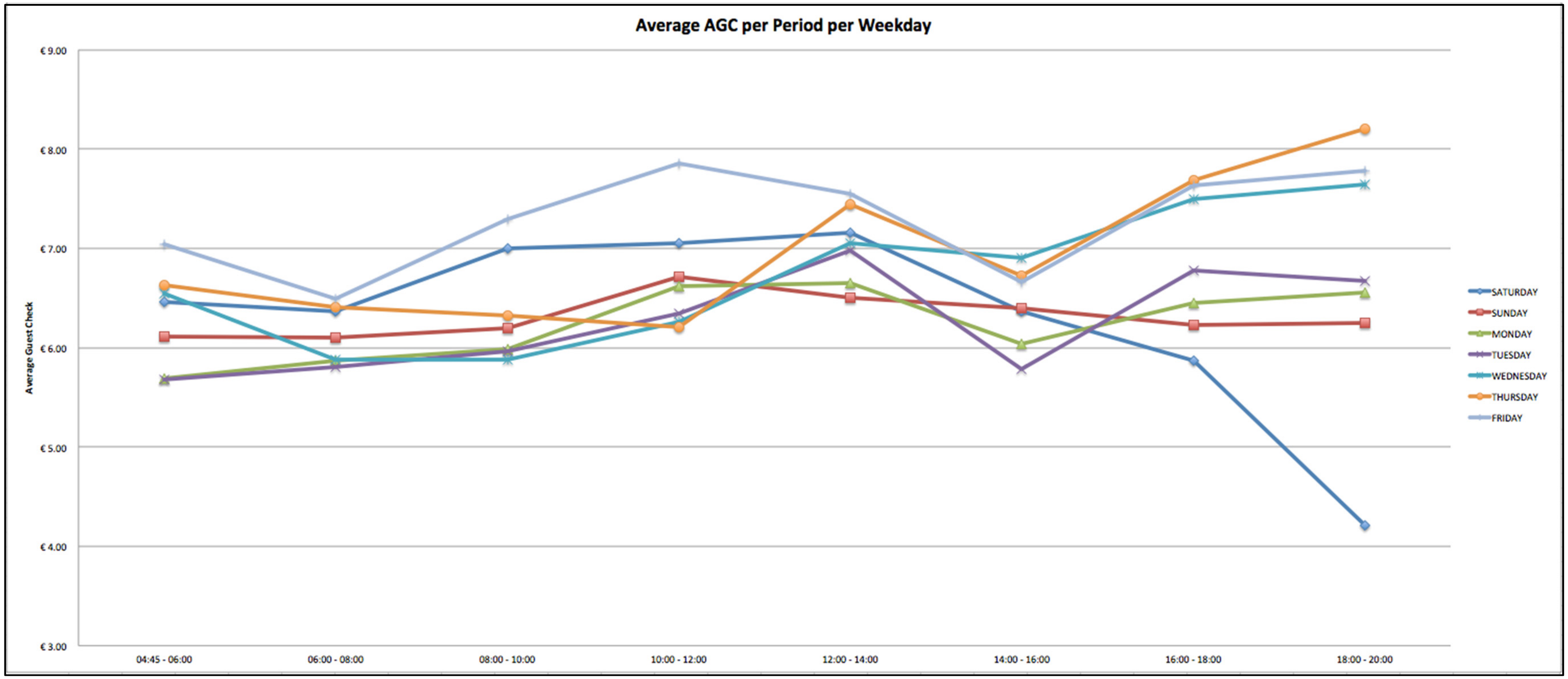
GET YOUR SURPRISE AT THE CASH POINT

Annex 4 – Secondary Data Presentation

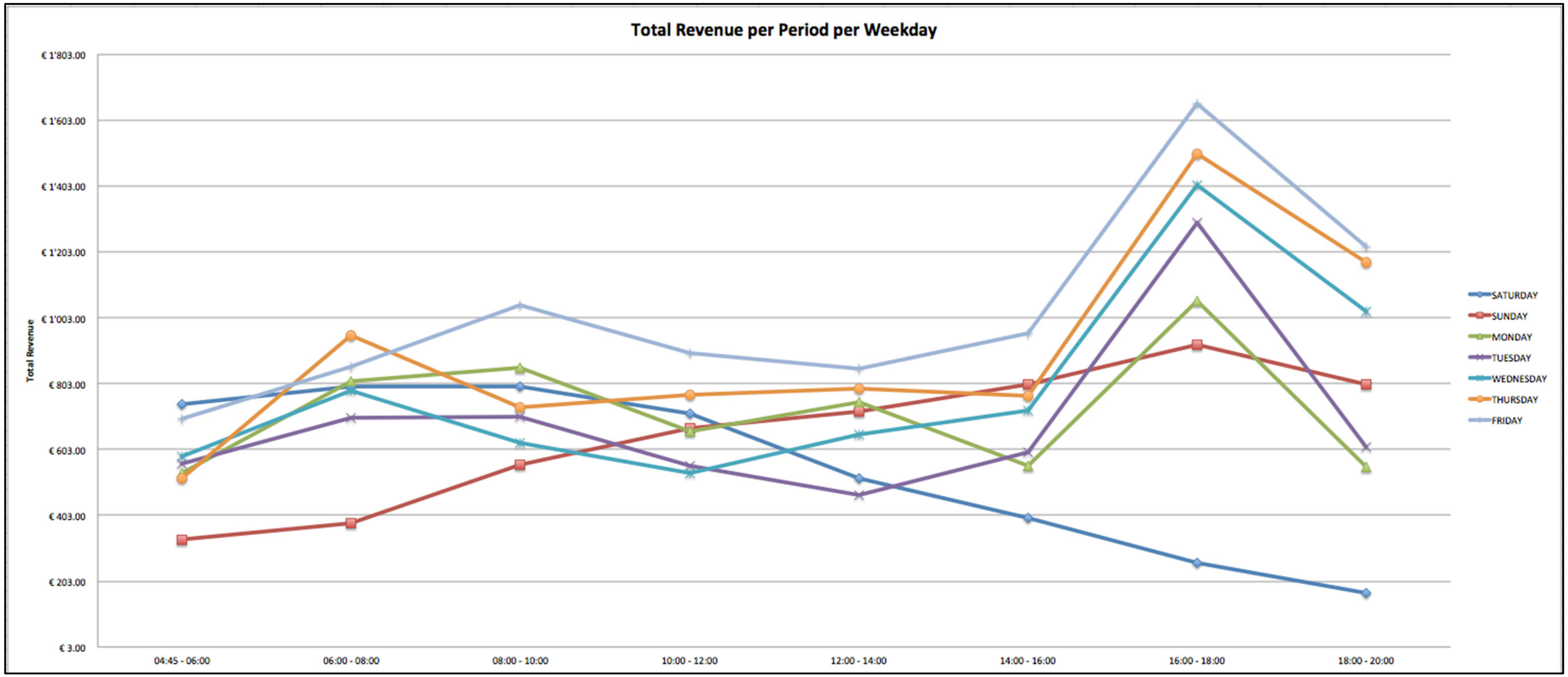


Number of Guest Checks - AIR Bar - November 2014

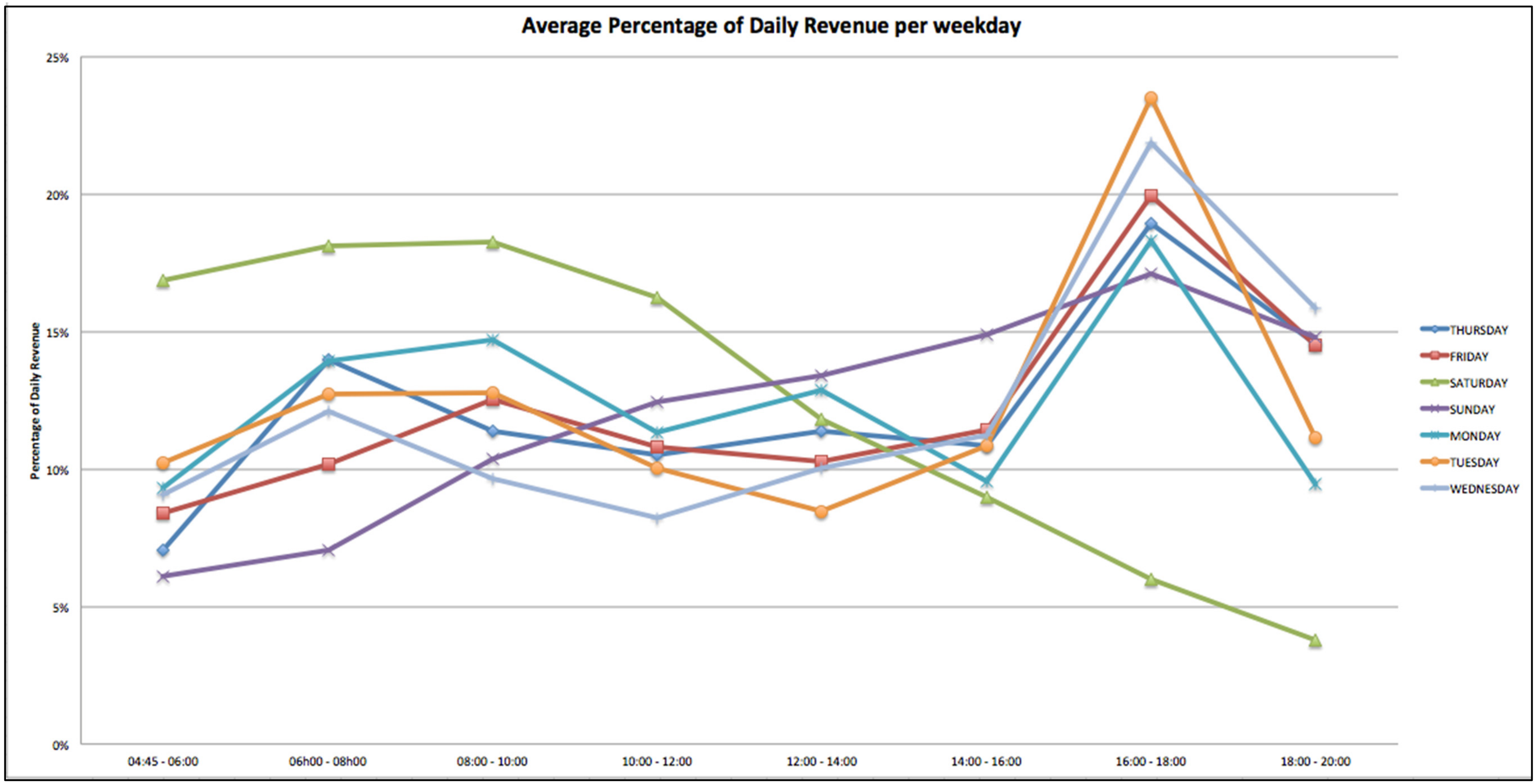
	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY	SATURDAY	SUNDAY
04:45 - 06:00	87	96	93	82	103	113	52
06:00 - 08:00	109	126	133	155	129	123	62
08:00 - 10:00	123	114	105	118	141	116	90
10:00 - 12:00	100	89	80	121	118	99	94
12:00 - 14:00	107	72	93	105	109	73	110
14:00 - 16:00	103	98	106	111	142	61	128
16:00 - 18:00	159	188	186	197	215	42	146
18:00 - 20:00	92	91	134	142	160	34	129



Average Guest Check - AIR Bar - November 2014							
	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY	SATURDAY	SUNDAY
04:45 - 06:00	€ 5.69	€ 5.68	€ 6.55	€ 6.63	€ 7.04	€ 6.46	€ 6.11
06:00 - 08:00	€ 5.87	€ 5.81	€ 5.88	€ 6.41	€ 6.49	€ 6.36	€ 6.10
08:00 - 10:00	€ 5.99	€ 5.97	€ 5.88	€ 6.32	€ 7.30	€ 7.00	€ 6.19
10:00 - 12:00	€ 6.62	€ 6.35	€ 6.26	€ 6.20	€ 7.86	€ 7.05	€ 6.72
12:00 - 14:00	€ 6.65	€ 6.98	€ 7.05	€ 7.44	€ 7.55	€ 7.16	€ 6.50
14:00 - 16:00	€ 6.04	€ 5.79	€ 6.91	€ 6.72	€ 6.66	€ 6.36	€ 6.40
16:00 - 18:00	€ 6.46	€ 6.78	€ 7.49	€ 7.68	€ 7.63	€ 5.87	€ 6.23
18:00 - 20:00	€ 6.55	€ 6.67	€ 7.65	€ 8.21	€ 7.78	€ 4.21	€ 6.25



Total Revenue - AIR Bar - November 2014							
	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY	SATURDAY	SUNDAY
04:45 - 06:00	€ 530.01	€ 560.91	€ 583.02	€ 514.45	€ 695.97	€ 740.07	€ 329.64
06:00 - 08:00	€ 810.51	€ 700.33	€ 780.72	€ 949.53	€ 854.86	€ 794.70	€ 379.18
08:00 - 10:00	€ 850.02	€ 702.18	€ 622.82	€ 732.13	€ 1'041.20	€ 793.60	€ 557.32
10:00 - 12:00	€ 656.65	€ 553.46	€ 529.70	€ 767.48	€ 894.26	€ 712.84	€ 666.37
12:00 - 14:00	€ 746.50	€ 463.48	€ 648.05	€ 786.41	€ 849.49	€ 513.74	€ 718.86
14:00 - 16:00	€ 554.48	€ 595.88	€ 721.54	€ 764.81	€ 956.95	€ 393.69	€ 800.46
16:00 - 18:00	€ 1'054.02	€ 1'291.60	€ 1'407.21	€ 1'501.40	€ 1'653.97	€ 257.69	€ 921.22
18:00 - 20:00	€ 550.34	€ 608.84	€ 1'022.15	€ 1'171.95	€ 1'218.08	€ 167.03	€ 799.12


Average Percentage of Daily Revenue per weekday
25%
20%
15%
10%
5%
0%
Percentage of Daily Revenue
04:45 - 06:00
06h00 - 08h00
08:00 - 10:00
10:00 - 12:00
12:00 - 14:00
14:00 - 16:00
16:00 - 18:00
18:00 - 20:00
THURSDAY
FRIDAY
SATURDAY
SUNDAY
MONDAY
TUESDAY
WEDNESDAY

Percentage of Daily Revenue - AIR Bar - November 2014							
	SATURDAY	SUNDAY	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
04:45 - 06:00	17%	6%	9%	10%	9%	7%	8%
06:00 - 08:00	18%	7%	14%	13%	12%	14%	10%
08:00 - 10:00	18%	10%	15%	13%	10%	11%	13%
10:00 - 12:00	16%	12%	11%	10%	8%	10%	11%
12:00 - 14:00	12%	13%	13%	8%	10%	11%	10%
14:00 - 16:00	9%	15%	10%	11%	11%	11%	11%
16:00 - 18:00	6%	17%	18%	23%	22%	19%	20%
18:00 - 20:00	4%	15%	9%	11%	16%	15%	15%

Annex 5 – Qualitative Data Presentation

Focus group participant classification sheet

segments_2014	segments_STR	% business segments	% private segments	Profession	Distance_STR	Lounge_access	Lounge_used
2	2	0	100	journalist	25	0	0
10	6	100	0	sales executive	60	6	6
10	2	70	30	managing director	40	0	0
6	3	33	67	TQM - Auditor	70	0	0
30	14	95	5	Global Account Director Sales	50	14	14
65	15	0	100	IT - Consultant	12	15	15
6	1	0	100	self-employed business consultant	50	0	0
20	10	80	20	managing director	50	10	10
20	10	80	20	sales director	46	10	8

Concession employee classification sheet

joined company	gender	origin	position
2010	male	Thailand	concession employee
2013	female	Germany	concession employee
2014	female	Thailand	concession employee
2013	female	Germany	concession employee
1998	female	Germany	concession employee
2013	male	Serbia	concession employee
1991	male	Turkey	concession employee
1994	male	Greece	concession employee
1993	male	Cambodia	concession employee

Matrix coding – focus group participants mentioning of nervousness and stress main purpose of travel

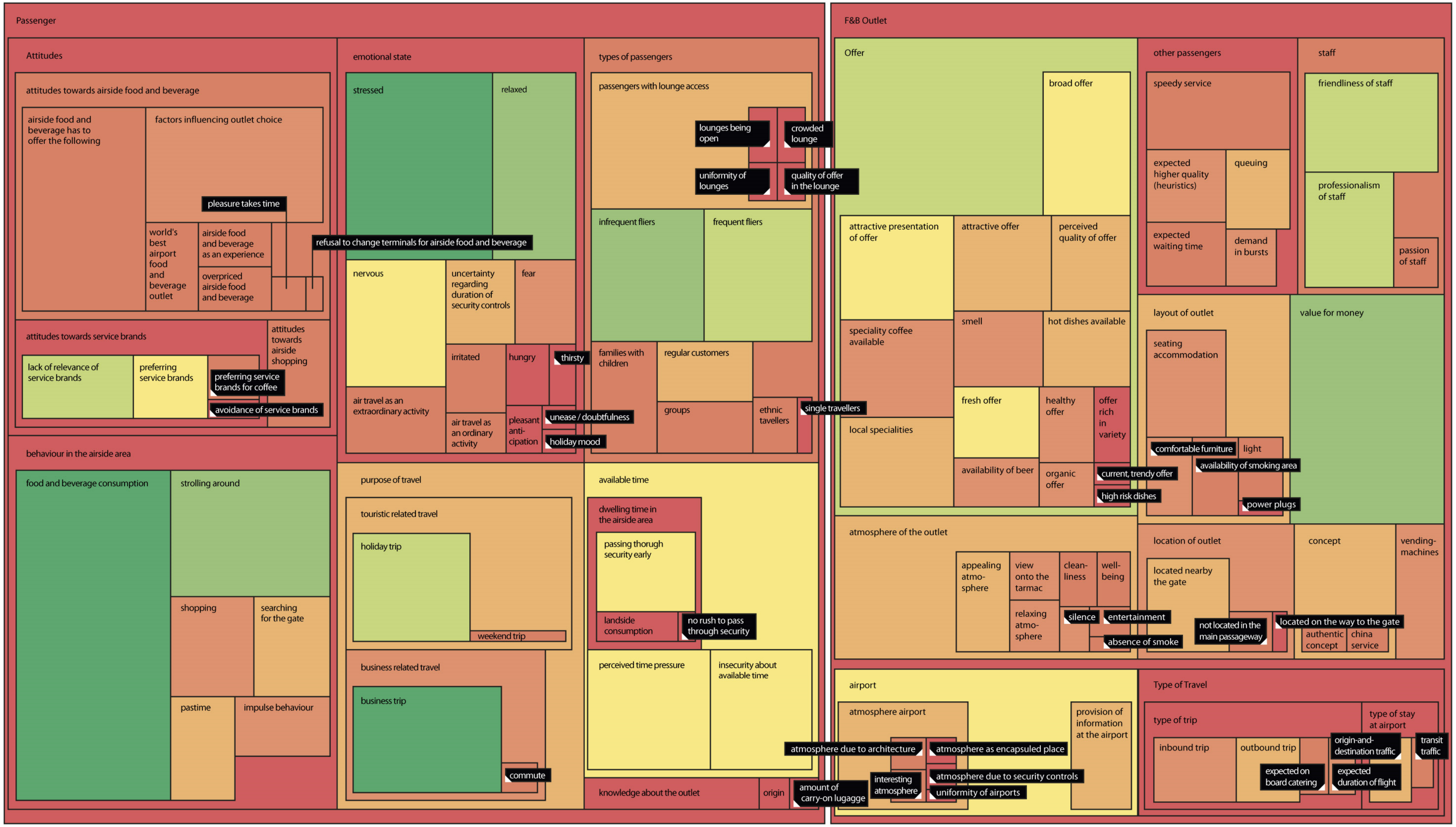
	A : nervousness	B : stress
1 : Person:business segments < 50%	3	4
2 : Person:business segments >= 50%	1	4

NVivo source summary

Document	Number of Words in Source	Number of Paragraphs in Source	Number of Nodes Coding Source	Number of Text References
Internals\\Interviews\\Passengers\\Passenger_Data	391	120	38	164
Internals\\FocusGroup\\Aufzeichnung_Focus Group Discussion_2014_fin	11355	315	105	639
Internals\\Interviews\\AirportManagement\\TM_SCHO_fin	10576	57	74	176
Internals\\Interviews\\CatererManagement\\09_TM_SEIT_fin	1543	35	30	56
Internals\\Interviews\\CatererManagement\\TM_CW_fin	1815	45	27	60
Internals\\Interviews\\Staff\\01TM_THEO_fin	1791	65	22	56
Internals\\Interviews\\Staff\\02TM_SRED_fin	1707	43	26	64
Internals\\Interviews\\Staff\\03TM_HAGE_fin	778	43	15	39
Internals\\Interviews\\Staff\\04TM_TOP_fin	1630	48	29	68
Internals\\Interviews\\Staff\\05TM_BUI_fin	1529	37	25	53
Internals\\Interviews\\Staff\\06_TM_HAS_fin	455	45	8	27
Internals\\Interviews\\Staff\\07_TM_TAB_fin	874	47	21	56

Document	Number of Words in Source	Number of Paragraphs in Source	Number of Nodes Coding Source	Number of Text References
Internals\\Interviews\\Staff\\08_TM_SCHW_fin	1686	43	32	66
Internals\\Interviews\\Staff\\10_TM_HOCH_fin	1398	49	25	59
Internals\\Observations\\Passenger Perspective\\01Observations_passenger_perspective_STR_20141103	990	7	19	34
Internals\\Observations\\Passenger Perspective\\01Observations_passenger_perspective_STR_20141117	880	7	14	26
Internals\\Observations\\Passenger Perspective\\01Observations_passenger_perspective_STR_20141202	621	7	9	18
Internals\\Observations\\Staff Perspective\\01Observations_staff_perspective_STR_20141102	2605	24	34	96
Internals\\Observations\\Staff Perspective\\01Observations_staff_perspective_STR_20141103	2196	7	25	62

NVivo coding by node graphic



Annex 6 – Survey Data Presentation

Descriptives

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
How far did you have to travel to the airport today (in kilometres)	242	0	420	49.95	49.969
How far in advance before departure (in hours) did you arrive at the airport?	259	.20	5,00	1.9604	.84891
How many flights have you approximately had in the past 12 months from Stuttgart?	243	0	78	6.03	10.537
How many flights have you approximately had in the past 12 months in total?	214	0	100	12.70	18.781
Which part of your flights was for business purposes? (in percent):	225	.0	100.0	35.627	39.7296
Age	268	12	73	37.35	13.266
Valid N (listwise)	176				

Frequency tables

language

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 German	289	89.8	89.8	89.8
	2 English	33	10.2	10.2	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

Travelling by plane is a special occasion for me.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 strongly disagree	57	17.7	18.0	18.0
	2 disagree	51	15.8	16.1	34.2
	3 neutral	60	18.6	19.0	53.2
	4 agree	54	16.8	17.1	70.3
	5 strongly agree	94	29.2	29.7	100.0
	Total	316	98.1	100.0	
Missing	System	6	1.9		
Total		322	100.0		

After check-in I move through security controls as soon as possible.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 strongly disagree	34	10.6	10.8	10.8
	2 disagree	42	13.0	13.3	24.1
	3 neutral	57	17.7	18.1	42.2
	4 agree	79	24.5	25.1	67.3
	5 strongly agree	103	32.0	32.7	100.0
	Total	315	97.8	100.0	
Missing	System	7	2.2		
Total		322	100,0		

When I travel by plane, the processes and checks at the airport are stressful for me.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 strongly disagree	57	17.7	18.2	18.2
	2 disagree	79	24.5	25.2	43.3
	3 neutral	87	27.0	27.7	71.0
	4 agree	45	14.0	14.3	85.4
	5 strongly agree	46	14.3	14.6	100.0
	Total	314	97.5	100.0	
Missing	System	8	2.5		
Total		322	100,0		

When I travel by plane, the processes and checks make me nervous.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 strongly disagree	103	32.0	32.8	32.8
	2 disagree	83	25.8	26.4	59.2
	3 neutral	52	16.1	16.6	75.8
	4 agree	42	13.0	13.4	89.2
	5 strongly agree	34	10.6	10.8	100.0
	Total	314	97.5	100.0	
Missing	System	8	2.5		
Total		322	100,0		

After passing through security, I immediately see where my departure gate is located.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 strongly disagree	33	10.2	10.5	10.5
	2 disagree	34	10.6	10.9	21.4
	3 neutral	45	14.0	14.4	35.8
	4 agree	68	21.1	21.7	57.5
	5 strongly agree	133	41.3	42.5	100.0
	Total	313	97.2	100.0	
Missing	System	9	2.8		
Total		322	100,0		

After passing through security, I like wandering through the terminal and looking around.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 strongly disagree	39	12.1	12.5	12.5
	2 disagree	45	14.0	14.4	26.9
	3 neutral	59	18.3	18.9	45.8
	4 agree	79	24.5	25.3	71.2
	5 strongly agree	90	28.0	28.8	100.0
	Total	312	96.9	100.0	
Missing	System	10	3.1		
Total		322	100,0		

After passing through security, I perceive shopping and food and beverage as a welcome pastime.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 strongly disagree	29	9.0	9.3	9.3
	2 disagree	56	17.4	17.9	27.2
	3 neutral	59	18.3	18.8	46.0
	4 agree	84	26.1	26.8	72.8
	5 strongly agree	85	26.4	27.2	100.0
	Total	313	97.2	100.0	
Missing	System	9	2.8		
Total		322	100.0		

Prior to departure, I like to go to eat and/or drink something

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 strongly disagree	26	8.1	8.5	8.5
	2 disagree	37	11.5	12.1	20.7
	3 neutral	56	17.4	18.4	39.0
	4 agree	92	28.6	30.2	69.2
	5 strongly agree	94	29.2	30.8	100.0
	Total	305	94.7	100.0	
Missing	System	17	5.3		
Total		322	100.0		

Eating and/or drinking in the airside area helps me to relax prior to departure.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 strongly disagree	45	14.0	14.8	14.8
	2 disagree	64	19.9	21.0	35.7
	3 neutral	75	23.3	24.6	60.3
	4 agree	64	19.9	21.0	81.3
	5 strongly agree	57	17.7	18.7	100.0
	Total	305	94.7	100.0	
Missing	System	17	5.3		
Total		322	100.0		

When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, I usually do this as close as possible to my departure gate.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 strongly disagree	31	9.6	10.3	10.3
	2 disagree	39	12.1	12.9	23.2
	3 neutral	73	22.7	24.2	47.4
	4 agree	79	24.5	26.2	73.5
	5 strongly agree	80	24.8	26.5	100.0
	Total	302	93.8	100.0	
Missing	System	20	6.2		
Total		322	100.0		

When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, proximity to gate is more important for the outlet choice than outlet attractiveness

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 strongly disagree	59	18.3	19.7	19.7
	2 disagree	57	17.7	19.1	38.8
	3 neutral	58	18.0	19.4	58.2
	4 agree	68	21.1	22.7	80.9
	5 strongly agree	57	17.7	19.1	100.0
	Total	299	92.9	100.0	
Missing	System	23	7.1		
Total		322	100.0		

When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, it is important for me to consume at an outlet of a service brand I know.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 strongly disagree	89	27.6	29.2	29.2
	2 disagree	67	20.8	22.0	51.1
	3 neutral	69	21.4	22.6	73.8
	4 agree	36	11.2	11.8	85.6
	5 strongly agree	44	13.7	14.4	100.0
	Total	305	94.7	100.0	
Missing	System	17	5.3		
Total		322	100.0		

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 male	173	53.7	57.9	57.9
	2 female	126	39.1	42.1	100.0
	Total	299	92.9	100.0	
Missing	System	23	7.1		
Total		322	100.0		

Is the main purpose of your trip business or leisure?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 business	115	35.7	41.2	41.2
	2 leisure	164	50.9	58.8	100.0
	Total	279	86.6	100.0	
Missing	System	43	13.4		
Total		322	100.0		

Which is your travel class for the flight from Stuttgart

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 economy class	232	72.0	84.1	84.1
	2 business class	44	13.7	15.9	100.0
	Total	276	85.7	100.0	
Missing	System	46	14.3		
Total		322	100.0		

responses to open questions

Q_9: Further comments:

Q9_comment: too expensive

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0 no	314	97.5	97.5	97.5
	1 yes	8	2.5	2.5	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

Q9_comment: other

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0 no	303	94.1	94.1	94.1
	1 yes	19	5.9	5.9	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

Q_15: Airside food and beverage outlets are attractive to me if they offer the following:

price-related comment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0 no	281	87.3	87.3	87.3
	1 yes	41	12.7	12.7	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

offering-related comment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0 no	235	73.0	73.0	73.0
	1 yes	87	27.0	27.0	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

outlet layout/attractiveness-related comment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0 no	293	91.0	91.0	91.0
	1 yes	29	9.0	9.0	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

speed and friendliness of service related comment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0 no	310	96.3	96.3	96.3
	1 yes	12	3.7	3.7	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

Q_16: The decision, where I go to eat/drink in the airside area for me mainly depends upon the following:

price-related comment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0 no	287	89.1	89.1	89.1
	1 yes	35	10.9	10.9	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

offering-related comment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0 no	293	91.0	91.0	91.0
	1 yes	29	9.0	9.0	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

outlet layout/attractiveness-related comment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0 no	288	89.4	89.4	89.4
	1 yes	34	10.6	10.6	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

speed and friendliness of service related comment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0 no	307	95.3	95.3	95.3
	1 yes	15	4.7	4.7	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

distance to gate related comment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0 no	314	97.5	97.5	97.5
	1 yes	8	2.5	2.5	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

time related comment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0 no	287	89.1	89.1	89.1
	1 yes	35	10.9	10.9	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

Further tests relating to the testing of propositions:

2.4 Food service brands are a factor influencing patronage intentions for younger travellers.

Correlations

		When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, it is important for me to consume at an outlet of a service brand I know.	Age
When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, it is important for me to consume at an outlet of a service brand I know.	Pearson Correlation	1	-.066
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.280
	N	305	267
Age	Pearson Correlation	-.066	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.280	
	N	267	268

3.1 Business travellers fly more often than leisure travellers.

Group Statistics

	Is the main purpose of your trip business or leisure?	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
How many flights have you approximately had in the past 12 months in total?	1 business	88	23,41	23,293	2,483
	2 leisure	123	5,18	9,288	,837

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
How many flights have you approximately had in the past 12 months in total?	Equal variances assumed	82,992	,000	7,856	209	,000	18,230	2,320	13,656	22,805
	Equal variances not assumed			6,957	106,931	,000	18,230	2,620	13,035	23,425

3.2 Leisure travellers are more likely to perceive air travel as a special occasion than business travellers.

Group Statistics

	Is the main purpose of your trip business or leisure?	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Travelling by plane is a special occasion for me.	1 business	112	2,71	1,448	,137
	2 leisure	162	3,64	1,359	,107

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Travelling by plane is a special occasion for me.	Equal variances assumed	,881	,349	-5,370	272	,000	-,922	,172	-1,259	-,584
	Equal variances not assumed			-5,308	228,849	,000	-,922	,174	-1,264	-,579

3.3 Leisure passengers are more likely to experience airside stress and nervousness.

Group Statistics

	Is the main purpose of your trip business or leisure?	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
When I travel by plane, the processes and checks at the airport are stressful for me.	1 business	111	2,95	1,341	,127
	2 leisure	161	2,73	1,254	,099
When I travel by plane, the processes and checks make me nervous.	1 business	111	2,33	1,323	,126
	2 leisure	161	2,44	1,350	,106

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
When I travel by plane, the processes and checks at the airport are stressful for me.	Equal variances assumed	,887	,347	1,339	270	,182	,213	,159	-,100	,526
	Equal variances not assumed			1,322	226,141	,187	,213	,161	-,104	,530
When I travel by plane, the processes and checks make me nervous.	Equal variances assumed	,283	,595	-,652	270	,515	-,108	,165	-,433	,218
	Equal variances not assumed			-,654	239,668	,514	-,108	,165	-,432	,217

3.7 More experienced travellers are more willing to move away from their departure gate and look for an outlet they perceive to be attractive.

Correlations

		When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, I look for an outlet I like. The proximity to my departure gate is not as important.	How many flights have you approximately had in the past 12 months in total?
When I go to eat and/or drink something in the airside area, I look for an outlet I like. The proximity to my departure gate is not as important.	Pearson Correlation	1	.195**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.005
	N	299	209
How many flights have you approximately had in the past 12 months in total?	Pearson Correlation	.195**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	
	N	209	214

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Annex 7 – Exemplary Employee Interview Transcript

Teilnehmer 2, männlich	Participant 2, male
I: Das hier lasse ich einfach mitlaufen, das ist ein Aufzeichnungsgerät, falls mir da was kaputtgeht, okay?	I: I'll just leave this switched on – it's a recorder – just in case something goes wrong, okay?
B: Ja, sicherheitshalber, okay.	B: Yeah, to be on the safe side. Okay.
I: Ich habe mir da so einen kleinen Leitfaden gemacht, darf ich? Halb strukturiert. Ist es okay, wenn ich dich per du anspreche?	I: I've made a little guide for myself, is that alright? It's loosely structured. Is it okay for me to address you informally?
B: Ja, natürlich.	B: Yeah, of course.
I: Kannst du mir sagen, wie sieht für dich so ein typischer Arbeitstag aus? Was passiert, wenn du zur Arbeit kommst?	I: Can you tell me what a typical day looks like for you? What happens when you get to work?
B: Ja, also erst mal fangen wir natürlich an, hier die ganze Vorbereitung für den Arbeitsplatz, also aufbauen, hinstellen, dekorieren, vorbereiten halt das Ganze. Zum Ablauf bringen, dass wir	B: Yeah. Well, first of all of course we start by prepping the work area – setting up, positioning, decorating, just preparing everything. We just get things going so that afterwards we can basically just start serving the guests, you know, in the area. Drinks,

nachher praktisch einfach nur anfangen können, um die Gäste dann zu bedienen, in dem Bereich halt. Getränke, Speisen, je nachdem, alles was halt gefordert wird, gebraucht wird.

I: Gibt es besondere Herausforderungen, weil wir uns im Airportbereich befinden, ist da irgendetwas schwieriger oder herausfordernder, als wenn wir jetzt draußen wären mit einer Gastronomie?

B: Nein, nicht wirklich schwieriger. Also ich finde es zum Teil auch leichter oder einfacher, weil es einfach schon Gastronomiebereich ist, aber nicht dieser Gastronomiebereich, wie wir ihn sonst normal kennen, also mit Bedienung, mit Service, mit Hinbringen, mit Abräumen und so Sachen, das gibt es halt hier nicht bei uns. Es ist einfach, man stellt sich da vorne hin, natürlich wird der Gast bedient, was er wünscht, was er haben möchte, bekommt er dann auch, wird aber halt auch gleich direkt abkassiert alles und somit

food, whatever; anything people want or need.

I: Are there particular challenges because we're inside the airport? Does it make anything more difficult or challenging than it would be in the restaurant trade elsewhere?

B: No, not more difficult, really. In some ways, I actually find it easier, more straightforward, – because it is a kind of restaurant, but not the kind of restaurant we're normally used to with service, bringing food to the tables, clearing tables and so on. We don't have that here. It's easy. You stand out the front and of course you serve the guest and they get what they want, but then they pay straight away and you don't have anything more to do with that particular guest. From our side, that's it in terms of service.

haben wir dann gar nichts mehr mit dem Gast zu tun. Das ist die Sache dann von unserer Seite aus, vom Service.

I: Jetzt haben wir ja, wenn ich mich so umgucke, verschiedenste Passagiere, also Privatreisende, geschäftlich Reisende. Verhalten die sich grundsätzlich anders? Gibt es einen Unterschied zwischen Privat und …?

B: Sagen wir es mal so, ja, also es gibt schon Unterschiede. Der Geschäftsreisende, der ist natürlich oft unterwegs oder viel, halt auch in dem Sinne bei uns. Also wir haben auch viele Geschäftsreisende, die wir regelmäßig sehen. Ja, die wissen halt, wie der Ablauf hier ist, was hier los ist und die kommen halt, die machen auch kein jetzt irgendwie großes Theater oder unter Zeitdruck oder so, die wissen, okay, so und so viel Zeit habe, muss ich einplanen und ja, der kriegt halt sein Getränk, sein Frühstück oder wie auch immer und dann ist das erledigt. Wobei dann Privatreisende natürlich anders sind. Die sind dann hier drin und für

I: At the moment, if I look around, we have a range of very different passengers here – private travellers, business men and women. Do they behave fundamentally differently? Is there a difference between private and …?

B: Put it this way, yeah, there are differences. Business travellers obviously travel a lot; they're here with us a lot, I mean. So there are lots of business travellers that we see regularly. Yeah, they know how things work here, what happens, and so they come and they don't kick up a big fuss or make like they're pressed for time or whatever. They know, like, I have this much time, I have to plan it in, and yeah, they get their drink, their breakfast or whatever, and it's all good. But private travellers are different, of course. They come in here and for them the situation is so tense and stressful that, although they've already handed their luggage in and die ist dann die Situation so dermaßen unentspannt oder stressig, dass sie, obwohl sie Koffer und alles schon abgegeben haben, trotzdem irgendwie unter Zeitdruck stehen die ganze Zeit - warum auch immer, weiß ich nicht – also es ist allen ein Rätsel hier, warum das so ist, aber die sind völlig unentspannt, also die Privatfliegenden und ja, warum und dies und jenes und es dauert alles zu lange. Es ist manchmal schon, ja, man muss sich schon überlegen oder denken, was ist eigentlich das Problem, wir haben doch jetzt alle Zeit der Welt hier, also mindestens zwei Stunden Zeit, aber trotz allem sind die Leute völlig unentspannt. Sie sind gestresst. Nur bis dann wahrscheinlich der Check-in ist oder wie sie dann halt reingehen und dann ist Entspannung, dann ist alles gut.

stuff, they still always seem to be under time pressure – I have no idea why. So it’s a mystery to everyone here why it is, but they're very tense, the private travellers, and they want to know why this and why that and they say it’s all taking too long. And sometimes, sometimes you just have to wonder what the problem actually is. After all, we have all the time in the world here – well, at least two hours – but even so, these people are very tense and stressed. It’s probably only once it’s check in or they finally board, then they relax and it's all okay.

I: Was macht man in so einem Fall, wenn so ein unentspannter Gast kommt, oder…?

I: What do you do if a stressed guest like this comes in or…?

B: Auf jeden Fall erst mal ganz entspannt die Sache auch angehen, Ruhe bewahren, jetzt nicht groß aus

B: Always approach the situation in a relaxed manner and stay calm. We definitely don’t get on our high horse sich raus kommen und sagen, also wir können ja auch nichts dafür, dass die Leute sich nicht – oder wenn sie reinkommen – dass die Leute so genervt sind oder gestresst und unentspannt sind. Da muss man einfach mal ein Witz rüberbringen oder einfach mal nett sein oder eine Geste oder das sie einfach auch mal abgelenkt werden von dem Ganzen, ihrem eigenen Stress oder so was, was sie dann haben.

and say that we can't help it if people don't – or when they come in – if people are so stressed and tense. In that case you have to joke around a bit or just be friendly or offer a kind gesture or try to distract them from the whole situation, from their stress or whatever it is that's bothering them.

I: Und wenn wir jetzt ans Konsumieren denken – Privatreisende, Geschäftsreisende – konsumieren die andere Dinge oder ist das, was die jetzt bei euch kaufen eigentlich…

I: And if we take a moment to think about what they order – private travellers, business travellers – do they order different things or is it actually…

B: Es kommt drauf an zu welcher Tageszeit. Also meistens morgens macht das keinen Unterschied groß. Dann geht da einfach Kaffee und irgendein Stückchen dazu, je nachdem, verschiedene Kaffeesorten oder halt verschiedene Stückchen dazu. Morgens früh sag ich mal, dann klar über den Tag hinaus ändert sich die ganze Sache. Später kommen auch gar nicht mehr

B: It depends on the time of day. In the morning, there isn't usually much of a difference. Then it's just coffee and a little something with it, depending – different kinds of coffee or, you know, different snacks. That's early in the morning. Then, of course, throughout the day it varies dramatically. Later on, there aren't nearly as many business travellers because they usually travel in the so viele Geschäftsreisende, weil die sind ja eher dann morgens unterwegs und bis zu einem gewissen Zeitpunkt – also im Normalfall, wie es bei uns so ist – ist das nur bis neun Uhr, sind die unterwegs und danach ist eh ruhig dann, also vereinzelte noch, aber dann sind ja die Privatreisenden da und da wird halt alles ausgekostet, was wir da praktisch anbieten. Vom Sandwich bis Brezel bis Wiener oder Weißwürste, also wirklich alles, was halt da ist, machen wir dann.

morning and only up until a certain time of day – normally, in our case, they're only here until about nine o' clock and it gets quiet after that, with just a few guests; but by then the private travellers have arrived and they basically try out everything that we have to offer – from sandwiches to pretzels to wieners or veal sausages; we really have to prepare everything we have on offer then.

I: Und denkst du ihr habt das richtige Angebot oder fehlt da was, was die Leute dann wollen?

I: And do you think you have the right offering or is there anything missing that people want?

B: Nein, finde ich nicht, im Gegenteil, wir haben schon genug Auswahl, zu viel wäre natürlich auch nicht das Gute, weil sonst stehen sie ja da und wissen selber nicht mehr was oder wie und noch mehr und da finde ich ist es ganz gut, es sind ja zum größten Teil die Sachen wirklich, die wo weggehen, also Brezel, Croissant oder so, diese Sachen. Die gehen ja meistens dann auch weg. Natürlich gibt es auch viele, die da sind und die

B: No, I don't think so. On the contrary, we have a large enough selection already. Too much wouldn't be good either or they'd just stand there not knowing what's what; so I think it's absolutely fine the way it is. On the whole, we've got the things that sell – pretzels, croissants and so on, that kind of stuff. And they normally all go, as well. Of course, there are also plenty of people who look at the prices first and think, "Oh, sich erst mal den Preis angucken und denken, oh, doch schon ein bisschen teurer als draußen, aber es geht schon. Also wirklich, das was wir da haben, geht auch relativ viel weg. Was hier angeboten wird, ist schon genug, doch.

that's a bit more expensive than outside," but it works. So really, the range we have, most of it goes. What we offer is enough, yeah.

I: Jetzt gibt es in vielen oder einige Flughäfen haben jetzt auch schon Dienstleistungsmarken wie Burger King oder McDonalds im Sicherheitsbereich, hier in Stuttgart sind ja keine Marken da. Fehlt es oder ist das ein Thema?

I: In a lot of airports now… or some airports now also have brands like Burger King and McDonalds within the secure area. Here in Stuttgart, there aren't any brands. Is that a problem or is it not an issue?

B: Nein, gar nicht, überhaupt nicht. Also es kommt vereinzelt mal eine Anfrage: „Burger King, war der nicht" – „Ja nee, den haben wir halt draußen, also nicht mehr im Sicherheitsbereich". Aber ansonsten nein, also da fragen die Leute gar nicht großartig nach. Wenn Kinder mit dabei sind, die wollen natürlich auch – solche, die auf Burger stehen und so – dann ist das was anderes, aber ansonsten nicht, gar nicht.

B: No, it's not, not at all. So sometimes you get the odd request, "Isn't there a Burger King?" – "No, we only have them outside, not in the secure area." But otherwise, no, people don't ask about it very often. If they have children with them – the kind that insist on burgers – then of course it's a bit different, but otherwise, not at all.

I: Fliegst du selbst ab und zu von

I: Do you fly from Stuttgart yourself

Stuttgart?

from time to time?

B: Ja, ich bin schon mal geflogen, also nicht oft, aber ich bin auch schon geflogen.

B: Yeah, I have flown a few times. Not often, but I have flown before.

I: Und dann, nach der Sicherheitskontrolle, auch was konsumieren, oder?

I: And when you do, after security, you have a bit of something, do you?

B: Ja natürlich, schon.

B: Yeah, of course.

I: Und du selbst, wie würdest du jetzt auswählen, wo du konsumierst, also jetzt haben wir ja hier eine Stück Anzahl Bars und Outlets.

I: And you yourself, how would you choose where to go to have something – we have quite a selection of bars and outlets here now.

B: Ja natürlich, da geht man schon – also ich persönlich muss sagen klar, ich gehe – oder was viele dann auch machen ist, die kommen natürlich rein und laufen hier erst mal Richtung hoch und wieder runter und gucken sich das mal an, was angeboten wird, wo, wie viel was kostet, wobei die Preise hier gar nicht so große Unterschiede haben. Die eine von der anderen Bar, aber natürlich schaut man sich um, also man hat ja die Zeit auch und dann schaut man es sich halt an und sagt okay und

B: Yeah, of course, you go there – I mean at least for me personally, of course I go there. But what a lot of people do is, they come in, and first of all they go up and then down again and have a look at what's on offer, where, and what it costs, although the prices here don't vary much one bar from another. But of course you look around – you've got the time anyway – so you look around and then you go, "Okay," and decide on the offering somewhere, some bar or other, and you go and get something entscheidet sich dann irgendwo für ein Angebot, irgendeine Bar, um sich was zu holen oder zu kaufen.

or buy something.

I: Das ist auch als Zeitvertreib, so ein Stück weit.

I: To some extent, it's also a way to while away the time.

B: Genau, zum Gucken, natürlich, ja.

B: Exactly, looking around. Of course. Yeah.

I: Wenn ich jetzt die Leute angucke, kannst du oder könnt ihr als Mitarbeiter einschätzen, ob einer jetzt kommt und was kauft? Sieht man das den Leuten an?

I: If I look at the people now, can you as employees judge whether someone is going to come in and buy something? Can you see that in people?

B: Ja, weil viele zum größten Teil erst mal kurz davor stehen bleiben, also vorher, nicht direkt bei uns am Verkaufsstand, sondern ein paar Meter weiter weg, schauen sie sich natürlich das Angebot an, was wir haben. Wir haben auch das Glück, dass wir das präsentieren können, man sieht es ja auch, also es ist schon groß aufgebaut. Aber man merkt den Gästen schon an, dass sie herkommen wollen und dann auf jeden Fall was mitnehmen. Und sei es nur ein Kaffee oder ein Stück Brezel oder Croissant oder irgendwas halt, ein Kuchenstück oder so.

B: Yeah, because in most cases, they first stop a little way from the shop and stand there for a while, rather than coming directly to us at the sales counter – they stand a few metres off, have a look at what's on offer, what's available. We're also lucky enough to be able to set it out – you can see it, the setup is nice and big. But you can pick out the guests who want to come here and then they'll definitely buy something. Even if it's just a coffee and a pretzel or a croissant or something else – a piece of cake or something.

I: Das sieht man den Leuten schon an, wie sie sich da bewegen dann.

B: Ja, ja.

I: Jetzt sind wir ja in diesem Sicherheitsbereich, nach der Kontrolle. Sind die Leute irgendwie gestresst oder wenn die hier ankommen oder aufgeregt? Wie empfindet ihr das?

B: Ja, also, gestresst, ja. Was ich vorher ja auch schon gesagt habe, irgendwie sind die völlig unentspannt. Dass sie trotz allem Angst haben, den Flieger zu verpassen, obwohl ab hier drinnen, also im Sicherheitsbereich, ist ja praktisch alles schon erledigt und geregelt. Man muss ja praktisch nur noch warten und dann in den Flieger einsteigen. Aber es ist immer noch so, also so empfinde ich das, wenn ich das sagen darf, weil ich es tagtäglich ja mitbekomme und wenn ich das sehe, dann sieht man ja wirklich, dass viele – der größte Teil, nicht alle, aber der größte Teil schon – natürlich „mein Geld, habe ich alles, was muss ich noch beachten?“ Und

I: You can already see that in people from the way they move?

B: Yeah, sure.

I: We are in this secure area now, the other side of the security check. Are people a bit stressed or wound up when they get here? How do you find it?

B: Yes, I mean, stressed, yes. What I said earlier on, somehow they are all completely unrelaxed. The fact that they still are afraid of missing their plane, even though, in here, I mean in the airside area, everything is sorted and done. All they have to do is wait and then board the plane. But it’s always a case of – at least I find it is, if I may say so, because I experience it each and every day – and when I see it… you really do see that lots of people – most of them, not all of them but certainly most of them – of course, they're like, “My money! Have I got everything? What do I still mit Kindern dann sowieso, wenn dann Familien unterwegs sind, also gerade zur Hauptsaison, wenn die Saisonzeit ist, dann ist natürlich immer alles so irgendwie völlig unter Zeitdruck – völlig. Also auch wenn 1½ Stunden Zeit ist, noch mindestens, sind die Leute auch völlig gestresst und dann rennen sie hoch und runter. Gut, der eine findet mal das Gate nicht oder mal dies oder mal alles, aber trotz allem, es ist schon … man kriegt es schon mit hier, man sieht das schon, was hier Sache ist.

I: Dann ist man ein Stück weit auch Auskunftsbüro wahrscheinlich noch?

B: Klar, natürlich. Wir machen hier praktisch alles (lacht).

I: Wenn die jetzt sagen wir mal sich was gekauft haben oder haben Essen und Trinken, werden die dann bisschen ruhiger oder?

B: Ja, dann sind sie entspannter, auf jeden Fall. Also ich weiß nicht, macht es was aus, das sie ein Kaffee

need to do?" And when there are children as well, of course, when families are travelling – you know, in peak season, at holiday time – then of course, for some reason, everyone's always very pressed for time – totally. So even when they still have at least 1½ hours left, people are still completely stressed and they run around nervously. Okay, someone can't find the right gate, or whatever, but still, in spite of everything … you certainly find out all about it here, you quickly find out what's going on.

I: So you probably also have to function as an info desk to some extent as well?

B: Yeah, of course. We do just about everything here. (Laughs.)

I: So say they've bought something or they've had something to eat and drink, then they calm down a bit, do they?

getrunken haben oder diese Ruhe dann einfach praktisch in sich gehen, also ruhig werden und was gegessen haben und dann … also es gibt auch andere, aber die meisten sind dann einfach relaxter, lockerer.

I: Das war es eigentlich auch schon. Vielen Dank, es tat nicht weh, oder?

B: Nein, gar nicht.

I: Ich schalte mal aus.

B: Yeah, then they're always more relaxed. I don't know – the fact that they've had a coffee, come down a bit, relaxed and had something to eat – whether that makes a difference … okay there are others too, but most of them are simply more relaxed, more calm.

I: Okay, that's it. Thank you very much. It wasn't that bad, was it?

B: No, not at all.

I: I'll switch off now.

Annex 8 – Interview Schedule: Concession Staff

Interview Schedule

Caterer Staff

- What are current challenges for you as concession employee at Stuttgart Airport?
- What is the split between business and leisure passengers?
- Do business and leisure passengers behave differently? What differences do you perceive in your daily work?
- Regarding Airside-F&B: Do you think you have the right items on offer? Do you think something is missing? What would you abolish?
- What do you think the passengers want?

- What is outstanding Airside F&B for you? What needs to be offered to passengers nowadays?
- Are service brands (Burger King, McDonald's, Starbucks, etc) an important issue for you in Airside F&B? Why / Why not?
- When you fly from Stuttgart yourself, do you consume in the Airside area? How do you select the outlet where to consume at?

Annex 9 – Interview Schedule: Caterer Management

Interview Schedule

Caterer Management

- What are current challegens for catering at Stuttgart Airport?
- What is the split between business and leisure passengers?
- Are passenger surveys conducted for the F&B provision at Stuttgart Airport and how often?
- Are you differentiating between certain passenger types?

- Regarding F&B (Airside). How do you find out what passengers wish to have?
- What is it that passengers wish to have?
- What is the split of responsibilities when it comes to airside F&B? Are concepts developed by the caterer or does the Airport operating company play a role?
- How is the cooperation for you with the airport and the other catering company? What are benefits of this constellation for the Airport operating company?

- Are you as catering company free in the definition of offer and prices?
- How do you 'steer' the cooperation with the airport? Do you have regular meetings?
- What are attributes of outstanding airside F&B for you? What is it that one needs to offer to passengers nowadays?
- Are service brands of relevance for you when it comes to Airside F&B (Burger King, McDonald's, Starbucks, etc)? Why / Why not?
- When you fly from Stuttgart yourself, do you consume F&B in the Airside area? How do you select the outlet to consume from?

- What do you feel / perceive: How do passengers select the outlet at which to consume?
- Passengers in the airside area. Do you perceive them to be stressed and nervous?
- How is it for yourself when you fly? Does the environment, do the procedures and security controls have an influence on you?

Annex 10 – Interview Schedule: Airport Management

Interview schedule

Airport Management

- Context – Stuttgart Airport. How many passengers have you had in 2014? How has the year been for the airport operating company so far?
- What are current challenges for Stuttgart Airport?
- What is the split between business and leisure passengers?
- Which methods do you use for passenger surveys and counts at Stuttgart Airport? How often?
- Are you differentiating certain passenger typologies?

- Do you measure how much time passengers spend in the airside area before departure?
- Regarding Retail and F&B (Airside). How do you find out what passengers wish to have?
- What is it that passengers wish to have?
- What is the split of responsibilities when it comes to airside F&B? Are concepts developed by the caterer or does the Airport operating company play a role?
- How is the cooperation for you with two catering companies? What are benefits of this constellation for the Airport operating company?

- Are the catering companies free in their definition of offer and prices?
- How do you 'steer' the cooperation with the caterers? Do you have regular meetings?
- What are attributes of outstanding airside F&B for you? What is it that one needs to offer to passengers nowadays?
- Are service brands of relevance for you when it comes to Airside F&B (Burger King, McDonald's, Starbucks, etc)? Why / Why not?
- When you fly from Stuttgart yourself, do you consume F&B in the Airside area? How do you select the outlet to consume from?

- Passengers in the Airside area. Do you perceive them to be stressed and nervous?
- How is it for yourself when you fly? Does the environment, do procedures and security controls have an influence on you?

Annex 11 – Interview Schedule: Focus Group

Focus Group Discussion

Welcome

Factors influencing F&B Outlets choice in commercial airports: The case of Stuttgart Airport

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Agenda

• Objectives	Thorsten
• Introduction of Participants	Participants
• Discussion	Participants
• Context: Stuttgart Airport	Thorsten
• Wrap-Up	Thorsten
• Dinner	all

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Objectives

- For my PhD thesis on consumer behaviour in airside F&B consumption in commercial airports I have selected Stuttgart Airport as case.
- The study follows a mixed methods apporach, including a Focus Group discussion.
- It is the objective of this discussion to learn about and to discuss opinions and attitudes of different air passengers.
- The broad participant base has been intended.
- It is not the objective to come to an agreement on the different topics.

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Participant introduction

- Please briefly introduce yourselves.
- …. name
- …. profession
- …. domicile
- …. frequent or infrequent flyer
- …. flying mainly for business or leisure
- …. normally got access to an airline lounge?

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Discussion

- Travelling by air is a special occasion for me

- Travelling by air is an ordinary activity for me

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Diskussion

- Normally I try to be at the airport this long before departure:

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Diskussion

- When I fly I try to pass through security as fast as possible after check-in.

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Diskussion

- When I fly, procedures and controls are stressful for me.

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Diskussion

- After passing through security I first look where my departure gate is located.

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Diskussion

- After passing through security, I enjoy wandering through the terminal and looking around.

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Diskussion

- After passing through security, I perceive shopping and F&B a to be a welcome pastime.

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Diskussion

- After passing through security, I enjoy eating and/or drinking

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Diskussion

- When I have been granted access, I certainly visit the Airline Lounge to eat and/or drink there.

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Diskussion

- There were instances when I left the Airline Lounge in order to use F&B concessions in the Airside area to eat and/or drink.

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Diskussion

- When I eat and/or drink in the airside area, I do this as close as possible to my departure gate.

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Diskussion

- When I eat and/or drink in the airside area, I look for an outlet I like. The distance to my departure gate is not that important for me.

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Diskussion

- When I eat and/or drink in the airside area, I prefer consuming at a service brand I know.

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Diskussion

- Airside F&B concessions are attractive for me if they offer the following….

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Diskussion

- The decision where to eat and/or drink prior to departure in the airside area is influenced by the following.....

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

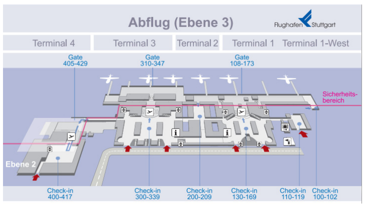
Diskussion

- The best airport F&B concession globally for me is ……

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Context: Stuttgart Airport



Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Discussion – Context Stuttgart

- The Handout shows five F&B outlet on Level 3.
- I would choose the following outlet to eat and/or drink:

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Diskussion

- The Handout shows two types of F&B outlets on Level 2.
- I would choose the following outlet to eat and/or drink:

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Contact

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Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Annex / Handout

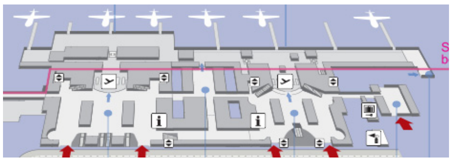
Airside F&B Concessions
Stuttgart Airport

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Context: Stuttgart Airport

Level 3

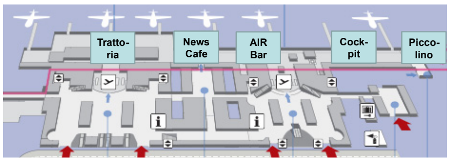


Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Context: Stuttgart Airport

Level 3



Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Level 3: Bar Piccolino

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Level 3: Cockpit Bar

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Level 3: AIR Bar

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Level 3: News Cafe

Thorsten Merkle

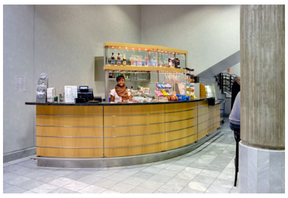
Focus Group Discussion

Level 3: Pasta&Seafood Trattoria

Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

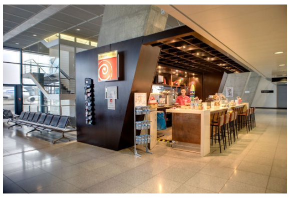
Level 2: Piccolino I und II



Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Level 2: Coffee Corner I und II



Thorsten Merkle

Focus Group Discussion

Bar Terminal 4

Thorsten Merkle