Great Expectations

Exploring Aging Consumers' Expectations of Institutional Food

by

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Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of PHILOSOPHIAE DOCTOR (PhD)



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Summary

The purpose of this thesis is to explore consumer expectations of institutional food and their antecedents. The thesis consists of three papers that aimed to answer the following research questions: 1) What is the content of various expectation types in the institutional food context, and how do expectation types intersect? 2) Can individual characteristics explain expectations of institutional food, and is it possible to identify groups of aging consumers with distinct expectation levels? and 3) How do individuals' internal factors contribute to drive various expectation types of institutional food?

The research questions were investigated using a mixed-methods approach. Paper 1 used qualitative in-depth interviews to establish a foundation and aid in the development of measurement scales for expectations. Papers 2 and 3 employed quantitative surveys to validate the measurement tools and investigate the influence of internal factors on expectations.

The results identified multiple expectation types of institutional food and linked them to specific consumption goals and functions (Paper 1). Aging consumers have different normative expectations of institutional food based on individual differences (Paper 2). Individual psychological determinants largely influenced normative expectations, while sociocultural determinants influenced predictive expectations of institutional food (Paper 3).

In sum, this thesis contributes with new perspectives on how future institutions can meet institutional food expectations and has practical implications for designing consumer-centric policies.

Future research should experimentally investigate the effect of meeting different types of aging consumers' institutional food expectations and continue to explore food expectations in other types of institutions to test the external validity of the findings.

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1 Introduction

The aging population (Kiss, 2020; Leknes et al., 2018; Suzman & Beard, 2018), comprised of the baby boomer cohort (born between 1946-1964), puts increased pressure on health care services and institutions for the elderly. A major challenge lies in future institutions' ability to meet an increasingly diverse aging generation's expectation of institutional food. Food experiences are one of the most important aspects of life for elderly, as they have great impact on their health and well-being (Diez-Garcia et al., 2012; Forbrukerrådet, 2015; Huseby Bøhn et al., 2018; Watkins et al., 2017). The institutional food service plays an important role in ensuring adequate nutritional intake (Correia & Waitzberg, 2003), socialization (Hung et al., 2016), food safety (Vahabi & Martin, 2014), and quality of life (Milte et al., 2017). However, malnutrition and dissatisfaction are recognized problems with institutional food offerings today (Berge, 2021; Edwards et al., 2003; Guttormsen et al., 2010; Huseby Bøhn et al., 2018; Lunde, 2021). The problems with institutional food may be more prominent as the population ages. Based on their lifestyle and individual characteristics, baby boomers are expected to create significant pressure for industry change in health care (Gill & Cameron, 2020). Baby boomers are more demanding, healthier, live longer, and have greater purchasing power than previous generations of elderly (Kohijoki & Marjanen, 2013; Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2007). In addition, changing demographics and consumer lifestyles lead to a tendency toward greater expectations in Western society in general

(Russell-Bennett & Rosenbaum, 2019; Suzman & Beard, 2018). Thus, baby boomers may have different and higher expectations of institutional food that future institutional food services should prepare to meet. Meeting the expectations of aging consumers has potential to promote their motivation to eat (Talwar et al., 2021; Vroom, 1964), as well as their perception of (Lee et al., 2006) and satisfaction with (e.g., Szymanski & Henard, 2001) institutional food.

Institutional food services refer to provision of food and related services in schools (Mikkelsen et al., 2005), hospitals (Hartwell et al., 2016), prisons (Johns et al., 2013), military (Uglem et al., 2013), and other non-commercial settings. Consumers often have negative attitudes toward institutional food—related to poor eating environments, limited food variety, and poor food presentation (Cardello et al., 1996)—that lead to lower satisfaction and acceptance of institutional food compared to other meals (Cardello et al., 1996; Edwards et al., 2003; Meiselman, 2009). However, institutional food service systems are increasingly subject to external pressures to modernize in accordance with societal demands, e.g., through increased focus on sustainability (Guillaumie et al., 2020; Mikkelsen & Sylvest, 2012), servicescape (Carins et al., 2020), menu design (Hartwell & Edwards, 2009), and reducing food waste (Ofei et al., 2015). Thus, there is a need to explore the research area from several angles.

This thesis specifically addresses institutional food for the elderly (nursing homes and hospitals). In these institutions, the food service is

often secondary to the main responsibility, which is patient care (Diez-Garcia et al., 2012; Garcia, 2006). This topic has commonly been studied in disciplines such as nursing (Leirvik et al., 2016), nutrition (Tieva et al., 2015; Wendin et al., 2021), and health services (Johns et al., 2013). Previous research has explored issues such as food satisfaction (e.g., Crogan et al., 2004; Lengyel et al., 2004) and residents' experience with mealtimes (Watkins et al., 2017). Other research has studied the impact of eating environment (Hansen et al., 2018), music (Ragneskog et al., 1996), culture change (Bhat et al., 2016), and emotions (Paquet et al., 2003) on institutional food intake. A few studies have investigated food choices (Abbey et al., 2015; Abbott et al., 2013) and involvement in food activities in nursing homes (Grøndahl & Aagaard, 2016). Previous research has focused primarily on elderly who are currently institutionalized; however, there is a lack of studies that address future consumers of institutional food. Treating elderly in institutions as consumers, instead of patients, encourages new perspectives (MacInnis et al., 2020). Therefore, this thesis employs a consumer lens by exploring consumer expectations of institutional food. To date, there is limited knowledge about what the baby boomer generation expects from institutional food (Gill & Cameron, 2020; Quine & Carter, 2006). Scholars stress the need to update the knowledge base on the evolving aging consumer segment (Nunan & Di Domenico, 2019) and have warned against simply assuming that tomorrow's elderly population will respond to marketing, public policies, and consumption situations similarly to the elderly of today (Schewe & Noble, 2000). Preparing for

the change in quantity, characteristics, and expectations of aging consumers should be of high priority to ensure a sustainable care sector for the future (Höijer et al., 2020; Ree et al., 2020)

1.1 Aim and research questions

The aim of this doctoral thesis is to explore and increase our understanding of consumer expectations of institutional food and their antecedents. To achieve the overarching aim of this doctoral thesis, the papers aim to answer the following research questions:

- 1. What is the content of various expectation types in the institutional food context, and how does the expectation types intersect?
- 2. Can individual characteristics explain expectations of institutional food, and is it possible to identify groups of aging consumers with distinct expectation levels?
- 3. How do aging consumers' internal factors contribute to drive various expectation types of institutional food?

These research questions are addressed using a mixed methods approach that begins with a qualitative, exploratory study, before proceeding to two quantitative studies. The next section will clarify certain terms and explain the scope of the thesis.

1.2 Clarification of terms

Institutions, institutional food service and institutional food

The term institution is typically applied to formal organizations providing government, public, or private services. This often includes non-commercial organizations such as hospitals, nursing homes, schools, prisons, or the military (Evensen & Hansen, 2016). The institutional food service can be explained as the entities that provide meals at institutions and is responsible for catering to consumers with various needs (Conner, 2014). In this thesis, I focus on institutions for the elderly, with special emphasis on nursing homes and hospitals. Thus, institutional food refers to the food that is served to elderly individuals who reside in nursing homes or hospitals.

Aging consumers

The samples of aging consumers in this thesis include individuals aged between 50-80 years old, in accordance with previous research's definitions (Kohijoki & Marjanen, 2013; Niemelä-Nyrhinen, 2007). This age span includes the baby boomer cohort (and some younger and older for comparison purposes). The maximum age was set to 80 because, based on Norwegian statistics (Kjelvik & Jønsberg, 2017; SSB, 2018), 80 years is the mean estimate for at what age elderly are institutionalized (in nursing homes). In the papers in this thesis, I do not include individuals who are residents in institutions today. This is because I am

interested in the expectations of future consumers (baby boomers) of institutional food, and on how institutions may prepare to meet the aging populations' expectations.

Hedonic and non-hedonic experiences

Hedonic consumption experiences include multisensory and emotive aspects, induce a feeling of joy and pleasure in the consumer (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Maehle et al., 2015), and are often accompanied by savouring (Chun et al., 2017). Non-hedonic experiences may be explained as the opposite of hedonic experiences and are viewed as unpleasurable or undesirable by the consumer, and may evoke negative anticipatory emotions, such as dread (Hardisty & Weber, 2020; Nawijn & Biran, 2019).

Predictive expectations

Predictive expectations represent what the consumer thinks *will happen* during a consumption experience (James, 2011). Predictive expectations are traditionally seen as the standard in assessing, for instance, satisfaction (Oliver, 1980).

Normative expectations

Normative expectations represent what the consumer thinks *should happen* in a consumption experience (James, 2011).

Antecedents

The term "antecedents" is used about the various factors that contribute to influence or drive expectations (Kalamas et al., 2002), and are central in understanding the formation of expectations.

Individual psychological determinants

The term "individual psychological determinants" is used as a collective term to describe the internal antecedents related to personality and internal psychological sources of information in the consumer. In Papers 2 and 3 in this thesis, I investigate entitlement (Campbell et al., 2004), disconfirmation sensitivity (Kopalle & Lehmann, 2001), and subjective knowledge (Aertsens et al., 2011) as individual psychological antecedents of expectations. Paper 3 includes detailed theoretical chapters on the individual psychological determinants.

Sociocultural determinants

The term "sociocultural determinant" is used to describe the antecedents related to culture and the social environment the consumer experiences.

In Paper 3, I investigate word-of-mouth (Kalamas et al., 2002) and temporal focus (Shipp et al., 2009) as sociocultural antecedents of expectations. Paper 3 includes theoretical chapters on the sociocultural determinants.

1.3 The scope of the thesis

This thesis is grounded in and focuses on consumer behaviour and marketing theory; however, it draws on literature from psychology, food, health care, and geriatrics. It seeks to contribute to the transformative consumer research movement by employing a consumer lens to explore challenges with institutional food and contribute with new perspectives (MacInnis et al., 2020). Integration of other disciplines is beneficial to consumer research, as it involves many disciplines in the humanities, social and natural sciences, and enhances practical relevance of the field (Pham, 2013; Zaltman, 2000). However, certain aspects relevant to the context are not included in the thesis. For example, health or geriatric researchers may perceive that it disregards some important aspects in their disciplines (for instance elderly individuals' chewing problems, dementia, illnesses, etc.). Nevertheless, to enhance the consumer behaviour perspective and contribute new knowledge, it is necessary to narrow the scope of the thesis. I believe this thesis can contribute with a new perspective, alongside research in health care, geriatrics, and food sciences, to improve the institutional food offerings for future aging consumers.

1.4 Overview of the papers

Paper 1

"The Good, The Bad, and the Minimum Tolerable": Exploring Expectations of Institutional Food

Hanne Andreassen, Olga Gjerald, & Kai Victor Hansen.

Published in *Foods*, 2021; Vol. 10, No. 4:767. https://doi.org/10.3390/foods10040767

Paper 2

"Same, Same but Different": Insights on Ageing Consumers and Their Expectations of Institutional Food

Hanne Andreassen, Olga Gjerald, & Kai Victor Myrnes-Hansen

Published in *British Food Journal*, 2022, (ahead-of-print). https://doi.org/10.1108/BFJ-12-2021-1310

Paper 3

What Drives Consumer Expectations for Institutional Food? Identifying Antecedents of Normative and Predictive Expectations in Baby Boomers

Hanne Andreassen & Olga Gjerald

Submitted and in review for the special issue "Future Trends in Consumer Behaviour" in the *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*.

2 Theoretical background

The theoretical chapter will present current knowledge on expectations and the role of different expectation types. Further, it presents current research on antecedents before demonstrating how expectations are involved in multiple streams of research.

2.1 Expectations as a scientific concept

Expectations are defined as pre-trial beliefs about a product or service and its performance at some future time (Boulding et al., 1993; Spreng et al., 1996) and may be considered with or without comparison to the actual level of performance (LaTour & Peat, 1979; Oliver, 1981; Oliver & DeSarbo, 1988). However, the definition of expectations varies according to discipline. In motivation literature, where expectations can contribute to motivate consumption (Vroom, 1964), expectations are understood as the perceived probability that consumption will lead to a desirable outcome (Talwar et al., 2021). In the satisfaction (S/DS) and service quality (SQ) literature, where expectations can influence the post-evaluation of the experience, expectations are often defined as what consumers think will or should happen under certain circumstances (Boulding et al., 1993). In general, expectations are mental constructs (Vichiengior et al., 2019), and most studies refer to cognitive expectations when defining expectations—for example which concrete features a consumer expects from a product. Cognitive expectations are

the focal area of this thesis. Consumers may also have affective expectations, which has been mostly studied in psychology. Affective expectations are explained as what consumers expect to feel like during an upcoming experience (Geers & Lassiter, 2002). Like cognitive expectations, affective expectations influence the post-experience evaluation of the service, or the product consumed (Geers & Lassiter, 2002; Klaaren et al., 1994).

A related construct to expectations is anticipation, which is explained as "a mental process by which consumers consider the physical, experiential, social, or behavioural consumption outcomes that are expected to accrue to the self from a yet to be realised consumption decision or experience" (Vichiengior et al., 2019, p. 132). In other words, expectations are mental constructs, and anticipation is a mental process. Anticipation and expectations are related in the sense that expectations can be formed while anticipating. Previous studies have found that anticipation influences satisfaction (Koenig-Lewis & Palmer, 2011, 2014), which suggests that cognitive and affective expectations formed while anticipating influence satisfaction (Oliver, 1980; Oliver & Winer, 1987; Patrick et al., 2007; Vichiengior et al., 2019).

2.1.1 Expectation types

Current research on expectation types and their influence on consumption behaviours is ambiguous (Santos & Boote, 2003). Miller

(1977) was the first to argue that consumers hold several preconsumption expectations, and that consumers may apply different expectation standards in different situations, indicating that it is a fluid construct. To synthesize the research on expectation types, Santos and Boote (2003) identified a total of 56 different definitions of expectations, from both the satisfaction and service quality literatures, and summarized these into eight core expectation types. These types include ideal, normative, desired, predicted, minimum tolerable, intolerable to worst imaginable expectations (see Santos & Boote, 2003, p. 114 for full table).

The most cited types are predictive, normative, ideal, and minimum tolerable expectations (Higgs et al., 2005). Among scholars in marketing and public services research, predictive and normative expectations are often considered the two main expectation types (Boulding et al., 1993; James, 2011). Predictive expectations represent what the consumers think will happen in the consumption situation (Oliver, 1981). Being the default expectation type in the expectancy-disconfirmation model (Oliver, 1980), it has been the centre of most expectation research (e.g., Kopalle & Lehmann, 2001; Krishnamurthy & Kumar, 2015; Tangari et al., 2019). Normative expectations represent what the consumer thinks a product, service, or experience should offer (James, 2011; Parasuraman et al., 1985). It has been studied in satisfaction (Meirovich et al., 2020), service quality (Hung et al., 2015), and in public services research (James, 2011). Normative expectations are often higher than predictive expectations, but lower than ideal

because they consider contextual constraints. Ideal expectations are the highest level of expectations one can have and have mostly been studied in the service quality literature. Ideal expectations are explained as the wished-for level of performance (Miller, 1977). Contrary to normative expectations, ideal expectations do not consider contextual constraints. Further, minimum tolerable expectations are defined as the minimum acceptable baseline of performance (Miller, 1977). This expectation type is central in the consumers' zone of tolerance (ZOT), which is defined as the range of service a consumer is willing to accept, ranging from minimum tolerable to ideal expectations (Zeithaml et al., 1993).

Among the less researched types identified by Santos and Boote (2003), desired expectations are the level of performance the consumer hopes or wants to receive. Deserved expectations are the level of performance the consumers feel they deserve from consuming a product, experience, or service (Spreng et al., 1996). The two lowest expectation types are intolerable expectations (Buttle, 1998) and worst imaginable expectations (Santos & Boote, 2003). These types represent unacceptable levels of performance and often stem from word-of-mouth, bad personal experiences, or media stories.

Various disciplines have traditions for using different expectation types in their models (further presented in section 2.3). Previous studies show that measuring different expectation types yield different satisfaction outcomes for the same product or service (Dean, 2004; Higgs et al., 2005; James, 2011). This underscores the importance of

considering different expectation types. Research on the different expectation types have found that they have different characteristics, for example, in terms of stability over time, antecedents and how they should be managed (e.g., Kalamas et al., 2002; Meirovich, 2020; Pereira Filho & Moreno Añez, 2021).

2.1.2 Stability of expectations

Recently, more attention has been devoted to how and if expectations change over time (e.g., Pereira Filho & Moreno Añez, 2021). While scholars recognize that expectations may be updated over the course of time (Johnston, 1995; Zeithaml et al., 1993), some support a more stable nature of expectations (Clow et al., 1998; Oliver, 1980; Tam, 2005) and believe that changes may occur; however, these changes are not motivated by time. Clow et al. (1998) argued that expectations are not influenced by spurious factors such as mood, timing, and measurement effects.

Pereira Filho and Moreno Añez (2021) demonstrated the dynamic nature of consumer expectations and argued that expectations are updated during service encounters. However, the effect was different for the two expectation types they included in their study (minimum tolerable and desirable), and the minimum tolerable (adequate) expectations were more subject to change. This supports research by James (2011) and Churchill (1979), which suggested that expectations that represent needs and wants are more stable over time, compared to

expectation types that represent pure predictions of outcomes. Nevertheless, investigating the stability of expectation types is in its infancy and requires more attention.

2.1.3 Measurement of expectations

Several elements about expectations make them a complex case in terms of measurement. First, the operationalization and interpretation of expectations are important to consider. Multiple scholars have pointed to different interpretations of expectations among study participants and researchers (Hjortskov, 2020; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2001). Hjortskov (2020) demonstrated that when people are asked about their expectations without further specification, only 39.4% interpreted expectations as something they "will" experience. If the meaning of the term "expectation" is not specified in the measurement tool, it is difficult for researchers to know what the consumers are actually answering. This is relevant for the accuracy of the expectation models. Previous studies that measured different expectation types found that it may lead to significant differences in conclusions (Dean, 2004; Higgs et al., 2005; Hjortskov, 2020). Which definition of expectations is optimal to measure has received scant attention in the literature, and the research is inconclusive (Higgs et al., 2005; Hjortskov, 2020).

Second, when to measure expectations is not agreed upon. Although few studies have measured expectations pre-experience, most studies on expectations measure them post-experience. Higgs et al.

(2005) and Yüksel and Yüksel (2001) argued this is a shortcoming of current research on expectations in relation to satisfaction and service quality. The service quality literature has assumed that expectations prior to consumption are equal to expectation after consumption (Parasuraman et al., 1985, 1994). However, expectations can be updated over time and as the service or product is being consumed (Pereira Filho & Moreno Añez, 2021), and some studies suggest they regress toward actual performance levels (Szajna & Scamell, 1993).

2.2 Expectation antecedents

2.2.1 External antecedents

External factors have received most attention in expectation formation, and their influence on expectations is well-established. Kalamas et al. (2002) provided a thorough review and test of several external (and some internal) expectation antecedents. External factors usually include company-specific sources of information. For example, price has been established as an important activator of consumers' expectations in several studies (Abrate et al., 2021), as price information can act as a heuristic for what quality consumers can expect from a product or service (Zeithaml et al., 1993). Higher prices generally lead to higher expectations, through a placebo effect (Habel et al., 2016), of what the product or service will deliver and has a negative effect on perceived quality (Abrate et al., 2021). Company image influences expectations in

a variety of contexts, such as health services, airlines, and restaurant experiences (Clow et al., 1997; Kalamas et al., 2002). Advertising and implicit and explicit service and product promises are established as central antecedents of expectations (Kalamas et al., 2002; Zeithaml et al., 1993), along with the consumers' previous experience with the specific product/service, which is one of the most reliable drivers of expectations.

2.2.2 Internal antecedents

The role of internal factors in expectation formation has received less attention compared to external factors. Kopalle and Lehmann (2001) have suggested that part of the error in usual expectation models is associated with the failure to include individual characteristics. Consumers are heterogeneous, and their expectation levels will differ based on their unique characteristics; therefore, considering how their expectations are informed by multiple personal factors is key (Abrate et al., 2021).

Quite early, factors such as need for cognition and personal values were identified as drivers of expectations (Webster, 1989; Zeithaml et al., 1993). Work by Kopalle and Lehmann (2001) and Kopalle et al. (2010) contributed to identifying disconfirmation sensitivity, along with perfectionism and temporal orientation, as influential on expectation levels. Kopalle and Lehmann (2001) proposed that consumers strategically manage their expectations to avoid disappointment, and this mechanism is moderated by the consumers'

level of disconfirmation sensitivity and perfectionism. Their work considered three expectation types (will/predictive, should/normative and as if/minimum tolerable), however they did not report any significant differences in antecedents among these. More recently, the role of consumer involvement has gained attention as an influence on expectations, and is associated with higher expectations (Kalamas et al., 2002; Krishnamurthy & Kumar, 2015; Pereira Filho & Moreno Añez, 2021).

Previous research demonstrated that several sociocultural antecedents influence expectations Word-of-Mouth (WOM), which is defined as informal communication between consumers about products and services (Westbrook, 1987), was established as an important social influence on consumer expectations (Clow et al., 1997; Zeithaml et al., 1993). Studies have found that positive WOM contributed to increased expectations (Kalamas et al., 2002). Recently, the role of electronic word-of-mouth (EWOM), including online reviews and ratings, has been investigated. Krishnamurthy and Kumar (2018) found that consumers actively use EWOM to form their expectations of a brand, and that consumers' level of involvement moderates this relationship.

Regulatory focus is often associated with culture. Promotion-focused consumers, typical of Western cultures (Kurman et al., 2011), have higher expectations. Research shows that this occurs despite them processing less information in the expectation formation process compared to prevention-focused consumers (Krishnamurthy & Kumar,

2015). Further, other factors such as long-term orientation (represented by belief in karma), superstitious beliefs, and cultural self-construal (independent vs. interdependent) have been associated with expectations (Block & Kramer, 2009; Kopalle et al., 2010; Lalwani & Shavitt, 2013).

2.2.3 Antecedents of various expectation types

As most studies use the predictive expectation type as standard when evaluating antecedents of expectations (Block & Kramer, 2009; Clow et al., 1997), many of the findings in today's literature are applicable to predictive expectations. However, studies indicate that antecedents of expectations may influence expectation types differently (Kalamas et al., 2002). This is demonstrated in Table 1, which summarizes the characteristics and antecedents of the most used expectation types in various literatures (further presented in section 2.4). For example, findings from Kalamas et al. (2002) indicated that while external sources of information influence both normative and predictive expectations, internal sources of information influence only predictive expectations. Zeithaml et al. (1993) suggested that personal factors (needs and service philosophies) influence the desired (similar to normative) service level, while minimum tolerable expectations were more influenced by servicespecific factors. They suggested that predictive expectations were influenced by external sources of information, such as implicit and explicit service promises, and past experience. However, some studies do not detect differences among antecedents and expectation types

(Kopalle & Lehmann, 2001). Nevertheless, caution should be used when interpreting and using findings on expectation antecedents, as findings may not be transferrable across all expectation types, as Table 1 demonstrates below.

 $Table\ 1\ \hbox{-} Most\ common\ expectation\ types,\ characteristics,\ antecedents\ and\ literatures.$

Expectation type	Characteristics	Antecedents	Literature
Ideal	Highest type of expectations (Miller, 1977), most stable type (Churchill, 1979)	Personal factors (Churchill, 1979), external sources of information (Miller, 1977)	Service quality
Normative	Coloured by context (Santos & Boote, 2003), stable over time (James, 2011; Pereira Filho & Moreno Añez, 2021)	Personal factors (Zeithaml et al., 1993, external sources of information (Kalamas et al., 2002), individual determinants (Kopalle & Lehmann, 2001)	Service quality, satisfaction
Predictive	Pure predictions of outcome (James, 2011; Oliver, 1980), subject to change (Johnston, 1995; Zeithaml et al., 1993)	External sources of information (Zeithaml et al., 1993), internal sources of information (Kalamas et al., 2002), individual and sociocultural determinants (Kopalle et al., 2010; Kopalle & Lehmann, 2001; Krishnamurthy & Kumar, 2015; Lalwani & Shavitt, 2013), sensory characteristics (Wei et al., 2012)	Motivation, service quality, satisfaction
Minimum tolerable	Lowest expectation consumer is willing to accept (ZOT theory) (Zeithaml et al., 1993), subject to change (Pereira Filho & Moreno Añez, 2021)	Service-specific features (Dean, 2004; Zeithaml et al., 1993), Individual determinants (Kopalle & Lehmann, 2001)	Service quality, satisfaction

2.3 Expectations in the literature

Expectations have been studied in several streams of research relevant to consumer behaviour. This section presents work on how expectations influence motivation and satisfaction through the most used expectation-based theories: expectancy theory of motivation and the expectancy-disconfirmation theory.

2.3.1 Expectations in the Motivation literature

Research has shown that expectations have the potential to influence consumers' motivation to consume a product, service, or experience. The expectancy theory of motivation was originally developed by Vroom (1964) and is one of the most used theories on motivation in the workplace (Heneman & Schwab, 1973). The theory explains the motivation behind the consumers' decisions on behavioural alternatives (Abrate et al., 2021; Zboja et al., 2020). It posits that the motivational force behind a behaviour is based on expectancy, instrumentality, and valence. In this theory, expectancy is understood as the perceived probability that effort will lead to good performance (Vroom, 1964), and variables influencing the individual's expectancy include self-efficacy, goal difficulty, perceived control, past experience and self-confidence. In other words, several individual characteristics have the potential to influence expectancies (Chiang & Jang, 2008).

Expectancy theory has been used to better understand employees' motivation across multiple industries, for instance in hotel

management (Chiang & Jang, 2008), local governments (Suciu et al., 2013), banking (De Oliveira et al., 2013), public services (Lee, 2019), and different kinds of workers, including entrepreneurs (Barba-Sánchez & Atienza-Sahuquillo, 2017; Renko et al., 2012), construction workers (Yeheyis et al., 2016), and for nursing academics (Candela et al., 2015). Studies have also explored how phenomena such as workplace stress (Foy et al., 2019), workplace incivility (Jiang et al., 2019), employee turnover (Birkenbach & van der Merwe, 1983), and energy-saving behaviours in organizations (Li et al., 2019) relate to employee motivation and performance. Although expectancy motivation theory is widely supported, some researchers have argued the social environment should be included as an additional variable in the expectancy theory formula to capture cultural effects on motivation (Lloyd & Mertens, 2018).

Previous studies have demonstrated that expectancy theory can be used in various contexts beyond the workplace, for example in investigating pro-environmental behaviour (Kiatkawsin & Han, 2017), tourism and hospitality (Abrate et al., 2021), consumer boycotts (Barakat & Moussa, 2017), and food consumption (Talwar et al., 2021). The theory is generally supported by empirical evidence (Tien, 2000), and demonstrates that expectations play an important role in consumers' motivation engage in specific behaviours. In tourism and hospitality, several researchers have employed this framework to investigate tourists' motivation to choose specific destinations and activities for their vacations. For example, Kiatkawsin and Han (2017) demonstrated that

willingness to engage in pro-environmental behaviours among young travellers was dependent on their expectations of whether their actions would lead to a desirable outcome, which related to their NEP (New Ecological Paradigm) values. Recently, the expectancy theory has also been applied in food consumption studies (Cummings et al., 2020). Cummings et al. (2021) argued that translating principles from expectancy theory into food consumption is an emerging area of research that has potential to improve public health issues.

The motivation-satisfaction relationship has been a popular research interest among scholars. In tourism, satisfaction has notable effects on post-purchase behaviours, such as word-of-mouth (Prebensen et al., 2010) and revisit intentions (Alegre & Cladera, 2009), which potentially influence motivation for oneself and others. Consumer research in various purchasing situations have demonstrated how motivation is related to satisfaction (Bakırtaş & Divanoğlu, 2013; Wolf & McQuitty, 2011). In the workplace, the motivation-satisfaction relationship is important for similar reasons. Studies demonstrate that job performance, satisfaction, and motivation are closely intertwined (Jalagat, 2016), and may depend on organizational characteristics (Kjeldsen & Hansen, 2018).

2.3.2 Expectations in the Satisfaction and Service Quality literature

There is a wealth of studies that demonstrate how expectations influence consumers' satisfaction, or their perception of service quality, with a product, service, or experience. In the post-experience phase, expectations have mainly been studied in the (dis)satisfaction (S/DS) and service quality (SQ) literature. The satisfaction literature defines satisfaction as a judgment, attitude, or psychological state resulting from the consumers' (positive or negative) disconfirmation of expectations (Oliver, 2010; Woodruff et al., 1983). A meta-analysis has established that expectations and disconfirmation of expectations influence satisfaction (Szymanski & Henard, 2001).

The most used model of expectations in the satisfaction literature is the expectancy-disconfirmation model (Oliver, 1980). This model explains satisfaction as an additive function of expectations and perceptions, leading to positive or negative disconfirmation, and satisfaction or dissatisfaction, respectively. This model has been applied in various contexts, for example in airports (Au & Tse, 2019), food consumption (Tangari et al., 2019), employee satisfaction (Penning de Vries & Knies, 2022), and tourism (Pizam & Milman, 1993; Zhang et al., 2021). Notably, the expectations framework has more recently gained attention in public services research, where the expectancy-disconfirmation model is the foundation for studies to predict citizen satisfaction with topics such as motor highways, local public services,

and government (James, 2009; Poister & Thomas, 2011; Van Ryzin, 2006).

The related stream of research on service quality defines service quality as the delivery of excellent service relative to consumer expectations (Parasuraman et al., 1988). Similar to the expectancy-disconfirmation model, the service quality model compares expectations to perceptions of the service to determine service quality. It has been widely used in tourism and hospitality research (Fick & Brent Ritchie, 1991; Wu & Mohi, 2015). This model has received criticism for poor operationalization and measurement across industries (Buttle, 1996; Morrison Coulthard, 2004), which underlines the importance of contextual adapting of the instrument.

Despite satisfaction and service quality being two distinct constructs and streams of literature, the common view is that service quality is an antecedent of satisfaction, which is a broader concept (Buttle, 1998; Gotlieb et al., 1994; Lee et al., 2000). The traditional view is that there is a linear relationship between service quality and satisfaction, however some research has found indications of non-linearity (Pollack, 2008). The satisfaction and service quality literatures have typically applied different expectation types: In the consumer satisfaction literature, predictive expectation tend to dominate (Higgs et al., 2005), while in the service quality literature, ideal and normative types are more common (Zeithaml et al., 1993). However, the satisfaction and service quality literatures have been increasingly reconciled (Higgs et al., 2005). Both

literatures, to an extent, share common ground: Both seek to define expectations and their relationship with perceptions (Liljander & Strandvik, 1993; Parasuraman et al., 1985), and the core theoretical underpinning for both literatures is the expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm (Oliver, 1977). Therefore, Santos and Boote (2003, p. 143) argued that it is "theoretically possible to cross-fertilise concepts relating to consumer expectations from the service quality into the satisfaction literature." This notion has been used as a basis for this thesis.

2.4 Research gaps addressed in this thesis

This thesis seeks to address two research gaps in the expectation literature. First, there is a lack of research on institutional food expectations. Although some studies on institutional food expectations have identified low expectations (Tuorila et al., 2015), different expectation types are not accounted for. Expectation types are important to consider in the institutional food context due to its non-hedonic nature, i.e., it is often perceived as an inferior service (Carins et al., 2020). In these contexts, what consumers think *will happen* (predictive expectations) may be very different from what they think *should happen* (normative expectations). For example, someone may think the food in an institution will have poor taste, but at the same time think it should have good taste. Currently, there is a significant gap in expectation literature on expectations of non-hedonic experiences. Previous research has focused on objectively viewed pleasant or hedonic experiences such

as hotel services (Abrate et al., 2021), travelling (Pizam & Milman, 1993), restaurant visits (Cai & Chi, 2021; Sweeney et al., 2016) or attending art (Higgs et al., 2005) or sports engagements (Zboja et al., 2016). Expectations towards food in a hedonic experience, such as a fine-dining restaurant, will be different compared to expectations of institutional food, which may (generally) be classified as a non-hedonic experience (Carins et al., 2020). The theoretical and practical implications of this contextual difference is not clear (Dean, 2004; Santos & Boote, 2003). Yüksel and Yüksel (2001) have previously pointed to the logical inconsistency in the expectancy-disconfirmation model (Oliver, 1980) when consuming an inferior brand or service: Would meeting low predictive expectations always generate satisfaction? Expanding knowledge on expectations to non-hedonic contexts could have implications for a variety of product and service providers, such as the institutional food service.

Second, there is a lack of research on how internal factors influence expectations of institutional food. Previous research on food expectations have mostly focused on sensory factors (e.g., food smell, appearance) as antecedents (Cardello & Sawyer, 1992; Tuorila et al., 2015; Wei et al., 2012). Although the effect of internal factors is well-established on related consumer constructs, such as attitudes, intentions, and persuasion (Bai et al., 2019; Chen, 2007; Chen & Lee, 2008; Haugtvedt et al., 1992), there is a gap on how internal factors influence expectations. Addressing this gap may contribute to increase our understanding of how expectations are formed and potentially gain

insights on the tendency toward greater expectations (Russell-Bennett & Rosenbaum, 2019). Importantly, most current studies do not consider the differences between expectation types when investigating antecedents. Despite different behavioural outcomes associated with meeting various expectation types (Santos & Boote, 2003), there is a lack of research that clearly distinguishes between expectation types and their antecedents (Hjortskov, 2020).

3 Methodological reflections

This chapter presents some methodological reflections for the thesis. Full details of each study can be found in the papers.

3.1 Research context

The specific research context of institutional food services is important to consider because of political and cultural differences that exist between different countries. In Norway, the state is the primary provider of nursing homes and health services for the elderly. In 2020, 90% of nursing home capacity was owned by the municipalities (Hoen et al., 2021). However, deinstitutionalization has been the leading trend for the health and care sector in Europe and Scandinavia the past 10 years. The sustainability of the current practice in Norway is frequently debated (Daatland & Otnes, 2015), and there is an increasing gap between the supply and demand in future health care services (Sæther & Larsen, 2017). Nursing homes today house approximately 39,200 elderly (Hoen et al., 2021), and it is expected that this demand will double from 2020-2040 (Civita, 2013). However, measures to either increase resources or decrease need for resources is necessary to accommodate to the aging population (Sæther & Larsen, 2017), due to limited funds in institutions (Evensen & Hansen, 2016).

Institutional food services for the elderly have an important responsibility to promote healthy aging. Despite food and nutritional needs of the elderly frequently being on the media and Norwegian government's agenda, the problems with malnutrition among institutionalized and home-living elderly are still prevalent (Guttormsen et al., 2010; Forbrukerrådet, 2015; Devik & Olsen, 2018; Sverredatter Larsen et al., 2023). Malnourished patients are generally weaker, have lowered functional capacity, and are more prone to depression and apathy (Hartwell et al., 2006). Adequate food intake in institutions can prevent malnutrition and thus reduce medical complications, the length of the rehabilitation process, associated costs, and mortality rates (Diez-Garcia et al., 2012; Correia & Waitzberg, 2003; Johns et al., 2013). Elderly often experiences decreased appetite (Donini et al., 2003), however, national nutritional surveys demonstrate a lack of knowledge about the elderly's food habits and preferences (Huseby Bøhn et al., 2018). This makes Norway an important and unique context to study institutional food expectations for aging consumers.

3.2 Overall research design

As recommended by scholars, a combination of qualitative and quantitative study designs was chosen to explore institutional food expectations from different angles (Venkatesh et al., 2013). This thesis is a cumulative work that employs a sequential exploratory design. Starting with a qualitative approach was necessary due to the lack of new

empirical research on expectations in the specific context of institutional food for aging consumers (Creswell & Poth, 2016; Giddings & Grant, 2006). The qualitative data was used to create a base of knowledge on institutional food expectations that informed the quantitative studies in developing expectation measurements and test hypotheses with a greater sample in the later phases of the project (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). Figure 1 on the following page depicts a conceptual model of how the papers in this thesis are connected. Paper 1 focus on the expectation construct and attempts to generate a broader understanding of institutional food expectations as a complex construct and elicit expectation types of institutional food. Further, quantitative methods were used in papers 2 and 3 to answer questions related to how aging consumers internal factors related to different expectation types and their dimensions. The following chapters will further present the qualitative and quantitative stages of the research design.

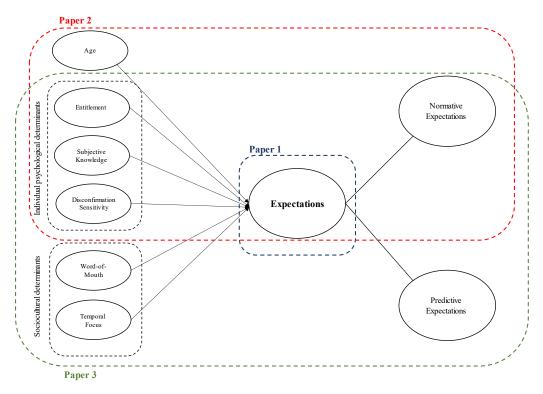


Figure 1 - Conceptual model of the three papers in the thesis

3.3 Stage 1: Qualitative study

In stage 1, a qualitative research design was used to gain insights and investigate institutional food expectations in depth (Corbin & Strauss, 2014; Jacobsen, 2005). The specific method chosen was individual indepth interviews, as detailed information that reflected the informants' expectations, experiences, and personal perspectives was needed (Spiggle, 1994). An in-depth interview can be described as a conversation with a purpose, with human interaction that leads to one person giving information to the other (Merriam, 1998). The interviews were semi-structured to ensure the specific expectation types and other topics were addressed, while still allowing the informants to steer the conversation. Individual in-depth interviews seemed appropriate to create a comfortable environment for the informants and allowed for gathering multiple perspectives of the topic, which could be sensitive to some (Elam & Fenton, 2003).

To analyse the data, qualitative content analysis was employed. Qualitative content analysis is referred to as "a research method for subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns" (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1278). It is flexible in the use of inductive and deductive analysis, which is why it was chosen for this study. In the inductive approach, all codes, categories, or themes are directly drawn from the data, while in the deductive approach, the

researcher starts with predetermined codes/categories derived from prior relevant research (Cavanagh, 1997; Kondracki et al., 2002). Paper 1 employs a combination of deductive and inductive techniques. A deductive approach was used to analyse the existing expectation types as a basis for exploration and identified the content of these established constructs. An inductive approach was used to identify the dynamics of the expectation types, affective expectations, and consumption goals. Qualitative content analysis shares many similarities with grounded theory (Corbin & Strauss, 1990), as they are both used to analyse qualitative data, and both involve identifying themes and patterns based on naturalistic inquiries as well as a substantial coding process (Cho & Lee, 2014). However, the aim of this study was not to develop new theory, but to, based on prior research, elicit existing expectation types in the institutional food context.

General qualitative research criteria were used to ensure validity in paper 1 (Cho & Lee, 2014). Credibility was assured by including representative quotations, peer-debriefing, and by ensuring the most suitable meaning unit (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). Inter-coder reliability was ensured by all authors discussing and agreeing on coding, categories, and representable quotations on a weekly basis during the interview and transcription process. Although the findings are not generalizable, to ensure transferability, the context was thoroughly described to allow for comparisons with other contexts (Shento, 2004). Transcription of the interviews, development of the codebook, and

records of methodological choices strengthen the dependability of the study (Cho & Lee, 2014).

3.4 Stage 2: Quantitative studies

In stage 2, an instrument was developed to measure expectations of institutional food. Based on two samples, the instrument was validated and used to perform hypothesis-testing. Quantitative data allow for greater generalizability of the findings, and the aim was to generate findings applicable to the Norwegian aging population. Papers 2 and 3 employs cross-sectional survey designs. In line with the purpose of the thesis, this design was used to test and validate the dimensionality of the expectation constructs (Paper 2 and 3), describe characteristics that exist within the given sample and context (Paper 2) and make inferences about possible relationships through correlations (Paper 3). Although causal inferences cannot be drawn from cross-sectional studies, they can be useful to gain insights on relationships between variables and guide further experimental/causal research (Rindfleisch et al., 2008). In paper 2, the survey design was used to create a tool for measuring expectations of institutional food, detect patterns, and identify similar groups of consumers. In paper 3, the design was used to measure and validate the expectation scales for two expectation types and testing how specific individual psychological and sociocultural determinants were associated with these expectations.

To enhance the validity of the surveys, recommendations from scholars who have devoted substantial attention to this issue were followed. Item construction for the expectations measurement tool followed the procedure recommended by Churchill (1979). Reliability (Peter, 1979), response bias (Baumgartner & Steenkamp, 2001), and construct validity (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988) were assessed according to principles. Informant qualification (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988) was ensured through inclusion and exclusion criteria. It is important to note that cross-sectional studies only capture the variables at one specific point in time. In the case of this thesis, two distinct samples were collected (November 2020 and January 2022).

The normative and predictive expectation instruments were developed based on the qualitative data collected in paper 1 and followed the recommended procedure by Churchill (1979) further described in papers 2 and 3. The independent variables were based on established scales from other consumer and psychology research and, if needed, adapted to a food context. In some cases, items were removed to either enhance the scale or to prioritize the most important items for an efficient questionnaire to avoid disengagement of the respondents. All items and reliabilities are reported in Appendix B in paper 3. Papers 2 and 3 include more details on the independent variables, data collection and analysis.

3.5 Ethical considerations

Elderly people are generally considered a vulnerable group depending on their health status (Rosenbaum et al., 2017), which should be considered in the research process. However, in my sample, only healthy home-living elderly with no mental deficiencies or age-related illnesses (e.g., dementia) were included. Further, the topic of institutions, such as nursing homes, could be sensitive to some due to, for example, past experiences of relatives and media coverage. Generally, research within the health care context is considered sensitive to a certain extent (Elmir et al., 2011). This was considered before conducting the interviews, which were open to sharing details of personal experiences.

4 Summary of the papers in the thesis

This thesis explores aging consumers expectations of institutional food and their antecedents and addresses this aim through three research papers. Table 2 provides a brief summary of the research gaps, main objectives, study designs and key findings of the papers. The summaries are further detailed in the subsequent sections.

Table 2 - Summary of papers

Title	Research gap	Main objective	Study design	Main findings
"The Good, The Bad and the Minimum Tolerable": Exploring Expectations of Institutional Food	Research on aging consumers' expectations in the institutional food (non- hedonic) context	Explore expectation types in the context of institutional food expectations	Exploratory; qualitative in-depth interviews (n=14) with aging consumers (56-79 years old)	The expectation types were bundled in three groups based on their function: positive, negative and neutral, and related to specific consumption goals. Findings were proposed to an updated expectation hierarchy and expectancy-disconfirmation model.
"Same Same, but Different": Insights on Ageing Consumers and their Expectations of Institutional Food	Research on differences within the baby boomer cohort in relation to their individual characteristics and expectations	Identify meaningful segments of aging consumers based on individual characteristics, and investigate differences in normative expectation between the groups	Exploratory; cross-sectional survey (n=300) with aging consumers (50-80 years old)	A four-cluster solution was reached. Public policy implications are recommended for each segment to increase likelihood of meeting expectations.
What Drives Consumer Expectations for Institutional Food? Identifying Antecedents of Normative and Predictive Expectations in Baby Boomers	Research on antecedents of various expectation types, and investigating the role of internal factors in expectation formation in a non-hedonic consumption experience	Investigate the relationship between individual psychological (entitlement, subjective knowledge, and disconfirmation sensitivity), and sociocultural (temporal focus and word-of-mouth) determinants, and normative and predictive expectations among aging consumers	Descriptive; multiple cross- sectional survey with two distinct samples (n=600) with aging consumers (50-80 years old)	Normative and predictive expectations have distinct dimensions, and the antecedents influence the expectation types differently. Individual determinants largely influence normative expectations, while sociocultural determinants mainly influence predictive expectations.

4.1 Paper 1

Paper 1, entitled "The Good, The Bad and the Minimum Tolerable: Exploring Expectations of Institutional Food," empirically explores aging consumers expectations of institutional food, with emphasis on expectation type content and dynamics. In-depth interviews (n=14) were conducted with aging consumers (55-79 years old) and analysed using content analysis. The findings elicit six expectation types (and affective expectations) in the institutional food context, each linked to consumption goals and functions based on their content. This paper proposes a revised expectation hierarchy (Santos & Boote, 2003) and propositions for an extended expectancy-disconfirmation model (Oliver, 1980) for the institutional food context to be tested in future research. Paper 1 was published in a special issue "Individual Determinants of Food Choice in a new Decade" in *Foods*, 10(4):767 (Andreassen et al., 2021).

4.2 Paper 2

Paper 2 was motivated by the need to quantitatively test the validity of the expectations identified in paper 1 and explore whether individual characteristics of aging consumers could lead to different expectations of institutional food. Based on the content and function of the expectation types identified in paper 1, normative expectations were seen as most useful (for practice) to focus on. Paper 2 is entitled "Same Same, but Different – Insights on Ageing Consumers and their Expectations of

Institutional Food". The purpose of this study was to identify meaningful segments of aging consumers based on individual characteristics (entitlement, subjective food knowledge, disconfirmation sensitivity and age), and investigate differences in normative expectations between the groups. Cross-sectional survey data (N=300) from aging consumers (50-80 years old) was collected. Cluster analysis led to a four-cluster solution with different levels of normative expectations of institutional food, cluster 1: Uninvolved Oldies, cluster 2: Humble Old Foodies, cluster 3: Entitled Youngsters, and cluster 4: Food Experts. Recommendations for public policy implications for each segment is provided in the paper. Paper 2 was published in *British Food Journal* (Andreassen et al., 2022).

4.3 Paper 3

Paper 3 sought to validate the expectation instrument developed in paper 2, and measure two expectation types of institutional food. Moreover, there was a need to test if and how internal factors influence institutional food expectations. Paper 3 is entitled "What Drives Consumer Expectations for Institutional Food? Identifying Antecedents of Normative and Predictive Expectations in Baby Boomers." The purpose of this study was to measure two distinct expectation types (normative and predictive) and identify individual psychological (entitlement, subjective food knowledge, and disconfirmation sensitivity) and sociocultural antecedents (temporal focus and word-of-mouth) of normative and predictive expectations of institutional food. Paper 3

employed a multiple cross-sectional survey design. Two cross-sectional surveys were distributed (total N=600) to aging consumers (50-80 years old) in Norway in 2020 and 2022. The results revealed that normative and predictive expectations have different dimensions and levels, and the proposed antecedents influence the expectation types differently. The individual psychological determinants largely influenced normative expectations, while the sociocultural factors mainly influenced predictive expectations. Paper 3 is currently in a review process for the special issue "Future Trends in Consumer Behaviour" in *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*.

5 Discussion

This chapter discusses the results from the three papers in relation to previous literature on expectations, antecedents, and the institutional food service. Consequently, contributions and implications are provided, before limitations of the thesis are addressed.

5.1 Expectations of institutional food

The findings from this thesis demonstrate the complexity of institutional food expectations. Paper 1 identified six distinct expectation types (worst imaginable, minimum tolerable, predictive, normative, ideal, deserved), and the scope was narrowed down to normative and predictive expectations in papers 2 and 3. This choice was made based on previous studies (James, 2011; Meirovich et al., 2020) and the observation that normative and predictive expectations in the institutional food context represent high and low (positive and negative) expectations (from paper 1's findings). Paper 1 proposed that expectation types are linked to different content and consumption goals. Papers 2 and 3 further added to this notion and demonstrated various dimensions of normative and predictive expectations. Several of the expectation dimensions represent aspects of the institutional food service that other researchers have found to improve satisfaction and food intake, such as food variety and servicescape (Carins et al., 2020) and food choice (Abbey et al., 2015). This thesis adds to this knowledge by placing these aspects on the expectation hierarchy. On a more abstract level, this thesis suggests that normative expectations are more focused on factors related to the self in the consumption context, whereas predictive expectations are more product oriented. This notion is discussed in greater depth in section 5.2.3.

Although the findings from this thesis are limited to the institutional food service, they underline the importance of considering context, and call for using caution in applying the same theoretical assumptions for hedonic and non-hedonic experiences. Contrary to previous research (Santos & Boote, 2003), findings from this thesis suggests that predictive expectations of institutional food can be lower than minimum tolerable expectations. This phenomenon has previously been reported in other studies of expectations of non-hedonic experiences (Dean, 2004). Thus, meeting predictive expectations (and lower types in the expectation hierarchy) may not lead to satisfaction (Yüksel & Yüksel, 2001), as dictated in e.g., the expectancydisconfirmation model. Paper 1 elaborates more on how this would have implications for zone of tolerance theory (Zeithaml et al., 1993), which means that the zone of tolerance is narrower than assumed. In practice, this means that expectations that yield satisfactory outcomes are more difficult to meet in the institutional food service, and possibly in other non-hedonic experiences. More research is needed to explore the relationship between predictive and minimum tolerable expectations in the institutional food context.

The qualitative material indicated the presence of affective expectations, which is what the consumers expect to feel like in an upcoming experience (Geers & Lassiter, 2002). This topic was not pursued further in the quantitative studies of this thesis but could be a fruitful avenue for future research. It would be interesting to explore how affective expectations of institutional food relate to anticipation. Consumer anticipation occurs in situations of delayed consumption and are related to, but distinct from, cognitive and affective expectations (Vichiengior et al., 2019). Elements from anticipation literature would be useful to incorporate in expectation theory to broaden our understanding of the process of forming expectations of institutional food. For example, it would be interesting to study the impact of institutional bias on the anticipation process.

5.2 Antecedents of institutional food expectations

5.2.1 The role of individual psychological determinants

The findings from this thesis show that individual psychological determinants are important to consider as antecedents of institutional food expectations. Entitlement, disconfirmation sensitivity, and subjective food knowledge were included in papers 2 and 3. These traits were included as it was hypothesized that they represent traits among consumers that could contribute to explaining the tendency toward

greater expectations (Alba et al., 1994; Boyd & Helms, 2005; Gill & Cameron, 2020). The idea was that the chosen determinants represent the "new" elderly (baby boomers) and what is "new" in society for them compared to previous generations, for example digitalization and technological advances.

Entitlement represents a trend in today's consumer society and is motivated by media influence and wealth. The younger segments, such as millennials, are often pointed to as the most entitled generation (Twenge & Campbell, 2009). However, baby boomers were the first generation to grow up with television, economic prosperity, and safety, and are often characterized as more demanding than prior generations (Schewe et al., 2000; Szmigin & Carrigan, 2001). Paper 3 showed that entitlement has a positive relationship with all normative expectations, except sustainability, and influenced only one predictive expectation dimension (further discussed in section 6.2.3). Previous studies suggested that entitled consumers are more egocentric and more prone to complain (Martin et al., 2018; Martin et al., 2017). Future research should experimentally test how entitled vs. non-entitled consumers react to disconfirmation of expectations of institutional food.

Disconfirmation sensitivity and subjective food knowledge were included to capture individual determinants directly related to food behaviours. Disconfirmation sensitivity had a strong, positive impact on all normative dimensions, which contrasts with prior research that found the opposite effect (Kopalle & Lehmann, 2001). In practice, the results

from paper 3 indicate that consumers who are more sensitive to have their food expectations disconfirmed, have higher normative expectations of institutional food. The effect of disconfirmation sensitivity is, however, more likely to occur as the temporal distance to the event grows nearer (Monga & Houston, 2006). Given that the institutional food experience seems distant to most people, and may not be subject to anticipation, this could contribute to explain the results.

Subjective food knowledge was included to represent the trend of consumers becoming increasingly knowledgeable (Alba et al., 1994). about food because of freely available information. Although individual differences exist, research suggest that the elderly (in general) care about eating healthy food, and are interested in the beneficial effects of functional foods (Annunziata et al., 2015; Ravoniarison, 2017). In sample 1, subjective knowledge had a positive influence on all normative expectation dimensions, however in sample 2 it only significantly influenced freedom of choice and sustainability expectations. This could be due to sample differences or the slightly different factor structure in samples 1 and 2. Both disconfirmation sensitivity and subjective knowledge can be seen as indicators of involvement: meaning that they represent how important e.g., food, is to the consumer. Although scarcely researched, some recent studies have found that involvement positively influenced expectations (Krishnamurthy & Kumar, 2018; Pereira Filho & Moreno Añez, 2021), which supports the results of this thesis.

Paper 2 showed that it is possible to identify various segments of aging consumers based on individual characteristics (entitlement, subjective food knowledge, disconfirmation sensitivity and age), that have different levels of normative expectations. For future research, it would be interesting to combine the insights from this segmentation tool with food behaviours and habits, for example the food-related lifestyle instrument (Aschemann-Witzel, 2018; Aschemann-Witzel et al., 2021; Yeo et al., 2020), or food-related personality traits such as food neophobia (Tuorila et al., 2001) and health consciousness (Jin et al., 2017). This would provide useful insights for policy makers and contribute with perspectives on how their characteristics may translate into actual behaviours.

5.2.2 The role of sociocultural determinants

This thesis shows that sociocultural determinants have potential to influence institutional food expectations. In paper 3, word-of-mouth (WOM) was included as an antecedent to represent common social perceptions of the consumption experience (Krishnamurthy & Kumar, 2018). In Norway, the common sociocultural perception of institutions for the elderly is deep-rooted. Media coverage and political debates (e.g., Evensen & Melbye, 2022; Forbrukerrådet, 2015) leads it to be a topic often discussed socially, thus WOM was hypothesized to influence expectations. Contrary to prior research (e.g., Clow et al., 1997; Zeithaml et al., 1993), the results from paper 3 suggest that WOM has opposite

influence on normative and predictive expectations. Negative WOM contributed to decrease predictive expectations, but also to increase normative expectations. Other studies have reported this phenomenon and argue that negative WOM can have positive consequences (Allard et al., 2020; Berger et al., 2010). One explanation could be that hearing about upsetting institutional food experiences and unfairness activates a mechanism that creates awareness of what institutional food should be like, and thus raises their normative expectations. Future studies should investigate the validity, mechanism, and consequences of WOM on institutional food expectations.

Temporal focus was included to account for time-perspective, which is relevant due to expectations being future-oriented (Shipp & Aeon, 2019). Prior research on temporal focus show that future focus is positively related to consumption of functional (Nystrand et al., 2021) and sustainable foods (Olsen & Tuu, 2021), and other health promoting behaviours (Chandran et al., 2004). Findings from this thesis suggests that temporal focus (future focus) contributed to an increase in predictive expectations (of food quality and food origin), but not normative expectations (except freedom of choice). In the context of institutional food for aging consumers, it would be interesting to investigate if and how expectations of institutional food change over time had any association with the aging process and subsequent shifts in temporal focus (Park et al., 2017).

5.2.3 The antecedent-expectation relationship

A key finding in paper 3 was that antecedents do not influence the expectation types equally. Normative expectations, connected to a focus on factors related to the self, are influenced by individual psychological determinants, whereas predictive expectations are more connected to focus on the actual food and influenced by sociocultural determinants. For example, normative expectations are more multidimensional, including dimensions such as freedom of choice, while predictive dimensions focus on food attributes, with dimensions of food quality and food origin. By definition, normative expectations represent norms and values (Santos & Boote, 2003) and predictive expectations are more influenced by concrete features (Hjortskov, 2019), which could explain these results. However, there are also some exceptions. For instance, entitlement influenced all normative dimensions, expect sustainability. This may be because sustainability involves a greater sense of selflessness and is more focused on societal benefits, rather than individual benefits which often is the focus of entitled individuals (Strong & Martin, 2014). Entitlement has a positive association with predictive expectations of food quality. This could be due to the formulations of the food quality items and reference to terms such as "excellence," which are often associated with normative or ideal expectations (Parasuraman et al., 1988). Thus, the findings suggests that the expectation-antecedent relationship in the institutional food context may be content-dependent, however more research is needed to explore this notion.

5.3 Main contributions and implications

This section summarizes the main theoretical, practical, and methodological contributions implications from this thesis.

5.3.1 Main theoretical contributions and implications

This thesis contributes to explore expectations and their antecedents in a novel, non-hedonic context. The findings have implications for our understanding of how expectation types operate and should be conceptualized in the institutional food context. Specifically, choices of expectation types to measure in expectation models of the institutional food service should be informed by contextual considerations (Dean, 2004). The findings recommend focus on normative rather than predictive expectations in the institutional food context, in support of other research on public service expectations (Hjortskov, 2019, 2020). Normative expectations are more stable (Hjortskov, 2019), dependent on context (Santos & Boote, 2003), and resilient to negative prior performance, which triggers dissatisfaction rather than lowering expectations to create passive acceptance (James, 2011), as may be the case with predictive expectations (Kopalle & Lehmann, 2001). Future research should explore the optimal way to conceptualize expectations in non-hedonic experiences (Hjortskov, 2020; James, 2011).

Further, this thesis contributes to add insights into how expectations of institutional food are formed. In support of previous

research (Kopalle & Lehmann, 2001; Abrate et. al., 2021; Chiang & Jang, 2008; Russell-Bennett & Rosenbaum, 2019), the findings emphasize the importance of understanding aging consumers individual characteristics, as this appears to influence their normative expectations of institutional food. Moreover, the findings contribute to with perspectives to the call by Lloyd and Mertens (2018), in exploring if sociocultural factors influence expectancies. This thesis implies that the consumers surroundings (their sociocultural determinants) does influence their predictive expectations of institutional food.

5.3.2 Main practical contributions and implications

On a practical level, this thesis contributes knowledge that future institutions and policy makers could use to meet aging consumers expectations of institutional food. The consumer perspective adheres to user involvement principles (Hall et al., 2018) and addresses the institutional food challenge from a new perspective. The findings elicit specific institutional food expectations, which implies that food quality, freedom of choice, servicescape, sustainability, and food variety are important aspects to consider for the upcoming wave of elderly. Second, understanding individual characteristics can provide different strategies to assist in meeting aging consumers' expectations of institutional food, as elaborated in paper 2. A growing trend in institutions today is to decentralize the kitchens, which has been criticized for e.g., failing to meet the consumers' needs and requests on demand (Hartwell et al.,

2006; Høy Engelund et al., 2007; Johns et al., 2013). The implications from this thesis support Maitre et al., (2014) in recommending that institutional food services should use an individual, rather than a collective system to meet the expectations of each individual.

The findings could be useful to consider for food providers for the elderly beyond traditional institutions. There will be a significant gap between available and needed resources to meet health care demands towards 2060 (Sæther & Larsen, 2017). To meet expectations, new technologies such as ordering systems (Maunder et al., 2015) or robots (Huisman & Kort, 2019) could be interesting to explore further. The current strategy is it to help the elderly live home for as long as possible (Omsorgsdepartementet, 2022), hence alternative food services may have an important role in catering to aging baby boomers in the future (Sæther & Larsen, 2017). For example, services such as meals-onwheels (MOW) seek to support aging in the home by providing food security and nutrition (Winterton, 2012). Private institutions or other assisted-living units may be more prominent, and elderly are expected to be increasingly willing to pay price premiums for food or private care home options to have their expectations met (Meyer, 2017; Milte et al., 2018; Rosenbaum et al., 2017).

5.3.3 Main methodological contributions and implications

As called for by several studies (e.g., MacInnis et al., 2020), this thesis used multiple methods and included interviews and multiple crosssectional surveys to explore a real-world societal challenge using consumer theories. This thesis contributes by developing and validating measurement scales for normative and predictive expectations that could be used in other health care or institutional settings. The development process of the scale addresses some of the critiques against other forms of measuring expectations, for instance lack of contextualization in the SERVQUAL model (Parasuraman et al., 1988), and avoiding the use of the word "expect" in the items (Hjortskov, 2020). Moreover, satisfaction and experience surveys have largely been used to collect data on the principle that health care services should use the consumers' feedback to make improvements (Gill & White, 2009; Hall et al., 2018). However, long delays between the process of data collection to actual decisionmaking that affects the consumers and infrequent data collections lead to the knowledge becoming outdated (Davies & Cleary, 2005; Reeves & Seccombe, 2008). Research on the elderly is often done by surveying or interviewing health personnel, not the elderly themselves (Huseby Bøhn et al., 2018). The methodological choice to include aging consumers who are not currently in institutions enables institutions to be more proactive.

5.4 Limitations

Despite the contributions of this thesis, there are some important limitations to address. Measures such as representative samples of aging consumers in Norway, use of multiple methods, and replicated studies contribute to strengthen the external validity of the findings. However, generalizability of the findings is limited to Norwegian elderly population. Although some lines are drawn to non-hedonic contexts throughout the thesis, these are meant as indications and avenues for future research, inferences for non-hedonic contexts in general cannot be made based on this thesis. Moreover, some important aspects related to aging, such as health status and illnesses, have intentionally been disregarded in favour of the consumer-lens (Moschis, 2012) in this thesis, but it is important to note that this could influence the results.

Measuring expectations toward an uncertain, future experience is complex. Although expectations are mental constructs, it is possible they could change over time and with aging. Previous studies argued that normative expectations are quite stable (James, 2011; Hjortskov, 2019), and that time itself is not a motive for expectations to change (Clow et al., 1998; Oliver, 1980; Tam, 2005); however, a longitudinal study of expectations among aging consumers is warranted for future research. The thesis does not present any causal results and is based on correlational data. Some of the known issues with measuring expectations, such as measuring post experience (Higgs et al., 2005; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2001) or confusion about expectation types (Hjortskov, 2020), were addressed in this research, yet the optimal way

to measure expectations is still ambiguous. Previous research has found that the questionnaire order of the expectation types could impact the results, specifically, asking about normative expectations could drive predictive expectations upwards (Hjortskov, 2020). Thus, the predictive expectations in this thesis may be reported slightly higher than intended.

6 Concluding remarks and future directions

The main conclusion of this thesis is that institutional food expectations are complex, yet important constructs to understand for future food services. This thesis adds new perspectives on what aging consumers expect of institutional food and contribute to understand their internal drivers behind these expectations. Practical implications can be used by governments, institutions, and health services to prepare to meet the expectations of aging consumers.

Future research should continue to investigate expectations of institutional food using a consumer behaviour perspective. Of special importance is the investigation of the stability of the current findings, and longitudinal studies on if and how expectations may change over time is warranted. For example, conducting longitudinal, time-lagged studies would be useful to detect changes in institutional food expectations over time. Moreover, research should investigate and expectation types and antecedents in other consumption experiences, and test if the current findings apply in other non-hedonic contexts. The individual psychological and sociocultural determinants included as antecedents in this thesis all represent fruitful avenues for future research, and our understanding of them related to expectation types is only in its infancy.

An important avenue for future research is to explore the consequences of disconfirmed expectations in the institutional food

service. Testing the full expectancy-disconfirmation model would be an important contribution to identify key elements in meeting different types of aging consumers' expectations of institutional food and suggest management implications. Prior research suggests that optimal management strategy for expectations may depend on individual characteristics among consumers, such as their ability and motivation to process information (Habel et al., 2016). Based on the findings on internal factors influence institutional food expectations, it would be interesting to investigate whether these determinants influence how consumers behave in the face of disconfirmation, for example by employing the segmentation tool from paper 2. This knowledge could be used to identify strategies to minimize negative disconfirmation outcomes and further policy implications for the institutional food service

Lastly, I hope this thesis encourage further research on the institutional food service using a consumer centric approach. Future research should apply innovative methods, for example design-thinking (Veflen & Ueland, 2021), to uncover new perspectives in catering to the future consumers of institutional food.

7 References

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- 8 Full papers
- 8.1 Paper 1





"The Good, The Bad, and the Minimum Tolerable": Exploring **Expectations of Institutional Food**

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Abstract: There is a tendency towards greater expectations of consumer goods and services in society—what was once judged as ideal may now be a bare minimum. This presents a challenge for food providers in the upcoming decades. As the more demanding baby boomer cohort ages, health institutions of the future will face challenges meeting their food expectations. The purpose of this study was to explore expectation type dynamics and function with updated empirical material on aging consumers expectations of institutional food and advance our current understanding of how consumers evaluate their expectations. This qualitative study employed in-depth semi structured interviews with 14 informants between the age of 58-79. Content analysis was performed to capture the informants' food expectations based on the expectation hierarchy proposed by Santos and Boote. Analyzing the content and relationship between different expectation types led to three main findings: expectation functions and content, interconnectedness, and the role of affect. Based on the findings this study contributes by making several propositions for future research and proposes an updated expectancy-disconfirmation model. Importantly, this study provides novel knowledge that can help health institutions understand and meet aging consumers expectations of institutional food.

Keywords: food expectations; aging consumers; health services



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1. Introduction

Aging consumers are now recognized as more diverse compared to younger consumers with regards to needs, lifestyle and habits [1,2]. Particularly, as the baby boomer generation ages, these differences are becoming even more clear [3]. Baby boomers are known for being more demanding, having higher purchasing power, and being healthier than ever before, and they are accustomed to a more comfortable life than previous generations [3,4]. Moreover, they make up an increasingly large portion of society [5] In other words, they are the next big generation to please. The aging population and a tendency towards greater expectations [6] creates especially large challenges for health services and institutions. How can health institutions prepare for the demands of the upcoming wave of elderly? Research shows that food in health institutions are important factors for the resident's quality of life and well-being [7]. However, the current food situation in institutions is colored by institutional biasattitudes towards the food served [8,9], and several studies highlight issues with the food in institutions [8,10,11]. The discrepancy between generally rising expectations and negative perceptions of institutional food is troublesome considering the increasing demand in the future [12]. In order to prepare for the future wave of elderly in health institutions, it is thus important to understand their expectations and how they are evaluated.

The present study focuses on aging consumers' expectations towards food in health institutions, specifically hospitals and nursing homes, in a Norwegian context. Expectations is a multifaceted construct, and we lack updated empirical knowledge on expectations and their impact on satisfaction judgements today. In order to further our knowledge

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of pre-consumption expectations in current time, this paper seeks to empirically explore different types of expectations based on the expectation hierarchy proposed by Santos and Boote [13]. This framework is used as a basis for exploration, but not exhaustively. The context of institutional food is timely and important as the future consumers (baby boomers) are representing a shift towards greater expectations, and society face challenges in accommodating the upcoming wave of elderly. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to explore expectation type dynamics and identify their functions in the context of institutional food and to incorporate these findings in into the expectancy-disconfirmation model [14].

Expectations are important to understand due to their role in consumer satisfaction [15,16]. The well-known expectancy-disconfirmation model [14] explains satisfaction as an additive function of expectations and perceptions, which results in disconfirmation. The theory holds that positive disconfirmation leads to satisfaction, and negative disconfirmation leads to dissatisfaction and the effect of disconfirmation in a variety of contexts, such as in airports [17], public services [15,18,19], and tourism [20]. Furthermore, the widely used Service Quality Model [21] also compares expectations of the perceived service to determine service quality. In other words, the importance of expectations is well-established, however, the optimal definition and nature of expectations is still not fully understood.

Expectations are pre-trial beliefs about a product or service and its performance at some future time [22,23], and may be considered with or without comparison to the actual level of performance [24–26]. Put differently, expectations are judgements of what consumers think will or should happen under particular circumstances [27]. A complex issue with the expectation construct is different expectation types [13]—what the consumers realistically expects may be very different from what they ideally expect. Research suggests that consumers understand and use several levels of expectations simultaneously [28–30]. However, researchers disagree revolving the number of expectation types, the dynamics and interaction between them, and which type is optimal for measuring satisfaction. Previous studies show that measuring different expectation types will yield different satisfaction outcomes for the same product or service [18,31,32]. Therefore, it is important to further our understanding of how the expectation types function, as it can have a huge impact on satisfaction results.

Previous studies have documented several distinct expectation types, with the most cited types being predictive, normative, ideal, and minimum tolerable expectations [28,30,32]. In the consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction (CS/D) literature, predictive expectations dominate [32] while in the service quality (SQ) literature ideal and normative types are mostly used [33]. More recently, the CS/D and SQ literature has been increasingly reconciled [32]. Santos and Boote [13] proposed a hierarchy of expectation types in their theoretical model of consumer expectations, bridging the CS/D and SQ literature. The hierarchy includes standards based on 56 expectation definitions, and were summarized as ideal, normative, desired, predicted, minimum tolerable, intolerable, and worst imaginable (see Santos and Boote [13] for expectation hierarchy). Table 1 contains explanations of the proposed expectation types.

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Table 1. Expectation types definitions and characteristics.

Expectation Type	Definition	Characteristics Based on needs and wants [13]. Stable over time [35].	
Ideal	The highest level of expectations Explained as i.e., the «wished for» level of performance [34].		
Should (normative)	What a customer feels a service should offer, rather than would offer [36].	Based on persuasion-based antecedents or the market supplier [23]. Stable over time [18].	
Desired (want)	The level of performance that consumers want or hope to receive [13]	Based on mix of realistic predictions of what "can be" and what "should be" [13].	
Predicted (will)	What a consumer expects predict will or is likely to happen in the next interaction with the service or product [25].	Based on past experience and perceived past performance. Less rigid than above types [18].	
Minimum tolerable (adequate)	The minimum acceptable baseline of performance [34].	Implications for zone of tolerance—from ideal to minimum tolerable expectations: the extent to which consumers accept heterogeneity [33].	
Intolerable	A level of performance or a set of expectations the consumer will not accept [37].	May stem from word of mouth, personal experiences bad memories [13].	
Worst imaginable	The worst imaginable scenario in a given context—the "worst case scenario" [13]	May stem from media (television, news, social media, radio) [13].	
Deserved The consumers view on the service encounter they fell they appropriately deserve [22].		Related to equity theory. Can interact with any of the other expectation types from normative to minimum tolerable [13].	

Although a stream of research in the 1980s and 1990s made important progress on understanding the expectation construct [29,33,38], many of the ideas and propositions made then were never adequately tested. Sweeney et al. [39] state that research on expectations has almost vanished in recent years, despite the evolving and dynamic nature of expectations demanding it. Therefore, it is important to develop a more solid understanding of expectations, especially considering the tendency towards greater expectations. Notwithstanding, the theoretical findings based on research from several decades ago may not hold up due to the change in consumers lifestyle [6]. This is especially relevant for the aging consumer population who represent a "new old" compared to previous elderly generations [4,5,40]. Additionally, market trends demonstrate that consumers are increasingly concerned with what they eat, in terms of for instance healthiness, appearance and sustainability [41–46]. These two trends present a challenge for institutional food providers and updating our knowledge on consumer expectations in this context is crucial.

2. Methods

The study adopted a qualitative research design to explore the expectation construct in the specific context of institutional food. An explorative method is used to gain a deeper understanding of the construct, clarify concepts, and eventually propose hypotheses [47]. This was deemed an appropriate method for this study as we seek to revisit how consumers

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describe expectations and explore dynamics between the expectation types as an evaluation occurs. To do that, it is important to assign content and meaning to the expectation types and create a solid understanding of the contextual situation. In other words, a qualitative research design allows us to explore the expectations and the interplay between them and make propositions for further research. Fourteen in-depth semi-structured interviews were conducted and analysed using a content analysis approach [48]. Saturation was achieved after 13 interviews, and the last interview confirmed saturation. The Norwegian Centre for Research Data [49] approved the data collection (NSD reference number: 493572).

By agreement, the interviews were audio-recorded and subsequently transcribed for analysis purposes. All interviews started with an initial phase during which the participants were informed about the aim and nature of the study, how the data will be stored and how the participants can withdraw from the study (informed consent).

The interviewees were consumers between 58 and 79 years old, with a different experience of institutional food—ranging from direct, indirect (through close family members), and no experience. All informants were recruited in Norway. It was important to strive for variety among the participants in terms of age, experience, type of institution, and gender to broadly sample the domain of the expectations construct. Before recruitment, the inclusion and exclusion criteria for the study were established. An inclusion criterion was that the maximum age of the informant was 80 years of age and the minimum age was 55 years old. Based on statistics from SSB (2018) on institutionalized individuals and duration spent in institutions [50], we chose to use 80 years old as a mean estimate for elderly institutionalization, thereby the upper age limit. The minimum age was chosen based on population prognosis [51] and to include the baby boomer cohort (aged 55–75 in 2019), which is predicted to be increasingly different from previous generations of elderly [3]. Exclusion criteria were mature consumers outside the age range and people in the age group 55–80 currently admitted to institutions full-time (e.g., nursing homes) or part-time (rehabilitation centers). Table 2 provides descriptive information about the sample.

Table 2. Sample demographics. Experience with institutional food: direct personal experience, indirect: experience of relatives, friends, etc.

Informant ID	Gender	Age	Marital Status	Experience with Institutional Food	Impression of Institutional Food
ID1	Male	77	Married	Direct	Negative
ID2	Female	68	Married	Indirect	Negative
ID3	Male	70	Married	Indirect	Positive
ID4	Female	58	Married	None	Neutral
ID5	Female	79	Single	Indirect	Negative
ID6	Female	78	Married	Indirect	Negative
ID7	Female	73	Single	Direct and indirect	Negative
ID8	Male	59	Single	Direct and indirect	Positive
ID9	Female	60	Married	Direct and indirect	Negative
ID10	Male	66	Single	None	Neutral
ID11	Male	64	Married	Indirect	Neutral
ID12	Female	60	Married	Indirect	Negative
ID13	Female	73	Single	Direct and indirect	Negative
ID14	Female	77	Married	Direct and indirect	Negative

The informants were recruited using a purposive sampling technique. Before the day of the interview, the informants were sent an informational letter about the project. The informants were told that the institutions of interest were nursing homes and hospitals. All the interviews were held in places that were convenient for the informants, primarily in the informant's homes. The interviews were conducted from June 2019 to September 2019. In-depth semi-structured interviews were used to explore the consumer's expectations of the institutional food. This method allowed informants to provide detailed information

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that reflected their perspectives and gave the researcher the flexibility to address emerging areas of interest [52]. The interviews lasted approximately $45\,\mathrm{min}$ to $1\,\mathrm{h}$.

The interview guide included questions about the participants' expectations of the institutional food, perceptions, food habits, food-related personality traits, food preferences, and knowledge. Demographic questions were also included. In addition, we used established scales to formulate questions about food-related personality traits: food involvement (FIS) [53], food neophobia (FNS) [54], and health consciousness (HC) [55]. We have used 4 items from the FIS scale from the preparation and eating subscale. From the FNS scale, we used 2 items from the FOS scale were used: 1 from health consciousness subscale, 1 from health alertness subscale and 1 from health involvement subscale (see Table S1 in Supplementary Materials for list of items used). Notably, we did not measure the personality traits, but used the scale items as basis for a discussion about food personality. The questions about the expectation types were framed to capture the expectation type differences (see Table S2 in Supplementary Materials). Some of the expectation types were addressed directly, while others became clear indirectly through other topics. Progressively, the interview delved into the additional aspects revolving the institutional food experience. All interviews were recorded with the informant's permission and transcribed for analysis.

The data was analysed in NVivo 12 software using a content analysis approach. Content analysis allows for flexibility in using a combination of inductive and deductive approaches [56]. The interviews were analysed and coded simultaneously as the data collection continued, and the interpretation of the data evolved over time. Codes were adjusted as new conceptions appeared and connections between the codes were established during the analysis. Transcription was completed by the first author who also developed an initial codebook. All three authors met weekly to discuss the core codes and the sorting of the codes into concepts and categories. When all three authors agreed on the main categories reached, quotes representing the categories were added to illustrate the relationships between categories, concepts, codes, and citations.

3. Findings and Discussion

Analyzing the content and relationship between different expectation types led to three main findings: expectation functions and content, interconnectedness, and the role of affect. The following sections presents each finding and makes propositions for future research and suggests to incorporate an extended expectation construct into the expectancy-disconfirmation model.

3.1. Expectation Functions

From the empirical material, we were able to elicit several expectation types in the institutional food context: ideal, normative, deserved, predictive, minimum tolerable, and worst imaginable. Hence, this study supports the notion that consumers hold several expectation types simultaneously [32]. Through the analysis, we observed that the different expectation types were linked to specific consumption goals related to the institutional food experience. The focus of the content in the expectation types evolve from utilitarian (in the lower ranked expectation types) to hedonic consumption (in the higher ranked expectation types). In other words, in the lower expectations informants were concerned about quantity and practicalities revolving the food, while in the higher expectations hedonic values were more prominent. Moreover, our findings indicate three main functions of the expectation types: positive (the good), negative (the bad) and neutral (the minimum tolerable). Figure 1 illustrates our findings by providing a modified and extended expectation hierarchy based on the theoretical model by Santos and Boote [13]. The following sections presents and discusses the proposed functions, relative rankings, and consumption goals associated with each expectation type for the specific institutional food context.

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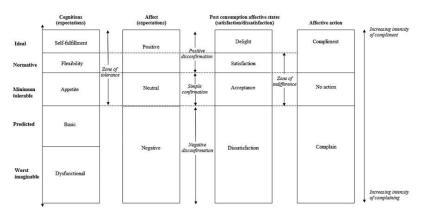


Figure 1. Extended Expectation Hierarchy.

"The good"

The positive expectations group consist of the types ranked above minimum tolerable, which in our study are the ideal, normative, and deserved expectation types (Figure 1). These are characterized by high hedonic focus and assert a positive influence on the total expectation's evaluation and contribute to rise the expectations. the positive expectation types build on each other and the neutral expectations. Hence, although the presentation of the positive expectations does not address expectations directly related to food quality, presentation and eating environment, it does not mean that they are not present in the positive expectation types. In this paper, we have chosen to focus on what distinguishes the expectation types from each other and what is *not* present in the lower ranked type. Thus, in the positive expectations, we address what *more* they expect at the normative and ideal level given that the neutral expectations are met.

ideal level given that the neutral expectations are met.

The highest level of expectations are the ideal expectations, which we suggest are linked to a "self-fulfilling food consumption". By this, we mean that the consumers ideally expect to be empowered to realize themselves and their preferences through their food consumption and choices. Importantly, most of the informants expect a high degree of freedom of choice and autonomy in the institutional food experience, as demonstrated by the following citation:

"The most important thing to me is freedom of choice \dots and a good glass of wine" (male, aged 64)

To achieve a higher sense of autonomy, several of the informant's mention having flexible menus as an important expectation, as illustrated in the citation below. To be able to choose where to eat, when to eat and with whom to eat were also mentioned as aspects of a self-fulfilling food consumption.

"What would be ideal, and a bit of a luxury, would be that when lunch and dinner time approaches, you would get a menu" (female, aged 60)

Although scarcely researched in this context, previous studies have found choice and autonomy in the institutional food experience to be related to enhanced motivation to consume meals, food satisfaction and well-being [57–59]. Most of the informants in this study (particularly the younger part of the sample) stressed the importance of expectations related to freedom of choice and were aware that it is not the norm in nursing homes today. The informants often draw lines to other food situations, for instance restaurants,

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in describing their ideal expectations, these expectations appear to function as an ideal ceiling for the institutional food experience. We suggest that the ideal expectations assert a strong positive influence on the total expectation evaluation and may create unrealistically high expectations (considering current practices) due to using food experiences outside the institutional context as a reference point.

The detected normative ("should") expectation type is explained as what the consumers think they should be able to expect. In our material, the normative expectations were more colored by the context than the ideal expectations, however still included untraditional aspects from the institutional perspective. This expectation type represents consumption goals related to what we define as "flexible food consumption". The informants discuss expectations of aspects related to food variety and various food types, often including reference to introducing more novel and international foods in institutions, such as Thai food, sushi, and tacos, as illustrated in the citation below. This appears to be especially important to the younger informants of the sample. Several of them stated that they gradually added new dishes to their diet and stayed updated on current "food trends", for instance by incorporating more vegetarian options in their diet, ecological food, and traditional dishes from other countries.

"I definitely believe future residents will think they should be able to expect more international food in institutions. Today, we have a lot of variation in food because we have changed our diet to something completely different. Our diet is much more internationalized, and thus people will demand more choice alternatives. Before it was fish, potato dumplings and minced meat. Today, you need to add tacos and stuff like that" (Male, aged 59)

Moreover, the expectation of flexibility in food consumption entails the possibility to have personalization and tailoring of the meals related to personal needs. Several informants point to the importance of having a diet that is nutritionally optimized to the specific health needs of each individual. A male informant underlines this in relation to the use of in-house or remote kitchen solutions for institutional food.

"The kitchen has to be placed in the institution if you want to serve local food and personalize the meals after needs, which is something I think should be prioritized" (Male, aged 77)

We suggest that the normative expectations influence the other expectation types positively and provides a more realistic point of reference that still would be able to generate satisfaction (compared to ideal expectations).

The deserved expectations type appears to be linked to goals of "dignified food consumption". All the informants expressed that the elderly in institutions deserved the best, as illustrated in the citation below. This strong sense of equity for the elderly appear to function as an amplifier on the positive and neutral expectations and triggers affective responses when evaluating the negatively loaded expectations. It appears to set the tone for further evaluation of what one expects. Therefore, it could be that deserved expectations may be where the initial (or one of the initial) expectation formations occur before the consumers proceed to formulate their other expectation types. We suggest that the function of the deserved expectations constitutes an overall positive effect and contributes to raise the expectations.

"When you get in the last stage of life, then you should be able to choose what you want to eat yourself. It should not even be a question—the elderly should be satisfied and prioritized." (Female, aged 68)

"The bad'

The negative expectation group consist of the types below minimum tolerable: the predictive and worst imaginable types (Figure 1). The predictive ("will") expectations in the material are predominantly negative, and they appear to function as a "damper" on the positive expectation types. The predictive expectations were clearly related to the

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informant's perceptions of the institutional food and constitute a "basic food consumption". In this study, a basic food consumption is explained as having acceptable food quality and supply at a utilitarian level. The informants predicted the basic aspects of a meal would be fulfilled, however they think they will be faced with several constraints hindering an optimal meal experience, such as lack of staff, finances, social interactions, and restricted autonomy. The dampening function of predictive expectations and expectations of constraints is illustrated in the citations below.

"I would like to have varied food (as in internationalization). But you cannot really expect that I think \dots but ideally, I would like some variation" (male, aged 70)

"I think there are miles of distance between the reality of institutional food, and how it should be". (Female, aged 73)

Contrary to previous research and the proposed model by Santos and Boote (2003), this study suggests that the predictive expectations are negative. This could be due to the context and institutional bias [8,9]. However, this could also be the case for other consumption contexts where the anticipated outcome is potentially negative, especially health services may be susceptible to this phenomenon. Further research is needed to determine whether this is a contextual matter, or a matter of generally higher expectations in society that are harder to meet.

The worst imaginable expectation type entail expectations of a "dysfunctional food consumption". Specifically, it includes expectations of insufficient food quality, quantity, and appetite-activation. These expectations induce fear and hopelessness in the informants, who were clearly affected when discussing this topic, for instance by expressing anger or frustration. These expectations appear to be based predominantly on media stories and word of mouth, as demonstrated in the citation below. Evidently, these expectations assert a strong negative influence on the other types and the expectations in total. In particular, the predictive expectations are often discussed in relation to the worst imaginable expectations.

"My neighbor had her husband in a nursing home. He was so thin because he was sick, but let me tell you, he lost even more weight up there (at the nursing home), and he was not the only one. Everyone talked about it, that they lost weight there due to insufficient food" (Female, aged 78)

"The minimum tolerable"

The neutral expectations consist of the minimum tolerable expectation type which we found to act as a baseline for what is acceptable. In our material, this baseline appears to be set relatively high compared to perceptions. We found this expectation type to be related to an "appetite inducing food consumption", meaning that the food and eating environment is set to stimulate appetite in the consumers. This expectation type contains a certain level of hedonic aspects in addition to the utilitarian focus. The informant's express expectations of social eating, for the food to have good taste and quality, to be nutritious and provide a sensory appeal. In other words, these informants at a minimum level expect the food and food experience to induce appetite in sensory and social regards.

"The food should be healthy and taste good. And adequate portions. That's really at a minimum level. If I were to go a bit above that, I would say it should look appetizing—but that is also minimum actually" (female, aged 60)

Interestingly, the empirical material indicates that minimum tolerable expectations are higher than predictive expectations. This is evident in our data as the predictive expectations are largely negative or modest at best, while the minimum tolerable expectations are positive and related to both sensory and social aspects of the food experience. The citations below illustrate the difference between the predictive and the minimum tolerable expectations, respectively.

Predictive: "Realistically, I'm not expecting any restaurant luxury. But that it is an average Norwegian diet" (male, aged 64)

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Minimum tolerable: "It should be good warm and appetizing food. In a cozy environment. That is at a minimum level. And good service. It's important for the atmosphere" (Female, aged 60)

Based on the model by Santos and Boote [13] switching the placing of these expectation types maps out a new zone of tolerance (Figure 1). The zone of tolerance (ZOT) is defined as ranging from ideal to minimum tolerable expectations and is explained as the range of service a consumer is willing to accept [33]. Therefore, this change in placement will have implications suggesting that consumers are harder to please than first assumed, as the zone of tolerance becomes narrower in this case. Moreover, it challenges some of the basic assumptions of ZOT theory [33]. As evident from the extended model based on our results (Figure 1), the zone of tolerance is narrower and subsequently impact the zone of indifference. Importantly, having higher minimum tolerable expectations than predictive expectations leads to a much higher risk of negative disconfirmation and thereby complaint behaviors, as the area of acceptance is smaller (see Santos and Boote [13] for original model and area of acceptance). Our extended model illustrate how it will be relatively more difficult to meet the expectations at the acceptable side of the line.

Contrary to previous research [13,33], our findings indicate that minimum tolerable expectations may be higher than predictive expectations. One exception is a study by Dean [31], who suggests that adequate expectations (similar to minimum tolerable expectations) are different from and relatively higher than predictive expectations in call centers. Dean [31] highlighted the importance of more research to establish the position of this expectation type. The present study contributes to do this by suggesting minimum tolerable expectations' relative ranking on an established scale of expectation types based on empirical data.

3.2. Interconnected Expectations

This study indicates that consumers hold several expectation types simultaneously and that they range on a spectrum, similar to the expectation hierarchy proposed by Santos and Boote [13]. The expectation types appear to be working dynamically together and influence each other as the consumers discuss their expectations of institutional food. We observe this tendency to varying degree among all the detected expectation types, whereas some of the types increase or decrease the level of other expectations. For example, the predictive expectations may have a dampening effect on the ideal expectations in the institutional food context.

"Ideally, I would expect to be able to choose whatever I want (to eat), but realistically I guess you cannot expect that" (Female, aged 73)

Another example of this is that the deserved expectations could influence and raise the minimum tolerable expectations, as demonstrated in the following citation:

"When it comes to elderly in nursing homes, I think we should not talk about a minimum. They have paid their taxes for all their years, so that is no way to treat the elderly. Yes, perhaps they don't need a 5-course dinner and wine every single day. But it should be good quality, healthy food, presented nicely, in a social, home-like environment. That would be a minimum requirement" (Female, aged 60)

Expectations may be more complex than assumed due to the continuous interplay in how consumers evaluate their expectations. The norm among scholars in measuring expectations in the expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm is choosing one or a few expectation types and measuring them independently. For instance, in CS/D literature, predictive expectations are most frequently used. The consequence of choosing a suboptimal expectation type to measure can have implications for the anticipated satisfaction results by providing an imprecise foundation of judgment. For instance, if one were to measure only the predictive expectations in relation to perceptions in the institutional food context, one would likely get an overrated satisfaction level due to the low predictive expectations.

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Considering the findings from this study, we have indications that meeting the predictive expectations of institutional food only would not necessarily generate satisfaction. Put differently, measuring for instance ideal and predictive expectations separately in an expectancy-disconfirmation model would yield very different and potentially inaccurate satisfaction results. By conceptualizing and capturing multiple expectation types, this could be avoided.

Based on our analysis, we make the following propositions for future research:

P1: The expectation types are interconnected and have the potential to influence each other.

P2: Consumers hold several expectation types simultaneously.

To further understand how expectation types influence each other, we suggest weighing the expectation types according to their function. Based on the observed content and function of the expectation types, we argue that the expectation types hold different weights that range from positive to negative that will impact the overall expectation judgment. For further testing, we propose weighting the specific expectation types according to their outcome importance and impact. In other words, how much will meeting the expectation types positively or negatively influence the rest of the model.

P3: The expectation types hold different weights (positive, negative, and neutral) that determines their function in relation to the other expectation types.

Further, we propose a modified hierarchy of expectations based on previous work by Santos and Boote [13], with changes in order of expectation types. Most important, the shift between the predictive and minimum tolerable expectation types could potentially create a narrower zone of tolerance which would make the institutional food consumers harder to please.

P4: Predictive expectations are lower than minimum tolerable expectations in the institutional food context.

Another avenue for future research is individual relative importance. From our material, we observe that some informants put more emphasis on certain expectation types than others. For instance, some informants appear to emphasize the negative expectations more than the positive expectations, and vice versa. Based on some tendencies in our qualitative material, we propose for further research to investigate how and if individual characteristics, such as food-related personality traits, influence the expectations the consumers hold in this context.

P5: Individual characteristics influence relative importance of expectation types in the institutional food context

3.3. Affective Expectations

While cognitive expectations consist of what consumers expect to happen, affective expectations address what the consumers expect to feel like in an upcoming experience [60]. Literature from psychology has researched this dimension of expectations, and the Affective Expectations Models holds that affective expectations shape the affective experience [61] According to the AEM, affective expectations (i.e., how much you think you will enjoy a meal) are as important in determining affective reactions (i.e., how much you actually enjoy the meal) as the information gathered during the actual consumption experience (i.e., the relative quality of the meal). This notion has been supported in a variety of research [60,62]. In other words, how you expect to feel, not just what you expect to happen, could influence how you judge the actual consumption experience. The affective pre-consumption dimension of expectations is thus important to understand in relationship with the cognitive pre-consumption expectations. Based on the interviews, we assume a tendency for the cognitive expectations to trigger affective expectations. For instance, the affective expectation of food joy is mentioned in relation to the expectation of social eating, and discussing negative expectations triggered sadness, as illustrated in the citations below. Therefore, we suggest an added dimension to the model based on the accompanying affective expectations of cognitive expectations as illustrated in Figure 2.

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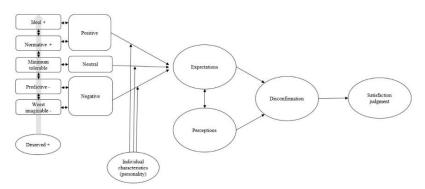


Figure 2. Proposed extension of the Expectancy-Disconfirmation Model.

"My mother did not want to go out of the room. She felt sad about the situation (in the institution). So, she stayed in her room and ate, and then she ate less and less. The food was halfway ruined when it came. It is so sad, horrifying, I think" (Female, aged 60)

"It would bring a lot of joy to sit around a table with someone you care about and share a good meal with" (Female, aged 68)

We propose that affective expectations should be further explored in relation to cognitive expectations. The empirical data indicate that affective expectations are present, and previous research demonstrates that it has important implications for the ultimate satisfaction judgements [61,62]. Therefore, we propose that cognitive expectations (what you expect to happen) is related to affective expectations (what you expect to feel like when something happens). This requires further testing.

Pi: Affective expectations are related to cognitive expectations, and disconfirmation of affective expectations will influence the ultimate satisfaction judgement.

P7: Cognitive expectations (positive, neutral, negative) generate positive, neutral, and negative affective expectations.

3.4. Extended Expectancy-Disconfirmation Model

Based on our empirical findings and propositions, we suggest an extended expectancy-disconfirmation model to test quantitatively in the institutional food context (Figure 2).

3.5. Limitations

Among the limitations of this study is a restricted sample size and generalizability because of the context. However, the research design brought forward valuable insights and knowledge about the expectations construct and expectation evaluation that has not been explored in the institutional food setting before. The data was coded and analyzed by the first author. Despite the authors' efforts to discuss the codes to avoid bias in interpreting the data and considering several plausible interpretations of the data, it is impossible to eliminate the possibility of bias. Further validation and exploration of the expectation types in institutional food should be undertaken through quantitative methods. The interview guide was tested repeatedly to remove unnecessary questions; however, it could have had limitations. It is also important to consider the potential issues with verbalizing expectations for an experience that is anticipated in the more distant future. The sample may have been narrow since all the informants lived in the same municipality in Norway. Nevertheless, the informants provided a broad representation of answers to the questions.

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> Future studies should use larger samples to include multiple segments of elderly and further explore our findings quantitatively.

4. Conclusions

In the upcoming decades, understanding food expectations is important, especially for institutions that will meet the challenge of catering to the increasingly large and demanding aging population. This study implies that changes in consumer lifestyle and food habits are reflected in expectations towards institutional food. Self-fulfillment through food choices and flexibility as in offering international and tailored foods appear to be especially important expectations that should be prioritized in institutions such as nursing homes in the future.

Revisiting expectation theory and the expectancy disconfirmation paradigm is called for in these changing times. The present study contributes to the literature by providing updated insights on how consumers evaluate their expectations in the institutional food context. Our findings indicate that the expectation types may be highly interconnected, and we therefore suggest considering how they influence each other by giving them specific weights representable for their function on the total expectation evaluation. In other words, this study contributes to expand the meaning of expectations by incorporating several expectation types in the expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm. If possible, it would be of great practical use for researchers and marketers to provide a measurement instrument to capture multiple aspects of expectations and yield more accurate results in expectancydisconfirmation models. Further, contrary to previous research [13] the findings indicate that minimum tolerable expectations may be higher than predictive expectations, which would have implications for ZOT theory compatible with the tendency towards greater expectations. In other words, the bar of what is considered acceptable could be raised and the consumers may be harder to please. This is interesting to explore further, especially with regards to aging consumers and baby boomers, change in consumers lifestyle and the continuously competitive marketplace. Lastly, we make several suggestions to further research on expectations by incorporating affective expectations with cognitive expectations and propose an extended expectancy-disconfirmation model for quantitative testing.

Supplementary Materials: The following are available online at https://www.mdpi.com/article/ 10.3390/foods10040767/s1, Table S1: Interview guide—food-personality; Table S2: Interview guide capturing different expectation types.

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8.2 Paper 2

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"Same, same but different": insights on ageing consumers and their expectations of institutional food

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