

# What drives consumer expectations for institutional food? Identifying antecedents of normative and predictive expectations in baby boomers

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## Abstract

Consumer expectations play a crucial role in shaping consumer experiences, and it is important to understand what factors contribute to these expectations. However, there is limited research on the factors that influence expectations, particularly internal factors. Additionally, few studies differentiate between types of expectations and their underlying causes. This study focuses on normative and predictive expectations related to institutional food and examines how individual psychological factors (such as entitlement, subjective knowledge, and sensitivity to disconfirmation) and socio-cultural factors (like word of mouth and temporal focus) influence these expectations. The researchers used surveys to collect data from two different groups of baby boomers in Norway, with a total of 300 participants in each group. The findings reveal that normative and predictive expectations for institutional food differ in their content, and individual psychological and sociocultural factors affect different types of expectations. Individual psychological factors have a stronger influence on normative expectations, whereas sociocultural factors primarily impact predictive expectations. Further research should explore the relationship between the content of expectations and their drivers in other contexts. This study contributes to our understanding of the factors that shape consumer expectations, particularly in non-hedonic consumption experiences.

## 1 | INTRODUCTION

The importance of meeting consumer expectations is well-established in previous research. Expectations may influence consumers' motivation to consume (Talwar et al., 2021; Vroom, 1964), as well as their perceptions of (Lee et al., 2006) and satisfaction (Oliver, 1980; Szymanski & Henard, 2001) with the consumption experience. In Western societies, the trend toward greater expectations is increasing and represents an important area of future research (Russell-Bennett & Rosenbaum, 2019). Factors such as changing demographics, higher levels of education, better health, and increased

wealth contribute to heightening consumer expectations (Kiss, 2020; Russell-Bennett & Rosenbaum, 2019). Nevertheless, expectation antecedents are still relatively unexplored. In previous research, external factors—such as price (Abrate et al., 2021), company image (Clow et al., 1997), or advertising (Kalamas et al., 2002)—have received the most attention. Limited research has focused on how internal consumer factors influence expectations, despite scholars suggesting that individual characteristics and cultural factors play a key role in expectation formation (Kopalle et al., 2010; Kopalle & Lehmann, 2001). Thus, although the effect of internal factors on other consumer constructs, such as attitudes, intentions, and persuasion (Bai et al., 2019;

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Chen, 2007; Chen & Lee, 2008; Haugtvedt et al., 1992), is well-established, there is a need for research on how internal factors influence consumer expectations. Previous studies have suggested that internal traits such as need for cognition (Webster, 1989), involvement (Krishnamurthy & Kumar, 2015; Pereira Filho & Moreno Añez, 2021), disconfirmation sensitivity (Kopalle & Lehmann, 2001), and temporal orientation (Kopalle et al., 2010) might influence expectations. There is, however, a lack of studies that empirically investigate the influence of several internal factors on various types of consumer expectations. Consumers are heterogeneous, and their expectations will differ based on their unique characteristics; thus, understanding how internal factors inform different expectations is critical (Abrate et al., 2021).

Expectations are complex, and multiple expectation types have been identified (e.g., Santos & Boote, 2003). The two most common expectation types are predictive and normative (Boulding et al., 1993; James, 2011; Meirovich et al., 2020). Predictive expectations reflect what the consumers think will happen in the consumption situation (Boulding et al., 1993; Oliver, 1980), whereas normative expectations describe what the consumers think should happen (James, 2011). Predictive expectations have been the focus of most expectation research, including studies on expectation antecedents (Krishnamurthy & Kumar, 2015).

Research indicates that antecedents of expectations may influence the expectation types differently (Kalamas et al., 2002); however, very little research has focused on these differences. This study will investigate the influence of two types of antecedents of expectations (individual psychological determinants, i.e., entitlement, disconfirmation sensitivity, subjective knowledge, and sociocultural determinants, i.e., word of mouth and temporal focus), on two types of expectations (normative and predictive). The individual psychological determinants were specifically selected for this study because we hypothesize that they represent trends and traits among consumers that could contribute to explaining the tendency toward greater expectations (Alba et al., 1994; Andreasen et al., 2022; Boyd & Helms, 2005; Gill & Cameron, 2020). Importantly, the individual determinants represent the “new” elderly (baby boomers) and what is “new” in society for them compared to previous generations. Entitlement represents a trend in today’s consumer society and is motivated by media influence and wealth (Twenge & Campbell, 2009). Disconfirmation sensitivity and subjective food knowledge were included to capture individual determinants directly related to food behaviors. Recent studies have called for research on the inclusion of sociocultural variables in relation to expectations (Lloyd & Mertens, 2018; Vichiengor et al., 2019). Word of mouth was included to represent common social perceptions of the institutional food consumption experience, and temporal focus includes time-perspective, which is relevant because of the future-oriented nature of expectations (Shipp & Aeon, 2019).

Further, little research exists on consumer expectations in a non-hedonic consumption context, which often imposes dread (Hardisty & Weber, 2020). This study will therefore investigate baby boomers’ expectations of institutional food (i.e., in nursing homes, hospitals) in

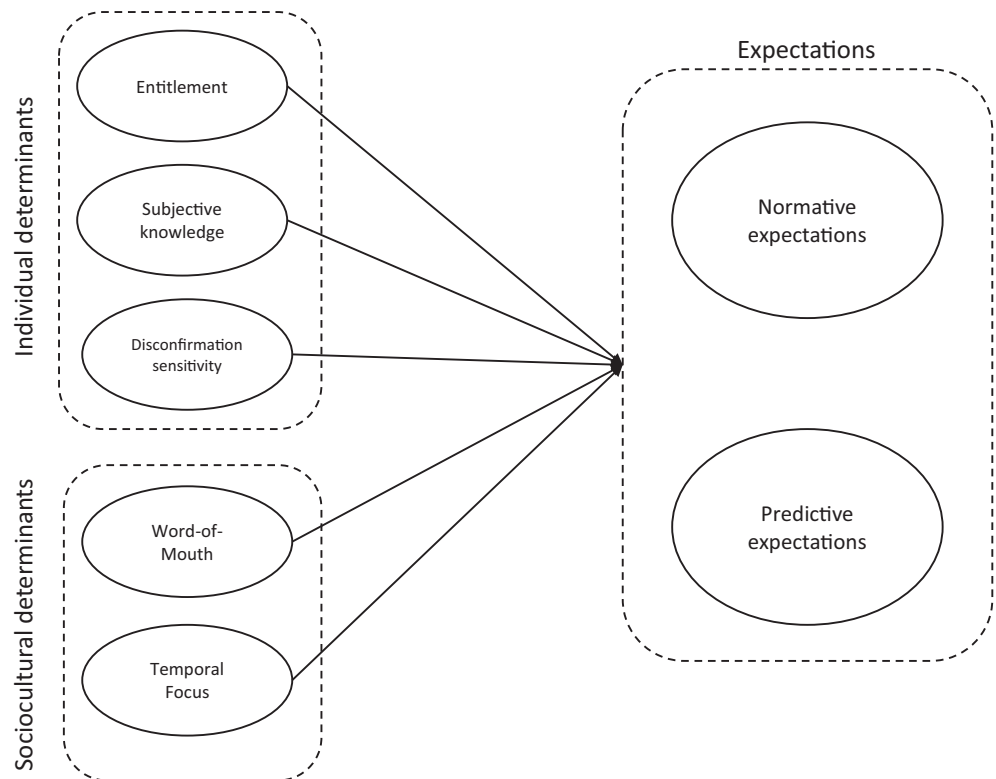
two different samples in Norway. The term institution is typically applied to formal organizations providing government, public, or private services. This often includes non-commercial organizations such as hospitals, nursing homes, schools, prisons, or the military (Evensen & Hansen, 2016). The institutional 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 institutions for the elderly (i.e., nursing homes and hospitals) food service is often secondary to the main responsibility, which is patient care (Diez-Garcia et al., 2012; Garcia, 2006). The institutional food service 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). Research using a consumer lens is scarce, despite scholars suggesting that treating elderly in institutions as consumers or guests, instead of patients, encourages new perspectives (Gjerald et al., 2021; MacInnis et al., 2020). Consumers often have negative attitudes toward institutional food due to institutional bias, which leads to lower satisfaction and acceptance compared to other dining experiences (Cardello et al., 1996; Edwards et al., 2003; Meiselman, 2009). Although food experiences are an essential aspect of life for elderly individuals from medical, health, and well-being perspectives (Diez-Garcia et al., 2012; Huseby Bøhn et al., 2018; Watkins et al., 2017), it is well-known that malnutrition and low food acceptance is a problem with current institutional food offerings (Berge, 2021; Edwards et al., 2003; Guttormsen et al., 2010). Moreover, the aging of the baby boomer generation may create significant pressure for industry change in health care (Gill & Cameron, 2020). As baby boomers are known to be more demanding, healthier, and have greater purchasing power compared to previous generations (Kohijoki & Marjanen, 2013), it may be that baby boomers will have higher expectations of institutional food compared to prior generations (Nunan & Di Domenico, 2019). The gap between rising expectations, wealthy baby boomers, and negative stereotypes of institutional food provides an interesting case to study expectations.

The purpose of this study is two-fold. First, we seek to investigate two distinct expectation types (normative and predictive) of baby boomers in the institutional food context. Second, we aim to identify individual psychological and sociocultural antecedents of normative and predictive expectations. These aims are addressed through the following research questions:

1. What is the content of aging consumers’ normative and predictive expectations in the institutional food context?
2. How do individual psychological and sociocultural factors influence aging consumers’ expectations of institutional food?

This research significantly contributes to consumer behavior theory and practice. From a theoretical standpoint, this study enhances our understanding of consumer expectations by exploring the factors that influence them, particularly in the context of non-hedonic consumption experiences. By differentiating between normative and predictive expectations and examining both individual psychological factors and sociocultural factors as antecedents, the study provides valuable insights into the complexities of expectation formation. This

FIGURE 1 Conceptual model.



contributes to the development of a more comprehensive and nuanced theoretical framework of consumer expectations. This is the first study to empirically investigate the conceptualization of normative and predictive expectations in the institutional food context. It also responds to Lloyd and Mertens' (2018) recent call for research that explores the interplay between psychological and sociocultural factors in the expectancy formation. Practically, the findings are relevant for marketers and businesses in the institutional food sector. Understanding the drivers of normative and predictive expectations helps marketers tailor strategies to meet specific consumer expectations, which will enhance satisfaction. Considering both internal factors (e.g., entitlement, subjective knowledge, disconfirmation sensitivity) and sociocultural factors (e.g., word of mouth, temporal focus) allows practitioners to design effective interventions that address psychological and sociocultural influences.

## 2 | THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

This theoretical section introduces expectation theories, the individual psychological and sociocultural determinants included in the paper, as demonstrated in the conceptual model in Figure 1.

### 2.1 | Expectation theories

Expectations have been studied in several streams of research. In motivation literature, motivation refers to the inner drive or desire

that compels individuals to act and pursue goals. Expectations, on the other hand, are beliefs or anticipations about the outcomes or results of specific actions or situations (Tudoran et al., 2012). Expectations can contribute to motivate consumption (Vroom, 1964) and are understood as the perceived probability that consumption will lead to a desirable outcome (Talwar et al., 2021; Tudoran et al., 2012). In the satisfaction and service quality 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; Vollero et al., 2022).

Two of the most used expectation-based theories are expectancy theory of motivation and the expectancy-disconfirmation theory. The expectancy-disconfirmation model (Oliver, 1980) 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). The expectancy-disconfirmation model has gained increased attention in public services research, where it is used in studies to predict citizen satisfaction, for example, with motor highways, local public services, and government (James, 2009; Poister & Thomas, 2011; Van Ryzin, 2006).

The expectancy theory of motivation (Vroom, 1964) explains the motivation behind consumers' decisions on behavioral alternatives (Abrate et al., 2021; Zboja et al., 2020). It posits that the motivational force behind a behavior 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 individuals' 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). Previous studies have demonstrated that expectancy theory can be used in various contexts beyond the workplace, for example, in investigating pro-environmental behavior (Kiatkawsin & Han, 2017), tourism and hospitality (Abrate et al., 2021), consumer boycotts (Barakat & Moussa, 2017), and food consumption (Talwar et al., 2021). 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.

## 2.2 | Individual psychological determinants

### 2.2.1 | Entitlement

Psychological entitlement is an individual difference in which people believe they deserve and are entitled to more than others. It involves an excessive sense of deservingness (Campbell et al., 2004). People who are entitled often have inflated expectations of what life will be and how others should treat them (Boyd III & Helms, 2005). Previous research has studied entitlement as an individual trait (Campbell et al., 2004) and as a situational mindset that can be activated (O'Brien et al., 2011). Studies have shown that entitlement is associated with lower levels of agreeableness (Campbell et al., 2004), and entitled people often experience negative emotions when they fail to achieve their goals. Further, entitled people often blame others for negative outcomes, react negatively when their demands are not met, are more egocentric, and want to be seen as unique (Grubbs & Exline, 2016). Entitlement is increasingly being observed in Western cultures and in the marketplace (Martin et al., 2018; Melancon et al., 2021). Worth et al. (2018) proposed that technology promotes entitlement and increases service expectations. Recent studies suggested that factors such as collective fairness, perceptions of justice, and investment are antecedents of entitlement and its consequences in service failure situations (Melancon et al., 2021).

In consumer research, psychological entitlement is associated with less pro-social behavior (Strong & Martin, 2014), preference for different customer service apologies and negative reactions in retail environments (Martin et al., 2018), increased complaints in restaurant visits (Fisk & Neville, 2011), indulgent consumption (Kivetz & Zheng, 2006), and negative responses to cultural distance in hotels mediated by irritation (Martin et al., 2017). Consumer entitlement moderates the relationship between perceived value and satisfaction, suggesting that entitled individuals will never be as satisfied as less entitled individuals, given the same value-satisfaction relationship (Zboja et al., 2016). This is supported by Melancon et al. (2021), who detected a negative relationship between entitlement and satisfaction in their studies. Highly entitled consumers expected automatic

compliance with their ideal expectations, signaling enduring wants and needs not influenced by external factors (Boyd III & Helms, 2005). Thus, we anticipate that entitled individuals will have higher expectations than less entitled individuals. However, research on how entitlement influences normative and predictive expectations is lacking (Boyd III & Helms, 2005). Normative and predictive expectations are more influenced by contextual and external factors than ideal expectations. Following Boyd III and Helms (2005) and normative expectation characteristics (Andreassen et al., 2021; James, 2011; Santos & Boote, 2003), we hypothesize that entitlement will have a strong, positive association with normative expectations because of their similarities with ideal expectations (Santos & Boote, 2003). Predictive expectations are based more on predictions and prior experience. Given institutional bias in this context, we assume the effect of entitlement on predictive expectations will be weaker compared to normative expectations. However, Melancon et al. (2021) indicated that perceived justice and collective fairness have negative relationships with entitlement. Media reports often demonstrate negative images of institutional food (i.e., Berge, 2021), which may be perceived as injustice and collective unfairness. Hence, these mechanisms may contribute to increasing entitlement and thereby still ensure a positive effect of entitlement on predictive expectations.

**Hypothesis 1a.** Entitlement is positively associated with normative expectations.

**Hypothesis 1b.** Entitlement is positively associated with predictive expectations.

### 2.2.2 | Subjective knowledge

Subjective knowledge is consumers' belief about their ability and knowledge in a consumption domain (Alba & Hutchinson, 2000) and influences consumer behavior in product evaluations (Cordell, 1997), purchasing situations (Zboja et al., 2021), and food consumption (Aertsens et al., 2011). Subjective knowledge is different from objective knowledge, which is often measured by factual tests about a product or service (Raju et al., 1995). Objective knowledge is what consumers actually know, and subjective knowledge is what consumers think they know. The correspondence between subjective and objective measures is often low (Alba & Hutchinson, 2000), and consumers are generally overconfident about their knowledge, which results in higher levels of subjective knowledge.

Today, almost all information about a product or service is available at the consumers' request, and it has never been easier to feel like an expert. Knowledgeable consumers judge goods by higher standards, which increases the likelihood of lower satisfaction judgments (Alba et al., 1994). Moreover, people with high levels of subjective knowledge tend to be more confident in their product evaluations and decisions (Aertsens et al., 2011). Several studies have suggested that subjective knowledge is a stronger motivator of behavior than objective knowledge (e.g., Pieniak et al., 2010). High subjective knowledge

has also been associated with higher levels of involvement and, thereby, behaviors, for example, in ethical production, environmental issues, and organic food consumption (Aertsens et al., 2011; Dursun et al., 2019; Han, 2019). These findings indicate that subjective knowledge may increase consumers' standards, confidence, and attitudes toward a product or behavior. Although research on how subjective knowledge influences expectations is lacking, recent studies have found a positive association between involvement and expectations (Krishnamurthy & Kumar, 2018; Pereira Filho & Moreno Añez, 2021). In the context of this study, subjective knowledge of food may be viewed as an indicator of involvement, in the sense that both represent how important food is to the consumer. Given knowledgeable consumers' tendency to judge products by higher standards (Alba et al., 1994), and recent research on involvement (Pereira Filho & Moreno Añez, 2021), we hypothesize that subjective knowledge has a positive association with expectations of institutional food. However, we expect the positive effect to be stronger for normative expectations, compared to predictive expectations. Given the characteristics of predictive expectations (Santos & Boote, 2003), we assume that the positive effect of subjective knowledge will be lower because of the non-hedonic context following institutional bias.

**Hypothesis 2a.** Subjective knowledge is positively associated with normative expectations.

**Hypothesis 2b.** Subjective knowledge is positively associated with predictive expectations.

### 2.2.3 | Disconfirmation sensitivity

Disconfirmation-sensitive consumers are those who are more satisfied (dissatisfied) when products perform better (worse) than expected (Kopalle & Lehmann, 2001). To reduce negative disconfirmation, disconfirmation-sensitive consumers have lower expectations than less disconfirmation-sensitive consumers (Kopalle & Lehmann, 2001). They engage in “strategic management of expectations,” in which people lower their expectations to increase future satisfaction. Little research exists on the disconfirmation sensitivity trait in food consumers, especially in the institutional food context. However, existing studies indicated that disconfirmation sensitivity plays an important role in expectation formation. Kopalle et al. (2010) found that a long-term orientation moderates the effect of disconfirmation sensitivity, while Block and Kramer (2009) found that disconfirmation sensitivity moderates the relationship between superstitious beliefs and product performance expectations. The strategic lowering of expectations occurs as the time to experience a product or service grows nearer (Monga & Houston, 2006). In this study, the experience of institutional food could be perceived as distant, or even unrealistic, to some. We propose that disconfirmation sensitivity will have a positive association with normative expectations (Andreassen et al., 2022). Since we investigate disconfirmation sensitivity within a context of consumer food expectations (i.e., how easily you are disappointed if a

meal does not meet your expectations), it indirectly says something about how important food and meal experiences are to the participants. We argue that disconfirmation-sensitive consumers have higher normative expectations compared to less disconfirmation-sensitive consumers. Based on previous studies, we expect to find a negative relationship between disconfirmation sensitivity and predictive (and normative) expectations.

**Hypothesis 3a.** Disconfirmation sensitivity is positively associated with normative expectations.

**Hypothesis 3b.** Disconfirmation sensitivity is negatively associated with predictive expectations.

## 2.3 | Sociocultural determinants

### 2.3.1 | Word of mouth

Word of mouth (WOM) is “informal communications directed at other consumers about the ownership, usage, or characteristics of particular goods and services and/or their sellers” (Westbrook, 1987, p. 261). WOM relies on other people's statements to guide the consumers in what they can expect from a service (Zeithaml et al., 1993). WOM is a trusted way for people to obtain product and service information (Ruvio et al., 2020), and its impact is well established in the marketing literature (Ruvio et al., 2020). Compared to communications by a firm, WOM is more authentic, unbiased, and relevant (Godes & Mayzlin, 2004). Previous studies have found that WOM has a large influence on firm image and can affect consumers' perceptions (Zhu & Zhang, 2010), expectations (Krishnamurthy & Kumar, 2018), willingness to pay (Houser & Wooders, 2006), and sales (Chevalier & Mayzlin, 2006). The general effect found in previous studies of WOM is that positive WOM leads to positive attitudes and expectations among consumers, whereas negative WOM can lead to negative evaluations and intentions, resulting in lowered sales and popularity (Chevalier & Mayzlin, 2006; Zhu & Zhang, 2010). However, some studies have cast doubt on whether negative WOM unconditionally leads to negative outcomes (Allard et al., 2020).

Word of mouth is an important antecedent of expectations. Several studies have included WOM as antecedents of service expectations (e.g., Clow et al., 1997; Zeithaml et al., 1993), and most studies concluded that positive WOM has a positive impact on expectations (Kalamas et al., 2002), with some exceptions that found no effect (Dion et al., 1998). More recently, Krishnamurthy and Kumar (2018) investigated the role of electronic word of mouth (EWOM) on consumer expectations of a brand. EWOM helps consumers form expectations of a brand prior to purchase by reducing uncertainty in decision-making; the consumers' receptivity to EWOM is dependent on their level of involvement with the brand (Krishnamurthy & Kumar, 2018). Previous studies have indicated that WOM influences both normative and predictive expectations (Kalamas et al., 2002). Based on the previous literature, we hypothesize that:

**Hypothesis 4a.** Positive word of mouth is positively associated with predictive expectations.

**Hypothesis 4b.** Positive word of mouth is positively associated with normative expectations.

### 2.3.2 | Temporal focus

Temporal focus is people's tendency to think about the past, present, or future (Bluedorn, 2002). Research on temporal focus has shown that it affects current decisions, behaviors, and attitudes (Shipp & Aeon, 2019; Shipp et al., 2009). Differences in temporal focus influence health behaviors and attitudes (Chandran & Menon, 2004), financial behaviors (Joireman et al., 2005), environmentally friendly behaviors (Polonsky et al., 2014), impulsive buying behaviors (Verplanken & Herabadi, 2001), and destination choice in tourism (Loda & Amos, 2014). Management studies have demonstrated how temporal orientation influences organizational behaviors such as performance, motivation, and learning (Bandura, 2001; Blount & Janicik, 2001; Fried & Slowik, 2004). Generally, previous research suggests that (a) past focus is linked to maladaptive work and life outcomes; (b) present focus increases life satisfaction, but also impulsivity; (c) future focus is linked to life and work achievements (Shipp & Aeon, 2019).

Researchers agree there is a systematic difference in how individuals focus on the past, present, or future (Kees et al., 2010; Loda & Amos, 2014). This is largely a cultural phenomenon (Hofstede et al., 2005), and previous studies have associated cross-cultural differences with temporal focus (Legoh  rel et al., 2009). Despite culture, a person's temporal focus may shift during different life stages. For instance, Park et al. (2017) showed that as people move from adolescence to adulthood, they increased their focus on the past and future, whereas as people get older, they focus less on the future, as time is seen as limited.

In relation to expectations, temporal focus has been scarcely researched. Kopalle et al. (2010) investigated temporal orientation in

relation to expectations in a study conducted in India, and their results suggested that a long-term orientation (i.e., future focus) influences expectations. Given temporal focus's effect on attitudes and behaviors in various domains, it is valid to assume temporal focus may be a determinant of expectations as well. In addition, expectations are future-oriented constructs. If the temporal distance to an event is short, people are more likely to focus on concrete features of the event; if temporal distance is long, their focus is mostly on abstract features (Vichiengior et al., 2019). We therefore hypothesize that individuals who have higher future focus will have higher expectations of institutional food.

**Hypothesis 5a.** Future focus is positively associated with predictive expectations.

**Hypothesis 5b.** Future focus is positively associated with normative expectations.

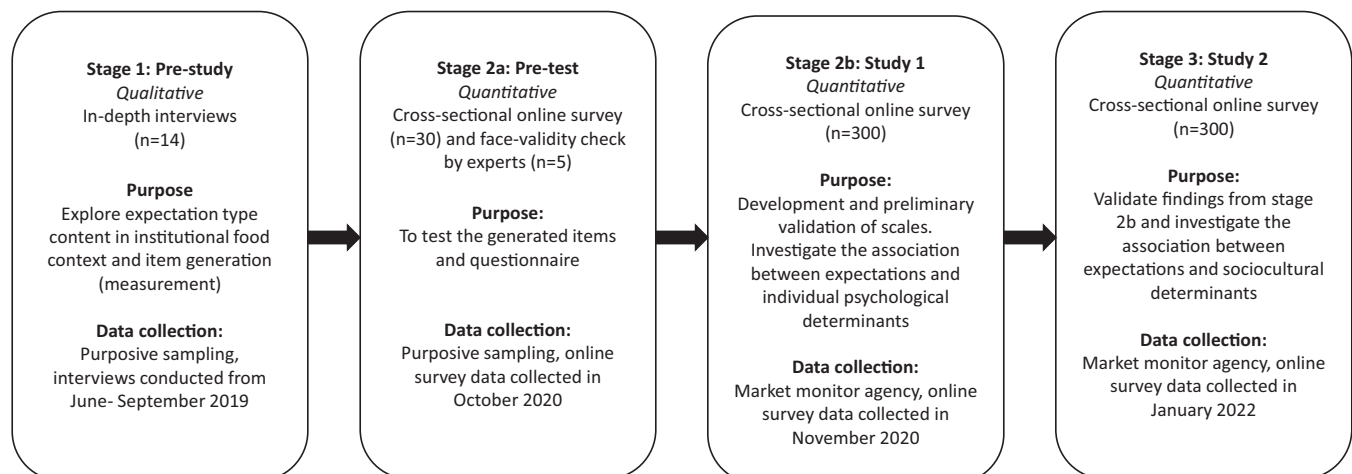
## 3 | RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

### 3.1 | Research design

This research employed an exploratory sequential design that consisted of three studies: a pre-study (qualitative) and Studies 1 and 2 (quantitative). Figure 2 visualizes the research design process.

The pre-study was designed to tap into the content of consumer expectations of institutional food, using rich qualitative data from a purposefully drawn sample of elderly consumers. Using data from in-depth individual interviews with 14 consumers, the pre-study (Andreassen et al., 2021) provided an empirical basis for the development of the expectation scales, which are further described in the measurements section, used in Studies 1 and 2.

Study 1 aimed to test how individual psychological determinants influence normative and predictive expectations. By measuring



**FIGURE 2** Research design process.

entitlement, disconfirmation sensitivity, and subjective food knowledge, as well as their influence on both normative and predictive expectations, Study 1 found that individual psychological determinants have significant effects on normative, but not predictive, expectations. In the next study, we therefore decided to test the validity of the current findings and to add sociocultural antecedents to the model.

Study 2 was designed to test two types of predictors, individual psychological and sociocultural (temporal focus and word of mouth), on normative and predictive expectations. The results of Study 2 further validated the findings for individual psychological determinants and revealed that sociocultural determinants largely influenced predictive, but not normative, expectations.

### 3.2 | Population and samples

Norway provides an interesting environment in which to study expectations toward institutional food because the elderly population (50+) represents 37% of the country's total population (2,025,598 of 5,425,270, (SSB, 2022)), as displayed in Table 1. The number of elderly people is expected to more than double by 2060 (Leknes et al., 2018) due to the aging of the baby boomer cohort (born between 1946 and 1964) (Knickman & Snell, 2002). Today, nursing homes have capacity to house approximately 40,000 Norwegians, including long and short-term stays. It is expected that the demand for nursing homes will increase significantly in the years ahead (Civita, 2013).

Two distinct samples ( $N = 300$  and  $N = 300$ ) of Norwegian consumers aged 50–80 years participated in the studies. Table 2 shows the sample characteristics for both samples. The data were collected in November 2020 (Study 1) and January 2022 (Study 2) by a market monitoring agency. For each sample, an online panel of participants was recruited. To secure a variety of participants, respondents of different ages and genders were recruited from various regions of Norway. The age span was set to 50–80 years old to include the baby boomer cohort. Age 50 is often considered the beginning of the gray market (Bae et al., 2020). The maximum age limit was set to 80 years old, as this is the mean age at which elderly individuals are institutionalized in Norway (Kjelvik & Jønsberg, 2017; SSB, 2018). The focus of the study is on the future elderly; therefore, the samples do not include anyone currently residing in an institution (i.e., nursing homes)

**TABLE 1** Elderly population in Norway.

Age-span	Number of older adults in Norway in 2022	Percentage of Norwegian population (Total in Jan. 2022 = 5,425,270)
50–66 years old	1,154,635	21.28%
67–79 years old	630,670	11.62%
80–89 years old	193,735	3.57%
90 years old and older	46,558	0.85%
Total	2,025,598	37.32%

full or part time. The sample size of  $N = 300$  for both samples was determined based on the recommendations for CFA by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013).

Table 2 highlights sample characteristics for both samples. In both studies, the included age groups were well represented (about 30% for each age group), however most of the participants were in the group between 50 and 69 years old. The samples included a near even distribution of men and women. Gender was included as a control variable in the analysis because of the traditional gender roles that elderly generations have grown up with, in which women were typically responsible for all aspects of food and cooking (Hansen, 2019). In addition, our pre-study indicated that women had the highest normative expectations of institutional food among the sampled aging consumers (Andreassen et al., 2021). We also ensured representation of elderly across all regions of Norway. To capture the variance in expectations, the samples include individuals with varying level of experience with institutional food. Prior experience includes participants with direct (personal experiences) or indirect (experiences of relatives of close family or friends) experience with institutional food.

### 3.3 | Measurements

Expectations were measured using 28 items derived from the qualitative data of the pre-study (Andreassen et al., 2021), employing the

**TABLE 2** Sample characteristics.

	Study 1		Study 2	
	N	%	N	%
<i>Age group</i>				
50–59	119	39.7	123	41
60–69	102	34	93	31
70–80	79	26.3	84	28
Total	300	100	300	100
<i>Gender</i>				
Male	161	53.7	168	56.0
Female	139	46.3	132	44.0
Total	300	100	300	100
<i>Region</i>				
North-Norway	25	8.3	21	7.0
Mid-Norway	47	15.7	50	16.7
Vestlandet	56	18.7	49	16.3
Østlandet	101	33.7	122	40.7
Oslo	34	11.3	34	11.3
Sørlandet (including Telemark)	37	12.3	24	8.0
Total	300	100	300	100
<i>Prior experience</i>				
Yes	169	53.7	196	65.3
No	139	46.3	104	34.7
Total	300	100	300	100

procedure recommended by Churchill (1979). First, a pool of items was generated based on an exploratory study of individual in-depth interviews with 14 consumers aged 58–79 years about their expectations of institutional food (Andreassen et al., 2021). Some items about expectations of sustainability were added based on theoretical considerations, current trends in food-related consumer research, and sustainable institutional food discussions (Andreassen et al., 2021; Huseby Bøhn et al., 2018). Based on the analysis of the qualitative data, 14 items for normative and 14 items for predictive expectations were designed (see Appendix A for full list of items). To ensure validity, we followed the procedure of measure purification, that is, the deletion of items that do not have the desired properties. Five experts in the food-related consumer behavior field were consulted to assess the face validity of the items. A questionnaire-based pilot test ( $n = 30$ ) was conducted online, using a purposive sampling technique, to assess and improve the properties of the items. Based on participants' feedback, some minor changes in wording were made to the survey. Finally, the performance of the new measure (criterion validity) was tested by inspecting how it related to other relevant constructs in consumer behavior using a larger sample ( $n = 300$ ). If a factor's reliability could be improved by deletion of one or more of the items, the item was removed, and a new alpha computed.

Following previous studies (i.e., Boulding et al., 1993), the predictive expectations were framed as “what you think will occur,” and the normative expectations were framed as “what you think should occur” in a given situation. For this specific context, sample items for both types were:

Predictive expectation: “I think the meal experience in institutions will be excellent.”

Normative expectation: “I think the meal experience in institutions should be excellent.”

To ensure that the participants perceived normative and predictive expectation types as different, we included a short scenario (i.e., “Imagine you are to reside in an institution in the future...”) before the questions for both predictive and normative expectations. A full description of all measures is given in Appendix A.

Psychological entitlement was assessed using an adapted six-item scale by Campbell et al. (2004).

Subjective food knowledge was measured by three items adapted from Aertsens et al. (2011).

Disconfirmation sensitivity was assessed with three items based on Kopalle and Lehmann's (2001) work.

Word of mouth was measured using three items from Kalamas et al. (2002).

Temporal focus was assessed with four items from Shipp et al. (2009).

Both surveys included questions about age, gender, and prior experiences with food in nursing homes. All variables were measured on 7-point Likert scales (1 = Strongly disagree – 7 = Strongly agree), except for word of mouth, which was measured on a 7-point Likert

scale with 1 = Very negative – 7 = Very positive). The items and reliabilities are reported in Appendix B.

### 3.4 | Data analysis strategy

Data analysis was performed using SPSS version 26.0. Normative and predictive expectations were assessed using principal components analysis, inspecting both the varimax and oblique rotations. The results reported in the tables show the varimax rotation. The final number of factors and items were determined after an item reduction process based on commonalities, cross-loadings, qualitative assessment, and reliability analyses. To investigate the independent variables with multiple items, principal component analysis with varimax rotation was conducted. The reliability of all measures was evaluated using Cronbach's alpha. The results of factor and reliability analysis for the independent variables are presented in the Appendix B. Construct validity was checked by investigating the Pearson correlations, AVE scores, and composite reliability. The hypotheses were tested using linear regression. Multicollinearity was checked by examining variance inflation factor (VIF), with a value greater than 10 indicating an issue with collinearity (Chatterjee & Hadi, 2012). No issues with multicollinearity were detected in our data, as the VIF values ranged from 1.078 to 1.338. More details on the validity of the constructs are referred to in the specific study sections.

## 4 | STUDY 1

### 4.1 | Methods

The purpose of Study 1 was to investigate the factor structure of normative and predictive expectations through development and preliminary validation and to investigate the association between individual psychological antecedents and expectations. The questionnaire included items for the constructs: normative and predictive expectations, entitlement (Campbell et al., 2004), subjective food knowledge (Aertsens et al., 2011), and disconfirmation sensitivity (Kopalle & Lehmann, 2001). Tables 3 and 4 shows the expectation dimensions in Study 1, and Appendix B includes items and reliabilities for the independent variables.

### 4.2 | Results

#### 4.2.1 | Content of expectations

In Study 1, four dimensions of normative expectations were detected: food quality, freedom of choice, servicescape, and sustainability (see Table 3). For predictive expectations, two dimensions were identified: food quality and food variety (see Table 4). The Pearson correlation matrix (Appendix C) demonstrated good discriminant and convergent validity. The expectation constructs showed good construct reliability with AVE scores ranging from .522 to .770 and composite reliability scores from .765 to .909. The normative and predictive



**TABLE 3** Dimensions of normative expectations, Study1.

Constructs and items	<i>n</i>	Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>α</i>	Factor loadings	Communalities	Average variance extracted (AVE)	Composite reliability (CR)
<i>Food quality (7 point)</i>	300	3			.857			.609	.823
The food in nursing homes should be fantastic			5.65	1.28		.848	.771		
The food in nursing homes should be as good as in restaurants			5.24	1.30		.810	.749		
The food should be of excellent quality			5.69	1.13		.814	.781		
<i>Freedom of choice (7 point)</i>	300	3			.853			.617	.828
You should be given freedom to choose what you want to eat			5.71	1.15		.676	.711		
You should get a menu to choose from for dinner			5.43	1.28		.807	.759		
You should be able to choose from varied food offerings			5.87	1.04		.780	.769		
<i>Servicescape (7 point)</i>	300	3			.786			.563	.793
You should be able to sit with whom you want during the meal			6.18	.856		.724	.699		
The food should be served in a nice environment			5.91	.939		.711	.687		
The food should be presented in an appetite-inducing manner			6.40	.709		.756	.711		
<i>Sustainability (7 point)</i>	300	3			.728			.522	.765
You should be offered vegetarian dishes			5.28	1.38		.726	.668		
The food should be short-traveled/local			5.33	1.31		.754	.682		
The food should primarily be ecological			4.02	1.46		.806	.686		

expectation scales demonstrated good reliability with Cronbach's alpha scores ranging between .728 and .857 for normative expectations and between .828 and .928 for predictive expectations (see Tables 3 and 4 for more details).

## 4.2.2 | Hypothesis testing

### *Individual psychological antecedents of expectations*

The results of Study 1 (see Table 5) indicated that entitlement (.293), subjective knowledge (.132), and disconfirmation sensitivity (.378) have positive and significant effects on normative expectations of food quality. The same applies when controlling for gender; identifying as female (.210) was also positively associated with food quality expectations. Entitlement (.203), subjective knowledge (.152), and disconfirmation sensitivity (.349) contributed to increasing normative expectations of freedom of choice. The effects of entitlement (.068) and subjective knowledge (.074) were weaker yet significant on normative expectations of servicescape. Disconfirmation sensitivity (.367) had a strong, positive association with servicescape expectations and identifying as female is significant and positive (.287). Subjective knowledge (.160) and disconfirmation sensitivity (.307) significantly increased sustainability expectations; entitlement (−.079)

was not significant. Identifying as female (.636) had a strong influence on normative expectations of sustainability. Table 5 shows that the individual psychological determinants and gender had the greatest explanatory power on normative servicescape expectations ( $R^2 = .320$ ), and the lowest explanatory power on normative sustainability expectations ( $R^2 = .189$ ).

For predictive expectations, in Study 1, entitlement (.266) had a positive and significant effect on predictive expectations of food quality, while disconfirmation sensitivity and subjective food knowledge did not influence food quality or food variety expectations. Prior experience (−.271, −.272) had a negative influence on both predictive expectation dimensions. The lack of significant results led to low explanatory power for predictive expectations (Table 8). The results of hypothesis testing are presented in Figure 3.

## 5 | STUDY 2

### 5.1 | Methods

The purpose of Study 2 was to validate findings from stage 2 and investigate the association between expectations and socio-cultural determinants. The study included the same variables

TABLE 4 Dimensions of predictive expectations.

Constructs and items	N	Items	Study 1					Study 2							
			M	SD	$\alpha$	Loadings	Communalities	AVE	CR	M	SD	$\alpha$	Loadings	Communalities	AVE
Food quality	300	3			.928		.770	.909		.907		.802	.924		
The food in nursing homes will be fantastic			3.75	1.37	.910	.870			3.58	1.43	.903	.859			
The food in nursing homes will be as good as in restaurants			3.27	1.45	.918	.893			3.14	1.51	.896	.869			
The food will be of excellent quality			3.62	1.47	.858	.853			3.69	1.49	.851	.801			
Food variety	300	4			.838		.586	.848		.785		.608	.860		
You will be offered international dishes			3.31	1.55	.712	.612			3.64	1.51	.765	.673			
You will be offered vegetarian dishes			4.19	1.61	.869	.757			4.34	1.41	.901	.825			
The food will be short-traveled/local			3.59	1.45	.769	.728			—	—	—	—			
The food will primarily be ecological			3.01	1.40	.761	.684			3.33	1.32	.735	.640			

(expectations and individual psychological antecedents) as Study 1, in addition to temporal focus (Shipp et al., 2009) and word of mouth (Kalamas et al., 2002) as sociocultural antecedents (Appendix B).

## 5.2 | Results

### 5.2.1 | Content of expectations

In Study 2, three dimensions of normative expectations emerged: freedom of choice, food quality, and sustainability (see Table 6). For predictive expectations, two dimensions were identified, similar to Study 1: food quality and food variety (see Table 4). As with Study 1, the Pearson correlation matrix demonstrated good discriminant and convergent validity (Appendix C). The expectation constructs demonstrated good construct reliability with AVE scores ranging from .541 to .802 and composite reliability scores from .846 to .924. In Study 2, the normative and predictive expectation scales showed good reliability with Cronbach's alpha scores ranging between .772 and .897 for normative expectations and between .785 and .907 for predictive expectations (see Tables 4 and 6 for more details).

### 5.2.2 | Hypothesis testing

#### *Validating findings from Study 1: Individual psychological antecedents of expectations*

The results from Study 2 mostly confirmed the influence of individual psychological determinants on normative expectations established in Study 1. Entitlement (.295) and disconfirmation sensitivity (.244) had positive and significant effects on food quality expectations. Subjective knowledge (.041) was not significant; however, being female had a strong, positive effect (.456). Entitlement (.131), subjective knowledge (.099), and disconfirmation sensitivity (.336) had a positive and significant effect on the freedom of choice dimension. Controlling for gender did not change the results. As in Study 1, entitlement (.041) had no significant influence on the sustainability expectation dimension. Subjective knowledge (.162) and disconfirmation sensitivity (.207) were positive and significant, and identifying as female (.619) had a positive effect. In Study 2, the individual psychological determinants and gender explained most of the variance in normative freedom of choice expectations ( $R^2 = .266$ ), and the least in sustainability expectations ( $R^2 = .156$ ). Table 7 displays the results.

In Study 2, entitlement (.273) had a significant and positive influence on food quality. This effect remained when controlling for prior experience ( $-.310$ ), which is negative and significant. Disconfirmation sensitivity and subjective knowledge did not show significant results on either of the predictive expectation dimensions. The models had low explanatory power ( $R^2$  below .1 for all dimensions). Table 8 displays the results.

**TABLE 5** Regression results for individual psychological determinants of normative expectations, Study 1.

	NE – Food quality		NE – Freedom of choice		NE – Servicescape		NE – Sustainability	
	Model 1.1	Model 1.2	Model 1.3	Model 1.4	Model 1.5	Model 1.6	Model 1.7	Model 1.8
Entitlement	.293*** (.062)	.296*** (.054)	.203*** (.058)	.204*** (.058)	.068* (.039)	.071* (.038)	–.079 (.068)	–.074 (.065)
Subjective knowledge	.132*** (.045)	.108** (.046)	.152*** (.043)	.142*** (.044)	.074** (.029)	.052* (.028)	.160*** (.050)	.110** (.049)
Disconfirmation Sensitivity	.378*** (.076)	.355*** (.075)	.349*** (.071)	.340*** (.072)	.367*** (.048)	.346*** (.047)	.307*** (.084)	.261*** (.081)
Female		.210*** (.113)		.127 (.108)		.287*** (.070)		.636*** (.122)
Number of obs.	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300
R <sup>2</sup>	.253	.271	.235	.239	.282	.320	.114	.189
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.245	.261	.228	.229	.275	.311	.105	.178

\* $p < .10$ ; \*\* $p < .05$ ; \*\*\* $p < .01$ .

Hypothesis	Dependent variable	Independent variable	Effect	Dependent variable dimension	Results	
					Study 1	Study 2
H1a	Normative expectations	Entitlement	+	Food quality	Accepted	Accepted
				Freedom	Accepted	Accepted
				Servicescape	Accepted	N/A
				Sustainability	Rejected	Accepted
H1b	Predictive expectations	Entitlement	+	Food quality	Accepted	Accepted
				Food variety	Rejected	Rejected
H2a	Normative expectations	Subjective knowledge	+	Food quality	Accepted	Rejected
				Freedom	Accepted	Accepted
				Servicescape	Accepted	N/A
				Sustainability	Accepted	Accepted
H2b	Predictive expectations	Subjective knowledge	+	Food quality	Rejected	Rejected
				Food variety	Rejected	Rejected
H3a	Normative expectations	Disconfirmation sensitivity	+	Food quality	Accepted	Accepted
				Freedom	Accepted	Accepted
				Servicescape	Accepted	N/A
				Sustainability	Accepted	Accepted
H3b	Predictive expectations		-	Food quality	Rejected	Rejected
				Food variety	Rejected	Rejected
H4a	Normative expectations	Word-of-mouth	+	Food quality		Rejected
				Freedom	N/A	Rejected
				Sustainability		Rejected
H4b	Predictive expectations	Word-of-mouth	+	Food quality	N/A	Accepted
				Food variety		Accepted
H5a	Normative expectations	Temporal focus	+	Food quality		Rejected
				Freedom	N/A	Accepted
				Sustainability		Rejected
H5b	Predictive expectations	Temporal focus	+	Food quality	N/A	Accepted
				Food variety		Accepted

**FIGURE 3** The results of hypothesis testing.

#### Sociocultural determinants of expectations and total effect of antecedents

Sociocultural determinants were included in linear regression with the individual psychological determinants in Study 2. The results (Table 9) show that word of mouth had a significant and negative relationship

with normative food quality expectations (–.162) and freedom of choice expectations (–.266), increasing normative expectations in these two dimensions. The future focus had a significant and positive influence on freedom of choice expectations (.085) but no significant

**TABLE 6** Dimensions of normative expectations, Study 2.

Constructs and items	<i>n</i>	Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>α</i>	Loadings	Communalities	Average variance extracted (AVE)	Composite reliability (CR)
<i>Freedom of choice</i>	300	5			.847			.541	.854
You should be given the freedom to choose what you want to eat			5.63	1.29		.733	.703		
You should get a menu to choose from for dinner			5.38	1.49		.663	.609		
You should be able to choose from varied food offerings			5.89	1.20		.781	.764		
You should be able to sit with whom you want during the meal			6.22	1.07		.752	.594		
You should be able to drink what you want with the food			5.92	1.30		.746	.611		
<i>Food quality</i>	300	3			.897			.739	.895
The food in nursing homes should be fantastic			5.78	1.22		.885	.835		
The food in nursing homes should be as good as in restaurants			5.42	1.28		.855	.827		
The food should be of excellent quality			5.75	1.22		.840	.818		
<i>Sustainability</i>	300	3			.772			.647	.846
You should be offered vegetarian dishes			5.19	1.73		.767	.651		
The food should be short-traveled/local			5.11	1.54		.767	.645		
The food should primarily be ecological			3.75	1.58		.876	.778		

**TABLE 7** Regression results for individual psychological determinants on normative expectations, Study 2.

	NE – Food quality		NE – Freedom of choice		NE – Sustainability	
	Model 2.1	Model 2.2	Model 2.3	Model 2.4	Model 2.5	Model 2.6
Entitlement	.295*** (.054)	.289*** (.053)	.131*** (.047)	.128*** (.042)	.041 (.069)	.034 (.067)
Subjective knowledge	.041 (.045)	-.002 (.046)	.099** (.035)	.076* (.040)	.162*** (.057)	.103** (.058)
Disconfirmation sensitivity	.244*** (.059)	.254*** (.058)	.336*** (.051)	.341*** (.051)	.207*** (.075)	.220*** (.738)
Female		.456*** (.120)		.238** (.105)		.619*** (.151)
Number of obs.	300	300	300	300	300	300
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	.199	.237	.253	.266	.087	.156
Adjusted <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	.191	.226	.245	.256	.081	.145

\**p* < .10; \*\**p* < .05; \*\*\**p* < .01.

relationship with food quality or sustainability expectations. The inclusion of sociocultural determinants had the greatest effect on explanatory power on freedom of choice expectations ( $R^2 = .344$ ), but it had limited effect on the other dimensions.

For predictive expectations, based on prior analyses, only entitlement was included as an individual psychological variable. The results show that word of mouth had a positive and significant effect on predictive food quality and food variety expectations; positive word of

**TABLE 8** Regression results for individual psychological determinants on predictive expectations.

	Study 1				Study 2			
	PE – Food quality		PE – Food variety		PE – Food quality		PE – Food variety	
	Model 1.9	Model 1.10	Model 1.11	Model 1.12	Model 2.7	Model 2.8	Model 2.9	Model 2.10
Entitlement	.266*** (.087)	.257*** (.087)	-.045 (.077)	-.054 (.077)	.273*** (.070)	.268*** (.070)	.084 (.066)	.078 (.065)
Disconfirmation sensitivity	-.096 (.107)	-.075 (.107)	.010 (.094)	.030 (.094)	-.053 (.076)	-.036 (.058)	.004 (.072)	.015 (.072)
Subjective knowledge	-.017 (.064)	-.005 (.064)	.044 (.057)	.056 (.057)	-.046 (.058)	-.042 (.076)	.010 (.055)	.020 (.055)
Prior experience		-.271** (.159)		-.272** (.140)		-.310** (.161)		-.306** (.151)
Number of obs.	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300
R <sup>2</sup>	.031	.041	.003	.016	.053	.064	.006	.020
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.021	.027	-.007	.003	.043	.052	-.004	.007

\**p* < .10; \*\**p* < .05; \*\*\**p* < .01.**TABLE 9** Regression results for individual psychological and sociocultural determinants of normative expectations, Study 2.

	NE – Food quality			NE – Freedom of choice			NE – Sustainability		
	Model 2.11	Model 2.12	Model 2.13	Model 2.14	Model 2.15	Model 2.16	Model 2.17	Model 2.18	Model 2.19
Entitlement	.295*** (.054)	.300*** (.054)	.295*** (.053)	.131*** (.047)	.129*** (.044)	.127*** (.044)	.041 (.069)	.036 (.069)	.028 (.067)
Subjective Knowledge	.041 (.045)	.017 (.046)	-.019 (.046)	.099** (.039)	.053 (.038)	.038 (.038)	.162*** (.057)	.145** (.058)	.092 (.059)
Disconfirmation Sensitivity	.244*** (.059)	.238*** (.060)	.249*** (.058)	.336*** (.051)	.295*** (.049)	.300*** (.049)	.207*** (.075)	.181** (.076)	.205*** (.075)
Word of mouth		-.162*** (.056)	-.141** (.055)		-.266*** (.046)	-.257*** (.046)		-.080 (.072)	-.052 (.070)
Temporal focus		-.031 (.054)	-.034 (.053)		.085** (.045)	.084* (.045)		.088 (.070)	.084 (.068)
Female			.426*** (.119)			.178* (.100)			.605*** (.152)
Number of obs.	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300
R <sup>2</sup>	.199	.222	.254	.253	.336	.344	.087	.096	.142
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.191	.209	.239	.245	.325	.330	.081	.081	.125

\**p* < .10; \*\**p* < .05; \*\*\**p* < .01.

mouth contributed to increasing predictive expectations in these dimensions. Future focus had a positive and significant effect on both predictive expectation dimensions; being future-oriented was positively associated with higher predictive expectations. Inclusion of the sociocultural determinants had significant impact on variance explained in the models ( $R^2 = .204$  for food quality and  $R^2 = .093$  for food variety). Table 10 displays the full regression results for predictive expectations. Figure 4 depicts the research model with standardized values, including all significant relationships from Study 2.

## 6 | DISCUSSION

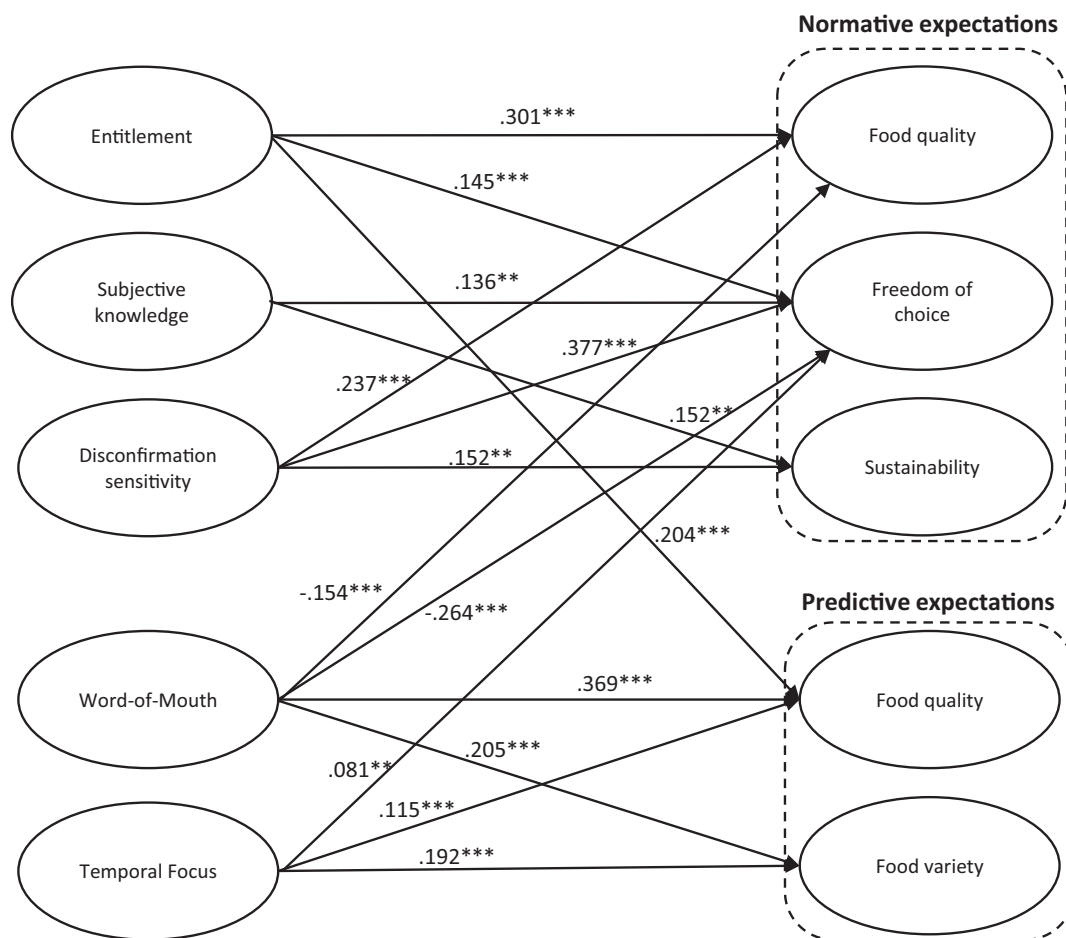
This paper investigated normative and predictive expectations of institutional food and found a consistent factor structure across two different samples. Further, our results indicate that normative expectations are mostly shaped by individual psychological determinants, whereas predictive expectations are mainly shaped by sociocultural determinants.

The results from Studies 1 and 2 suggest that normative and predictive expectations of institutional food are somewhat different in

	PE – Food quality		PE – Food variety	
	Model 2.20	Model 2.21	Model 2.22	Model 2.23
Entitlement	.242*** (.063)	.239*** (.062)	.058 (.061)	.055 (.061)
Word of mouth	.462*** (.066)	.458*** (.065)	.231*** (.064)	.231*** (.064)
Temporal focus	.138** (.063)	.145** (.063)	.218*** (.062)	.218*** (.062)
Prior experience		-.317** (.147)		-.301** (.144)
Number of obs.	300	300	300	300
R <sup>2</sup>	.191	.204	.080	.093
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.183	.193	.071	.081

**TABLE 10** Regression results for individual psychological and sociocultural determinants of predictive expectations, Study 2.

\* $p < .10$ ; \*\* $p < .05$ ; \*\*\* $p < .01$ .



**FIGURE 4** Regression results with standardized values for all significant relationships in Study 2.

content (Figure 5). Normative expectations consisted of four (Study 1) or three (Study 2) dimensions. The normative expectations of food quality, sustainability, and freedom of choice were common in both samples. Factor analysis was used to detect the optimal factor structure in each sample; thus, the differences could stem from sample

differences or the process of refinement of the factor structure. Future research should seek to validate the dimensions of the normative expectations of institutional food. Predictive expectations had a consistent pattern of two dimensions across both studies: food quality and food variety. Normative expectations scored considerably higher

Expectation dimension	Expectation type(s)	Description
Food Quality	Normative Predictive	The extent to which consumers expect excellent food quality
Freedom of Choice	Normative	The extent to which consumers expect to exercise autonomy in food choices and experiences
Sustainability	Normative	The extent to which consumers expect to be served sustainable food
Food Variety	Predictive	The extent to which consumers expect to be served food from varied origins
Servicescape* *Sample 1	Normative	The extent to which consumers expect a satisfactory environment for food consumption

**FIGURE 5** Normative and predictive expectations of institutional food.

than predictive expectations, regardless of dimension (mean scores of about 5.0 and 3.0, respectively). The lower scores and lesser dimensions of predictive expectations could be due to institutional bias—consumers often hold negative attitudes toward the food served in institutions (Cardello et al., 1996).

The results showed that individual psychological determinants (entitlement, subjective knowledge, and disconfirmation sensitivity) largely influence normative expectations. Normative expectations represent enduring wants and needs (Santos & Boote, 2003) and seem to be more influenced by “who you are” (i.e., personality traits) compared to predictive expectations. The influence of entitlement was consistent across both samples: Entitlement has a positive association with all normative expectation dimensions, except sustainability. Entitlement involves an excessive sense of deservingness and egocentric focus (Campbell et al., 2004; Strong & Martin, 2014), whereas sustainability is a collective effort to improve the world for “the greater good.” Entitlement contributes to increasing expectations related to the self and was positively associated with predictive food quality expectations in both samples. Despite institutional bias, entitled consumers still expect more, realistically, from food quality of institutional food.

Subjective food knowledge was hypothesized to increase expectations of institutional food through higher levels of involvement and a tendency to judge goods by higher standards (Aertsens et al., 2011). In Study 1, there was a positive association between subjective knowledge and the four normative expectation dimensions. In Study 2, subjective knowledge influenced freedom of choice and sustainability expectations, but not food quality expectations.

Disconfirmation sensitivity has a strong, positive association with all normative expectation dimensions in both samples. The more sensitive individuals are to being disappointed, the higher expectations they have of what the food should be like. It appears that in this context, disconfirmation sensitivity represents a type of involvement or

importance of food in the individuals' lives. Previous studies suggested that involvement could contribute to heightened expectations (Pereira Filho & Moreno Añez, 2021), which supports this finding. Contrary to previous research, the expected negative effect of disconfirmation sensitivity on expectations did not occur in either sample. Disconfirmation-sensitive consumers strategically lower their expectations to avoid being disappointed (Kopalle & Lehmann, 2001). Strategic lowering, however, is more likely to occur as the temporal distance to the event grows nearer (Monga & Houston, 2006). The institutional food experience seems distant to most, which can explain why the expected effect did not occur in this study.

## 6.1 | Sociocultural determinants

The results show that sociocultural determinants (temporal focus and word of mouth) influence predictive expectations, regardless of dimension. Prior experience had a significant effect on predictive expectations but no effect on normative expectations. Word of mouth had a positive and significant effect on predictive expectations, suggesting that if individuals have heard positive WOM about institutional food, it equally raises their predictive expectations of it. This is in line with previous research on the effect of WOM, which has been associated with both normative and predictive expectations (Kalamas et al., 2002). The effect is the opposite for normative expectations of food quality and freedom of choice. Our results suggest that if people have heard negative WOM of institutional food, this will increase their expectations of it. Although this may seem irrational, the idea that negative WOM always leads to negative outcomes has been disputed. Allard et al. (2020) found that perceived unfairness influences the effect of negative WOM, and Berger et al. (2010) results showed that negative WOM can lead to increased sales for the firm because of

increased awareness. Although these studies are not related to the phenomena in this study, the conditions of “unfair” and “awareness” are important to consider. It is possible that when people hear negative experiences about institutional food (which is upsetting and perceived as unfair to people), it activates a mechanism that raises their awareness of what institutional food should be like and consequently raises their normative expectations.

Future focus has a positive effect on both predictive expectation dimensions. Consumers who are more future-oriented have higher predictive expectations of institutional food. This is interesting to consider in relation to our findings on disconfirmation sensitivity. We did not find the expected negative effect of disconfirmation sensitivity on expectations (Kopalle & Lehmann, 2001), likely due to the long temporal distance to the consumption experience (Monga & Houston, 2006). However, being future-oriented increased predictive expectations of the event. Only the normative expectation of freedom of choice was significantly influenced by temporal focus. Freedom of choice is the aspect that seems to be most “in the future” compared to the other two dimensions. Freedom of choice is not what people think of in relation to institutions today where loss of autonomy is discussed as one of the biggest frustrations for those in institutions (Abbey et al., 2015).

## 6.2 | Theoretical contributions

This research adds new perspectives to expectation theory and helps fill significant gaps in the literature. First, the findings have implications for our understanding of how expectation types operate and should be conceptualized in a non-hedonic context (Dean, 2004; Santos & Boote, 2003). Systematically distinguishing between expectation types is much needed in the expectation literature (Meirovich et al., 2020) and strengthens the theoretical findings of this research. The findings also call for careful consideration of expectation types used in expectation models. Further, this research demonstrates that normative and predictive expectations have different types of antecedents, which helps to address an important gap in the literature on internal factors in expectation models (Kopalle & Lehmann, 2001). Thus, the main theoretical contribution of this research lies in adding insight into how expectations are formed. The findings emphasize the importance of understanding the consumers and who they are—as that may influence their normative expectations—as well as their surroundings, which may influence their predictive expectations. The inclusion of and findings on individual psychological and sociocultural determinants as antecedents of expectations broadens our understanding of factors that influence expectations. Notably, the findings indicate that the antecedent–expectation relationship could be content dependent, and more research is needed to continue exploration of this finding.

## 6.3 | Practical contributions

This research contributes knowledge that future institutions and policy makers could use to improve institutional food offerings and

prepare for future demands. By identifying the dimensions and content of aging consumers' normative and predictive expectations, this research indicates that food quality, freedom of choice, servicescape, sustainability, and food variety are important aspects to consider. Previous research showed that disconfirmed expectations have major consequences in terms of behavioral outcomes and management strategies (Boulding et al., 1993; Santos & Boote, 2003). For instance, unmet expectations have led to negative WOM (Zhang et al., 2021), lowered food acceptability (Cardello & Sawyer, 1992; Sabbe et al., 2009), and distrust (Cai & Chi, 2021), which are important to avoid in the institutional food context. Thus, meeting the institutional food expectations identified in this research could contribute to influence aging consumers' motivation to eat, their perception of the food, and satisfaction with the institutional food, which is important to promote healthy aging and well-being. Institutions, health services, and governments can use this knowledge to meet normative expectations and design efficient public policies. Importantly, the findings imply that understanding individual and sociocultural factors can provide different strategies to assist in meeting aging consumers' expectations of institutional food.

## 6.4 | Limitations and future research

Although this study makes important contributions to the literature and uses two samples to validate the results, it does have certain limitations. Using Norwegian samples limits the generalizability of findings. Norway is a wealthy country with high living standards, which may have influenced consumers' expectations and their dimensions. Future studies should investigate how individual and sociocultural determinants influence expectations in other contexts. Further limitations stem from the data (a) being merely correlational, (b) self-reported, and (c) collected through an online panel. Future studies should investigate the consistency and stability of normative and predictive expectations using longitudinal design.

Our study offers preliminary but important insight into drivers of normative and predictive expectations in the context of institutional food. However, future studies should consider investigating the causal relationship between the antecedents and expectations by employing an experimental research design. It would also be of interest to investigate how different contexts activate normative and predictive expectations (Köcher & Holzmüller, 2019), reducing or increasing consumption efforts, behavioral goals, and other behavior-related outcomes (Braga & Jacinto, 2022). Future research should investigate if individual psychological and sociocultural determinants influence consumers' motivation, satisfaction, and complaint behaviors in the face of disconfirmation. Identifying as female had a significant positive effect on normative but not predictive expectations; future studies should investigate the interplay between gender roles and consumer expectations in non-hedonic settings. To increase our understanding of expectation antecedents, other variables should be included to potentially explain more of the remaining variance in the regression models. For example, other studies have used food-related lifestyle



(Aschemann-Witzel et al., 2021; Yeo et al., 2020) as segmentation tools to segment food consumers. Moreover, food-related personality traits such as food neophobia (Tuorila et al., 2001), food involvement (Bell & Marshall, 2003), and health consciousness (Jin et al., 2017) could add nuance to the findings and provide robust insights for policy makers and institutions.

This is the first research to investigate internal antecedents of normative and predictive expectations of future elderly in the context of institutional food. The findings indicate that individual psychological and sociocultural determinants influence different expectation types. Contrary to findings in other consumer contexts, predictive expectations do not seem to depend on disconfirmation sensitivity, although it is an important predictor for normative expectations in the institutional food context. Word of mouth also has an opposing effect on expectations, which was not detected in prior studies. Future studies should continue to investigate the interplay between expectations, their drivers, and consequences in a variety of consumer contexts.

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## CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

## DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Research data are not shared.

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## APPENDIX A

## A.1 | DESCRIPTION OF MEASURES

*Normative expectations.* 14 Likert type statements anchored “Strongly disagree” and “Strongly agree,” measured on a seven-point scale. The items read as follows:

- The food in nursing homes should be fantastic
- The food in nursing homes should be as good as in restaurants
- The food should be of excellent quality
- You should be given the freedom to choose what you want to eat
- You should get a menu to choose from for dinner
- You should be offered international dishes
- You should be able to choose from varied food offerings
- You should be able to sit with who you want during the meal
- You should be able to drink what you want with the food
- The food should be served in a nice environment
- The food should be presented in an appetite-inducing manner
- You should be offered vegetarian dishes
- The food should be short traveled/local
- The food should primarily be ecological

*Predictive expectations.* 14 Likert type statements anchored “Strongly disagree” and “Strongly agree,” measured on a seven-point scale. The items read as follows:

- The food in nursing homes will be fantastic
- The food in nursing homes will be as good as in restaurants
- The food will be of excellent quality
- You will be given the freedom to choose what you want to eat
- You will get a menu to choose from for dinner
- You will be offered international dishes
- You will be able to choose from varied food offerings
- You will be able to sit with who you want during the meal
- You will be able to drink what you want with the food
- The food will be served in a nice environment
- The food will be presented in an appetite-inducing manner
- You will be offered vegetarian dishes

- The food will be short traveled/local
- The food will primarily be ecological

*Psychological entitlement.* This construct was assessed using six Likert type items anchored “Strongly disagree” to “Strongly agree.” The items were adapted from Campbell et al. (2004) and read (1) Things should go my way, (2) I demand the best because I am worth it, (3) Good things should happen to me, (4) People like me deserve an extra break now and then, (5) I feel I am entitled to more of everything, (6) To be honest, I feel that I deserve a bit more than other people.

*Subjective food knowledge.* Three items adapted from Aertsens et al. (2011) that read (1) I have a lot of knowledge about food, (2) In my circle of friends, I am one of the people who know most about food, (3) I do not feel that I have much knowledge about food (R).

*Disconfirmation sensitivity.* This construct was assessed with three items based on Kopalle and Lehmann (2001) work. The items were slightly moderated to fit our research setting and read (1) I get very happy when a meal is better than I expected, (2) I quickly notice if a meal does not have the quality I expected, (3) I get very disappointed when a meal is not as good as I expected, (4) I get very disappointed if a meal is not as good as I expected.

*Word-of-mouth.* Three items anchored “Very negative” and “Very positive” on a seven-point Likert scale adapted from Kalamas et al. (2002). The items were adapted to our research context (institutional food) and read as follows: (1) What I have heard about food in nursing homes from friends is... (2) What I have heard about food in nursing homes from family is...and (3) What I have heard about food in nursing homes from the media is...

*Temporal focus (future focus).* Four Likert type statements anchored “Strongly disagree” and “Strongly agree,” measured on a seven-point scale, were adopted from Shipp et al. (2009). The four items read as follows: (1) I think about what the future has in store, (2) I think about times to come, (3) “I focus on my future,” (4) I often imagine what the future will bring.

## APPENDIX B: THE RESULTS OF FACTOR AND RELIABILITY ANALYSIS OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Constructs and items	n	Items	Sample 2				Sample 1							
			M	SD	$\alpha$	Loadings	Communalities	M	SD	$\alpha$	Loadings	Communalities		
<i>Entitlement</i>	300	6			.858					.831				
Things should go my way			4.61	1.27		.678	.596		4.50	1.20		.695	.530	
I demand the best because I am worth it			3.67	1.63		.812	.677		3.86	1.44		.773	.685	
Good things should happen to me			4.72	1.50		.704	.671		4.98	1.06		.557	.456	
People like me deserve an extra break now and then			3.75	1.67		.849	.747		4.25	1.31		.781	.646	
I feel I am entitled to more of everything			2.67	1.53		.808	.679		2.90	1.29		.842	.715	
To be honest, I feel that I deserve a bit more than other people			1.96	1.23		.664	.628		2.28	1.22		.689	.572	
<i>Subjective knowledge</i>	300	3			.862							.882		
I have a lot of knowledge about food			4.94	1.43		.861	.808		5.31	1.25		.892	.854	
In my circle of friends, I am one of the people who know most about food			3.87	1.69		.883	.818		4.04	1.59		.879	.792	
I do not feel that I have much knowledge about food (reversed)			5.12	1.68		.825	.741		5.00	1.56		.880	.790	
<i>Disconfirmation sensitivity</i>	300	3			.732							.725		
I get very happy when a meal is better than I expected			5.95	1.17		.792	.655		6.05	.834		.765	.591	
I quickly notice if a meal does not have the quality I expected			5.53	1.40		.717	.667		5.65	1.04		.671	.628	
I get very disappointed if a meal is not as good as I expected			5.28	1.58		.607	.523		5.66	1.15		.754	.639	
<i>Word-of-mouth</i>	300	3			.824									
What I have heard about food in nursing homes from friends is...			3.48	1.24		.904	.845							
What I have heard about food in nursing homes from family is...			3.64	1.30		.901	.836							
What I have heard about food in nursing homes from the media is...			2.84	1.20		.743	.577							
<i>Temporal focus</i>	300	4			.898									
I think about what the future has in store			4.41	1.29		.892	.822							
I think about times to come			4.48	1.23		.903	.827							
I focus on my future			4.25	1.31		.843	.733							
I often imagine what the future will bring			4.08	1.27		.831	.703							

## APPENDIX C: PEARSON CORRELATION MATRICES STUDY 1 AND STUDY 2

		Correlations										
		NE-food quality	NE-freedom	NE-servicescape	NE-sustainability	PE-food quality	PE-food variety	Entitlement	Subjective knowledge	Disconfirmation sensitivity	Female	Experience
NE-food quality	Pearson correlation	1	.532**	.480**	.280**	.218**	-.100	.348**	.314**	.412**	.239**	.070
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	.084	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	.228
	N	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300
NE-freedom	Pearson correlation	.532**	1	.523**	.360*	.063	.093	.290**	.341**	.408**	.172**	.018
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001		<.001	<.001	.278	.109	<.001	<.001	<.001	.003	.752
	N	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300
NE-servicescape	Pearson correlation	.480**	.523**	1	.435**	.029	.052	.225**	.327**	.507**	.313**	.091
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001		<.001	.619	.371	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	.116
	N	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300
NE-sustainability	Pearson correlation	.280**	.360**	.435**	1	.179**	.304**	.024	.271**	.285**	.353**	.058
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001	<.001		.002	<.001	.681	<.001	<.001	<.001	.319
	N	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300
PE-food quality	Pearson correlation	.218**	.063	.029	.179**	1	.532**	.164**	-.011	-.017	.070	-.109
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	.278	.619	.002		<.001	.773	.851	.773	.228	.060
	N	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300
PE-food variety	Pearson correlation	-.100	.093	.052	.304**	.532**	1	-.026	.047	.018	.122**	-.100
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.084	.109	.371	<.001	<.001		.660	.421	.762	.035	.082
	N	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300
Entitlement	Pearson correlation	.348**	.290**	.225**	.024	.164**	-.026	1	.161**	.263**	.049	-.008
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001	<.001	.681	.004	.660		.005	<.001	.399	.885
	N	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300



Correlations												
	NE-food quality	NE-freedom	NE-servicescape	NE-sustainability	PE-food quality	PE-food variety	Entitlement	Subjective knowledge	Disconfirmation sensitivity	Female	Experience	
Subjective knowledge	.314**	.341**	.327**	.271**	-.011	.047	.161**	1	.405**	.253**	.160**	
	Pearson correlation											
	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	.851	.421	.005	<.001	<.001	<.001	.005	
	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	
Disconfirmation sensitivity	.412**	.408**	.507**	.285**	-.017	.018	.263**	.405**	1	.199**	.158**	
	Pearson correlation											
	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	.773	.762	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	.006	
	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	
Female	.239**	.172**	.313**	.353**	.070	.122**	.049	.253**	.199**	1	.090	
	Pearson correlation											
	<.001	.003	<.001	<.001	.228	.035	.399	<.001	<.001	<.001	.119	
	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	
Experience	.070	.018	.091	.058	-.109	-.100	-.008	.160**	.158**	.090	1	
	Pearson correlation											
	.228	.752	.116	.319	.060	.082	.885	.005	.006	.119	.006	
	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	
Correlations												
	NE-food quality	NE-freedom	NE-sustainability	PE-food quality	PE-food variety	Subjective knowledge	Disconfirmation sensitivity	Word of mouth	Temporal focus - future	Female	Experience	
NE-food quality	1	.630**	.309**	.160**	-.019	.363**	.343**	-.199**	.089	.225**	.023	
	Pearson correlation											
	<.001	<.001	<.001	.005	.742	<.001	<.001	<.001	.126	<.001	.691	
	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	
NE-freedom	.630**	1	.423**	-.059	.061	.306**	.510**	-.348**	.230**	.199**	.029	
	Pearson correlation											
	<.001	<.001	<.001	.311	.296	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	.613	
	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	
NE-sustainability	.309**	.423**	1	.146*	.273**	.240**	.249**	-.129*	.146*	.269**	-.015	
	Pearson correlation											
	<.001	<.001	<.001	.011	<.001	<.001	<.001	.026	.011	<.001	.792	
	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	

(Continues)

		Correlations											
		NE-food quality	NE-freedom sustainability	NE-sustainability	PE-food quality	PE-food variety	Entitlement	Subjective knowledge	Disconfirmation sensitivity	Word of mouth	Temporal focus - future	Female Experience	
PE-food quality	Pearson correlation	.160**	-.059	.146*	1	.557**	.216**	-.055	-.001	.360**	.123*	-.048	-.123*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.311	.011	<.001	<.001	<.001	.347	.981	<.001	.033	.412	.034
	N	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300
PE-food variety	Pearson correlation	-.019	.061	.273**	.557**	1	.078	.017	.029	.193**	.188**	-.042	-.115*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.742	.296	<.001	<.001	<.001	.176	.769	.615	<.001	.001	.466	.047
	N	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300
Entitlement	Pearson correlation	.363**	.265**	.090	.216**	.078	1	.049	.268**	-.013	.143*	.028	-.017
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001	.121	<.001	.176	<.001	.394	<.001	.826	.013	.628	.774
	N	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300
Subjective knowledge	Pearson correlation	.161**	.306**	.240**	-.055	.017	.049	1	.390**	-.236**	.158**	.252**	.130*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	<.001	<.001	.347	.769	.394	<.001	<.001	<.001	.006	<.001	.025
	N	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300
Discontinuation sensitivity	Pearson correlation	.343**	.510**	.249**	-.001	.029	.268**	.390**	1	-.159**	.269**	.065	.111
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001	<.001	.981	.615	<.001	<.001	<.001	.006	<.001	.263	.055
	N	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300
Word of mouth	Pearson correlation	-.199**	-.348**	-.129*	.360**	.193**	-.013	-.236**	-.159**	1	-.057	-.152**	-.033
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001	.026	<.001	<.001	.826	<.001	.006	<.001	.326	.008	.569
	N	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300
Temporal focus - future	Pearson correlation	.089	.230**	.146*	.123*	.188**	.143*	.158**	.269**	-.057	1	.049	.045
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.126	<.001	.011	.033	.001	.013	.006	<.001	.326	<.001	.401	.440
	N	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300
Female	Pearson correlation	.225**	.199**	.269**	-.048	-.042	.028	.252**	.065	-.152**	.049	1	.095
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001	<.001	.412	.466	.628	<.001	.263	.008	.401	.099	.099
	N	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300

## Study 2

## Correlations

	NE-food quality	NE-freedom	NE-sustainability	PE-food quality	PE-food variety	Entitlement	Subjective knowledge	Disconfirmation sensitivity	Word of mouth	Temporal focus - future	Female	Experience
Experience	.023	.029	-.015	-.123*	-.115*	-.017	.130*	.111	-.033	.045	.095	1
	.691	.613	.792	.034	.047	.774	.025	.055	.569	.440	.099	
	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300	300

\* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

\*\* Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).