Efforts to globalize a national food

Market segmentation by reasons for ethnic food preferences

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Abstract

Purpose – This paper aims to gain insight into the preferences of US customers regarding Korean food, and to categorize these customers according to the reasons for their preferences.

Design/methodology/approach – The study was conducted with a sample of customers in Korean restaurants in the USA.

Findings – Cluster 1 was a group whose members were attracted to Korean culture; Cluster 2 was a group whose members were passionate about Korean food; Cluster 3 was a group seeking healthy and exotic food; and Cluster 4 was a low-interest group. Each cluster had a different socio-demographic profile, favored a different Korean menu, identified different success factors for Korean restaurants, described different expectations and experiences of Korean restaurants and had different preferences regarding Korean food services.

Practical implications – Active promotion of Korean food and Korean culture may be appropriate for Cluster 1, while developing a healthy and exotic menu may attract Cluster 3. Maintaining Cluster 2 is deemed important, while a strategic approach is necessary to appeal to Cluster 4.

Originality/value – This study will contribute theoretically and practically to understanding food globalization, ethnic restaurants and segmentation by preference reasons.

Keywords Restaurants, Globalization, Restaurant industry, Internationalization strategy

Paper type Research paper

Introduction

As food is, in general, closely interlinked with a nation's social practices, dining habits, culinary gastronomy, traditions and history, national food reflects a comprehensive range of societal, cultural and artistic values. Food also plays an essential role in enhancing a nation's image or competitive advantages (Hsu, 2015; Enright and Newton, 2005; Getz *et al.*, 2014; Hjalager and Corigliano, 2000). The globalization of a national food type is synonymous with its "successful localization" in foreign cities, because national food is regarded as ethnic food in foreign countries (Inglis and Gimlin, 2009). European cuisines such as those of Italy, France and Spain are already globalized in the

USA due to these countries' long history of immigration. More recently, Mexican cuisine and Asian cuisines, such as those of China, India, Japan, Thailand, Korea and Vietnam, have arrived in the USA (Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada, 2012; Ladki and Nomani, 1996). The demand for ethnic cuisines in the USA has remarkably increased because of socio-cultural changes such as increased immigration from Asia and Mexico, the emergence of Generation Y as key consumers and a growing preference for healthy food (Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada, 2012; NRA, 2010).

More research is needed to better understand ethnic-food diners and to establish marketing strategies to achieve a "successful glocalization" of ethnic food and a harmonized state of "integration" between ethnic and host culture. Previous studies on ethnic foods in the USA mainly show keen interest in the antecedents affecting customers' perceived value, satisfaction or behavioral intentions (Ha and Jang, 2010; Phillips *et al.*, 2013; Qu, 1997; Tsai and Lu, 2012). However, very few studies have segmented customers based on the reasons they prefer ethnic food or suggested customized marketing strategies for successful glocalization.

The providers of Asian food, such as Chinese, Japanese and Thai food, have taken up a large share in the global restaurant market. Meanwhile, it is only recently that Korean cuisine has become more widely known to the rest of the world. In 2010, the food globalization project was given momentum by the establishment of the Korean Food Foundation. One of its globalization agendas is to analyze major overseas markets (Kang, 2010). This study is one of the research projects led by the Korean Food Foundation to examine the overseas market for Korean food and gain insight into the preferences of US customers regarding Korean food. This study is expected to contribute to the exploration of how an ethnic food is successfully established in other countries, using marketing and theoretical approaches.

The study has three major objectives. More specifically, the first objective is to use factor analysis to identify the categories that underlie US consumers' reasons for preferring Korean cuisine and the categories of factors that determine the success of Korean restaurants in the USA. Second, the categories identified for US customers' reasons for preferring Korean food will be used to create and explore clusters of the sample. The third objective of the study is to examine the relationships between these clusters and to distinguish descriptors such as customers' preferred menus, the factors they believe to determine the success of Korean restaurants in the USA, their expectations of and experiences at Korean restaurants, their preferences regarding Korean food services and socio-demographic variables.

Literature review and conceptualization
Segmentation of ethnic-restaurant customers
Prior to determining a profitable target market and implementing a positioning strategy, it is useful to categorize potential customers by segmenting a large market into distinctive groups that may require different marketing mix strategies (Kotler *et al.*, 2006). This stage is called market segmentation, and enables a company to identify the profiles of key groups of consumers and to tailor marketing strategies to their needs (Bruwer and Li, 2007). In the restaurant management field, segmentation has been recognized as a useful tool to facilitate the development of food management strategies, because practitioners in the food industry need to understand the features of customers in distinctive segments.

To segment ethnic-restaurant patrons, previous studies have used socio-demographic variables (e.g. gender, income, nationality) and social-psychological variables (e.g. value, lifestyle, personality, preference). The socio-demographic characteristics used include gender, education, income, age and ethnicity (Barber and Scarcelli, 2010; Batra, 2008; Honkanen, 2010; Hwang et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2009; Roseman, 2006). By segmenting according to age, US restaurant customers aged 35 or below are highly likely to choose Indian food, whereas German food is more frequently chosen by older respondents (Roseman, 2006).

Regarding educational level and income, Roseman (2006) also identified that professional respondents with a higher level of education and income showed a tendency to choose ethnic food than their less educated, non-professional and lower-paid counterparts. Barber and Scarcelli (2010) categorized customers by gender and education to identify the effect on customer evaluation of the cleanliness of a restaurant. Female diners were found to be more sensitive to cleanliness in the restaurant environment than male diners. In the study of Hwang et al. (2015), females were more likely to express their opinions or emotions regarding restaurant service quality than males. Some studies have found that the overall satisfaction level differs according to age (Kim et al., 2009). For example, older customers were found to be more satisfied than younger consumers, because they tended to become more loyal due to frequent visits (Kim et al., 2009).

The second research stream addresses segmentation using social–psychological variables such as food-related lifestyle, values, personality traits and familiarity. A number of studies have used lifestyle as a segmentation variable (Bruwer and Li, 2007; Choe and Cho, 2011; Jang et al., 2011b; Wycherleya et al., 2008). For example, Wycherleya et al. (2008) used a food-related lifestyle scale and identified six categories of consumers: "adventurous", "rational", "careless", "snacking", "conservative" and "uninvolved". In their study, members in the "adventurous" and "rational" groups revealed a higher level of preference for specialty food products.

Some scholars attempted to identify the characteristics of restaurant diners according to their reasons for preferring a certain food or the benefits sought (John and Horsefall, 2012; NRA, 1995; Roseman, 2006; Tan and Lo, 2008). According to the analysis of a survey of the National Restaurant Association (NRA, 1995), ethnic-restaurant diners were segmented into three groups according to the reasons for their preference: culture-seeking consumers, taste-seeking consumers and consumers who wished to cook for themselves after sampling ethnic food. In a similar vein, Roseman (2006) also identified six main reasons for choosing an ethnic restaurant.

In sum, a number of segmentation studies have investigated the profiles or features of restaurant diners with reference to socio-demographic or social-psychological variables. However, limited efforts have been made to segment ethnic-food diners according to the reasons for their preferences, even though the market for ethnic food and ethnic restaurants is rapidly growing. Specifically, as ethnic food usually differs from that consumed in daily life, diners are likely to have particular reasons for visiting a certain ethnic restaurant. Therefore, examining the reasons for customers' decision to eat ethnic food is likely to provide information of use in determining a target market and developing customized marketing strategies.

Globalization and localization
Lechner and Boli (2003) suggested four perspectives of globalization: world system theory, neorealism/neoliberal institutionalism, world polity theory and world culture theory. World culture theory posits that globalizations are processes in which people perceive the world as a single entity, but one whose culture is still multiple and hybrid (Lechner and Boli, 2003; Robertson, 1992). Using world culture theory, Robertson (1995) explains that food globalization generalizes a particular product and localization particularizes a general product. For example, the hamburger is a particular food product that has been generalized as a popular food through globalization. Among the generalized forms of the hamburger, the Bulgogi burger is a product particularized in Korea through a successful localization process.

Though globalization and localization seem to be dialectically opposed, a number of researchers have insisted that the two concepts should not be treated separately (Born and Purcell, 2006; Gallegos, 2009; Massey, 2004; Robertson, 1995). The reason is that "glocalization" comprises simultaneous homogenization and heterogenization between an ethnic food and a local food. That is, the global trend of providing a unique food experience is being adapted and used in a local context, in accordance with local customers' social and cultural needs. Therefore, the globalization of food positively affects local gastronomic products and the local residents' identity Mak *et al.*, 2012; Ram, 2004).
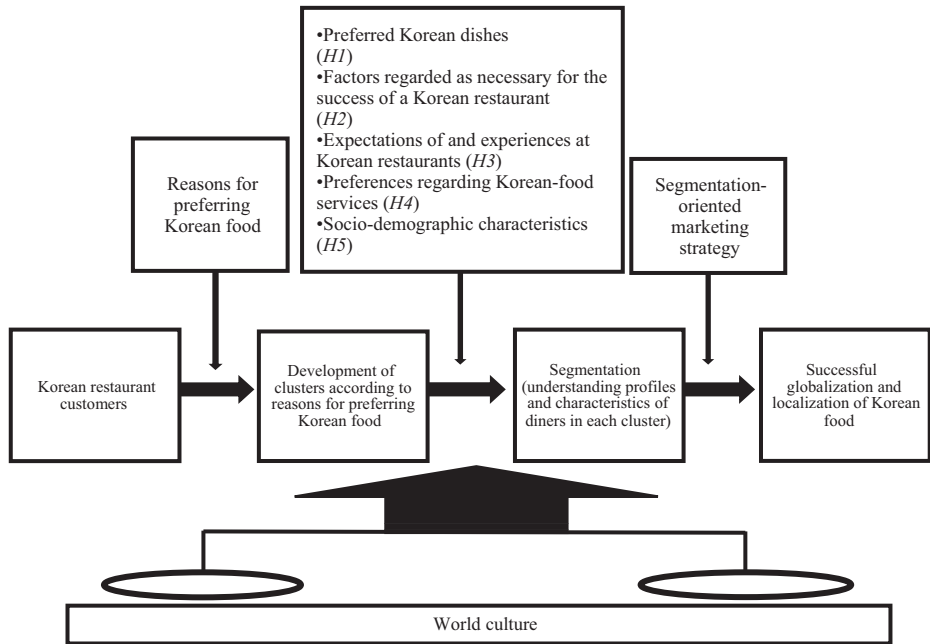
Although a number of scholars show locals' favorable views toward the processes of globalization (Mak *et al.*, 2012; Ram, 2004), in actuality, local residents tend to reveal negative responses toward globalization of other national food (Rhea, 2012; Wilk, 2009). For instance, many local residents in Belize felt resentment toward the Chinese immigrants, because they became rich by selling enormous amounts of unhealthy food – small fried chicken at very low prices – to Belizean children (Wilk, 2009). It is thus necessary to endeavor to achieve successful "glocalization" with harmonization between two different cultures.

Conceptual framework
The holistic picture of the present study is based on the theory of world culture, which proposes appropriate directions for the globalization of a national food. To achieve a "successful glocalization" of an ethnic food, proper market analysis is necessary. Figure 1 depicts the study's conceptual framework. Customers were classified into clusters according to their reasons for preferring Korean food. The factors determining the reasons for their preferences were produced by factor analysis. Next, cluster analysis was used to determine whether the clusters of reasons for preferences differed significantly with respect to diverse variables. The outcomes were then used as segmentation descriptors of these clusters. The results offer useful insights into the characteristics of foreign Korean-food customers in the USA with reference to the reasons for their choice of Korean food, and may be used to tailor marketing strategies to the customers within each cluster.

Hypotheses
Five hypotheses were developed in line with the research objectives. The first hypothesis was designed to test whether food/menu preferences differed between the groups of respondents clustered according to their reasons for preferring Korean food. A

•Preferred Korean dishes
(*H1*)
•Factors regarded as necessary for the
success of a Korean restaurant
(*H2*)
•Expectations of and experiences at
Korean restaurants (*H3*)
•Preferences regarding Korean-food
services (*H4*)
•Socio-demographic characteristics
(*H5*)

Reasons for
preferring
Korean food

Segmentation-
oriented
marketing
strategy

Korean restaurant
customers

Development of
clusters according to
reasons for preferring
Korean food

Segmentation
(understanding profiles
and characteristics of
diners in each cluster)

Successful
globalization and
localization of Korean
food

World culture

Figure 1.
Conceptual
framework

number of scholars have shown that customers' menu choices are determined by distinct food-related preferences (Batra, 2008; Choe and Cho, 2011; Honkanen, 2010; Sriwattana *et al.*, 2002). For example, Batra (2008) found that Asian diners had a far greater preference than Western diners did for Japanese or Thai food. In contrast, Western diners were more likely than Asian diners to choose Indian, Italian, Mexican and French dishes.

In Honkanen's (2010) study, a cohort of diners who selected fish dishes from a menu due to their health concerns expressed a much greater preference for vegetables than for pizza or sausage. In contrast, the diners with an antipathy to fish also tended to like pizza and sandwiches. These findings show that restaurant customers have different reasons for their distinct food/menu preferences. Sriwattana *et al.* (2002) found that Western customers at a Thai restaurant selected different items from the menu for different reasons. Those who enjoyed popular and healthy dishes preferred "Tom Yum Kung", while those who were motivated to try new food preferred to eat "Tom Yum Kung" and "Kaeng Kew Wan". Based on this rationale, *H1* was proposed as follows:

H1. The respondents who belong to each cluster of reasons for preferring Korean food are likely to express distinct preferences regarding Korean menus.

The results of reviewing previous studies have generally indicated that food attributes, service attributes and environmental attributes are factors in the success of an ethnic restaurant (Camillo *et al.*, 2010; Jang *et al.*, 2009; Qu, 1997). Qu (1997) identified "food environment", "service and courtesy", "price and value" and "location and advertising" as factors necessary for the success of Chinese restaurants. Camillo *et al.* (2010) found "taste", "simplicity", "readily available ingredients" and "accessibility" to be success

factors for Italian cuisine in the USA. The authenticity of ethnic food is also a decisive success factor in maintaining the reputation of an ethnic restaurant (Jang *et al.*, 2011a; Tsai and Lu, 2012). Jang *et al.* (2011a) found the "authenticity of atmospherics" to be more important to upscale-restaurant customers than to casual diners. In contrast, the "authenticity of food" was found to be more important to casual diners than to upscale diners. The Taiwanese customers who participated in Tsai and Lu's (2012) study perceived authentic Thai food as one of the most important factors in the success of Thai restaurants. Ha and Jang (2010) argued that hedonic factors such as interior design and music were more important for diners who are less familiar with Korean food, while utilitarian factors such as taste and menu variety were more important for diners who are familiar with Korean cuisine. As the success factors of an ethnic restaurant may be perceived differently by diverse segments of the market, cluster analysis is required for segmentation. Reflecting on this necessity, the second hypothesis was developed as follows:

H2. The respondents who belong to each cluster of reasons for preferring Korean food are likely to express distinct perceptions of the factors necessary for the success of a Korean restaurant.

Previous studies have indicated that customers' evaluation of their experiences of an ethnic food or restaurant may vary according to their reasons for preferring that type of food or restaurant (Choe and Cho, 2011; Ha and Jang, 2013; Kim *et al.*, 2012; Seo *et al.*, 2013; Wang and Mattila, 2013). In a study by Choe and Cho (2011), the neophilic individuals who enjoyed trying new food types and flavors were found to have greater experience of overseas travel than their more conservative counterparts. Wang and Mattila (2013) showed that more cosmopolitan individuals, who are more familiar with ethnic cultures, have a greater intention to patronize ethnic restaurants than less cosmopolitan individuals with less experience of ethnic cultures. Seo *et al.* (2013) investigated the notion that highly experienced diners showed a greater preference for Korean cuisine in a destination than less experienced diners. Highly experienced diners also showed a greater tendency to obtain information about Korean food through family/friends and TV/movies/books, whereas less experienced diners tended to obtain information through travel agencies and travel brochures/guide books. A study by Kim *et al.* (2012) indicated that among three main reasons for selecting Korean food, an interest in exotic culinary culture was associated with the enhancement of national image and the intention to visit Korea for food tourism. In sum, previous studies show that diners' expectations of and experience in ethnic restaurants may differ according to segments of the food market:

H3. The respondents who belong to each cluster of reasons for preferring Korean food are likely to describe distinct expectations of and experiences at Korean restaurants.

The items used to measure the respondents' preferences regarding ethnic-food services comprised willingness to pay (WTP), preferred food-service type, preferred restaurant type and preferred food type. WTP is likely to differ between groups with different motivations for visiting or reasons to visit a restaurant (Andersson and Mossberg, 2004; Frash *et al.*, 2014; Jang *et al.*, 2011b). Andersson and Mossberg (2004) found that WTP is much greater among individuals who visit restaurants for social and intellectual

reasons. Frash *et al.* (2014) found that the WTP of individuals who wish to purchase local food products in a restaurant is 4-8 per cent higher than that of diners who wish to purchase non-local food.

A casual dining service style was suggested for university students in the USA who prefer healthy Korean food, while a buffet-style service was recommended for people who have no particular preference for Korean food (Lee *et al.*, 2009). Ha and Jang (2013) found out that customers with different reasons for visiting a restaurant favor different service styles. For example, customers who seek convenience, success and value for money prefer fast-food restaurants, while customers who seek emotional value and a sense of belonging prefer casual dining restaurants. Based on the above literature review, the following hypothesis was developed:

> *H4.* The respondents who belong to each cluster of reasons for preferring Korean food are likely to exhibit distinct preferences regarding *Korean-food service* type.

A number of studies have shown that food-related preferences are likely to differ according to socio-demographic characteristics (Barber and Scarcelli, 2010; Honkanen, 2010; Roseman, 2006). For example, Roseman (2006) examined consumers' reasons for choosing ten types of ethnic food and sought to determine why their reasons differed according to socio-demographic variables. The professional respondents with higher levels of education and income used ethnic restaurants more frequently than their less well-educated, non-professional counterparts with lower salaries. The following hypothesis was established:

> *H5.* The respondents who belong to each cluster of reasons for preferring Korean food are likely to exhibit distinct socio-demographic characteristics.

Methodology
Measurement and data analysis
Ten items addressing the respondents' reasons for preferring Korean food were derived from previous studies (Batra, 2008; Lee and Choi, 2009; Roseman, 2006). Popular dishes served by Korean restaurants in the USA were selected from the menus described by seven restaurant owners in Chicago during the interview. Eleven items addressing the factors that determine the success of Korean restaurants were adapted from previous studies (Camillo *et al.*, 2010, Jang *et al.*, 2009; Qu, 1997). The questions relating to diners' expectations of and experiences at Korean restaurants were selected after reviewing previous studies (Choe and Cho, 2011; Kim *et al.*, 2012; Wang and Mattila, 2013). The questions used to obtain the respondents' preferences regarding Korean-food services were based on previous studies (Andersson and Mossberg, 2004; Frash *et al.*, 2014). Finally, socio-demographic variables such as gender, marital status, occupation, age, education, ethnicity and annual household income were measured as categorical data.

Survey site
The aim of this project was to explore the potential of Korean food for successful localization in the USA. There were several reasons to select Chicago as a target destination for sampling. It is the third-most populous city in the USA and a global center of finance, technology, commerce, industry, telecommunications and transportation. Currently, the city hosts approximately 46 Korean restaurants (Chicago

City Search, 2014). The restaurants can be categorized by scale as follows: small-scale establishments, with 10 to 20 tables in one hall; medium-scale establishments, with 21 to 50 tables in 2 to 3 halls; and large-scale establishments, with 51 to 100 tables in 1 or 2 main halls and smaller dining areas. The majority of the clients of the restaurants in Chicago and its vicinity were Caucasians and Asian Americans. As the range of prices was diverse, depending on the location or scale of the restaurants, it is hard to show the overall pricing range. However, the prices were lower than those of fine-dining restaurants or other Asian restaurants, such as Japanese. The restaurants in one category offer traditional Korean menus; the focus of the second is fusion food (Americanized Korean dishes); and the last category of restaurants serves Korean food with Japanese or Mexican options to attract patrons from diverse ethnic groups.

Data collection
Surveys were administered from February 2, 2012 to February 7, 2012 and from March 12, 2012 to April 30, 2012. The survey process was as follows: first, the geographical distribution and types of Korean restaurants in Chicago were determined. Second, restaurants were selected for data collection according to their locations. Six restaurants were selected from a list of restaurants in the northern area of Chicago along I-90. Four restaurants were selected from the areas with a high density of Korean-American residents. Finally, two restaurants were chosen from the outskirts of Chicago (near the city of Schaumberg, along I-90).

The third stage of the survey process was the development of quotas based on the distribution of the restaurants. Thirty questionnaires were distributed to each of the 12 restaurants. The respondents sampled in the survey were local customers with US citizenship. Three hundred and sixty questionnaires were distributed. As the questionnaires were collected directly by the restaurant management or by the research team with the approval of the restaurant owners, the response rate was very high. Providing small gifts (key-rings decorated with a traditional Korean symbol) and clear explanations of the nature of the project also helped to secure a high response rate and assuage any minimal reluctance felt by the respondents to complete a four-page-long questionnaire. Of the 360 questionnaires distributed, 22 were uncollected and 28 were found to have multiple missing responses or insincere answers. Consequently, these 50 questionnaires were omitted from the study, leaving 310 questionnaires for use in further data analysis.

Results
Demographic profile of respondents
Approximately half of the respondents were male, and about 37 per cent were in their 20s, with 32.6 per cent in their 30s and 30 per cent in their 40s or older. With regard to education, the largest category of respondents had bachelor's degrees (45.9 per cent), followed by high school graduates (16.3 per cent). About 60 per cent of the respondents were single. Most of the respondents were Anglo-American (38.7 per cent), Asian (34.8 per cent) and Spanish or European American (19.4 per cent). Approximately 39 per cent were company employees, followed by students (17.4 per cent) and civil servants, professionals or teachers (14.7 per cent). The largest proportion of the respondents had an annual household income in the range of US$60,000-99,999 (36 per cent); the

second-largest category comprised respondents with an annual household income of US$100,000 or more (35 per cent).

Factor analysis of the reasons for preferring Korean food and success factors for a Korean restaurant
The results of factor analysis with varimax rotation indicated that a three-factor solution was appropriate for the reasons for preferring Korean food, because each of the three factors had an eigenvalue greater than 1.0 (Table I). The results of the scree test also suggested that only the first three factors were meaningful. These factors explained 65.98 per cent of the variance. The first comprised four health-related items. The second consisted of three items relating to diversity and exoticism. The third contained three items measuring cultural considerations. The factor loadings and communalities for all of the items were greater than 0.70 and 0.64, respectively. The reliability coefficients within the three domains ranged from 0.65 to 0.81, narrowly meeting Nunnally and Bernstein's (1994) criterion of 0.70.

The factor analysis of the success factors for a Korean restaurant produced four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (Table II). A scree plot confirmed the four-factor solution. The factors explained 76.98 per cent of the variance and were termed "cleanliness", "promotion and convenience", "responsiveness" and "food quality". The factor loadings and communalities for all of the 12 items measuring the respondents' opinions of the success factors for a Korean restaurant were greater than

Domains and items	Factor loading	Communality	Mean
Domain 1 (health)			
(α = 0.81, eigenvalue = 3.89, explained variance = 38.93%)			
Low-calorie	0.83	0.69	3.61
Healthy	0.75	0.64	3.97
A good balance of carbohydrate, protein and fat	0.74	0.65	3.77
Nutritional value of a range of vegetables	0.70	0.64	4.05
Grand mean		3.85	
Domain 2 (diversity and exoticism)			
(α = 0.77, eigenvalue = 1.48, explained variance = 14.77%)			
Singular and exotic appeal of food different from that of other countries	0.80	0.65	3.84
Diversity of ingredients	0.76	0.70	3.92
Delicious combinations of flavors	0.74	0.69	3.80
Grand mean		3.85	
Domain 3 (culture)			
(α = 0.65, eigenvalue = 1.23, explained variance = 12.29%)			
Greater familiarity with Asian food than with Western food	0.79	0.64	3.28
Experience of traditional culture through Korean food	0.73	0.66	3.45
Affiliation with Korean pop culture ("K-pop", drama/movies, gaming, etc.)	0.73	0.64	2.63
Grand mean		3.12	

Table I.
Factor analysis of reasons for preferring Korean food

Domains and items	Factor loading	Communality	Mean
Domain 1 (cleanliness)			
(α = 0.89, eigenvalue = 2.58, explained variance = 21.52%)			
Cleanliness of restaurant and kitchen	0.91	0.88	4.68
Sanitariness	0.87	0.83	4.68
Cleanliness of restroom	0.82	0.78	4.59
Grand mean		4.65	
Domain 2 (promotion and convenience)			
(α = 0.87, eigenvalue = 2.58, explained variance = 21.47%)			
Brand image	0.87	0.80	3.75
Well promoted	0.82	0.76	3.94
Convenient facilities	0.66	0.78	4.00
Easy reservation	0.61	0.72	3.95
Grand mean		3.91	
Domain 3 (responsiveness)			
(α = 0.80, eigenvalue = 2.14, explained variance = 17.84%)			
Speed of service	0.83	0.80	4.20
Speed of order	0.77	0.77	4.09
Grand mean		4.14	
Domain 4 (food quality)			
(α = 0.74, eigenvalue = 1.94, explained variance = 16.15%)			
Taste of food	0.84	0.77	4.12
Variety of food	0.84	0.75	4.16
Food combination	0.52	0.56	3.97
Grand mean		4.08	

Table II.
Factor analysis of
success factors for a
Korean restaurant

0.52 and 0.56, respectively. The reliability alphas for the five dimensions ranged from 0.74 to 0.89, and were thus deemed acceptable.
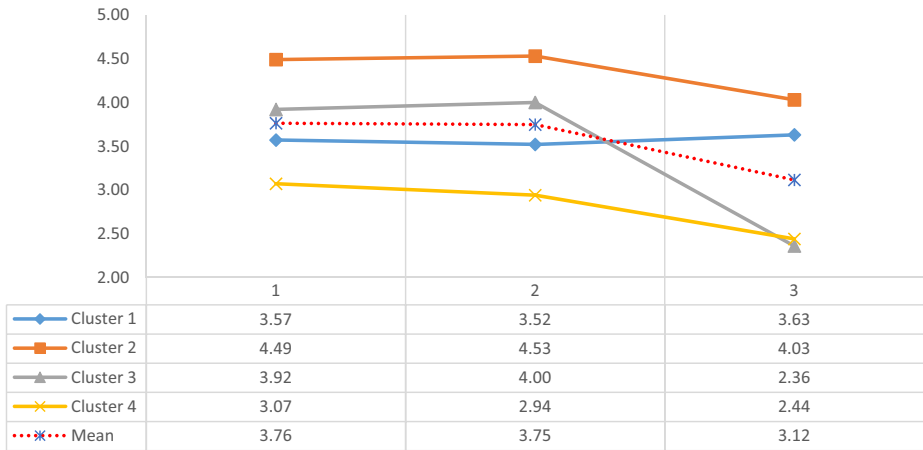
Cluster analysis
The results of the K-means clustering procedure suggested that the four-cluster solution was both coherent and interpretable (Table III and Figure 2). The members of Cluster 1 (27 per cent) placed little emphasis on the "health" domain or the "diversity and

Domain	Cluster 1[a] (n = 84)	Cluster 2[b] (n = 75)	Cluster 3[c] (n = 109)	Cluster 4[d] (n = 42)	Mean	F-value	p-value
Domain 1 (health)	3.57	4.49	3.92	3.07	3.76	85.94	0.000
Domain 2 (diversity and exoticism)	3.52	4.53	4.00	2.94	3.75	122.68	0.000
Domain 3 (culture)	3.63	4.03	2.36	2.44	3.12	198.62	0.000

Notes: [a]Cluster 1: Group seeking engagement with Korean culture; [b]Cluster 2: Group with a passion for Korean food; [c]Cluster 3: Group favoring healthy and exotic food; [d]Cluster 4: Low-interest group

Table III.
Cluster analysis of
the reasons for
preferring Korean
food

Figure 2.
Centers of four
preference clusters

	1	2	3
Cluster 1	3.57	3.52	3.63
Cluster 2	4.49	4.53	4.03
Cluster 3	3.92	4.00	2.36
Cluster 4	3.07	2.94	2.44
Mean	3.76	3.75	3.12

exoticism" domain, but attributed a high value to the "culture" domain. The members of Cluster 2 (24.2 per cent) perceived all three domains to be important. The respondents in Cluster 3 (35.2 per cent) placed a high emphasis on the components of the "health" domain and the "diversity and exoticism" domain, but considered the components of the "culture" domain to be of little importance. The members of Cluster 4 (13.5 per cent) placed little emphasis on any of the three domains. The four clusters were named according to their key characteristics, as follows: "group seeking engagement with Korean culture" (Cluster 1), "group with a passion for Korean food" (Cluster 2), "group favoring healthy and exotic food" (Cluster 3) and "low-interest group" (Cluster 4).

Korean menu preferences of the four clusters
Results of multiple one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests and Duncan's multiple-range tests are displayed in Table IV. Clusters 1 (mean = 3.30) and 4 (mean = 3.26) were found to be significantly ($p < 0.05$) less likely to prefer "Kimchi" than Clusters 2 (mean = 4.22) and 3 (mean =3.79). Clusters 1 (mean = 4.01) and 4 (mean = 3.98) were also significantly ($p < 0.05$) less likely to prefer "Bibimbap" than Clusters 2 (mean = 4.63) and 3 (mean = 4.53). Clusters 2 (mean = 4.70) and 3 (mean = 4.66) were significantly ($p < 0.05$) more likely to prefer "Bulgogi" than Clusters 1 (mean = 4.09) and 4 (mean = 4.13). A comparison of the rankings of Korean dishes revealed differences between the four clusters. "Bulgogi", "Grilled Galbi" and "Bibimbap" were ranked highest by the respondents in Clusters 1, 2 and 3, whereas "Dakgalbi", "Beef Bone Soup" and "Grilled Galbi" were ranked highest by the members of Cluster 4. "Grilled Galbi" was one of the highest-rated dishes across all of the clusters. However, the clusters all expressed very little preference for "Kimchi", "Juk" and "Naengmyeon".

According to results of one-way ANOVA tests, the respondents in Cluster 1 (mean = 4.28) placed significantly less emphasis than those in Cluster 3 (mean = 4.78) on "cleanliness" as a success factor (Table V). The members of Cluster 2 (mean = 4.30) attributed significantly greater importance than those in Cluster 1 (mean = 3.60), Cluster 3 (mean = 3.83) and Cluster 4 (mean = 3.63) to "promotion and convenience" as factors in the success of a Korean restaurant. More of the members of Cluster 2 (mean =

Korean dishes	Clusters 1 Mean	Rank	2 Mean	Rank	3 Mean	Rank	4 Mean	Rank	F-value	p-value
Kimchi	3.30[a]	10	4.22[b]	7	3.79[a,b]	10	3.26[a]	10	9.03***	0.000
Bibimbap (rice mixed with vegetables and beef)	4.01[a]	3	4.63[b]	3	4.53[b]	3	3.98[a]	8	9.33***	0.000
Bulgogi (beef in a soy-sauce marinade)	4.09[a]	2	4.70[b]	1	4.66[b]	2	4.13[a]	6	9.27***	0.000
Grilled Galbi (seasoned ribs)	4.38	1	4.65	2	4.69	1	4.38	3	2.32	0.076
Samgyetang (ginseng chicken soup)	4.01	3	4.18	8	4.19	5	4.35	4	0.48	0.693
Naengmyeon (buckwheat noodles in a cold broth)	3.78	8	4.04	9	3.90	9	3.85	9	0.37	0.775
Stew (seafood stew, Kimchi stew)	3.76	9	4.25	6	4.07	6	4.15	5	1.94	0.123
Dakgalbi (chicken ribs)	4.01	3	4.41	4	4.48	4	4.45	1	2.02	0.112
Beef Bone Soup (ox-bone soup, short-rib soup)	3.95	6	4.38	5	4.03	7	4.43	2	2.12	0.098
Juk (porridge)	3.80	7	4.03	10	3.98	8	4.08	7	0.37	0.775

Notes: [a] and [b] indicate sources of significant differences (a < b); ***$p < 0.001$

Table IV.
Comparison of
rankings of Korean
dishes

Success factors for a Korean restaurant	Clusters 1	2	3	4	F-value	p-value
Cleanliness (Domain 1)	4.28[a]	4.74[b,c]	4.78[c]	4.48[a,b]	12.30***	0.000
Promotion and convenience (Domain 2)	3.60[a]	4.30[b]	3.83[a]	3.63[a]	13.44***	0.000
Responsiveness (Domain 3)	3.99[a]	4.49[b]	4.27[a,b]	4.05[a]	7.90***	0.000
Food quality (Domain 4)	4.13[a,b]	4.59[c]	4.22[b]	3.96[a]	14.07***	0.000

Notes: [a], [b] and [c] indicate sources of significant differences (a < b < c); ***$p < 0.001$

Table V.
One-way ANOVA for
comparison of the
factors perceived by
the four clusters to
determine the
success of a Korean
restaurant

4.49) than of Clusters 1 (mean = 3.99), 4 (mean = 4.05) and 3 (mean = 4.27) indicated "responsiveness" as a success factor. The respondents in Cluster 2 (mean = 4.59) also placed greater emphasis than the other clusters (Cluster 4 = 3.96, Cluster 1 = 4.13, Cluster 3 = 4.22) on "food quality" as a factor determining the success of a Korean restaurant.

Next, one-way ANOVA and chi-square tests were conducted to identify the mean differences between the clusters in terms of their expectations of and experiences at Korean restaurants. The members of Cluster 2 (mean = 4.33) and Cluster 3 (mean = 4.41) were significantly ($p < 0.05$) optimistic about the potential of Korean cuisine to be globalized, whereas the respondents in Cluster 1 (mean = 3.90) and Cluster 4 (mean = 3.86) were relatively negative about the potential of Korean cuisine to be globalized. Similar patterns were found for the extent of the respondents' preference for Korean cuisine. Cluster 4 (mean = 2.81) yielded significantly lower values than Clusters 1, 2 and 3 (means = 3.96, 4.50 and 4.23, respectively) for the number of times the respondents had

dined at a Korean restaurant in the previous six months. Cluster 2 (mean = 4.59) showed a significantly higher level of satisfaction than Clusters 1, 3 and 4 (means = 3.99, 4.06 and 3.45, respectively) with the Korean food eaten at the restaurant most recently visited. The members of Cluster 2 (mean = 3.97) significantly ($p < 0.05$) reported the greatest change in their image of Korea since experiencing Korean food, whereas the respondents in Clusters 1 (mean = 3.58), 3 (mean = 3.57) and 4 (mean = 3.38) described only some changes in their image of Korea.

The members of Clusters 1 (mean = 3.77) and 4 (mean = 3.61) expressed less intention to visit a Korean restaurant in the next three months than the members of Clusters 2 (mean = 4.62) and 3 (mean = 4.25). Finally, acquaintances, newspapers and magazines were highlighted by all of the clusters as the most important sources of information that attract the respondents to Korean restaurants. Information provided by acquaintances was attributed greater importance by Cluster 3 (64.8 per cent) than by the other three clusters. Compared with the other clusters, Cluster 1 also attributed a fairly high level of importance to the internet (21.7 per cent) as a source of information attracting diners to Korean restaurants. These results are reported in detail in Table VI.

Differences in preferences between the four clusters regarding Korean food services
A series of chi-square tests was conducted to determine whether statistically significant levels of association existed between the clusters and the respondents' preferences regarding Korean food services. The results are reported in Table VII. The respondents in Cluster 1 were willing to pay US$10-19 (39.4 per cent) and US$5-9 (32.4 per cent) for a

	Clusters					
Items	1	2	3	4	*F*-value	*p*-value
Potential of Korean cuisine to be localized	3.90[a]	4.33[b]	4.41[b]	3.86[a]	11.95***	0.000
Number of visits to Korea since 2005	2.95	1.57	1.06	0.36	1.59	0.193
Level of preference for Korean cuisine	3.52[a]	4.24[b]	4.00[b]	3.44[a]	14.87***	0.000
Number of times the respondent has dined at a Korean restaurant in the previous six months	3.96[b]	4.50[b]	4.23[b]	2.81[a]	6.74***	0.000
Level of satisfaction with Korean food at the most recently visited restaurant	3.99[b]	4.59[c]	4.06[b]	3.45[a]	17.27***	0.000
Whether the diner's image of Korea has changed since experiencing Korean food	3.58[a]	3.97[b]	3.57[a]	3.38[a]	6.05**	0.001
Intention of visiting a Korean restaurant in the next three months	3.77[a]	4.62[c]	4.25[b]	3.61[a]	20.75***	0.000

	Clusters				Chi-square	*p*-value
	1	2	3	4	value	
The most important source of information attracting the respondent to a Korean restaurant						
Television, radio	6.0	12.0	1.9	0.0	25.99*	0.011
Internet	21.7	12.0	10.5	16.7		
Newspapers, magazines	22.9	24.0	14.3	28.6		
Mobile phone, SNS	4.8	5.3	8.6	9.5		
Acquaintances	44.6	46.7	64.8	45.2		

Table VI.
One-way ANOVA and chi-square test for comparison of expectations of and experiences at Korean restaurants

Notes: [a], [b], and [c] indicate sources of significant differences (a < b < c); *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$

Korean-food services	Clusters				Chi-square value	p-value
	1	2	3	4		
Willingness to pay for lunch at the following prices (in US$)					27.54**	0.006
Less than 5	11.3	6.3	3.0	5.6		
5-9	32.4	39.1	43.0	50.0		
10-19	39.4	43.8	50.0	25.0		
20-39	14.1	10.9	4.0	11.1		
40 or more	2.8	0.0	0.0	8.3		
Willingness to pay for dinner at the following prices (in US$)					6.63	0.676
Less than 15	18.3	20.0	18.5	20.0		
15-29	48.8	57.3	58.3	62.5		
30-49	19.5	16.0	17.6	12.5		
50 or more	13.4	6.7	5.6	5.0		
Preferred food-service type					5.11	0.529
Courses served separately	19.8	31.1	32.1	35.0		
All dishes served at the same time	76.5	66.2	66.1	62.5		
Others	3.7	2.7	1.8	2.5		
Preferred restaurant type					34.97*	0.010
Fine-dining restaurant	7.3	9.3	10.1	7.1		
Casual dining restaurant	34.1	53.3	58.7	52.4		
Family-dining restaurant	39.0	29.3	20.2	28.6		
Quick-service casual dining restaurant	12.2	2.7	8.3	11.9		
Quick-service restaurant	4.9	0.0	0.0	0.0		
Buffet restaurant	1.2	5.3	2.8	0.0		
Other	1.2	0.0	0.0	0.0		
Preferred Korean food type					8.98	0.439
Traditional Korean royal cuisine	28.9	30.1	25.7	17.9		
Food that Koreans eat daily	33.7	38.4	41.0	35.9		
Americanized Korean food (fusion)	18.1	6.8	10.5	12.8		
Combination of Korean food with some fusion items	19.3	24.7	22.9	33.3		

Notes: All numbers represent percentages; $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$

Table VII.
Chi-square tests
comparing the four
clusters regarding
Korean food services

lunch consisting of Korean food. Clusters 2 and 3 showed similar patterns: the groups consisted of respondents who were willing to pay US$10-19 (43.8 per cent and 50 per cent, respectively) and US$5-9 (39.1 per cent and 43 per cent, respectively) for a Korean lunch. Regarding preferred restaurant type, Cluster 1 consisted of respondents who preferred family dining (39 per cent) and casual dining (34.1 per cent), while Clusters 2, 3 and 4 comprised respondents who preferred casual dining (53.3, 58.7 and 52.4 per cent, respectively) and family dining (29.3, 20.2 and 28.6 per cent, respectively).

Differences in socio-demographic variables between the four clusters
A series of chi-square tests was used to identify the distinct socio-demographic characteristics of the clusters (Table VIII). There were more male than female

Socio-demographic variables	Clusters				Chi-square value	p-value
	1	2	3	4		
Gender					11.14*	0.011
Male	36.6	46.7	59.6	57.1		
Female	63.4	53.3	40.4	42.9		
Age					39.03***	0.000
20s	50.0	50.7	14.7	47.6		
30s	28.6	28.0	40.4	28.6		
40s or older	21.4	21.3	45.0	23.8		
Education					28.92**	0.004
High school	15.9	21.3	10.1	24.4		
College student	19.5	17.3	4.6	14.6		
Bachelor's degree	43.9	34.7	57.8	39.0		
Graduate student	12.2	10.7	6.4	12.2		
Master's degree or above	8.5	16.0	21.1	9.8		
Marital status					5.98	0.113
Single	64.2	61.3	51.4	70.7		
Married	35.8	38.7	48.6	29.3		
Ethnicity					39.21***	0.000
Anglo-American	28.9	20.0	56.0	47.6		
Afro-American	3.6	5.3	1.8	2.4		
Asian	43.4	46.7	21.1	31.0		
Spanish American, European American	18.1	20.0	20.2	19.0		
Others	6.0	8.0	0.9	0.0		
Occupation					37.98**	0.001
Company employee	38.3	37.3	42.2	36.6		
Business owner	11.1	8.0	18.3	7.3		
Civil servant, professional, teacher	7.4	13.3	21.1	14.6		
Technician	3.7	2.7	5.5	2.4		
Student	28.4	21.3	2.8	29.3		
Other	11.1	17.3	10.1	9.80		
Income					4.77	0.574
Less than US$59,999	33.3	20.0	30.0	30.0		
US$60,000-99,999	40.0	50.0	30.0	20.0		
US$100,000 or more	26.7	30.0	40.0	50.0		

Table VIII.
Chi-square tests comparing the socio-demographic characteristics of the four clusters

Notes: All numbers represent percentages; *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$

respondents in Clusters 3 and 4, and more female respondents in Clusters 1 and 2. Specifically, Cluster 1 had the highest percentage of female respondents (63.4 per cent). Clusters 1 and 2 comprised respondents in their 20s (50 and 50.7 per cent, respectively) and 30s (28.6 and 28 per cent, respectively). Cluster 3 mainly consisted of respondents in their 30s (40.4 per cent) and in their 40s or above (45 per cent), and Cluster 4 consisted of respondents in their 20s (47.6 per cent) and 30s (28.6 per cent). Clusters 1 and 2 showed similar ethnic patterns: both groups consisted of Asians (43.4 and 46.7 per cent, respectively) and

Anglo-Americans (28.9 and 20 per cent, respectively). In Clusters 3 and 4, most of the respondents were Anglo-American, followed by Asians, Spanish Americans and European Americans. More detailed information is described in Table VIII.

Discussion and conclusions

Summary and discussion

Among five hypotheses, H1 was partially accepted because the clusters of reasons for preferring Korean food were found to be distinct with respect to three of the ten Korean dishes listed. The level of preference expressed for "Kimchi", "Bibimbap" and "Bulgogi" differed significantly between the clusters. Cluster 2 and Cluster 3 showed a greater preference for "Kimchi", "Bibimbap" and "Bulgogi" than the other two clusters. However, the preference for "Kimchi" was very low in all four clusters. This finding is inconsistent with the reputation of the dish, which was nominated as one of the world's five healthiest foods in 2008. The mean preferences for "Naengmyeon" (cold noodles) and "Dakgalbi" (chicken ribs) were found to be very low. It will thus be necessary to promote these dishes or to develop other menus to suit foreigners' palates.

H2 was accepted because the four clusters were found to be distinct in each of the four domains of factors perceived to be necessary for the success of a Korean restaurant in the USA. The respondents' emphasis on "cleanliness" and "food quality" as factors necessary for the success of an ethnic restaurant in a foreign dining market is highly consistent with the findings of previous studies, whose respondents have highlighted the same two factors (Jang et al., 2009; Nam and Lee, 2011). In particular, the emphasis placed on "cleanliness" and "hygiene" is consistent with the claim made by Jang et al. (2009) that good hygiene is necessary to secure Korean food a positive reputation abroad.

H3 was accepted because the four clusters were found to be distinct in terms of their members' expectations of and experiences at Korean restaurants. In response to questions on the "potential of Korean cuisine to be localized" and the respondents' "preference for Korean cuisine", Cluster 2 and Cluster 3 were more positive than the other two clusters. In terms of the number of times that the respondents had "dined at a Korean restaurant in the last 6 months", Clusters 1, 2 and 3 had higher mean scores than Cluster 4. In sum, the members of Cluster 4 expressed negative expectations and experiences of the localization of Korean food in the USA. As previous studies have indicated (Choe and Cho, 2011; Wang and Mattila, 2013), a lack of interest in an ethnic food or restaurant type can be attributed to a lack of familiarity with the given food or restaurant.

H4 was partially accepted because the clusters were found to be distinct in their responses to two of the five questions relating to preferred Korean food services. There were significant differences between the clusters in terms of "willingness to pay for lunch" and "preferred restaurant type". More specifically, the members of Cluster 4 were less willing to pay for a Korean lunch than the respondents in the other three clusters. This finding is understandable, because those who are less interested in Korean food tend to show a lower level of WTP at that restaurant. For instance, Jang et al. (2011b) found that respondents who were less interested in health showed the lowest level of WTP at a "green"-food restaurant. Finally, H5 was accepted because the four clusters were found to be distinct with respect to most of the socio-demographic variables. The differences between the socio-demographic profiles of the four clusters will be examined in the following sections.

Academic and managerial implications

This paper can contribute to food and hospitality research in several ways. First, the market segmentation approach has rarely been used in the hospitality literature to uncover the reasons for preferring a certain type of ethnic food. The results of this study help to enhance our knowledge of how customers formulate their perceptions of ethnic food and how they evaluate it differently. They indicate the need of a thorough understanding of local patrons' cultural dietary needs and demographic profiles. Second, considering world culture theory, Clusters 2 and 3 are likely to contribute to the successful glocalization of ethnic food through continuous processes of homogenization and heterogenization. These discussions are supported by the findings of previous studies, which indicate that as the globalization of national foods is adapted and deployed in the local context, an understanding of local consumers' social and cultural needs is crucial (Mak *et al.*, 2012; Ram, 2004; Robertson, 1995; Wilk, 2009). Therefore, this study will help the glocalization of ethnic foods, while minimizing adverse impacts.

This study also has several implications from managerial perspectives. As the respondents in Cluster 1 were mostly young and female, and comprised mainly company workers and students, they were assumed to be easily influenced by their interest in the culture of the food-producing country, which encouraged them to eat regularly in Korean restaurants. Through consuming Korean food in Korean restaurants, this group may experience "fun", "amusement" or "playfulness" rather than the value of "food quality" itself. However, as they were not optimistic about the potential for Korean food to be successfully localized in the USA, it is necessary to convince them of this possibility by promoting Korean food in tandem with Korean pop culture via information technology such as the internet and social networking services (SNS), because members of Generation Y are accustomed to using such interfaces.

From a managerial perspective, Cluster 2 was the most marketable cluster, consisting of the most loyal customers. Although the members of this segment were already very familiar with Korean cuisine and Korean restaurants, marketing efforts might usefully be focused on increasing their consumption of Korean food and the frequency with which they visit Korean restaurants. As this group may operate as an opinion leader, it is necessary to maintain its satisfaction with Korean cuisine.

From a managerial perspective, Cluster 3 is a potential future market for several reasons. First, its members expressed the second-most positive responses in the following areas: belief in the potential for the globalization of Korean food, preference for Korean cuisine, frequency of consumption in Korean restaurants and intention to revisit a Korean restaurant. Second, they can afford to visit Korean restaurants more frequently, because they are in an older age group and at the peak of their careers. Given their stressful working environment, they are likely to be concerned about their health and wish to sample exotic food outside their everyday dining patterns. In conclusion, developing healthy menus that feature vegetables and medicinal ingredients such as ginseng will help to attract the members of this cluster.

Members in Cluster 4 are not loyal to Korean food, because they are not interested in the cuisine. This is therefore not a target market. Nevertheless, it may act as a negative opinion leader by spreading unfavorable messages by word of mouth or other means. The respondents in this market may be unaware of the value of Korean food, for around half of the members of Cluster 4 were Anglo-American. Inviting them to cooking contests or promotional events could thus be an effective marketing tool. As most of the

respondents in this group were in their 20s at the time of the survey, they were assumed to be students or early-career individuals. It may thus be necessary to teach this segment of the market about cultural differences and the value of Korean food through explanation of the meanings of certain dishes; of aspects of Korean culinary philosophy, such as the medicinal qualities of certain foods; and of Daoism. For example, it would be useful to explain to young Anglo-American people why "hot meat soup" is considered a healthy choice in the heat of summer. The more interested an individual is in Korea's traditions, history and culture, the more interested he or she is likely to be in Korean cuisine, because food is part of the amalgam of mental or physical values of a country. These managerial implications offer useful information to the ethnic restaurant industry and will contribute to the exploration of how ethnic food can be successfully glocalized in the host society.

In conclusion, ethnic/national food plays various roles in enhancing national image, promoting ethnic/national value and providing substantial economic gains to businesses such as fisheries and agricultural food producers, food-distribution companies and restaurants. Therefore, this study offers useful insights for various stakeholders such as governments that seek to promote ethnic/national food overseas, restaurant managers and owners, food distributors, food magazines and restaurant-utensil companies. They may use the marketing strategies derived from the results of this study for better understanding their target customers. Not only Korean food stakeholders but also other ethnic food marketers may gain useful insight for successfully glocalizing their national food.

Limitations and future research
This study has several limitations. First, the results must be interpreted with care due to the lack of generalizability and transferability issues generated by the limited geographic coverage of Korean restaurants. Second, dietary preferences or behaviors can vary according to the familiarity to the ethnic food such as the level of exposure to ethnic food or the experiences of visiting other countries. However, this study did not consider the level of familiarity, hence a future study is needed to explore how the level of familiarity of ethnic food affects preference for the ethnic food. Considering these limitations, future studies are needed to assess the globalization and localization of other ethnic/national cuisines.

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