

SATISFACTION AND SHOPPING FOR OTHERS:  
REVISITING EXPECTANCY DISCONFIRMATION THEORY

by

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## ABSTRACT

Most individuals engage in shopping for others, whether in the search for a special gift for someone else or simply during routine household shopping. While many of the purchases most of us make are for other peoples' use, existing shopping research generally assumes that the person purchasing the product and the person using the product are the same person. This research looks at shopping situations in which the purchaser of a product and the user of this product are different people. I specifically look at how satisfaction may be different for those shopping for themselves versus someone else. The primary question of interest for this research is: *Overall, what are the differences in expectations and outcomes when one is shopping for him/herself versus when one is shopping for someone else? Does role shopping motivation have an impact, or make a difference?*

This research attempts to answer this question using two studies. The first study is a scenario-based experiment investigating how the purchaser's satisfaction with the shopping trip may be impacted by how the user reacts to the product purchased for him/her. In this experiment, both the purchaser's shopping experience and the user's reaction to the product are manipulated at three levels (positive disconfirmation, simple confirmation, and negative disconfirmation) in order to understand how the purchaser's satisfaction might change in response to the user's product evaluation. The second study is a survey of actual shoppers investigating differences among those shopping for themselves and those shopping for someone else. Here, differences in

satisfaction and the subsequent effect on behaviors between these two groups are investigated. The effect of role shopping motivation on these relationships is also examined.

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

<i>AVE</i>	Average variance explained
<i>B2B</i>	Business-to-business
<i>B2C</i>	Business-to-customer
<i>CA</i>	Coefficient alpha
<i>cf.</i>	Confer: see also
<i>CFI</i>	Comparative fit index
<i>CIT</i>	Critical incident technique
<i>CMV</i>	Common method variance
<i>e.g.</i>	Exempli gratia: for example
<i>et al.</i>	Et alia: and others
<i>etc.</i>	Et cetera: and so on
<i>H</i>	Hypothesis
<i>i.e.</i>	Id est: that is
<i>INDSAT</i>	Customer satisfaction scale for industrial customers
<i>MANCOVA</i>	Multivariate analysis of covariance
<i>NNFI</i>	Non-normed fit index
<i>PANAS</i>	Positive and negative affect scale
<i>RMSEA</i>	Root mean square error of approximation
<i>SRMR</i>	Standard root mean square residual
<i>Std Dev</i>	Standard Deviation

<i>URL</i>	Uniform resource locator: a character sting referencing an Internet source
<i>VIF</i>	Variance inflation factor
<i>WOM</i>	Word of mouth
$\beta$	Unstandardized beta weight from regression analysis: represents the expected change in the dependent variable for one unit change in the independent variable
$\chi^2$	Chi-square: comparison of the frequency obtained in the sample to that expected by chance.
<i>df</i>	Degrees of freedom: the number of values free to vary after restrictions have been made
<i>M</i>	Mean: The sum of a set of measurements divided by the number of measurements in the set
<i>N, n</i>	Sample size
$\eta^2$	Eta squared: effect size in analysis of variance; the proportion of variance in the dependent variable due to the independent variable
<i>F</i>	Fisher's F ratio: a ratio of two variances
<i>p</i>	Probability associated with the occurrence under the null hypothesis of a value as extreme as or more extreme than the observed value
$R^2$	Coefficient of determination; the variance explained in the dependent variable by the independent variable
<i>Adj R<sup>2</sup></i>	Adjusted coefficient of determination
$\Delta R^2$	Change in the coefficient of determination
<i>t</i>	Computed value of a t-test
<	Less than
>	Greater than
=	Equal to
%	Percent
#	Number

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# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **INTRODUCTION**

### **1.0 Introduction**

In this chapter, the dissertation is introduced. Here, an introduction to the topic area is provided including why this research is important. The primary objectives of the dissertation are provided along with the primary research questions of interest. The conceptual definition of shopping for others is provided. The chapter closes with the organization of the dissertation.

### **1.1 Introduction to the Dissertation**

Most individuals engage in shopping for others, whether in the search for a special gift for someone else or simply during routine household shopping. In a previous study looking at shopping for others, I find that 39.4% of people shop at least once a week for someone else for non-gift purchases (see Table 1). Even though many of the purchases we make are for other peoples' use, existing shopping research generally assumes that the purchaser and the user of a product or service are the same person. The shopping research to date that does focus on differentiating purchasers and users generally focuses on gift purchases or on the motivation to shop for others as one of several general shopping motivations.

A new stream of research does find differences in how we shop based on whether we are shopping for ourselves or for someone else. For example, research finds that we make more indulgent food choices for others than we do for ourselves (Laran 2010). Other research shows that design support during customization of a product is less important when shopping for

yourself than when shopping for a gift (Moreau, Bonney, and Herd 2011). This study also shows that shoppers will pay more for a gift for someone else than a product for themselves under certain conditions (Moreau, Bonney, and Herd 2011). Finally, research shows that individuals will spend more money on themselves if they feel powerful, but if they feel powerless they will spend more money on others (Rucker, Dubois, and Galinsky 2011).

The current research looks to build on this research by looking at shopping situations in which the purchaser of a product and the user of the product are different people in order to compare these shopping occasions with those in which the purchaser and user are the same person. Here, I specifically look at how satisfaction may be different for those shopping for themselves versus someone else. A model of satisfaction while shopping for others is developed and the methods for testing this model are offered.

Table 1  
Shopping for Others Prevalence and Product Information

---

How often do you shop for products another person will be using?

---

Daily: 8  
2-3 times a week: 60  
Once a week: 51  
2-3 times a month: 69  
Once a month: 45  
Less than once a month: 60  
Never: 9

---

What types of products do you typically shop for that another person will be using?

---

Groceries: 237  
Personal Care and Toiletries: 196  
Clothing and Shoes: 139  
Entertainment Products (DVDs, CDs, Games, etc.): 125  
Home Décor Products: 98  
Electronic Products: 98  
Other: 25

---

Who do you most often purchase non-gift items for?

---

Spouse: 176  
Child: 150  
Parent: 71  
Other: 55

## 1.2 Research Objectives and Questions

The objectives of this research are to:

1. Look at how satisfaction is created when the user and the purchaser of a product are different people, including drivers of this satisfaction and how each person may impact the satisfaction judgment.
2. Explore the outcomes associated with shopping for others.
3. Compare shopping for one's self versus someone else in terms of shopping trip characteristics and outcomes.
4. Investigate how role shopping motivation impacts both shopping behaviors and the outcomes of the shopping trip.

The primary question of interest for this research is: *Overall, what are the differences in expectations and outcomes when one is shopping for him/herself versus when one is shopping for someone else? Does role shopping motivation have an impact, or make a difference?*

This research specifically addresses the following questions:

1. Are shopping trip expectations different for those shopping for themselves and those shopping for others?
2. How is satisfaction and its impact on various retailing outcomes different for those shopping for themselves and those shopping for others?
3. How does a shopper's role shopping motivation impact the outcomes of the shopping trip?
4. How is the shopper's satisfaction impacted by the user's evaluation of the product?

### **1.3 Conceptual Definition**

In this paper, when discussing shopping for someone else, shopping for another person, or shopping for others, I am referring to the act of one person purchasing a good or service for another person's consumption. This definition is similar to that of role shopping motivation, which is "the enjoyment that shoppers derive from shopping for others" (Arnold and Reynolds 2003). Their definition refers to a hedonic benefit from the act of shopping for someone else, or a positive feeling associated with the act of shopping for another person. The focus of the current research is on the state of shopping for someone else, a situation most individuals find themselves in at some time or another, rather than the shopper's individual trait of his/her degree of role shopping motivation. Studying individual states of being is important because it provides information on directly observable conditions that companies can use about their shoppers (Gatignon and Robertson 1985; Midgley and Dowling 1978). This is important because behaviors can be difficult to predict based on individual traits, however, individual states of being have been shown to be better predictors of behavior (Midgley and Dowling 1978; Mischel 1968; Peterson 1968). It is important to note that in this paper the act of shopping for someone else does not imply that the individual enjoys the activity. The enjoyment of the act of shopping for others is discussed in this paper, but the term "role shopping motivation" will be used when discussing a person's particular feelings toward the act of shopping for another person, whether the feelings are positive or negative.

### **1.4 Organization of the Dissertation**

This dissertation is organized as follows: Chapter one (page 1) provides an introduction to the topic area and outlines the contributions of the proposed research. Chapter two (page 7) reviews the existing literature in several related streams and provides an overview of expectancy

disconfirmation theory. Gaps in the existing literature are identified and the ways in which this specific research fills these gaps are discussed. Chapter three (page 16) provides a brief overview of three exploratory studies performed previously that help to guide the development of the current model and hypotheses. In chapter four (page 45) and in chapter five (page 88), studies one and two are presented. Finally, in chapter six (page 140) the results of studies one and two, the theoretical and managerial implications of the studies, the limitations of the current research, and avenues for future research in the topic area are discussed.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

#### 2.0 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of research in several streams that relate to shopping for others. Here, the literature is discussed with a focus on how it relates to the dissertation. Gaps in the literature are outlined and how the current proposed research will fill these gaps is discussed. The theoretical foundation for the dissertation is also presented and discussed.

#### 2.1 Shopping Motivations

Shopping for others has been discussed in the literature as a general motivation for shopping. Tauber (1972) first introduces the idea that some people may be motivated to shop when the product purchased is for someone else's consumption. Here, he calls the motivation "role playing" and describes how shopping for others can be a learned activity for some people, especially female heads of households. He posits that when individuals internalize their expected shopping behaviors, they become motivated to engage in these shopping behaviors.

Other authors also find that purchasing goods for others can be a motivation to shop. Westbrook and Black (1985) review existing literature on shopping motivations to create a shopper typology that consolidates the motivations found in previous literature. They describe a motivation to shop for others, termed "role enactment." This motivation is similar to Tauber's (1972) role playing shopping motivation in that they define role enactment as "the motivation to identify with and assume culturally prescribed roles regarding the conduct of shopping activity."

Again, the underlying mechanism in this definition is that some individuals are motivated to shop for others when they highly identify with a given role and an expectation of this role is to perform certain shopping duties.

Finally, Arnold and Reynolds (2003) present a typology of shoppers based on their hedonic shopping motivations. One hedonic shopping motivation they find is that of role shopping or “the enjoyment that shoppers derive from shopping for others” which is rooted in McGuire’s human motivation of identification (McGuire 1974). While Tauber (1972) and Westbrook and Black (1985) define their role-based motivations for shopping in more socially-obligatory terms, here, shopping for others is seen as providing pleasure for some people. In establishing their scale of hedonic shopping motivations, role shopping dimensions have an especially high mean with individual item means ranging from 4.61 to 5.06 with a scale midpoint of 3.5 (Arnold and Reynolds 2003). This may indicate that overall most shoppers get great satisfaction from making purchases for others, perhaps because these purchases allow people to express a sense of providing for or affection toward the person for whom they are shopping.

While the research on shopping motivations has begun to explore differences among shoppers based on their motivations for shopping, none of this research has looked at how these different shopping motivations impact outcomes of interest to retailers, such as satisfaction, repatronage, and word-of-mouth behaviors. In this study, I begin to move in this direction by exploring how differences in role shopping motivation may affect these outcomes.

## **2.2 Gift Shopping**

Gift shopping by its nature involves shopping for someone else. A primary focus in the gift-giving literature is on relational meanings between the two parties in the gift exchange relationship. For example, Schwartz (1967) outlines several aspects of relationships that can be

acted out with a gift. He shows how gifts can be used as an expression of the giver's perception of the recipient, gifts can act as a form of maintenance within the relationship between giver and recipient, gifts can be used as a means of defining status and establishing control within the relationship, and gifts can be used to express both positive and negative feelings from the giver to the recipient (Schwartz 1967). Other authors also explore the relational and emotional aspects of gift giving. Sherry, McGrath, and Levy (1993) investigate the negative aspects of gift giving and show that gifts can cause great anxiety for the parties involved in the gift exchange and that gifts can sometimes be used as "weapons" between the giver and recipient in cases where interpersonal conflict may be present.

Several researchers attempt to understand gift giving in more concrete terms. For example, research has investigated gift shopping roles and finds that women may take more of the responsibility for gift shopping (Fischer and Arnold 1990), that shoppers tend to take on clear shopping roles based on their attitudes toward gifts and gift shopping (Otnes, Lowrey, and Kim 1993), and that third parties may play an important role in the gift-giving act (Lowrey, Otnes, and Ruth 2004). The process of gift giving has also been explored (Banks 1979; Sherry 1983) with the general process including factors leading up to the gift purchase, the gift exchange itself, and post-exchange behaviors.

One study does look at quantitative outcomes associated with gift giving. Belk (1976) presents a predictive model of when the giver's or the recipient's tastes can influence gift selection. In this study, Belk predicts the amount of satisfaction the gift will bring the giver such that the more balanced the configuration between the giver, the recipient, the gift, and the perceived similarity between the giver and the recipient, the more satisfied the giver will be with his/her gift selection. Here, we see an initial investigation into how the satisfaction of one party

in the exchange relationship can be influenced by the other party in the relationship. In this study, it is shown that the giver's satisfaction with the purchased product can be influenced by the perceived similarity between the giver and the recipient (i.e. having a prior history of exchanging gifts or being close relatives). Later, I present a model, built on a similar premise of dependency in one person's satisfaction on the other person in the relationship, in which the purchaser's satisfaction can be contingent on the user's evaluation of and satisfaction with the purchased product.

As can be seen here, the key focus in the gift shopping literature is on the meanings within gift giving, emotions and interpersonal relationship and conflict issues, gift shopping roles, and the gift shopping process. However, there has been little focus on quantitatively understanding gift shopping, especially in regard to retail outcomes. With the exception of Belk (1976), I find no studies that quantitatively take into account the interaction and relationship between the giver and the recipient in the gift-giving process. This dissertation begins to address this gap by investigating how the product user's evaluation and satisfaction with the product impacts the purchaser's own satisfaction with the shopping experience.

### **2.3 Industrial Purchasing, the Buying Center, and Satisfaction**

B2B purchasing literature relates to the proposed research in that often in industrial settings, the person (people) purchasing the product is (are) not the same as the person (people) using the product. Central to the study of satisfaction in organizational buying is the fact that the user and purchaser are different groups within the organization. Several researchers develop models of industrial or organizational buying behavior which incorporate different buyers and users of industrial products and services (Sheth 1973; Frazier 1983; and Johnston and Lewin 1996). While these models do show that the user and purchaser are often different units within

the organization, the focus of many of these models is on the process of organizational buying. These models are useful in that they help predict the degree to which different units within the organization will work together to make buying decisions based on various input variables, purchase characteristics, organizational characteristics, and decision criteria. However, these models lack information regarding the outcomes of the purchase, especially regarding satisfaction with the buying process and with the product purchased.

Several researchers study satisfaction in a B2B or industrial setting, which incorporates different purchasers and users of the product purchased. Homburg and Rudolph (2001) find that different dimensions of INDSAT, or a measure of industrial customer satisfaction, are more important depending on the respondent's functional role in the industrial buying process. Similarly, Chakraborty, Srivastava, and Marshall (2007) look at drivers of satisfaction in organizational buying. They find that the drivers of satisfaction differ depending on the respondent's functional area such that for those in a purchasing role, factors pertaining to sales price and post-purchase service are more important drivers of satisfaction. For those in roles which involve using the product, factors pertaining to product selection and specification are more important in driving satisfaction. Other research also shows that while the degree of centralization in the buying center can impact the product user's satisfaction with the purchased product (Webster and Wind 1972), the user's involvement with the purchase decision does not impact satisfaction (Tanner 1998).

While these studies do look at how satisfaction is different for the user and purchaser of the product, they do not show how one party's satisfaction judgment may be dependent on the other party's satisfaction. Because the setting in these studies is B2B (rather than a B2C), the nature of the relationships could be different. Therefore, while these studies do show how the

drivers of satisfaction are different for differing functional areas within the firm, they do not show how the product evaluation and subsequent satisfaction may be interrelated between functional areas.

## **2.4 Expectancy Disconfirmation Theory and Satisfaction**

Satisfaction is defined as “the consumer’s fulfillment response” which is a “judgment that a product or service feature, or the product or service itself, provided (or is providing) a pleasurable level of consumption related fulfillment, including levels of under- or overfulfillment” (Oliver 1997 p. 13). Rossomme (2003) notes that this definition can be problematic in a B2B setting because those who are responsible for purchasing (and repurchasing) the product or service and who are responsible for providing satisfaction judgments often do not have the consumption experience necessary to base their satisfaction judgment. A similar problem occurs in a B2C setting when the purchaser and the user of the product are not the same person, which occurs when one person buys a product or service for another person.

Expectancy disconfirmation theory explains how individuals determine their satisfaction with some event, for example a shopping experience or using a product. According to this theory, individuals enter an event with some expectations of how it should occur. After the event, the individual evaluates it and compares it to the expectations s/he had prior to the event. During this evaluation, the individual determines if the event was better than, worse than, or exactly how s/he expected it to be. If the actual event is better than s/he expected it to be, the individual will be satisfied. However, if the event is worse than s/he expected it to be, the individual will be dissatisfied. The larger the difference between the person’s expectation of the event and their actual experience with the even determines their degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction such

that the larger this difference, the more satisfied or dissatisfied the individual will be. This satisfaction/dissatisfaction will in turn impact the individual's attitude and subsequent behavioral intentions (Oliver 1980, 1981).

There are three evaluations that individuals may make following an event. The first, simple confirmation, occurs when the event is exactly what the individual expects it will be, or when low- and high-probability events occur exactly as expected (Oliver 1980, 1981). The second two evaluations involve disconfirmation, or when the actual event is different than expectations, which may be positive (the actual event is better than expected) or negative (the actual event is worse than expected) (Oliver 1980, 1981). Positive disconfirmation occurs when low-probability desirable events do occur (for example, a shopper wins a prize for being the hundredth shopper in the store that day) or when high-probability undesirable events do not occur (for example, a shopper who thinks s/he will wait in line ten minutes to check-out in a busy grocery store only waits five minutes to check-out) (Oliver 1981). Negative disconfirmation occurs when high-probability desirable events do not occur (for example, a person who generally receives a free car wash with his/her gasoline every time s/he visits the service station does not receive the free car wash) or when low-probability undesirable events do occur (for example, a person who anticipates that s/he will be seated immediately when arriving at a restaurant in the middle of the afternoon must wait twenty minutes to be seated at his/her table) (Oliver 1981). The stronger the disconfirmation, the greater the change in satisfaction and subsequent attitude and behavioral intentions will be (Oliver 1981). It is theorized that disconfirmation affects satisfaction due to the emotions involved in the experience of the event such that the delight from positive disconfirmation increases satisfaction and the disappointment resulting from negative disconfirmation decreases satisfaction (Oliver and DeSarbo 1988).

This model can be applied to both product purchase and product usage events, however, in this dissertation, I focus on product purchase events, or satisfaction and behavioral intentions in retail settings. A problem with the current expectancy disconfirmation model is that it assumes that the purchaser and the user of a product are the same person. Therefore, the model does not account for the fact that multiple individuals may be making disconfirmation evaluations and that these multiple disconfirmation evaluations may interact and subsequently affect each person's satisfaction. In this research, the expectancy disconfirmation model is expanded to incorporate judgments from both the purchaser and the user of a product in order to understand how satisfaction is judged when the purchaser and the user are not the same person. The expectancy disconfirmation model is expanded to accommodate multiple individuals' evaluation of the product purchase event and of the product itself and the interactive effects these differing judgments may have.

## **2.5 Brief Development of New Theory**

This research is theory building in several ways. First, the expectancy disconfirmation theory of satisfaction is expanded to accommodate multiple parties in a product purchase/usage situation. This allows us to better understand how one person's satisfaction can be impacted and altered by another person's evaluation and satisfaction. The traditional expectancy disconfirmation model only takes one person's evaluations and subsequent satisfaction into account. However, the expanded expectancy disconfirmation model allows us to better understand how satisfaction can be impacted and changed based on other parties in the product purchase/usage event.

Second, general shopping research and theory is also expanded by comparing those shopping for themselves to those shopping for someone else to better understand various

shopping elements. This research is one of the first to directly compare these two groups of shoppers, which is done in several ways. First, I look at how the drivers of satisfaction may be different depending on the focus of the shopping trip (shopping for yourself or shopping for someone else). I also investigate how outcomes of interest to retailers may be impacted by the focus of the shopping trip. Finally, the impact of the shopper's role shopping motivation on satisfaction and the relationship between satisfaction and the outcome variables is explored, expanding our understanding of how shopping motivations can impact the outcomes of the shopping trip.

## CHAPTER THREE

### EXPLORATORY RESEARCH AND MODEL DEVELOPMENT

#### 3.0 Introduction

Because shopping for others is a relatively new avenue of research, several preliminary studies have been conducted in order to narrow down and refine the proposed research and to develop the models presented. The design of the proposed data collections has also been guided by this preliminary work. These studies are discussed below.

#### 3.1 Exploratory Study One

The first exploratory study conducted looks at search while shopping for someone else. The purpose of the exploratory study one is to determine how, when shopping for someone else, shoppers feel and react when they are unable to find the product desired by the person they are shopping for. In this study, I focus on shoppers shopping for someone else, a situation which may cause shoppers to engage in different search behaviors and/or increased search when compared to shoppers shopping for themselves.

This study looks at additional search, or *search behaviors that exceed the shopper's expected level of search effort*. One cause of additional search may be the shopper being unable to find the products s/he is attempting to purchase. It is important for retailers to understand what customers experience and how they react in this situation because not being able to find the product may cause shoppers to abandon their purchase or to purchase a less desirable substitute. This may result in negative feelings and reactions on the part of the shopper. While this situation

can occur quite frequently, and previous research shows that this situation can cause both search regret and blame (Reynolds, Folse, and Jones 2006), we do not have a clear understanding of how the shopper handles this negative situation and how it can affect the shopping trip, especially for those shopping for someone else.

### **3.1.1 Method**

An open-ended questionnaire using the critical incident technique (CIT) was employed (cf. Bitner, Booms, and Tetreault 1990). Respondents were asked to remember a time in the past six months when they were shopping for a product someone else would be using (i.e. shopping for someone else) and they could not find the product for which they were looking. Respondents were told that this experience could be either a time when they could not find the product they were shopping for initially but did in the end find the item, a time when they never found the product they were shopping for, or a time when they could not find the item they were shopping for but decided to purchase a different product than they originally set out to purchase.

Respondents were asked a series of questions about this shopping experience including the product they were shopping for, the person they were shopping for, why they were shopping for the other person, why they had trouble finding the product they were shopping for, how they went about making their final purchase (or not), how the experience made them feel, their own satisfaction with the final product, and the other person's reaction to the product.

Students enrolled in a marketing class were asked to recruit individuals over the age of 19 to take an online CIT questionnaire (cf. Gremler and Gwinner 2008). Approximately 40% of respondents were randomly contacted to validate the sample and no problems with the data were indicated during validation. This questionnaire asked respondents to think about a specific time they were shopping for someone else and they could not find the product for which they were

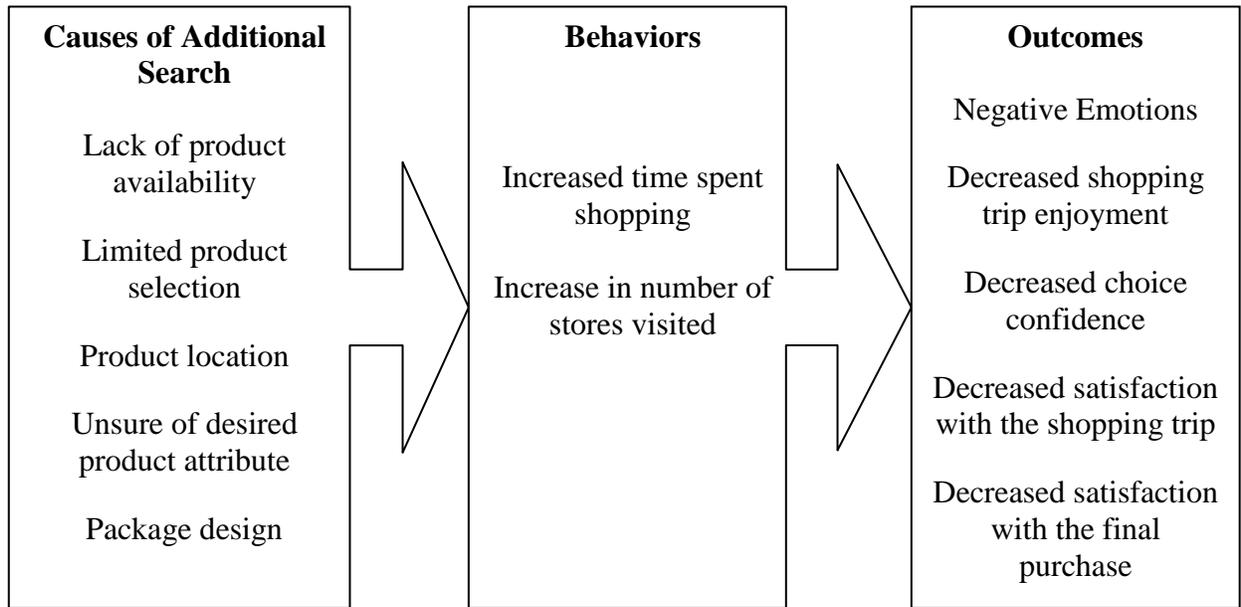
shopping. Respondents were then asked to describe how this made them feel and how they went about making their final purchase decision. A total of 174 usable responses were obtained regarding additional search while shopping for another person including both gift and non-gift purchases. The sample is 62% female and the respondents fell into the following age categories: 33% are aged 19-29, 9% aged 30-39, 21% aged 40-49, 30% aged 50-59, 7% aged 60 or older.

Broad themes were developed and the data coded along these themes in order to better understand the causes of additional search while shopping (see Gremler 2006 for overview of the CIT method in marketing research). I read each incident and developed a coding schema based on content analysis of the incidents and previous research on search. An undergraduate student trained in data analysis coded the data using this schema. I then returned to the coded data to verify that the coder's interpretations and coding of incidents matched my own interpretations of the incidents. No problems were found as the coder coded the data in the same way as I did.

### **3.1.2 Findings**

Overall, several interesting aspects of additional search are uncovered. Because the experiences reported follow a distinct, linear sequence, the data is organized following the causes of additional search, the behaviors shoppers engage in while searching for the product, and the outcomes from these shopping trips (Grace 2007). This process can be found in Figure 1.

Figure 1  
Exploratory Study One: Process of Additional Search



### Causes of Additional Search

Respondents report many reasons why they are forced to engage in additional search while shopping for someone else, several of which are in the control of the retailer. The primary reason shoppers are required to engage in additional search is a lack of product availability caused by the product being out-of-stock, generally unavailable, or no longer manufactured. Another common cause of additional search is the retailer having a limited product selection. In these instances, the retailers offer merchandise in the category the shoppers are shopping for, but the retailers do not have enough choices for shoppers to feel as though they are making a wise purchase decision. The final category of additional search that retailers can control is product location, or cases when shoppers simply cannot find where in the store the product they are searching for is located. In some of these cases, shoppers are shopping in stores they are unfamiliar with so they cannot find the product at the category level in order to evaluate the store's selection. In other cases, the store has the products within a category scattered about the store (seemingly using cross-merchandising techniques or encouraging browsing by placing merchandise in several locations within the store). Here, the shoppers cannot locate a very specific product within the broader category within the store or they cannot evaluate all the products within a category side-by-side.

Shoppers themselves are sometimes responsible for additional search because they are unsure of some desired product attribute the person they are shopping for would prefer and therefore have difficulty making a purchase decision. Often, these shoppers abandon the purchase until they acquire the needed information at a later time. This cause of additional search can occur both when shoppers shop for themselves and when they shop for someone else. However, when shopping for themselves, shoppers may be able to more easily weigh the

available options and make a purchase decision. However, when shopping for someone else, shoppers do not necessarily know which product attributes and benefits the person they are shopping for would prefer and what weight the other person would put on these attributes. Therefore, in this particular situation of shopping for someone else, shoppers may be less likely to weigh the alternatives and make a purchase decision, causing the retailer to lose the sale.

Finally, a few respondents report that they are required to engage in additional search due to packaging design issues, such as when the package is difficult to identify on the shelf or has changed and customers cannot find the product. The causes of additional search, definitions, examples, and frequencies can be found in Table 2.

Table 2  
Exploratory Study One Search Themes

Cause of Search	Definition	Frequency	Illustrative Quote
Lack of product availability	The product is unavailable, out of stock, or no longer manufactured.	81	<p>It appears that the maker of this brand of undershirt has changed the material and cut of the undershirts.</p> <p>My wife wanted a caffeine free diet coke and nothing else...The first two stores I went to did not have the item. The third did.</p> <p>This was a busy time for buying dress shoes and the selection was somewhat limited.</p>
Limited product selection	There are a limited number of products to choose from.	52	<p>It was for my wife. [I was] looking for the necklace that had 3 diamonds in a row quite popular a few years ago. Look[ed] at several jewelry shops small chain and large chain but selection was sparse.</p> <p>The items had not been placed on the shelf all in one area, they were scattered around that particular aisle. It would have been easier had they all have been placed together.</p>
Product location	The shopper cannot locate the product in the store.	28	<p>[I] need[ed] cookies for a party. I went to [a] different store then I usually shop. It was frustrating trying to find the item since I was unfamiliar with the store</p> <p>There were many brands and I took some time because I was not given a specific brand.</p>
Unsure of desired product attribute	The shopper is unsure of a specific product attribute the other person wants or would like such as brand, size, color, flavor, scent, style, etc.	42	<p>All the scarves were either scratchy, weird colors that I knew [he] wouldn't wear, too bulky, or too skimpy.</p>
Package Design	The package design makes it difficult for the shopper to identify the product or the packaging has changed and the shopper does not recognize the product.	5	<p>The package design of the initial box purchased was not easily marked as decaffeinated.</p>

## Behaviors

Not only did the analysis uncover the different additional search situations encountered while shopping for someone else, several interesting shopper behaviors also emerge. First, individuals seem to exert significant time and energy into finding the exact product for the other person. Many of the respondents report visiting several stores in order to find the correct product, even for low-cost, low involvement products. For example, respondents visit multiple stores for such routine purchases as olive oil, yogurt, soda, razors, green tea, and under-shirts. One respondent visited multiple stores and even called the manufacturer to find the exact toothbrush her husband desired. Another respondent who was looking for a specific t-shirt to commemorate an important sporting event visited five or six different stores in her search for the product.

Thus, these purchases appear to hold a great deal of importance to the shopper. The amount of effort respondents give to finding just the right product is astounding and lends support for the notion that they feel a great need, or perhaps sense of obligation, to fulfill the role they play as provider for the person for which they are shopping. These respondents desire so badly to fulfill these roles and make their loved-ones happy that they go through great lengths to find the exact product they want, no matter what the product's actual cash value is. One respondent searching for a specific razor blade refill for her husband visited three stores and could not find the refill. This respondent discusses at length how she labored over the purchase of the refill. Thus, the products involved here seem to take on much more value to the shopper than they have in and of themselves. These behaviors would seem to contradict previous research which shows that in a grocery context, increased search effort can lead to brand switching (Park, Iyer, and Smith 1989). It is found here that when shopping for someone else, rather than risk

purchasing an alternative brand or product (i.e. brand switching), shoppers simply increase their search effort by visiting multiple stores to find the product desired by the other person.

### Outcomes

Additional search not only results in shoppers engaging in certain behaviors such as increasing the number of stores visited, it also has several important outcomes. First, most respondents report some sort of negative emotion associated with the shopping trip. Many respondents report that they became very frustrated because the product was not carried by the first retailer and sometimes first few retailers they visited. For example, one respondent trying to purchase a specific pen refill for her husband searched several office supply stores. She indicated becoming very frustrated and reported that she is still wasting her time looking for the refill, but that she will continue looking until she finds it. The respondent who went to multiple stores to find the commemorative t-shirt reported that the entire shopping experience was stressful.

Another interesting finding is the heightened emotions and reactions to the shopping activity and the product being purchased, from anxiety that the shopper is not purchasing just what the recipient wanted, to frustration with the entire shopping experience, to fear of disappointing the intended recipient, to pressure to find just the right product. One respondent purchasing pickles for her father reported that his reaction to her purchasing the incorrect brand was to refuse to eat them, telling her to give them away, and later throwing them at her which left the respondent feeling sad and disappointed. The individual searching for a replacement toothbrush for her husband reported that, after visiting several stores and even calling the product manufacturer, she finally gave up and told her husband that the product was no longer manufactured. She indicated a strong sense of defeat over not being able to locate the exact toothbrush which resulted in decreased enjoyment and satisfaction with the shopping trip.

Shoppers not only place a heightened importance on the actual product, but the shoppers and the recipients also have heightened emotional reactions to the products.

Respondents also discuss how the additional search required during the shopping trip causes them to feel negatively about the product they purchase and the shopping trip as a whole. Some respondents indicate that the inability to find the desired product leads them to feel decreased confidence in their final product choice as illustrated here, “I bought a suit at the second store I visited but was not happy with it and was afraid it might not fit.” Others discuss how they feel a decrease in satisfaction with the final product purchased, “I was not happy or satisfied [with the purchase].” Finally, the required additional search also causes some shoppers to feel negatively about the shopping experience in general, “I was glad that I was able to get what my husband wanted, but still didn’t care for the process.” These findings highlight the need for retailers to minimize the additional search shoppers must engage in as additional search has many negative outcomes for the retailer.

### **3.1.3 Discussion**

In this research, the causes and consequences of additional search while shopping for someone else are explored by investigating shopping situations in which shoppers cannot find the product they would like to purchase. This provides for a deeper understanding of search and how it impacts the shopping trip itself and outcomes from the trip. It is found that additional search is important for retailers to understand because it can cause the shopper to experience negative feelings and emotions while shopping. Shoppers experiencing additional search must spend additional time and effort engaged in the shopping activity, which the shoppers in this sample seem to view negatively. Additional search can also drive customers to other retailers in their search for the product they are attempting to purchase.

## **3.2 Exploratory Study Two**

Exploratory study one shows that while shopping for someone else, individuals express very strong negative emotions and behavioral reactions when they are unable to find the product desired by the person they are shopping for. In this study, how a shopper's role shopping motivation can impact the emotions and behavioral responses of the shopper found in exploratory study one is investigated.

### **3.2.1 Hypothesis Development**

Research shows that shopping trip characteristics, such as time spent shopping and amount of money spent during the shopping trip, and shopping trip outcomes, such as word of mouth and repatronage behaviors, can vary across different types of shoppers (Breazeale and Lueg 2011; Reynolds, Ganesh, and Luckett 2002). Similarly, while shopping for someone else, the shopping trip characteristics and outcomes may vary depending on the shopper's individual role shopping motivation. When shoppers are unable to find the product desired by the other person, shoppers low on role shopping motivation, or those who do not enjoy shopping for others, may give up or stop looking because they are engaged in an activity that brings them no pleasure. However, facing these same circumstances, someone high in role shopping motivation is likely to continue the search for the product because they find joy in the act of shopping for someone else. Therefore, it is expected that as role shopping motivation increases, shoppers may increase the amount of search effort they exert, the time they spend shopping, the number of stores they visit, and have greater confidence in the product they select.

H1: Role shopping motivation will be positively related to (a) search effort, (b) time spent shopping, (c) number of stores visited, and (d) choice confidence.

Role shopping, by definition, can elevate the shopper's moods and feelings (Arnold and Reynolds 2003). When individuals are motivated to shop because they are shopping for someone else, they experience inherent pleasure in the shopping act (Arnold and Reynolds 2003). However, this study looks at shopping events in which the shopper cannot find the product. In exploratory study one, it is found that this can cause the shopper to feel negative affect. For shoppers that are higher in role shopping motivation, however, the pleasure felt by the act of shopping for someone else may mitigate the negative affect the shopper may feel from not being able to find the product. Therefore, as a person's role shopping motivation increases, the negative feelings they experience from not being able to find the correct product may decrease.

H2: Role shopping motivation will be negatively related to negative affect.

In exploratory study one, it is found that not being able to find the product can have negative consequences such as decreased satisfaction and enjoyment with the shopping trip. However, role shopping motivation may mitigate these negative consequences such that the shopper's enjoyment of the act of shopping for someone else may actually overcome the negative outcomes. Despite experiencing a negative event while shopping for someone else, shoppers high in role shopping motivation may be more likely to see the shopping trip as pleasurable for its own sake without the purchase of a product, or having high hedonic shopping value (Babin, Darden, and Griffin 1994), because these shoppers are engaged in an activity they enjoy. An increase in hedonic shopping value is shown to be positively related to satisfaction (Jones, Reynolds, and Arnold 2006) and pleasure with the shopping trip (Babin, Darden, and Griffin 1994). Therefore, as role shopping motivation increases, enjoyment and satisfaction with the shopping trip may also increase due to an increase in the hedonic shopping value associated with the shopping trip. Thus, it is proposed that:

H3: Role shopping motivation will be positively related to satisfaction with the shopping trip.

H3a: The relationship between role shopping motivation and satisfaction with the shopping trip will be mediated by hedonic shopping value.

H4: Role shopping motivation will be positively related to enjoyment with the shopping trip.

H4a: The relationship between role shopping motivation and enjoyment with the shopping trip will be mediated by hedonic shopping value.

Negative shopping experiences, such as those in which the product is out-of-stock, have been shown to increase negative word-of-mouth behaviors and to decrease repatronage behaviors (Arnold, Reynolds, Ponder, and Lueg 2005). However, if shoppers are engaged in an activity they enjoy, such as shopping for someone else, the effects of the negative shopping experience on negative word-of-mouth intentions and decreased repatronage intentions should be reduced. Thus, as the shopper's role shopping motivation increases, negative word-of-mouth intentions may decrease and repatronage intentions may increase.

Satisfaction is shown to impact repatronage intentions (Wesley, LeHew, and Woodside 2006) and word-of-mouth intentions (Anderson 1998). As proposed above, as role shopping motivation increases, so should enjoyment and satisfaction with the shopping trip. This increased enjoyment and satisfaction with the shopping trip may reduce the shopper's intentions to spread negative word of mouth about the retailer and also reduce the impact of the negative shopping experience on repatronage intent. Therefore, it is hypothesized that role shopping motivation will be directly related to increased repatronage intent and decreased negative word-of-mouth intent.

This relationship will be due in part to the shopper's satisfaction and enjoyment with the shopping trip.

H5: Role shopping motivation will be positively related to repatronage intent.

H5a: The relationship between role shopping motivation and repatronage intent will be mediated by satisfaction with the shopping trip

H5b: The relationship between role shopping motivation and repatronage intent will be mediated by enjoyment with the shopping trip.

H6: Role shopping motivation will be negatively related to negative word-of-mouth intent.

H6a: The relationship between role shopping motivation and negative word-of-mouth intent will be mediated by satisfaction with the shopping trip

H6b: The relationship between role shopping motivation and negative word-of-mouth intent will be mediated by enjoyment with the shopping trip.

### **3.2.2 Method**

#### Sample and Data Collection

In order to test the proposed hypotheses, a survey methodology is utilized. Students enrolled in a marketing class were asked to recruit individuals over the age of 19 to take an online survey in return for course extra credit. Students supplied respondents with a URL to the study survey. Students supplied the names and email addresses of the recruited respondents to the researchers and approximately 30% were randomly contacted to validate the sample. No problems with the data were indicated in the validation emails. The survey asked respondents to recall a recent shopping trip in which they were shopping for someone else for a non-gift, everyday type item and they could not find what they were looking for. Respondents then

answered questions regarding this shopping trip. A total of 321 responses were gathered, however eighteen were discarded due to large amounts of missing data, for a total sample size of 303. The sample is 54% female and the respondents fell into the following age categories: 31% are aged 19-29, 12% aged 30-39, 20% aged 40-49, 29% aged 50-59, 4% aged 60-69, and 4% aged 70 or older.

### Measures and Measurement Validity

All measures used in this study were drawn from existing literature and adapted for this study. Construct reliability is evaluated using Cronbach's alpha. All of the measures exhibit acceptable levels of reliability, with the minimum coefficient alpha at .85. The means, standard deviations, and correlations are displayed in Table 3. The number of stores visited, including both bricks-and-mortar and Internet retailers, and the total time spent shopping were also measured.

To test for multicollinearity, tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) values are examined. Tolerance values above .1 indicate low multicollinearity while VIF values less than 10 indicate multicollinearity is not an issue (Hair et al. 2006). In this study, tolerance values ranged from .37 to .983, while VIF values ranged from 1.00 to 2.704. These values indicate that multicollinearity is not a problem in this data.

Table 3  
 Exploratory Study Two Scale Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variable	Mean	Std Dev	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Search Effort	4.4	1.50								
2. Choice Confidence	5.3	1.49	-0.13							
3. Negative Affect	2.4	1.10	0.41***	-0.11						
4. Hedonic Shopping Value	3.2	1.36	-0.37***	0.08	-0.12*					
5. Shopping Trip Enjoyment	3.5	1.38	-0.38***	0.00	-0.22***	0.76***				
6. Shopping Trip Satisfaction	3.9	1.53	-0.46***	0.28***	-0.26***	0.57***	0.56***			
7. Repatronage Intent	5.4	1.20	-0.24***	0.16*	-0.19**	0.13*	0.25***	0.30***		
8. Negative Word-of-Mouth Intent	2.9	1.47	0.30***	-0.11	0.25***	-0.13*	-0.16**	-0.30***	-0.60***	
9. Role Shopping Motivation	4.8	1.50	-0.04	-0.06	0.01	0.27***	0.24***	0.15**	0.18**	-0.14*

\*(p<.05); \*\* (p<.01); \*\*\* (p<.001)

Prior to testing the hypotheses, a confirmatory factor analysis was performed with LISREL 8.8 (Jöreskog and Sörbom 2006) on the items from the variables of interest. All variables loaded on their intended factors. This analysis yields good overall fit for the hypothesized nine-factor model ( $\chi^2 = 3285.62$ ,  $df = 1459$ ,  $p < .01$ ). While the overall  $\chi^2$  is significant, the  $\chi^2 / df = 2.25$ . The model shows acceptable levels of fit, as the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is .064, the non-normed fit index (NNFI) is 0.92, and the standardized RMR (SRMR) is .058. Each of the standardized factor loadings is significant ( $p < .01$ ) with the lowest loading being 0.70.

### **3.2.3 Results and Discussion**

Next, the proposed hypotheses are tested in order to address research question two, which refers to how the shopper's role shopping motivation may impact the shopping trip characteristics and outcomes. H1 and H2 look at the effect of role shopping motivation on shopping trip characteristics and the shopper's feelings. In order to test these hypotheses, linear regression is used. As shown in Table 4, H1 and H2 are rejected because individual role shopping motivation does not significantly impact the amount of search effort the shopper will give toward finding the product, the time the shopper spends shopping, the number of stores the shopper will visit in search on the correct product, the confidence the shopper has in the product they purchase, or the negative affect associated with the shopping trip.

Table 4

Exploratory Study Two Regression Results of Role Shopping Motivation on Shopping Trip Characteristics

Independent Variable: Role Shopping Motivation

Dependent Variable	B	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	F
Search Effort	-0.41	-0.00	0.50
Time Spent Shopping	-0.21	0.00	1.28
Number of Stores Visited	0.09	0.00	1.10
Choice Confidence	-0.06	-0.00	0.63
Negative Affect	0.01	-0.00	0.07

H3 and H4 investigate the impact of role shopping motivation on satisfaction and enjoyment with the shopping trip. It is proposed that higher levels of role shopping motivation will be associated with higher levels of hedonic shopping value which will in turn impact the shopper’s satisfaction and enjoyment with the shopping trip. In other words, those with higher levels of role shopping motivation will enjoy the shopping trip more and have higher levels of satisfaction with the shopping trip because they receive hedonic shopping value from the act of shopping for someone else. In order to investigate these hypotheses, Baron and Kenny’s (1986) four-step process is used. First, the mediator variable is regressed on the independent variable, then the dependent variable is regressed on the independent variable, and finally, the dependent variable is regressed on both the mediator and independent variables. Mediation is shown when the beta for the independent variable is significant in the first two steps, but becomes non-significant (full mediation) or is reduced (partial mediation) in the third step. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 5.

Looking at step 3 of H3a and H4a on Table 5, it is shown that H3 and H4 are not supported, however H3a and H4a are supported. While role shopping motivation does

significantly impact satisfaction and enjoyment with the shopping trip when hedonic shopping value is not included in the analysis (step 2 of H3a and H4a in Table 5), when hedonic shopping value is included in the model, the effect of role shopping motivation on satisfaction and enjoyment with the shopping trip becomes non-significant. Therefore, the relationships between role shopping motivation and satisfaction and enjoyment with the shopping trip are fully mediated by hedonic shopping value, supporting H3a and H4a. Thus, it is found that as a shopper's role shopping motivation increases, the hedonic shopping value received from the shopping trip increases, which in turn increases the shopper's satisfaction and enjoyment with the shopping trip.

H5 and H6 look at how role shopping motivation impacts shopping trip outcomes. It is proposed that the higher the role shopping motivation, the more shoppers will enjoy the shopping trip in which they shop for someone else and the more satisfied they will be with the shopping trip. This enjoyment and satisfaction with the shopping trip will in turn increase the likelihood of returning to the retailer (increased repatronage intent) and lead to lower negative word-of-mouth intentions. Again, Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step process is used to test these hypotheses, the results of which are found in Table 5. As can be seen looking at step 3 of H5a and H5b in table 4, the relationship between role shopping motivation and repatronage intent is partially mediated by satisfaction and enjoyment with the shopping trip showing support for H5, H5a, and H5b. Therefore, role shopping motivation directly impacts repatronage intent. This relationship is due in part to the shopper's enjoyment and satisfaction with the shopping trip.

Looking at step 3 of H6a and H6b on Table 5, it is shown that H6 is not supported. However, H6a and H6b are supported showing full mediation of the relationship between role shopping motivation and negative word-of-mouth intent. While role shopping motivation does

significantly impact negative word-of-mouth intent when satisfaction and enjoyment with the shopping trip are not included in the analysis (step 2 of H6a and H6b in Table 5), when satisfaction and enjoyment with the shopping trip are included in the model, the effect of role shopping motivation on negative word-of-mouth intent becomes non-significant. Therefore, the relationship between role shopping motivation and negative word-of-mouth intent is fully mediated by satisfaction and enjoyment with the shopping trip, supporting H6a and H6b. Thus, as a shopper's role shopping motivation increases, satisfaction and enjoyment with the shopping trip also increases, which in turn decreases the likelihood that the shopper will intend to spread negative word of mouth about the retailer.

In this exploratory study, it is shown that role shopping motivation does impact several shopping trip outcome variables. Specifically, role shopping motivation is found to be an antecedent to satisfaction with the shopping trip; therefore this variable is included in the proposed model as an antecedent to satisfaction. Role shopping motivation could also act as a moderator in the link between satisfaction and the outcome variables of interest (explained below in the section 5.1.4) and is included as a potential moderator in several of the proposed relationships in the dissertation.

Table 5

## Exploratory Study Two Mediation Results of Role Shopping Motivation on Outcome Variables

Hypothesis	B	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	F
H3a: Role shopping motivation → Hedonic shopping value → Satisfaction			
Step 1:	0.25 <sup>***</sup>	0.07	23.69 <sup>***</sup>
Step 2:	0.16 <sup>**</sup>	0.02	7.29 <sup>**</sup>
Step 3:	Role Shopping Motivation: -0.00 Hedonic Shopping Value: 0.64 <sup>***</sup>	0.33	73.30 <sup>***</sup>
H4a: Role shopping motivation → Hedonic shopping value → Enjoyment			
Step 1:	0.25 <sup>***</sup>	0.07	23.69 <sup>***</sup>
Step 2:	0.22 <sup>***</sup>	0.06	18.42 <sup>***</sup>
Step 3:	Role Shopping Motivation: 0.03 Hedonic Shopping Value: 0.76 <sup>***</sup>	0.58	207.97 <sup>***</sup>
H5a: Role shopping motivation → Satisfaction → Repatronage intent			
Step 1:	0.16 <sup>**</sup>	0.02	7.29 <sup>**</sup>
Step 2:	0.14 <sup>**</sup>	0.03	9.74 <sup>**</sup>
Step 3:	Role Shopping Motivation: 0.11 <sup>*</sup> Satisfaction: 0.22 <sup>***</sup>	0.10	17.21 <sup>***</sup>
H5b: Role shopping motivation → Enjoyment → Repatronage intent			
Step 1:	0.22 <sup>***</sup>	0.06	18.43 <sup>***</sup>
Step 2:	0.14 <sup>**</sup>	0.03	9.74 <sup>**</sup>
Step 3:	Role Shopping Motivation: 0.10 <sup>*</sup> Enjoyment: 0.19 <sup>***</sup>	0.07	12.05 <sup>***</sup>
H6a: Role shopping motivation → Satisfaction → Negative word-of-mouth intent			
Step 1:	0.16 <sup>**</sup>	0.02	7.29 <sup>**</sup>
Step 2:	-0.13 <sup>*</sup>	0.02	5.29 <sup>*</sup>
Step 3:	Role Shopping Motivation: -0.09 Satisfaction: -0.28 <sup>***</sup>	0.09	15.85 <sup>***</sup>

Hypothesis	B	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	F
H6b: Role shopping motivation → Enjoyment → Negative word-of-mouth intent			
Step 1:	0.22 <sup>***</sup>	0.06	18.43 <sup>**</sup>
Step 2:	-0.13 <sup>*</sup>	0.02	5.29 <sup>*</sup>
Step 3:	Role Shopping Motivation: -0.10 Enjoyment: -0.15 <sup>*</sup>	0.03	5.35 <sup>**</sup>

\* p<0.05, \*\* p<0.01, \*\*\* p<0.001

Note: The indirect effect in H3 thru H6 is confirmed to be significant via Sobel test

### **3.3 Exploratory Study Three**

A third exploratory study was conducted focusing on differences in shopping trips based on whether shoppers were shopping for themselves or someone else and whether the shopping trip was pleasant or unpleasant. The CIT method was again utilized. Respondents in this study were randomly presented with one of four open-ended questions where they were asked to recall a recent shopping trip in which they were either (a) shopping for themselves or (b) shopping for someone else and they either had (a) a pleasant shopping experience or (b) an unpleasant shopping experience. Respondents were asked to describe the shopping trip in as much detail as possible focusing on why the shopping trip was either pleasant or unpleasant. A total of 369 responses were obtained. Sample sizes for each of the categories are: shopping for self, pleasant shopping experience (n=89); shopping for someone else, pleasant shopping experience (n=94); shopping for self, unpleasant shopping experience (n=92); shopping for someone else, unpleasant shopping experience (n=94). The sample was 59.7% female and the average age of respondents was 45 years old.

In these responses, I find evidence that there may be differences in the shopping trip based on whether the individual is shopping for him/herself or for someone else. These findings aid in the development of the conceptual model, especially in the inclusion of focus of the shopping trip as a moderator in many of the proposed relationships and in the development of the drivers of satisfaction hypotheses (see section 5.1).

#### Pleasant Shopping Experiences

Several differences are found between shopping trips involving shopping for one's self versus someone else, especially when looking at pleasant shopping experiences. In these situations, I find that there are factors that seem to drive satisfaction regardless of whether you

are shopping for yourself or for someone else, such as helpful salespeople, good price, and ease of finding the desired product. However, when shopping for yourself, these factors seem to be of less importance than they are in situations where you are shopping for someone else. In the shopping for yourself group, these factors are mentioned a few times, but they are repeated over and over in the shopping for someone else group. When shopping for someone else, it appears that the most pleasant shopping experiences are those in which the shopper is able to easily find the product and spends little time searching for it, the salesperson is helpful and knowledgeable, especially if the product is one in which the shopper knows little about, and when the product being purchased is being sold at a low price. Examples of these three aspects of pleasant shopping experiences regarding shopping for someone else are included below:

I usually do all of my shopping online. I had a great experience purchasing my wife a new computer from Apple's website because it was easy to understand and navigate. I could search the specific qualities I wanted the computer to have for the lowest price. I enjoyed being able to buy directly from the producer of the product.

A pleasant time was when I was shopping for my girlfriend and I needed something REALLY GOOD! Turns out one of the people who worked there over-heard me talking about getting my girlfriend something. She helped me and was very nice. This gave me a great incentive to buy something and to buy something nice. I ended up buying a \$500 necklace. If the lady wouldn't have helped me and been so nice, I would have left the store with no purchase.

Shopping for wife. Found exactly what she wanted and I needed within the first hour. Time spent, ease in finding, and price are what's important to me.

I generally have a pleasant experience shopping for my son. He knows what he likes and that helps me to know what to shop for. For example, when he needs clothes we go to the Polo Outlet - its one stop shopping - in and out in no time and they usually have what we're looking for. Quick (just in and out of that one store) and Simple (they have all their clothes neatly arranged together - no need to linger searching for things).

I'm not much of a shopper so a pleasant experience is when I am able to find what I am looking for in a short amount of time. I was recently shopping for my mother. She asked me to purchase a large can of apples at a wholesale restaurant supply store. I had never shopped at this store before but was able to find the store and the product she requested with little effort. The experience was pleasant because I was able to find what I was

looking for without having to search at several stores. The cost was what was expected and the service was good.

In October I went shopping for my son's birthday. I went to Bass Pro Shops to buy clothes for him. It was easy to find the clothes and I was in and out, making it an enjoyable experience. I felt happy because I knew he would like them because it's what he asked for.

I shopped for shoes for my daughter, and I found them easily at the first store. In addition, they were on sale. It was a quick and easy purchase. I felt great with finding the product and buying exactly what my daughter wanted at a reasonable price.

I was shopping for my daughter's birthday present. She wanted a Tory Burch make-up bag and while I was in Atlanta I went to the Tory Burch store and they had a variety of make-up bags in stock. This was a very pleasant shopping trip because I was able to find the item I was looking for very easily and was able to pick from a variety of choices. I felt happy and accomplished as well as pleased with how fast the process of finding this gift went.

While there are similarities in factors of pleasant shopping experiences for the two groups of shoppers, differences also emerge between the two groups. When shopping for yourself, heightened emotions resulting from the shopping trip, store atmosphere and "belonging" in the store, browsing and shopping for entertainment, and breadth and depth of merchandise are mentioned as reasons why a shopping trip was pleasant. These factors, however, are not present in the shopping for someone else group.

I find that when shopping for yourself, shopping as an emotional experience can be very important. Several individuals describe shopping experiences as pleasant because the product being purchased provided them with heightened positive emotions. These shopping experiences are positive because the product provides the shopper with a sense of accomplishment and acts as a "reward" to the shopper. Other shopping trips are pleasant because they mark or represent a special time in the shopper's life.

I remember the time when I went shopping for the car that I still drive today. I had never bought a car for myself before, but when I bought it I felt so established just because I could say that I had bought a car for myself and not my husband. I remember being so excited when I drove my 2008 Expedition off the car lot.

I had a great time once when I went Christmas shopping for myself. I had bought my kids something the day before so I decided that this day would be all for me. I had my mind set on a pair of shoes that I had seen the day before. When I bought the shoes, which I might add was the first pair I had bought for myself in awhile, I felt a sense of accomplishment and joy.

Last summer I was preparing to go on a trip to Paris, France and I needed some summer clothes, so I went shopping for them. I had not done this for a quite a while and I really enjoyed, thinking of what type clothes to buy and trying on them and thinking what they were wearing in Paris, the fashion capital of the world. It was fun trying on summer clothes made of bright cotton fabric, I felt young and full of fun. I felt full of myself trying sassy swimming wear, and playful clothes for daytime wear and some evening wear for the Parisian nights.

Prior to moving I was required to buy a whole new set of furniture for my new apartment due to the fact that I had previously had a roommate. When shopping for the perfect furniture, I knew I would be able to imagine the furniture in my apartment and that is how I would know it was the perfect set. I saw this brown velvet set of furniture with dark wood end and coffee tables that I loved. I knew I could imagine these pieces in my living area and that is how I knew they were the ones for me.

Store atmosphere and feeling as though you “belong” in the store are other variables that emerged only in the self-shopping group. It seems as though it is very important for those shopping for themselves to feel comfortable in the store, whether it is because the store atmosphere is pleasing to the shopper or because the customer feels welcome in the store. These variables would appear to be important for this group, and not so important for those shopping for someone else, because they may act as signals that the store is one in which the shopper should shop in.

I love finding new and different items...things that are a little different. I like feeling comfortable in a store as if I belong and/or my presence is valued. When the staff are pleasant, warm, available, helpful and welcoming but not too creepy.

They had enough workers and seats in the area to accommodate the crowd, which is unlike many other stores. There were no boxes or clutter around the sitting area. I ended up buying 2 pairs of shoes. I enjoy shopping at Belk because I can use my card and make payments throughout the month on my purchases.

Browsing and shopping for entertainment also emerge as factors of pleasant shopping experiences for those shopping for themselves. Here, the shoppers find the shopping experience

pleasant because it provides them an opportunity to interact with others, whether through socializing with people the shopper knows or simply with other shoppers in the store. The shoppers also enjoyed that the shopping trip did not have “pressure” because they are not looking for anything in particular on the shopping trip.

Recently I was visiting an out of state area with new stores I had never been to. It was a "girls only" weekend with no time limit or specific item to purchase. It was the perfect shopping scenario. Because I didn't have a particular item to purchase, I didn't feel any stress and was able to completely enjoy myself. I found two sweaters in my favorite style.

I lucked up on a 90% off rack at a local store. I was able to spend enough time to look at every item and make several purchases for myself and others. The item was adult clothes and I even enjoyed talking to the other ladies who were looking. We kept picking out things for each other. I have worn one shirt three times in a month!

Finally, the breadth and depth of merchandise seems to be very important for those shopping for themselves. Here, shoppers find the fact that they can try many different types of products pleasurable. While too much merchandise may confuse and overwhelm someone shopping for someone else, this seems to be a positive when the shopper is shopping for themselves because it offers the shopper a wider range of options when shopping.

A particularly pleasant shopping experience was at an outlet mall where I was shopping for jeans in an upscale store I would not normally shop in except in at an outlet mall. It was fun because I found several pairs that fit, and the store employee helping me was truly helping me and offering suggestions for styles that would fit me.

I went to Foot Locker looking for some new running shoes. They had a good selection of different brands and types of running shoes, and they had my size in all the kinds that I wished to try on. There was an employee there waiting to help me and he answered every question I had.

I also find that there are drivers of pleasant shopping experiences that are present only in the shopping for someone else group. Here, I find that fantasy, or imagining how the recipient will react to and use the product, and finding the “perfect” item for the other person emerge as factors that impact satisfaction with the shopping trip. These factors, however, are not present in the shopping for yourself group.

I enjoy shopping for someone in need or someone I love. The last time I went shopping was for a wedding gift, I had so much [fun] in picking things out for the couple off their wish list. It gave me such joy in my heart. I wanted to buy everything on the list. I never got tired of looking for just what they wanted. Even if someone had already purchased what I was looking for, I would just go to the next item on the list. I never got frustrated or tried. I loved it!!!

I recently enjoyed shopping for a dress for my mother that will be a gift for her. The trip was wonderful because I was able to find a blue dress that seemed to be perfect for her taste. She is not hard to please, so I am expecting much excitement when I give it to her.

My favorite shopping experience shopping for someone else is when I do the shopping for the shoebox Christmas coalition for our church. It is one of my favorite things I do at Christmas. I love to imagine the look on the child's face when he or she receives the gifts that I have picked out for them. And to let them know that they are thought of at Christmas time.

### Unpleasant shopping experiences

In looking at unpleasant shopping experiences across the two types of shoppers, I see the same factors in unpleasant shopping experiences across the two groups. For example, unpleasant shopping experiences are caused by factors such as the shopper being unable to find the desired product, rude or unhelpful sales people, the store not having the needed size or style of the product, and other customers who are unpleasant or do not follow shopping norms. Differences in the strength of the unpleasantness of the shopping experience seem to emerge based on whether or not the person enjoys shopping or shopping for others. Here, it appears that the less the person enjoys shopping or shopping for others, the stronger both his/her language in discussing the unpleasant shopping experience and in his/her behavioral reaction to the shopping experience. The findings suggest that focus of the shopping trip and role shopping motivation should be included in the proposed model and help to guide the hypotheses development in study two.

The worst experience was buying groceries for my parents. There were specific brands on the list, and I could not find several. I looked for several minutes for each, eventually giving up and buying a different brand. Shopping is one of my least favorite activities and

this really annoyed me. I was not necessarily angry with the store, but the fact that I was limited to only one brand.

I was once asked by a coworker to go to Toys R Us to purchase a toy that could not be found in her town. The store was packed because it was close to Christmas. I was so mad because she asked me to go to a store that I had no intentions of going and then I wasted a lot of time by standing in line for over an hour. I just would not ever ask that of anyone. I do not love to shop and crowds in a larger city make me uneasy because of heavy traffic and such.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **STUDY ONE**

“One time my son [wanted] a pair of blue and gray Nike Air Jordan's for basketball. So I went to Footlocker to buy them and they had every color except the ones he wanted. I got frustrated and went to Finishline to see if they had them there. They had the pair he wanted, but not his size. So I...bought the black and gray Jordan's. When I got home and gave them to him he was just as satisfied with them. So I was so glad even though I worried he may not like the color.”

“I recently shopped for a birthday gift for my husband who is very hard to shop for because he really doesn't "need" anything...I decided to go to a home improvement store to look for a gas log fireplace for our lake house - because he enjoys spending a lot of time there. I really don't like going to this particular store in the first place....because sales people are scarce and if help is needed (and I knew I'd probably need help this day)....I could be in for a long wait. Almost two months after his birthday, my husband finally opened his birthday gift. The unenthusiastic reception to this gift probably made my shopping experience even a little more unpleasant!”

#### **4.0 Introduction**

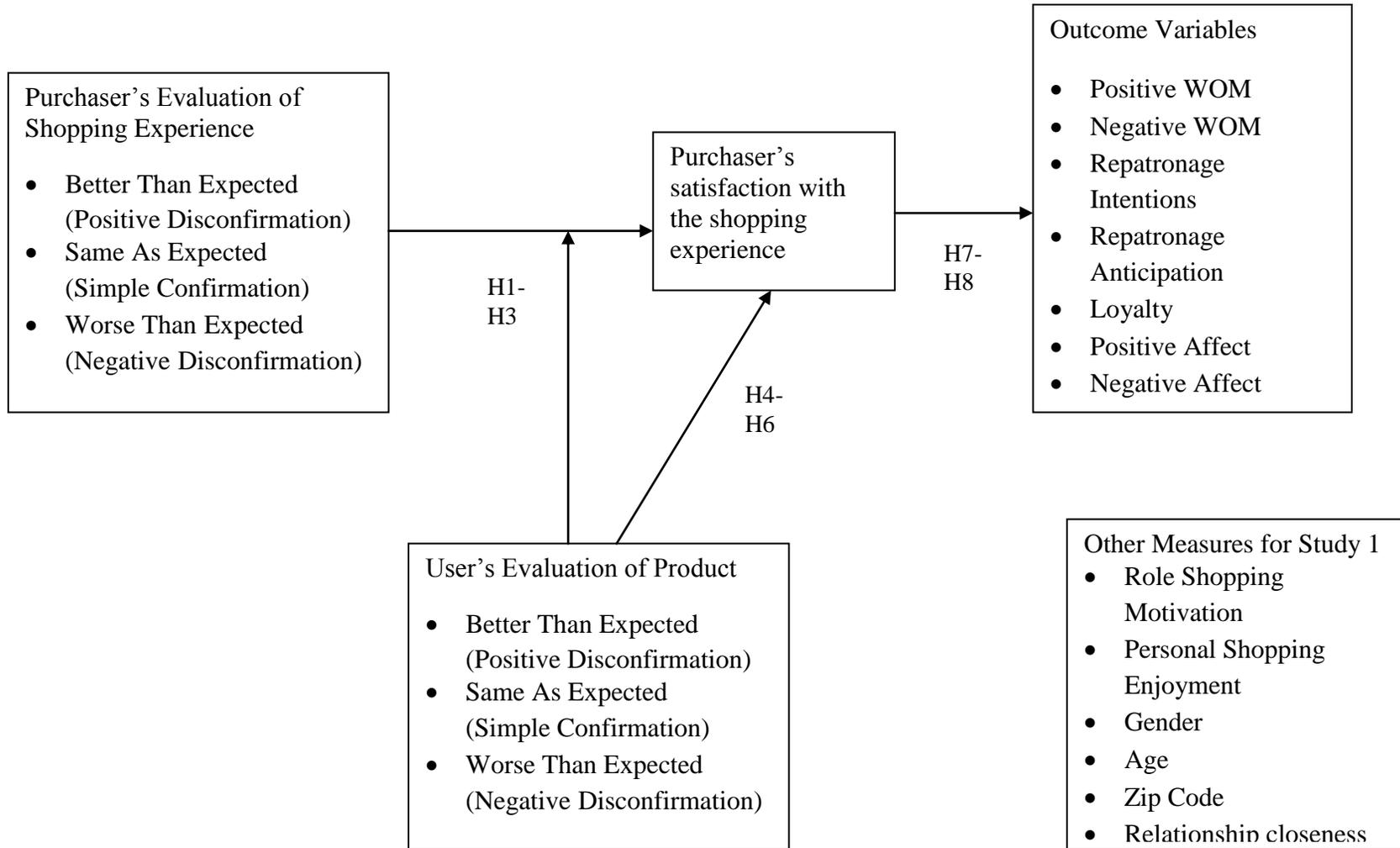
In this chapter a study is proposed to address the research question: when shopping for others, how is the shopper's satisfaction impacted by the user's evaluation of the product? A model is introduced and hypotheses are developed around expectancy disconfirmation theory and emotional contagion theory. The study design, methodology, and results are also presented.

#### **4.1 Hypothesis Development**

This study investigates how the purchaser's satisfaction with the shopping experience is impacted by the user's product evaluation. Here, the expectancy disconfirmation model is expanded to accommodate two parties to the purchase, the purchaser and the user of the product, while traditionally the model assumes the purchaser and the user of a product are the same

person. In this study I look at how the shopper's satisfaction can be impacted by the user's product evaluation. Please see Figure 2 for the model tested for this study.

Figure 2  
Study One Conceptual Model



Based on expectancy disconfirmation theory, the purchaser's satisfaction should be a function of his/her pre-shopping expectations and his/her actual shopping experience. However, because the purchaser is not using the product, I propose that his/her satisfaction with the shopping experience will also be impacted by the user's evaluation of the product. Thus, the user's evaluation of the product (disconfirmation) may impact the purchaser's satisfaction with the shopping experience.

When shopping for someone else, the purchaser's initial evaluation of the shopping experience may be effected by the user's evaluation of the product because the user's product evaluation may act as a signal to the purchaser of the success of the shopping trip. For example, if the shopping experience is satisfying but the user does not care for the product purchased, the purchaser may re-evaluate the shopping experience and determine that the shopping experience was actually dissatisfying because s/he ended up wasting a shopping trip purchasing a product the user does not like. Similarly, if the shopping experience is dissatisfying but the user is delighted with the product purchased, the purchaser may re-evaluate the shopping experience and determine that it was actually satisfying because the user is pleased with the product. The basic premise of these interactions draws from emotional contagion theory. Emotional contagion occurs when one person "catches" the emotions of another person which then causes the first person's emotions to converge with those of the second person (Howard and Gengler 2001). Based on this, I propose that the purchaser's satisfaction judgment will be altered based on the judgment of the user of the product and the purchaser's satisfaction will move in the direction of the user's evaluation of the product. Therefore, if the user evaluates the product lower than the purchaser evaluates the shopping experience, the purchaser's satisfaction may be lowered because s/he "catches" the negative emotions of the user. The purchaser may feel

disappointed that s/he did not purchase the product desired by the user, so his/her satisfaction with the shopping trip may decrease. Conversely, if the user evaluates the product higher than the purchaser evaluates the shopping experience, the purchaser's satisfaction may increase because s/he "catches" the pleasant emotions resulting from the user's positive reaction to the product. The purchaser may feel pleased that s/he purchased a product that pleased the user, so his/her satisfaction with the shopping trip may increase. Finally, if the purchaser and the user evaluate the shopping experience and product similarly (for example, both experience simple confirmation), the purchaser's satisfaction should not change as a result of the user's evaluation because the two people's emotional reactions are the same and no new and/or different emotions are "caught". See Table 6 for a diagram of how the purchaser's satisfaction might change based on the different user evaluations of the product. Based on this, the following hypotheses are offered:

The purchaser's evaluation of the shopping experience will be impacted by the user's evaluation of the product such that:

H1: If the user evaluates the product more positively than the purchaser evaluates the overall shopping experience, the purchaser's satisfaction with the shopping experience will become more positive, or increase.

H2: If the user evaluates the product at the same level that the purchaser evaluates the overall shopping experience, the purchaser's satisfaction with the shopping experience will remain the same.

H3: If the user evaluates the product more negatively than the purchaser evaluates the overall shopping experience, the purchaser's satisfaction with the shopping experience will become more negative, or decrease.

Table 6  
Study One Rationale for Hypotheses

		Purchaser Evaluation of the Shopping Experience		
		Negative Disconfirmation	Simple Confirmation	Positive Disconfirmation
User Evaluation of the Product	Negative Disconfirmation	<p>Lowest Satisfaction Both the purchaser and the user are unsatisfied. The purchaser's satisfaction will be low because the user evaluated the product poorly.</p> <p>The purchaser's initial low evaluation of the shopping experience may remain the same or decrease after the user evaluates the product.</p>	The purchaser's initial evaluation of the shopping experience is lowered after the user evaluates the product poorly.	The purchaser's initial high evaluation of the shopping experience is lowered after the user evaluates the product poorly.
	Simple Confirmation	The purchaser's original low evaluation of the shopping experience may rise after the user evaluates the product.	The purchaser's original evaluation of the shopping experience remains the same after the user evaluates the product.	The purchaser's original high evaluation of the shopping experience may drop after the user evaluates the product.
	Positive Disconfirmation	The purchaser's initial low evaluation of the shopping experience is raised after the user evaluates the product positively.	The purchaser's initial satisfaction with the shopping experience is raised after the user evaluates the product positively.	<p>Highest Satisfaction Both the shopper and the user are highly satisfied. The shopper's satisfaction will be high because the user evaluated the product positively.</p> <p>The purchaser's initial high evaluation of the shopping experience may remain the same or increase after the user evaluates the product.</p>

-  H1 (purchaser satisfaction increased)
-  H2 (satisfaction stays the same)
-  H3 (purchaser satisfaction decreases)

As a result of the impact of the user's product evaluation on the purchaser's own satisfaction with the shopping experience, satisfaction with the shopping experience should be different among the three groups of purchasers. The group of purchasers whose user experiences positive disconfirmation should have higher satisfaction ratings compared to those whose users evaluated the product as expected (simple confirmation) or worse than expected (negative disconfirmation) because these purchasers "catch" the positive emotions associated with the user's positive evaluation of the product. Similarly, the group of purchasers whose user experiences negative disconfirmation should have lower satisfaction ratings compared to those whose users evaluated the product as better than expected (positive disconfirmation) or as expected (simple confirmation) because these purchasers "catch" the negative emotions associated with the user's negative evaluation of the product. Therefore, the following hypotheses are offered:

H4: If the user experiences positive disconfirmation, the purchaser's final satisfaction with the shopping experience will be higher than those purchasers whose users experience simple confirmation and negative disconfirmation.

H5: If the user experiences simple confirmation, the purchaser's final satisfaction with the shopping experience will be lower than the final satisfaction of purchaser's whose users experience positive disconfirmation but higher than the final satisfaction of purchasers whose user's experience negative disconfirmation.

H6: If the user experiences negative disconfirmation, the purchaser's final satisfaction with the shopping experience will be the lower than those purchasers whose users experience simple confirmation and positive disconfirmation.

Finally, I propose that several retail related outcomes of the shopping trip should be impacted by the purchaser's satisfaction with the shopping trip. Expectancy disconfirmation theory holds that as satisfaction increases (decreases), consumer attitudes change in a positive (negative) direction, which in turn increases positive (negative) behavioral responses (Oliver 1980, 1981). Previous research finds support for this relationship such that satisfaction impacts

various shopping trip outcomes such as word-of-mouth behaviors (Anderson 1998; Syzmanski and Henard 2001) and repatronage intentions (Wakefield and Blodgett 1996). Therefore, the following hypotheses are offered:

H7: Satisfaction with the shopping experience will be positively related to (a) positive word of mouth, (b) loyalty, (c) repatronage intent, (d) repatronage anticipation and (e) positive affect.

H8: Satisfaction with the shopping experience will be negatively related to (a) negative word of mouth and (b) negative affect.

## **4.2 Methodology**

### **4.2.1 Research Design**

In order to test the proposed hypotheses in this study, an experiment manipulating the purchaser's experience while shopping and the product user's evaluation of the purchased product is used. Using an experiment allows for the manipulation of these two independent variables in order to directly assess their impact on the focal dependent variable, satisfaction. Here, I can assess if the purchaser's in-store shopping experience and the user's evaluation of the product affect the purchaser's satisfaction with the shopping experience. Because there are two independent variables being manipulated at three levels each, a  $3^2$  factorial design is being used. A minimum of 180 respondents is needed in this experiment based on a rule of thumb of twenty observations per experimental cell times nine cells (two factors at three levels each) (Hair et al. 2006, page 402). The experiment was posted to the survey website Qualtrics and completed by respondents online. Respondents in this study were recruited for participation by undergraduate students enrolled in a 300-level marketing course (see section 4.2.4 for more details on this procedure). The survey software allowed for randomization in the presentation of the manipulations to respondents.

First, the survey software randomly presented each respondent a scenario describing a shopping trip in which they are shopping for their spouse for a grocery item. Respondents read one of three scenarios where the shopping trip was either better than expected (positive disconfirmation), the same as expected (simple confirmation), or worse than expected (negative disconfirmation). Respondents then answered a satisfaction measure to gauge their evaluation of the shopping experience. Next, respondents were randomly presented with a scenario telling them how the user of the product they purchased in the first scenario reacted to the product they

purchased, either the product was better than the user expected (positive disconfirmation), the same as the user expected (simple confirmation) or worse than the user expected (negative disconfirmation). Respondents then answered a satisfaction measure which gauged their evaluation of the shopping experience again. Respondents also answered outcome measures for the variables of interest in H7 and H8. The change in satisfaction is used to test H1-H3. The final satisfaction measure is used to test H4-H6.

#### **4.2.2 Manipulation Development**

In order to test the proposed hypotheses, a scenario-based experiment is used. Respondents answered questions as the purchaser and were given one of three scenarios manipulating the shopping experience as negative disconfirmation, simple confirmation, or positive disconfirmation and one of three scenarios manipulating the user's reaction to the product, also as negative disconfirmation, simple confirmation, or positive disconfirmation (see also Oliver and DeSarbo 1988 for disconfirmation as a manipulated variable). In these scenarios, the product being purchased is an everyday type product rather than a gift-type purchase because gifts can be emotional purchases (Sherry, McGrath, and Levy 1993), which may introduce extraneous variance to the data. Exploratory study one showed that when shopping for others, individuals most often shop for their spouse and for grocery items (see Table 1). Because of this, the product being purchased in the scenarios is a grocery product and respondents were either married individuals or non-married individuals living with a partner.

The manipulations were pretested as discussed below in section 4.2.3. The results of the pretest indicated that the strength of the manipulations should be increased. Because increasing the strength of the manipulations can impact the degree to which demand and realism become problematic, the manipulations were only strengthened slightly so that the scenarios remained

realistic. The manipulations were changed to emphasize the manipulated disconfirmation level by making the words underlined and in italics. The final manipulations used in this study can be found in Table 7.

Table 7  
Study One Manipulations

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### **Purchaser Experience**

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It is Saturday morning and you are about to leave your home to go run a few errands. Your spouse/partner stops you before you leave and asks you to go to the grocery store while you are out and pick up some of their favorite soda.

#### Positive Disconfirmation:

When you get to the grocery store, the soda is displayed at the very front of the store, so you don't have to walk to the soft drink aisle. You get the soda and walk to the register. When you get to the register, you are the only person there, so you don't have to wait in line. When you go to grab your bag, the clerk surprises you and takes the bag to your car for you. You thought this trip to the grocery store would take you five minutes, but you are in and out of the store in two minutes. Overall, this shopping trip was *much better* than a typical trip to the grocery store.

#### Simple Confirmation:

When you get to the grocery store, you walk to the soft drink aisle and get the soda. You walk to the register and there is one person ahead of you in line. You wait about a minute to check out. When you are done checking out, you get your bag and walk to your car. You thought this trip to the grocery store would take you five minutes and it did. Overall, this shopping trip was a *typical* trip to the grocery store.

#### Negative Disconfirmation:

When you get to the grocery store, you walk to the soft drink aisle, but you can't find the correct soda. After searching for a few moments, you try to find a sales clerk to show you where it is, but you can't find anyone to help you. You finally find the right soda and walk to the register. When you get to the register, you see that there are three people ahead of you in line, so you have to wait five minutes to check out. You thought this trip to the grocery store would take you five minutes total and it ended up taking you ten minutes total. Overall, this shopping trip was *much worse* than a typical trip to the grocery store.

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### **User Evaluation**

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#### Positive Disconfirmation:

When you get home, your spouse/partner looks at the soda and says, "Oh, wow! This is great! You bought a 12-pack of cans, but I thought you would just get a 2-Liter. This is *much better* than what I wanted."

Simple Confirmation:

When you get home, your spouse/partner looks at the soda and says, “Thanks for getting the soda, this is exactly what I wanted.”

Negative Disconfirmation:

When you get home, your spouse/partner looks at the soda and says, “Why did you get a 2-Liter? I wanted a 12-pack. This is much worse than what I wanted. Now I have to go back and get the 12-pack.”

---

### **4.2.3 Pretest Results**

The scenarios and measures used in this study were pretested in order to further develop the proposed manipulations and to ensure realism in the scenarios. First, I had several married individuals and/or non-married individuals with a live-in partner read the proposed scenarios for feedback regarding the realism of the scenarios, the likelihood of the scenario happening in real life, and for their general reactions to the scenarios. Then, I also tested the manipulations and data collection procedures on a sample similar to one that would be used in the actual study. Here, I had students enrolled in a marketing class ask married people and/or non-married individuals with a live-in partner to take the survey online in exchange for class extra credit. In this pre-test, respondents took the entire survey. Special attention was paid to the manipulation, realism, ease of understanding, and demand checks. The focus here was on testing that the respondents easily understood the manipulations and that the evaluations of both the purchaser and the user were being manipulated as intended. A total of 37 usable responses were attained for this study (Note: eighteen respondents were not allowed to complete the survey because they indicated that they were neither married nor lived with a partner. One respondent was excluded from analysis due to large amounts of missing data). The scenarios used in this pretest can be found in Table 8.

Table 8  
Study One Pretest Manipulations

---

### **Purchaser Experience**

---

It is Saturday morning and you are about to leave your home to go run a few errands. Your spouse/partner stops you before you leave and asks you to go to the grocery store while you are out and pick up some of their favorite soda.

#### Positive Disconfirmation:

When you get to the grocery store, the soda is displayed at the very front of the store, so you don't have to walk to the soft drink aisle. You get the soda and walk to the register. When you get to the register, you are the only person there, so you don't have to wait in line. When you go to grab your bag, the clerk surprises you and takes the bag to your car for you. You thought this trip to the grocery store would take you five minutes, but you are in and out of the store in two minutes. Overall, this shopping trip was better than a typical trip to the grocery store.

#### Simple Confirmation:

When you get to the grocery store, you walk to the soft drink aisle and get the soda. You walk to the register and there is one person ahead of you in line. You wait about a minute to check out. When you are done checking out, you get your bag and walk to your car. You thought this trip to the grocery store would take you five minutes and it did. Overall, this shopping trip was a typical trip to the grocery store.

#### Negative Disconfirmation:

When you get to the grocery store, you walk to the soft drink aisle, but you can't find the correct soda. After searching for a few moments, you try to find a sales clerk to show you where it is, but you can't find anyone to help you. You finally find the right soda and walk to the register. When you get to the register, you see that there are three people ahead of you in line, so you have to wait five minutes to check out. You thought this trip to the grocery store would take you five minutes total and it ended up taking you ten minutes total. Overall, this shopping trip was worse than a typical trip to the grocery store.

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### **User Evaluation**

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#### Positive Disconfirmation:

When you get home, your spouse/partner looks at the soda and says "Oh, wow, you bought a 12-pack of cans. I figured you would just get a 2-Liter. This is better than what I expected."

#### Simple Confirmation:

When you get home, your spouse/partner looks at the soda and says, "Thanks for getting the soda, this is exactly what I wanted."

#### Negative Disconfirmation:

When you get home, your spouse/partner looks at the soda and says, "Why did you get a 2-Liter? I wanted a 12-pack. This isn't what I wanted"

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When analyzing the data, I first checked that the instrument was easy for respondents to understand by having them respond from 1 “strongly disagree” to 7 “strongly agree” to the question “this scenario was easy to understand.” The mean of this item (5.70) was compared to the scale midpoint (3.5) using a one-sample t-test. The results were significant at the 0.001 level indicating that respondents thought the scenarios were easy to understand. I next checked that the instrument was realistic in the same manner. Again respondents rated on a 7-point strongly disagree-strongly agree scale the items “This experience was realistic,” “It is easy for me to imagine this experience happening to me in real life,” “This experience could happen to me in real life.” The items were averaged and the mean of this scale (5.44) was compared to the scale mid-point (3.5) using a one-sample t-test. The results were significant at the 0.001 level indicating that respondents thought the scenarios were realistic.

Next, I checked that the manipulations were working as intended. Here, after reading the purchaser experience scenario, respondents were asked to indicate on a 7-point strongly disagree-strongly agree scale how much they agree with these statements “This trip to the grocery store was better than I expected,” “This trip to the grocery store was exactly what I expected,” and “This trip to the grocery store was worse than I expected.” Overall, the mean responses were in the direction as expected. When the respondents were exposed to the negative disconfirmation manipulation, the means were higher for the manipulation check item that the trip to the grocery store was worse than expected ( $M = 4.58$ ) than the means for the items that the trip was as expected ( $M = 2.92$ ,  $t = 2.246$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) or better than expected ( $M = 2.75$ ,  $t = 1.993$ ,  $p = 0.072$ ). When respondents were exposed to the simple confirmation manipulation, the means were higher for the manipulation check item that the trip to the grocery store was exactly as expected ( $M = 5.73$ ) than the means for the items that the trip was better ( $M = 4.82$ ,  $t = 1.773$ ,  $p$

= 0.107) or worse than expected ( $M = 2.09$ ,  $t = 5.990$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Finally, when respondents were exposed to the positive disconfirmation manipulation, the means were higher for the manipulation check item that the trip to the grocery store was better than expected ( $M = 6.50$ ) than the means for the items that the trip was worse than expected ( $M = 1.75$ ,  $t = 6.313$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) or exactly as expected ( $M = 2.71$ ,  $t = 8.246$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). A table of these means can be found in Table 9.

Table 9  
Study One Pretest Manipulation Check for Purchaser Shopping Experience Manipulation

		Manipulation Check Items		
		This trip to the grocery store was worse than I expected it to be.	This trip to the grocery store was exactly what I expected it to be.	This trip to the grocery store was better than I expected it to be.
Manipulation	Negative Disconfirmation	4.58	2.92	2.75
	Simple Confirmation	2.09	5.73	4.82
	Positive Disconfirmation	1.75	2.71	6.50

The same procedure was followed to check the manipulation for the user’s evaluation of the product. Respondents were asked to indicate on a 7-point strongly disagree-strongly agree scale how much they agree with these statements “The soda I purchased was better than what my spouse/partner wanted,” “The soda I purchased was exactly what my spouse/partner wanted,” and “The soda I purchased was worse than what my spouse/partner wanted.” Overall, the mean responses were in the direction expected. When the respondents were exposed to the user negative disconfirmation manipulation, the means were higher for the manipulation check item that the product purchased was worse than what their spouse/partner wanted ( $M = 4.77$ ) than the

means for the items that the soda was exactly what the spouse/partner wanted ( $M = 3.00$ ,  $t = 2.164$ ,  $p = 0.051$ ) or was better than what the spouse/partner wanted ( $M = 3.54$ ,  $t = 1.464$ ,  $p = 0.169$ ). When the respondents were exposed to the user simple confirmation manipulation, the means were higher for the manipulation check item that the product purchased was exactly what their spouse/partner wanted ( $M = 6.45$ ) than the means for the items that the soda was worse than ( $M = 1.06$ ,  $t = 12.270$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) or better than ( $M = 4.64$ ,  $t = 2.887$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) what the spouse/partner wanted. Finally, when the respondents were exposed to the user positive disconfirmation manipulation, the means were higher for the manipulation check item that the product purchased was better than what their spouse/partner wanted ( $M = 5.62$ ) than the means for the items that the soda was exactly what the spouse/partner wanted ( $M = 4.08$ ,  $t = 2.343$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) or was worse than what the spouse/partner wanted ( $M = 2.31$ ,  $t = 4.289$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). These means can be found below in Table 10.

Table 10  
Study One Pretest Manipulation Check for User Evaluation Manipulation

		Manipulation Check Items		
		The soda I purchased was worse than what my spouse/partner wanted.	The soda I purchased was exactly what my spouse/partner wanted.	The soda I purchased was better than what my spouse/partner wanted.
Manipulation	Negative Disconfirmation	4.77	3.00	3.54
	Simple Confirmation	1.06	6.45	4.64
	Positive Disconfirmation	2.31	4.08	5.62

Unfortunately, while the means for the manipulation checks were all in the expected direction, significant differences were not found between each pair tested in some of the manipulation checks. I believe this may be for two reasons. The first is that, because this is a pre-test, there were small sample sizes for each manipulation when comparing the means (approximately eleven to fourteen respondents per manipulation), therefore there was not enough power to detect significant differences in the means. Second, there is an indication that the manipulation check may have been confusing for some respondents. For example, some respondents chose the scale mid-point for all three choices in each manipulation check, others chose agree or strongly agree on two of the three manipulation check items. Because the manipulation checks may have confused some respondents, for the main test, the manipulation check was performed by having respondents choose which of the three manipulation check items best describes the scenario they read rather than having them rate how much they agree/disagree that the item describes the scenario. I also altered the scenarios slightly to focus on the manipulations within them. The revised manipulations are found above in Table 7.

I also performed a demand check to make sure that respondents did not know the purpose of the study. There were no respondents who indicated that the purpose of the study is to see how the person you are shopping for's reaction to a product impacts the shopping trip. Respondents primarily thought the purpose of the study was to understand how people react while shopping in grocery stores (36% of respondents). A quarter of respondents thought the purpose of the study was to understand how people shop in general. Ten percent of respondents did not know the purpose of the study. Several respondents provided open-ended responses to the demand check. However, the bulk of these responses centered around the purpose of the survey as being to

understand how people take surveys while the other responses centered around other, non-study related guesses as to the purpose of the study.

Finally, I assessed the scale reliabilities and performed a confirmatory factor analysis. All measures used were drawn from existing literature and adapted for this study except the relationship closeness measure which was created for this study. These measures can be found in Table 11. Construct reliability is evaluated using Cronbach's alpha. All of the measures exhibit acceptable levels of reliability, with the minimum coefficient alpha at 0.735. A confirmatory factor analysis was also performed with LISREL 8.8 (Jöreskog and Sörbom 2006) on the scale items. All variables loaded significantly on their intended factors. Because of the small sample size used in the pretest, the sample size is less than the number of parameters estimated, therefore fit statistics are not reported.

Table 11  
Study One Pretest Survey Items

<b>Source/ Adapted From</b>	<b>Scale/ Items (Coefficient Alpha)</b>		<b>Standardized Loading</b>
Westbrook and Oliver (1981), Oliver and Swan (1989a and 1989b)	<b>Shopping Experience Satisfaction (before User's evaluation of product) (0.997)</b>		
	Very Displeased With	Very Pleased With	0.95
	Very Unfavorable	Very Favorable	0.95
	Very Dissatisfied With	Very Satisfied With	0.94
	Unhappy With	Happy With	0.95
Voss, Parasuraman, and Grewal 1998	<b>Satisfaction with Shopping Experience (before User's evaluation of product)<sup>a</sup> (0.943)</b>		
	I am satisfied with this shopping experience.		0.93
	I am delighted with this shopping experience.		0.94
	I am unhappy with this shopping experience. (Reversed)		0.78

<b>Source/ Adapted From</b>	<b>Scale/ Items (Coefficient Alpha)</b>	<b>Standardized Loading</b>	
Westbrook and Oliver (1981), Oliver and Swan (1989a and 1989b)	<b>Shopping Experience Satisfaction (after User's evaluation of product) (0.995)</b>		
	Very Displeased With	Very Pleased With	0.95
	Very Unfavorable	Very Favorable	0.95
	Very Dissatisfied With	Very Satisfied With	0.95
	Unhappy With	Happy With	0.93
Voss, Parasuraman, and Grewal 1998	<b>Satisfaction with Shopping Experience (after User's evaluation of product)<sup>a</sup> (0.973)</b>		
	I am satisfied with this shopping experience.		0.91
	I am delighted with this shopping experience.		0.92
	I am unhappy with this shopping experience. (Reversed)		0.93
Jones, Reynolds, and Arnold 2006	<b>Repatronage Anticipation<sup>a</sup> (0.969)</b>		
	I look forward to visiting this store again in the future.		0.93
	I always look forward to visiting this store again.		0.94
	No matter how often I visit this store, I always look forward to coming back.		0.88
Maxham and Netemeyer 2002	<b>Repatronage Intent<sup>a</sup> (0.735)</b>		
	I will probably visit this store again in the future.		0.88
	It is very unlikely that I will shop at this store in the future.		0.79
	I intend to shop at this store in the future.		0.40
Harris and Goode 2004	<b>Loyalty Intent<sup>a</sup> (0.964)</b>		
	I would choose this store over similar stores in the future.		0.87
	Next time I shop for products similar to those in this store, I will choose to shop at this store over other similar stores.		0.92
	I can imagine myself becoming a loyal customer of this store.		0.92
Maxham and Netemeyer 2002	<b>Positive Word-of-Mouth Intent<sup>a</sup> (0.972)</b>		
	I'm likely to say good things about this store.		0.94
	I would recommend this store to my family and friends.		0.93
	I would recommend this store to others.		0.89
Maxham and Netemeyer 2002	<b>Negative Word-of-Mouth Intent<sup>a</sup> (0.966)</b>		
	I'm likely to say bad things about this store.		0.87
	I intend to caution my family and friends against visiting this store.		0.93
	I plan on telling others negative things about this store.		0.93

<b>Source/ Adapted From</b>	<b>Scale/ Items (Coefficient Alpha)</b>	<b>Standardized Loading</b>
Watson, Clark, and Tellegen 1988	<b>Positive Affect<sup>b</sup> (0.942)</b>	
	Surprised	0.42
	Happy	0.92
	Delighted	0.92
	Interested	0.79
	Pleased	0.92
	Excited	0.89
Watson, Clark, and Tellegen 1988	<b>Negative Affect<sup>b</sup> (0.969)</b>	
	Stressed	0.85
	Frustrated	0.92
	Tense	0.96
Dawson, Block, and Ridgway 1990	<b>Personal Shopping Enjoyment<sup>a</sup> (0.873)</b>	
	I consider shopping a big hassle. (Reversed)	0.39
	When travelling, I enjoy visiting new and interesting shops.	0.82
	Shopping is generally a lot of fun for me.	0.77
	I enjoy browsing for things even if I cannot buy them yet.	0.93
	I often visit shopping malls and markets just for something to do rather than to buy something specific.	0.65
Arnold and Reynolds 2003	<b>Role Shopping Motivation<sup>a</sup> (0.935)</b>	
	I like shopping for others because when they feel good, I feel good.	0.88
	I enjoy shopping for my friends and family.	0.87
	I enjoy shopping around to find the perfect gift for someone.	0.92
New	<b>Relationship Closeness<sup>a</sup> (0.949)</b>	
	I feel very close to this person.	0.90
	I know a great deal about this person.	0.93
	My relationship with this person is strong.	0.82
New	<b>Realism Check<sup>a</sup> (0.872)</b>	
	It is easy for me to imagine this experience happening to me in real life.	0.88
	This experience could happen to me in real life.	0.87
	This experience was realistic.	0.70

All scales 7-point.

<sup>a</sup> Anchored by "Strongly Disagree" and "Strongly Agree"

<sup>b</sup> Anchored by "Didn't Feel at All" and "Felt Very Much"

#### **4.2.4 Main Study Data Collection Procedures**

Respondents for this study were recruited by individuals enrolled in an introductory marketing course at the University of Alabama. The use of student recruiters has been used successfully in prior research (Keaveney 1995; Jones, Reynolds, Mothersbaugh, and Beatty 2007; Gremler and Gwinner 2008; Gwinner, Gremler, and Bitner 1998; Bitner, Booms, and Tetreault 1990; Wallendorf and Arnould 1991; Holloway and Beatty 2008). These individuals received one course bonus point for each respondent they recruited up to a maximum of five recruits per student.

Students were given in-class training on how to properly recruit respondents before they began their recruitment. The students were also given a handout outlining how to properly recruit respondents. Students were instructed to ask individuals who are either married or live with a partner to go online and participate in the study. Students were also told to ask only non-students to participate in the study. Students only supplied the study URL to their recruited respondents; students did not administer the study themselves. At the end of the survey, the recruited respondents were asked to provide their names and email addresses. Fifty percent of respondents were chosen at random using a random number generator. These respondents were contacted via email and asked to reply if they completed the survey themselves in order to validate the sample. No problems with the data were indicated during this validation procedure. IRB approval was attained prior to conducting this study (Approval #: 10-OR-157-R1).

#### **4.2.5 Measures and Measurement Validity**

The measures used in this study were all drawn from existing measures except that of relationship closeness, which was created for this study. Satisfaction is the extent to which the shopping experience provides pleasure for the shopper (Oliver 1981) and is measured using a

three item measure developed by Voss, Parasuraman, and Grewal (1998). Repatronage anticipation represents the extent to which the shopper looks forward to returning to the retailer sometime in the future and is measured with a three-item scale developed by Jones, Reynolds, and Arnold (2006). Repatronage intent reflects the likelihood that the shopper will return to a retailer at some point in the future and is measured using a three-item scale adapted from Maxham and Netemeyer (2002). Repatronage anticipation differs from repatronage intent in that repatronage anticipation represents a positive eagerness to return to a given retailer. Repatronage intent simply reflects the likelihood that the shopper will return to a given retailer and does not include any positive or negative feelings associated with returning to the retailer.

Loyalty intent represents the degree to which a shopper believes s/he would choose to shop at one store over another and is measured using a three point scale adapted from Harris and Goode (2004). Positive word-of-mouth intent reflects the shopper's likelihood of telling other people positive things about the retailer while negative word-of-mouth intent reflects the shopper's likelihood of saying negative things about the retailer to others. Both are measured using three-items scales adapted from Maxham and Netemeyer (2002). Positive affect represents the total positive emotions experienced by the shopper during the shopping trip while negative affect represents the total negative emotions experienced by the shopper during the shopping trip. Each of these is assessed using an adapted form of the PANAS scale developed by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988).

Several control variables are also assessed in this study. The degree to which a person derives pleasure from the shopping activity is shown to impact how individuals shop and the outcomes from the shopping trip (e.g. Dawson, Bloch, and Ridgeway 1990). Because of this, both personal shopping enjoyment, or the degree to which individuals enjoy shopping, and role

shopping motivation, or the degree to which individuals derive pleasure from shopping for others, are controlled for in this study. These variables are not focal variables in this study but could impact findings.

While the population of this study is limited to married couples or those in live-in partnerships, it is possible that individuals in romantic partnerships may not have the same level of familiarity with one another. Because of this, I also control for the relationship closeness, or the intimacy and familiarity between the purchaser of the product and the user of the product. Relationship closeness is measured using a three-item scale created for this study. While an existing measure for relationship closeness does exist (Berscheid, Snyder, and Omoto 1989), a problem with this measure is that it is very lengthy (greater than 50 items). Because of this, items were developed for this study to measure relationship closeness with a focus given to creating items which could be used in regard to a wide-range of interpersonal relationships. This measure was included in the study pretest, where it demonstrated a high degree of reliability ( $\alpha = 0.949$ ) and was therefore included in this study with no further modification. Finally, age, gender, and zip code are also controlled for in this study. Age and gender have previously been shown to impact customer evaluations of satisfaction and other outcome variables (e.g. Mittal and Kamakura 2001, Homburg and Giering 2001). However, these variables are not of interest in this study and are also controlled.

Before testing the hypotheses, a confirmatory factor analysis was performed with LISREL 8.8 (Jöreskog and Sörbom 2006) on the items from the variables of interest. All items significantly loaded on their intended factors and items with factor loadings below 0.60 were removed. Only one item was removed from further analysis. This item is included in Table 12. Outcome variables were allowed to correlate and the error variance from some individual items

within the same scale were also allowed to correlate, however no items from separate scales were allowed to correlate. The analysis yields good overall fit for the hypothesized twelve-factor model ( $\chi^2 = 1521.15$ ,  $df = 658$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). While the overall  $\chi^2$  is significant, the  $\chi^2 / df = 2.31$ . The model shows acceptable levels of fit, as the RMSEA is 0.058, the NNFI is 0.99, and the CFI is 0.99.

The reliability of each scale was also assessed using coefficient alpha. Scale reliability is deemed acceptable if coefficient alpha is greater than 0.80 (Nunnally and Bernstein 1994). All scales except repatronage intent exhibit acceptable reliability with the lowest coefficient alpha being 0.87. The reliability of repatronage intent is 0.79. Because this scale has been used successfully in prior research (Jones and Reynolds 2006; Walsh, Beatty, and Shui 2009) and the average variance explained exceeds the minimum suggested threshold of 0.50 (Fornell and Larcker 1981), the scale is used as is. Scale items, coefficient alphas, and the average variance extracted can be found in Table 12.

The scale means, standard deviations, and correlations are displayed in Table 13. The Fornell and Larcker (1981) test is used to test the discriminant validity of the measures. In this test, the average variance explained is determined using the factor loadings from the twelve-factor measurement model. The square roots of the average variance explained are then placed on the diagonal of the correlation matrix (Table 13) and compared to the corresponding correlations between the variables across both the row and column. If the square root of the average variance explained is greater than each corresponding variable correlation, discriminant validity is demonstrated. Discriminant validity is demonstrated for all scales in this study except for that of loyalty. The correlation between positive word-of-mouth intent and loyalty is higher

than the square root of the average variance explained by loyalty indicating that discriminant validity may be a problem with this variable.

Several researchers operationalize loyalty as a function of repatronage and word of mouth (e.g. Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman 1996; Price and Arnould 1999). Other researchers, however, take the approach that the two are different, distinct constructs which are generally related and operationalize them as such. Here, loyalty and word of mouth can be seen as individual outcomes from satisfaction (Reynolds and Beatty 1999) or loyalty can be viewed as a moderating variable impacting the influence of satisfaction on word of mouth (Bowman and Narauandas 2001). In this study, I take this second viewpoint with the distinction that loyalty intent is the shopper's belief that s/he will choose the retailer over other similar retailers in the future while positive word-of-mouth intent is the shopper's belief that s/he will tell others positive things about the retailer. Both represent positive actions benefiting the retailer, which could lead to a high degree of correlation between the two variables.

Finally, common method variance (CMV) is also tested for because the independent and dependent variables for some of the relationships being tested in this study were collected at the same time using the same instrument. While research has shown that in most studies, the effect of common method bias is small (e.g. Meade, Watson, and Kroustalis 2007), I do test the degree of CMV present in the data using the method suggested by Williamson, Cote, and Buckley (1989) where the measurement model is compared to the same model that includes an uncorrelated method factor. While the fit statistics given above indicate that the measurement model fit the data well, the fit statistics for the uncorrelated method model do improve the model fit slightly (RMSEA=0.049, NNFI=0.99, CFI=0.99). The  $\chi^2$  difference test of the two models also indicates that the two models do differ significantly ( $\chi^2_{(diff)}(1) = 236.40, p < 0.01$ ).

Therefore, I tested the extent to which CMV is present in the data by calculating the average variance explained by the method factor. Here the method factor accounts for 6.59% of the variance in the model, which is much less than the average of 25% reported by Williamson et al. (1989). Therefore, I conclude that CMV does not appear to be a significant problem with the data.

Table 12  
Study One Survey Items

<b>Source/ Adapted From</b>	<b>Scale/ Items (Coefficient Alpha, Average Variance Explained)</b>	<b>Standardized Loading</b>
Voss, Parasuraman, and Grewal 1998	<b>Satisfaction with Shopping Experience<sup>a</sup></b> <b>(before User's evaluation of product) (CA=0.926; AVE=0.82)</b>	
	I am satisfied with this shopping experience.	0.96
	I am delighted with this shopping experience.	0.93
	I am unhappy with this shopping experience. (Reversed)	0.82
Voss, Parasuraman, and Grewal 1998	<b>Satisfaction with Shopping Experience<sup>a</sup></b> <b>(after User's evaluation of product) (CA=0.928; AVE=0.83)</b>	
	I am satisfied with this shopping experience.	0.97
	I am delighted with this shopping experience.	0.96
	I am unhappy with this shopping experience. (Reversed)	0.79
Jones, Reynolds, and Arnold 2006	<b>Repatronage Anticipation<sup>a</sup> (CA=0.963; AVE=0.87)</b>	
	I look forward to visiting this store again in the future.	0.99
	I always look forward to visiting this store again.	0.93
	No matter how often I visit this store, I always look forward to coming back.	0.87
Maxham and Netemeyer 2002	<b>Repatronage Intent<sup>a</sup> (CA=0.788; AVE=0.60)</b>	
	I will probably visit this store again in the future.	0.91
	It is very unlikely that I will shop at this store in the future. (Reversed)	0.78
	I intend to shop at this store in the future.	0.60
Harris and Goode 2004	<b>Loyalty Intent<sup>a</sup> (CA=0.951; AVE=0.84)</b>	
	I would choose this store over similar stores in the future.	0.87
	Next time I shop for products similar to those in this store, I will choose to shop at this store over other similar stores.	0.91
	I can imagine myself becoming a loyal customer of this store.	0.96

Source/ Adapted From	Scale/ Items (Coefficient Alpha, Average Variance Explained)	Standardized Loading
Maxham and Netemeyer 2002	<b>Positive Word-of-Mouth Intent<sup>a</sup> (CA=0.979; AVE=0.92)</b>	
	I'm likely to say good things about this store.	0.96
	I would recommend this store to my family and friends. I would recommend this store to others.	0.96 0.96
Maxham and Netemeyer 2002	<b>Negative Word-of-Mouth Intent<sup>a</sup> (CA=0.972; AVE=0.92)</b>	
	I'm likely to say bad things about this store.	0.95
	I intend to caution my family and friends against visiting this store. I plan on telling others negative things about this store.	0.97 0.96
Watson, Clark, and Tellegen 1988	<b>Positive Affect<sup>b</sup> (CA=0.957; AVE=0.80)</b>	
	Happy	0.97
	Delighted	0.96
	Interested	0.76
	Pleased Excited	0.94 0.83
Watson, Clark, and Tellegen 1988	<b>Negative Affect<sup>b</sup> (CA=0.968; AVE=0.92)</b>	
	Stressed	0.95
	Frustrated Tense	0.97 0.95
Dawson, Block, and Ridgway 1990	<b>Personal Shopping Enjoyment<sup>a</sup> (CA=0.866; AVE=0.63)</b>	
	I consider shopping a big hassle. (Reversed)	Dropped
	When travelling, I enjoy visiting new and interesting shops.	0.75
	Shopping is generally a lot of fun for me.	0.85
	I enjoy browsing for things even if I cannot buy them yet. I often visit shopping malls and markets just for something to do rather than to buy something specific.	0.79 0.78
Arnold and Reynolds 2003	<b>Role Shopping Motivation<sup>a</sup> (CA=0.915; AVE=0.79)</b>	
	I like shopping for others because when they feel good, I feel good.	0.90
	I enjoy shopping for my friends and family. I enjoy shopping around to find the perfect gift for someone.	0.94 0.82
New	<b>Relationship Closeness<sup>a</sup> (CA=0.890; AVE=0.76)</b>	
	I feel very close to this person.	0.97
	I know a great deal about this person. My relationship with this person is strong.	0.67 0.94

All scales 7-point.

<sup>a</sup> Anchored by "Strongly Disagree" and "Strongly Agree"

<sup>b</sup> Anchored by "Didn't Feel at All" and "Felt Very Much"

Table 13  
Study One Scale Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variable	Mean	Std Dev	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Satisfaction (before user evaluation)	5.14	1.84	<b>0.91</b>											
2. Satisfaction (after user evaluation)	4.74	1.96	0.591**	<b>0.91</b>										
3. Repatronage Anticipation	4.58	1.58	0.729**	0.536**	<b>0.93</b>									
4. Repatronage Intent	5.39	1.28	0.655**	0.492**	0.666**	<b>0.77</b>								
5. Loyalty	4.97	1.52	0.763**	0.541**	0.838**	0.704**	<b>0.91</b>							
6. Positive Word-of-Mouth Intent	4.95	1.64	0.791**	0.561**	0.856**	0.710**	0.917**	<b>0.96</b>						
7. Negative Word-of-Mouth Intent	2.43	1.59	-0.645**	-0.510**	-0.525**	-0.665**	-0.626**	-0.624**	<b>0.96</b>					
8. Positive Affect	4.08	1.87	0.654**	0.705**	0.734**	0.538**	0.692**	0.716**	-0.452**	<b>0.90</b>				
9. Negative Affect	2.86	1.97	-0.560**	-0.734**	-0.505**	-0.503**	-0.509**	-0.527**	0.517**	-0.578**	<b>0.96</b>			
10. Personal Shopping Enjoyment	4.53	1.44	0.111*	-0.090	0.205**	0.107*	0.153**	0.179**	0.031	0.209**	0.000	<b>0.79</b>		
11. Role Shopping Motivation	4.99	1.50	0.115*	0.150**	0.148**	0.117*	0.143**	0.150**	-0.048	0.213**	-0.023	0.638**	<b>0.89</b>	
12. Relationship Closeness	6.48	0.85	0.053	0.024	0.024	0.061	0.088	0.080	-0.075	0.032	-0.025	0.008	0.124*	<b>0.87</b>

Two-tailed test, \* (p<0.05); \*\* (p<0.01)

List-wise deletion, n=409

Square root of the average variance explained in bold on the diagonal

#### 4.2.6 Sample Characteristics

A total of 636 individuals enrolled in the study. First, in order to ensure that the study participants were married or lived with a partner, they were asked to choose which of the following best described them “I am married,” “I am not married, but I live with my partner,” or “I am not married and I do not live with a partner.” Because the scenarios involve making a purchase for your spouse or partner, those respondents choosing the last option were not allowed to complete the survey because they do not meet the study requirements, leaving 541 respondents. An attention check was also included in the study to ensure the respondents were fully reading and paying attention to the study, rather than hurrying through the study. The attention check asked respondents to choose the “strongly agree” option from a seven-point “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” item. One hundred and eleven respondents failed the attention check and were removed from analysis.

A demand check was also included in the study. Here, respondents were asked to indicate what they thought the study was about by choosing among the following options: “I don’t know what the study is about,” “Understanding how people react while shopping in grocery stores,” “Understanding how people shop in general,” or “Other (Please explain what you think this study is about).” Those choosing the other option who said the study was about how other people’s reactions can sway your own feelings were removed from the study. An example of a response given that did not pass the demand check is, “how react[ion]s after the fact in a shopping experience can influence feelings about the original experience.” Eight responses were removed at this point. Finally, thirteen respondents with large amounts of missing data were also removed for a final sample size of 409 responses.

The average age of the respondents is 43.6 years old. A total of 34.2% of the sample is male and 65.8% of the sample is female. Sixty four percent of the sample is the primary shopper in their household, 24% of the sample is the secondary shopper in their household, and 12% of the sample is neither the primary or secondary shopper in their household.

#### **4.2.7 Manipulation, Realism, and Ease of Understanding Checks**

Before any analyses were run on the data, the realism of the scenarios was assessed. A three-item measure was created for this survey to assess realism. Respondents were asked to choose on a seven-point scale the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with the following statements about the scenarios they read in the study “This experience was realistic,” “It is easy for me to imagine this experience happening to me in real life,” and “This experience could happen to me in real life.” The average of the responses to these three items was calculated and compared to the scale mid-point of 3.5 using a t-test. The mean 5.31 for realism is significantly higher than the scale mid-point indicating that respondents felt the scenarios in the study were realistic ( $t = 28.986, p < 0.000$ ).

Next, the degree to which the scenarios were easy to understand was assessed using a one-item question. Again, a seven-point agree-disagree scale was used. Respondents were asked to indicate the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with the statement, “This scenario was easy to understand.” A t-test was used and the mean of the responses, 5.86, was compared to the scale mid-point of 3.5. The results indicate that the scenarios were easy for respondents to understand ( $t = 40.716, p < 0.000$ ).

Finally, the manipulations were checked to ensure that they acted as intended. First a manipulation check was performed regarding the purchaser’s experience at the grocery store. After reading the scenario regarding their experience in the grocery store, respondents were

asked to choose which of the following best describes the scenario they read “This trip to the grocery store was better than I expected it to be,” “This trip to the grocery store was exactly what I expected it to be,” or “This trip to the grocery store was worse than I expected it to be.” The first option represents positive disconfirmation, the second option represents simple confirmation, and the third option represents negative disconfirmation. To perform the manipulation check a cross-tabulation of responses was performed and the results show that the manipulations did work as intended ( $\chi^2 = 367.642, p < 0.000$ ) as can be seen in Table 14.

Table 14  
Study One Purchaser Experience Manipulation Check

		Manipulation Check Items		
		This trip to the grocery store was better than I expected it to be.	This trip to the grocery store was exactly what I expected it to be.	This trip to the grocery store was worse than I expected it to be.
Manipulation	Positive Disconfirmation	91.9%	6.8%	1.4%
	Simple Confirmation	28.9%	68.0%	3.1%
	Negative Disconfirmation	9.0%	23.3%	67.7%

In order to check the manipulation for the user evaluation scenarios, the same procedure was followed. After reading the scenarios regarding how the user reacted to the purchased product, respondents chose one of the following which they felt best described the scenario they read, “The soda I purchased was better than what my spouse/partner wanted,” “The soda I purchased was exactly what my spouse/partner wanted,” or “The soda I purchased was worse than what my spouse/partner wanted.” Again, the first option represents positive disconfirmation,

the second option represents simple confirmation, and the third option represents negative disconfirmation. A cross-tabulation of responses was first performed and the results show that the manipulations did work as intended ( $\chi^2 = 522.949, p < 0.000$ ) as can be seen in Table 15.

Table 15  
Study One User Evaluation Manipulation Check

		Manipulation Check Items		
		The soda I purchased was better than what my spouse/partner wanted.	The soda I purchased was exactly what my spouse/partner wanted.	The soda I purchased was worse than what my spouse/partner wanted.
Manipulation	Positive Disconfirmation	89.3%	7.9%	2.9%
	Simple Confirmation	9%	89.7%	1.4%
	Negative Disconfirmation	5.6%	15.3%	79.0%

### 4.3 Test of the Hypotheses

In order to test H1-H6, analysis of covariance was used. H1 through H3 look at how the user's reaction to the product purchased can change how the shopper feels about the shopping trip. Here, it is proposed that how the user of the product evaluates the product will impact the purchaser's satisfaction such that the purchaser's satisfaction will change depending on how the user reacts to the product. In order to test these hypotheses, the change in satisfaction from before the user reacts to the product to after the user reacts to the product is investigated across the three groups: the user evaluates the product more positively than the shopper evaluates the shopping experience, the user evaluates the product the same as the shopper evaluates the

shopping experience, and the user evaluates the product more negatively than the shopper evaluates the shopping experience. Change in satisfaction is calculated by subtracting the satisfaction response assessed prior to being exposed to the user evaluation manipulation from the satisfaction response following being exposed to the user evaluation manipulation. First, an overall analysis of covariance is performed to determine if there are differences in the change in satisfaction for the three groups and the results show that there are differences among the three groups ( $F = 85.474, p < 0.001$ ). The results of this test can be found in Table 16.

Table 16  
Study One H1-H3 Test of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Difference in Satisfaction				
Source	F(8,394)	<i>p</i>	$\eta^2$	Observed Power
Covariates				
Gender	0.825	0.364	0.002	0.148
Age	0.397	0.529	0.001	0.096
Zip code	2.353	0.126	0.006	0.334
Relationship Closeness	0.190	0.664	0.000	0.072
Role Shopping Motivation	0.950	0.330	0.002	0.163
Personal Shopping Enjoyment	0.064	0.801	0.000	0.057
Factor				
Difference between Purchaser's Shopping Experience and User's Product Evaluation	86.414***	0.000	0.305	1.00

\*\*\*  
 $p < 0.001$

Next, the individual hypotheses are tested. First, H1 predicts that if the user evaluates the product more positively than the purchaser evaluates the overall shopping experience, the purchaser's satisfaction with the shopping experience will become more positive, or increase. To test this hypothesis the change in satisfaction scores is investigated for the group of shoppers whose user evaluates the product more positively than the purchaser evaluates the shopping

experience (the dark gray shaded cells in Table 6). The mean change in satisfaction for this group is 0.67 with a standard deviation of 1.00. A one sample t-test is performed comparing this mean change in satisfaction to a null change in satisfaction of zero. The results show that satisfaction does change in a significant, positive direction, or increases ( $t = 7.746, p < 0.001$ ) Therefore, H1 is supported. If the user evaluates the product more positively than the purchaser evaluates their shopping experience, the purchaser's satisfaction with the shopping experience does increase.

H2 and H3 are similarly tested. H2 predicts that if the user evaluates the product the same as the purchaser evaluates the overall shopping experience, the purchaser's satisfaction with the shopping experience will stay the same. To test this hypothesis the change in satisfaction scores is investigated for the group of shoppers whose user evaluates the product the same as the purchaser evaluates the shopping experience (the unshaded cells in Table 6). The mean change in satisfaction for this group is -0.25 with a standard deviation of .98. A one sample t-test shows that satisfaction does significantly change in a negative direction, or decreases ( $t = -3.019, p < 0.01$ ) therefore H2 is rejected. If the user evaluates the product the same as the purchaser evaluates their shopping experience, the purchaser's satisfaction with the shopping experience actually slightly decreases.

Finally, H3 predicts that if the user evaluates the product more negatively than the purchaser evaluates the overall shopping experience, the purchaser's satisfaction with the shopping experience will decrease. Again, to test this hypothesis the change in satisfaction scores is investigated for the group of shoppers whose user evaluates the product worse than the purchaser evaluates the shopping experience (the light gray shaded cells in Table 6). The mean change in satisfaction for this group is -1.71 with a standard deviation of 2.09. The results of the

one sample t-test show that satisfaction does significantly decrease ( $t = -9.303, p < 0.001$ ) therefore H3 is supported. If the user evaluates the product worse than the purchaser evaluates their shopping experience, the purchaser's satisfaction with the shopping experience does decrease as a result.

H4 through H6 look at the direct impact of the user's evaluation of the product on the purchaser's final satisfaction with the shopping experience. In order to test this hypothesis, analysis of covariance is performed looking at differences in the purchaser's final satisfaction across the three groups of user evaluation of the product. As shown in Table 17, the results show that there are differences in satisfaction for the groups ( $F = 89.603, p < 0.001$ ).

Table 17  
Study One H4-H6 Test of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Purchaser's Final Satisfaction				
Source	F(8,394)	<i>p</i>	$\eta^2$	Observed Power
Covariates				
Gender	2.405	0.122	0.006	0.340
Age	0.468	0.494	0.001	0.105
Zip code	0.134	0.715	0.000	0.065
Relationship Closeness	0.396	0.530	0.001	0.096
Role Shopping Motivation	2.632	0.106	0.007	0.367
Personal Shopping Enjoyment	1.625	0.203	0.004	0.246
Factor				
User's Product Evaluation	89.603***	0.000	0.313	1.00

\*\*\*  
 $p < 0.001$

In order to test the individual hypotheses and to determine how the purchaser's final satisfaction differs across the three groups of users, follow-up independent sample t-tests are performed. First, H4 predicts that the purchaser's final satisfaction will be highest when the user evaluates the product as better than expected (positive disconfirmation). The results show that the purchaser's final satisfaction when the user evaluates the product as better than expected

(positive disconfirmation) ( $M = 5.52$ ) is significantly higher than when the user evaluates the product as worse than expected (negative disconfirmation) ( $M = 3.07$ ,  $t = -12.037$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) but is not different that the purchaser's final satisfaction if the user evaluates the product as just as expected (simple confirmation) ( $M = 5.39$ ,  $t = 0.801$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Therefore, H4 is partially supported.

H5 predicts that when the user evaluates the product as just as expected (simple confirmation) the purchaser's final satisfaction will be higher than that of the purchasers whose users experience negative disconfirmation but lower than that of the purchasers whose users experience positive disconfirmation. The results show that this group's satisfaction ( $M = 5.39$ ) is significantly higher than the purchaser's final satisfaction if the user evaluates the product as worse than expected (negative disconfirmation) ( $M = 3.07$ ,  $t = -11.532$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) but is not different that the purchaser's final satisfaction if the user evaluates the product as better than expected (positive disconfirmation) ( $M = 5.52$ ,  $t = 0.801$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Therefore, H5 is partially supported.

H6 predicts that the purchaser's final satisfaction will be lowest when the user evaluates the product as worse than expected (negative disconfirmation). The results show that this group's satisfaction ( $M = 3.07$ ) is significantly lower than the purchaser's final satisfaction if the user evaluates the product as better than expected (positive disconfirmation) ( $M = 5.52$ ,  $t = -12.037$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and is also different that the purchaser's final satisfaction if the user evaluates the product as just as expected (simple confirmation) ( $M = 5.39$ ,  $t = -11.532$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Therefore, H6 is supported.

Finally H7 and H8 predict that satisfaction will impact various retail-related outcomes of the shopping trip. Rather than testing the hypotheses by performing multiple regression analyses

individually, structural equation modeling is used to test these hypotheses because of its ability to perform multiple regression analyses simultaneously. LISREL 8.8 is used to run the analyses with final satisfaction directly impacting each outcome variable (Jöreskog and Sörbom 2006). The results show good fit for the model ( $\chi^2 = 1227.54$ ,  $df = 283$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $\chi^2 / df = 4.34$ , RMSEA = 0.092, NNFI = 0.98, CFI = 0.98). Satisfaction does significantly impact each of the outcome variables as predicted and the t-values and standardized path loadings for each path from satisfaction are as follows: loyalty ( $t = 21.42$ , 0.98), positive word-of-mouth intent ( $t = 24.77$ , 0.98), positive affect ( $t = 17.70$ , 0.78), repatronage anticipation ( $t = 23.46$ , 0.92), repatronage intent ( $t = 18.17$ , 0.82), negative word-of-mouth intent ( $t = -15.03$ , -0.68), and negative affect ( $t = 12.54$ , -0.60). Therefore, the data supports H7 and H8.

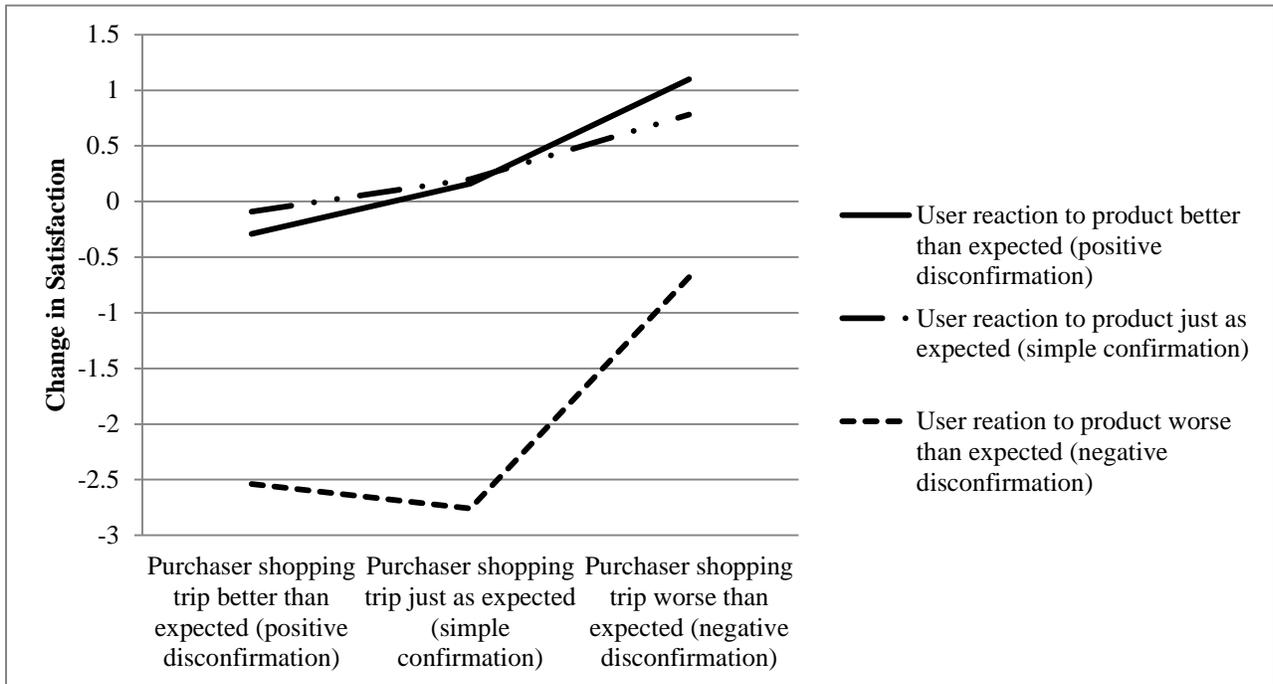
I also performed several supplementary analyses in order to investigate how satisfaction changes for each of the nine groups of purchaser evaluation of the shopping experience and user evaluation of the product combinations created by the manipulations in the survey. Here, I am interested in how the purchaser's satisfaction changes as a result of the user's evaluation of the product for each of the nine groups individually. The mean change in satisfaction for each group is reported in Table 18. Similar to the analyses performed to test H1-H3, the mean change in satisfaction for each of the nine groups is compared to a null change in satisfaction of zero using a one sample t-test. These analyses show that the change in the purchaser's satisfaction with the shopping experience is most important when either the purchaser experiences negative disconfirmation or the user of the product experiences negative disconfirmation. A graph of these changes in satisfaction can be found in Figure 3.

Table 18  
 Study One Supplemental Analyses of Change in Satisfaction based on the User's Reaction to the Purchased Product

		Purchaser Evaluation of the Shopping Experience		
		Negative Disconfirmation	Simple Confirmation	Positive Disconfirmation
User Evaluation of the Product	Negative Disconfirmation	-0.68 (t = -4.678, p < 0.001)	-2.76 (t = -8.121, p < 0.001)	-2.54 (t = -8.239, p < 0.001)
	Simple Confirmation	0.78 (t = 5.703, p < 0.001)	0.20 (t = 1.714, p = 0.093)	-0.09 (t = -0.915, p = 0.365)
	Positive Disconfirmation	1.1 (t = 5.909, p < 0.001)	0.16 (t = 1.818, p = 0.076)	-0.29 (t = -2.171, p < 0.05)

- Purchaser satisfaction rises
- Purchaser satisfaction stays the same
- Purchaser satisfaction falls

Figure 3  
 Study One Supplemental Analyses Graph of Change in Satisfaction based on the User's Reaction to the Purchased Product



Similar to the above supplemental analyses, I also investigated the purchaser's final satisfaction for each of the nine groups of purchaser evaluation of the shopping experience and user evaluation of the product combinations created by the manipulations in the survey. The purchaser's final satisfaction for each group is reported in Table 19. Here, the mean final satisfaction for each of the purchaser groups is compared across the user evaluation groups using an independent-sample t-test in order to determine which groups have differences in the purchaser's final satisfaction. These results reinforce the above findings of H6 that satisfaction is very low if the user does not evaluate the product well regardless of how the shopping experience itself is. However, if the user evaluates the product as expected (simple confirmation)

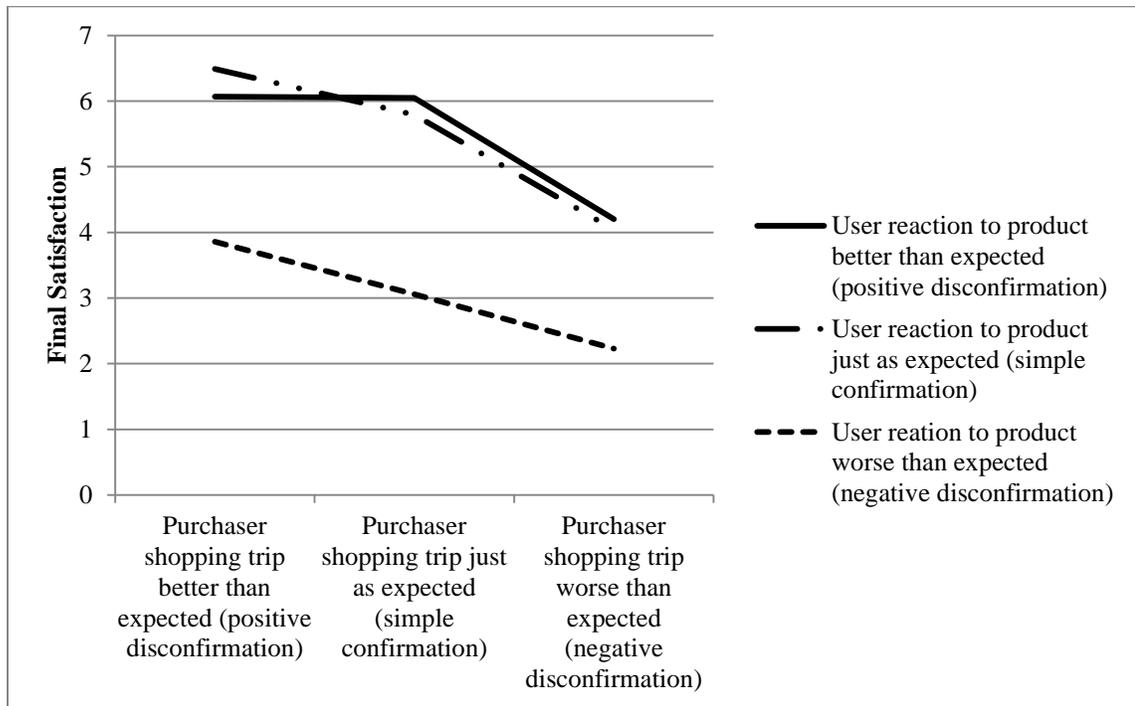
or better than expected (positive disconfirmation), there is no significant difference in the purchaser's satisfaction with the shopping experience. A graph of the final satisfaction for each group can be found in Figure 4.

Table 19  
Study One Supplemental Analyses of Final Satisfaction based on the User's Reaction to the Purchased Product

		Purchaser Evaluation of the Shopping Experience		
		Negative Disconfirmation	Simple Confirmation	Positive Disconfirmation
User Evaluation of the Product	Negative Disconfirmation	2.23 (t = -14.807, p < 0.001)	3.06 (t = -5.781, p < 0.001)	3.86 (t = -3.274, p < 0.01)
	Simple Confirmation	4.04 (t = -3.732, p < 0.001)	5.79 (t = 6.111, p < 0.001)	6.49 (t = 13.055, p < 0.001)
	Positive Disconfirmation	4.2 (t = -2.023, p = 0.05)	6.05 (t = 7.806, p < 0.001)	6.07 (t = 7.437, p < 0.001)

■ Satisfaction is not significantly different between simple confirmation and positive disconfirmation for user evaluation of the product

Figure 4  
 Study One Supplemental Analyses Graph of Change in Satisfaction based on the User's Reaction to the Purchased Product



One question still remaining is: Do purchasers respond more to the users' negative evaluations of the product or positive evaluations of the product? As one final analysis, the differences in the change in satisfaction are assessed to determine if the positive and negative changes in satisfaction are different. First, the change in satisfaction for the combination of purchaser simple confirmation-user negative disconfirmation is compared to the combination of user simple confirmation-purchaser negative disconfirmation to determine when the purchaser's satisfaction changes more with a one unit discrepancy in disconfirmation. In order to test the differences, the valence of the change in satisfaction for each group is compared using a t-test. The results show that when the user's evaluation is more negative than the purchaser's evaluation (purchaser simple confirmation-user negative disconfirmation) ( $M = -2.76$ , valence =

2.76), the decrease in satisfaction is significantly larger ( $t = -5.823$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) than the increase in satisfaction when the user's evaluation is more positive than the purchaser's evaluation (purchaser negative disconfirmation-user simple confirmation) ( $M = 0.78$ , valence = 0.78).

Next, the change in satisfaction for the combination of purchaser positive disconfirmation-user negative disconfirmation is compared to the combination of user positive disconfirmation-purchaser negative disconfirmation to determine when the purchaser's satisfaction changes more with a two unit discrepancy in disconfirmation. In order to test the differences, the valence of the change in satisfaction for each group is compared using a t-test. The results show that when the user's evaluation is more negative than the purchaser's evaluation (purchaser positive disconfirmation, user negative disconfirmation) ( $M = -2.54$ , valence = 2.54), the change in satisfaction is significantly larger ( $t = -4.672$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) than the change in satisfaction when the user's evaluation is more positive than the purchaser's evaluation (purchaser negative disconfirmation, user positive disconfirmation) ( $M = 1.1$ , valence = 1.1). Therefore, the results indicate that purchasers have a stronger negative reaction when the user evaluates the product lower than they evaluate the shopping experience then they have a positive reaction when the user evaluates the product higher than they evaluate the shopping experience. In other words, a negative reaction to the product by the user has a greater impact on the purchaser's satisfaction with the shopping experience than a positive review of the product.

#### **4.4 Conclusion**

The purpose of this study was to investigate when shopping for someone else, how the user of the product's reaction to the product can impact the shopper's own satisfaction. A model of this interaction is developed and hypotheses are presented. The hypotheses are tested using a scenario-based experiment. The results show that when the purchaser of a product experiences

negative disconfirmation, the purchaser's satisfaction is positively impacted by the user's positive evaluation of the product. The results also show that the purchaser's satisfaction also decreases when the user experiences negative disconfirmation, regardless of the purchaser's original satisfaction with the shopping experience.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **STUDY TWO**

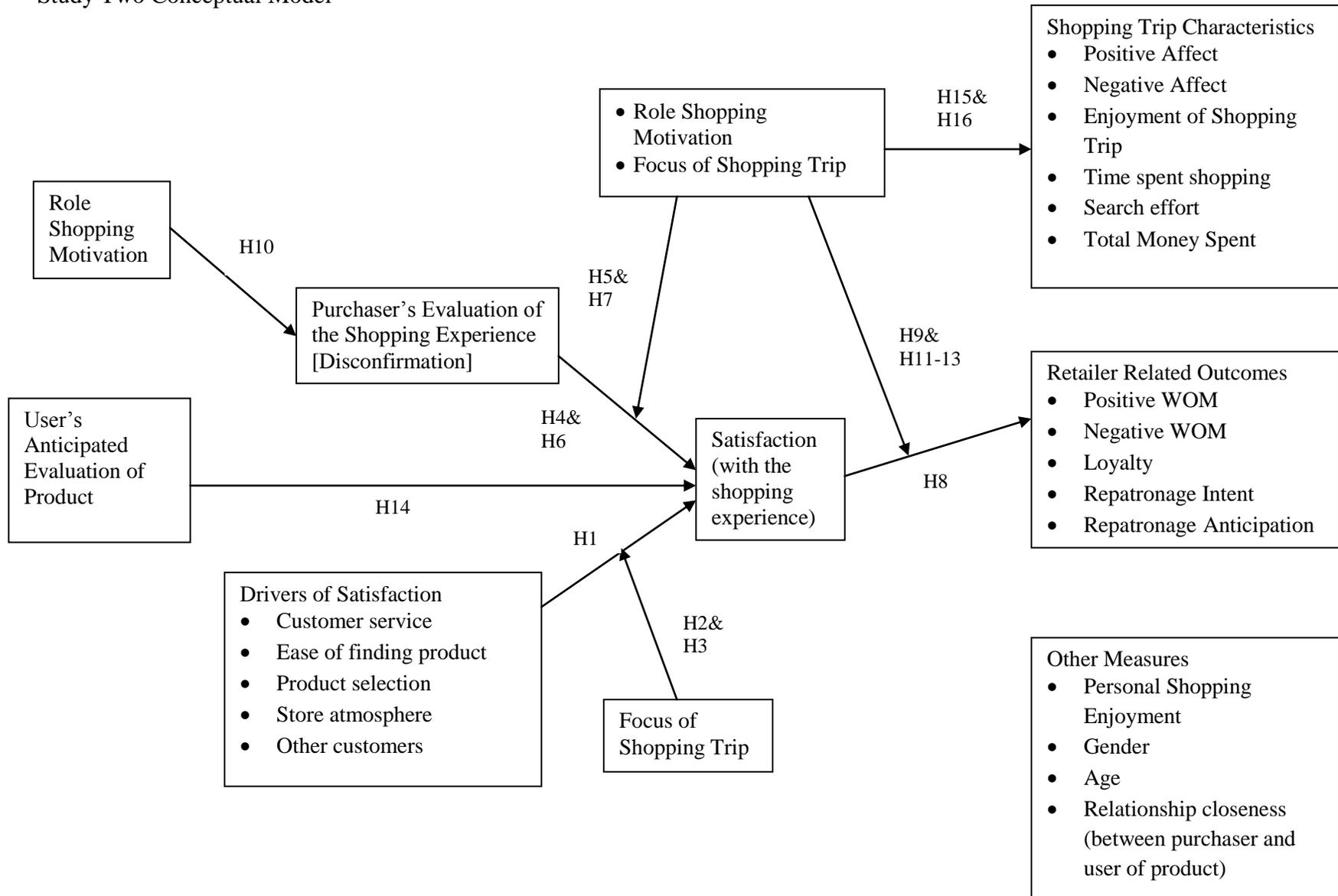
#### **5.0 Introduction**

This chapter addresses the following research questions (1) overall, what are the differences in expectations and outcomes when one is shopping for him/herself versus when one is shopping for someone else? and (2) does role shopping motivation have an impact, or make a difference? The conceptual model is introduced and hypotheses are developed around expectancy disconfirmation theory, shopping motivations, and the principles of altruism and ego-centric thought. The study design, methodology, and results are also presented.

#### **5.1 Hypothesis Development**

The second study seeks to answer the research questions proposed by comparing actual shoppers. This study also builds on expectancy disconfirmation theory by looking at specific expectations held by shoppers and the outcomes associated with the different confirmation/disconfirmations while shopping, both while shopping for someone else and while shopping for yourself. Please see Figure 5 for the model tested in this study.

Figure 5  
Study Two Conceptual Model



### **5.1.1 Drivers of Satisfaction**

The first research question in this dissertation (see section 1.2) seeks to understand if shoppers' expectations are different based on who the shopper is shopping for, whether it is him/herself or someone else. Previous research shows that store employees, store design, service quality, merchandise quality, and price can impact the shopper's store patronage intentions (Baker, Parasuraman, Grewal, and Voss 2002). Similarly (and drawing from exploratory study three), I propose that customer service, ease of finding the desired product, product selection, store atmosphere, and other customers in the store will influence the shopper's satisfaction with the shopping experience. However, some of these drivers of satisfaction may be more important depending on the focus of the shopping trip.

Previous literature in organizational buying shows that the drivers of satisfaction are different across different functional areas (Homburg and Rudolph 2001; Chakraborty, Srivastava, and Marshall 2007). For example, Chakraborty, Srivastava, and Marshall (2007) find that for those in purchasing, management, and finance/accounting (in other words, the purchase decision makers), the seller's competitive prices, credit policy, return policy, and warranty coverage are more important drivers of satisfaction. For in engineering, maintenance, and production (in other words, the users of the industrial products purchased), the seller's technical specifications of products and breadth of product line are more important drivers of satisfaction.

Following from this B2B organizational buying literature, I propose in a B2C context, the drivers of satisfaction may also differ depending on the focus of the shopping trip. For example, when shopping for someone else, aspects of the retailer dealing with purchasing the desired product (here termed "purchase aspects") such as customer service, ease of finding the product, and product selection may be more important because the goal of the trip is to find the product

desired by the other person. Meanwhile, aspects of the retailer which may act to build individual identification (here termed “identification aspects”) such as store atmosphere and other customers may become less important because these aspects generally serve as cues to the type of person who would use the store’s products and help to build individual identification with the retailer (Kotler 1973; Schlosser 1998). When the shopper is not the person using the purchased product, these aspects of the retailer may not serve the shopper in this same way. Therefore the following hypotheses are offered:

H1: The shopper’s perceptions of customer service, ease of finding the desired product, product selection, store atmosphere, and other customers will be positively related to satisfaction. (Replication)

H2: Compared to those shopping for themselves, “purchase aspects” will be more important in influencing satisfaction for those shopping for someone else.

H3: Compared to those shopping for someone else, “identification aspects” will be more important in influencing satisfaction for those shopping for themselves.

### **5.1.2 Impact of Evaluation of the Shopping Trip on Satisfaction**

According to expectancy disconfirmation theory, satisfaction is highest for those experiencing positive disconfirmation (Oliver 1980; 1981). The strength of the individual’s evaluation of an event impacts his/her level of satisfaction such that the stronger the disconfirmation (positive or negative), the stronger the impact on satisfaction and subsequent attitude and behavioral responses (Oliver 1981). In other words, the more shoppers are surprised by the shopping trip, either positively or negatively, the stronger their satisfaction or dissatisfaction will be. When shopping for him/herself, the shopper may have a more defined set of expectations because s/he may be more familiar with the store. This may result in a weaker level of surprise during the shopping trip. When shopping for someone else, however, the

shopper may have fewer expectations going into the shopping trip which may result in stronger levels of surprise during disconfirmation evaluations.

In addition, people have a natural tendency to do helpful things for others, especially for those close to them (Krebs 1970), which can result in an elevated mood state. When shopping for someone else, the shopper is performing a helping act for the person s/he is shopping for, which may result in good feelings for the shopper. This increase in positive feelings from shopping for someone else may amplify the effect of the positive disconfirmation on satisfaction. Similarly, if the shopping experience is worse than expected, the shopper who is shopping for someone else may feel more extreme negative emotions because their efforts at helping the other person may be hindered. Therefore, the relationship between the shopper's evaluation of the shopping trip and satisfaction with the shopping trip may be moderated by focus of the shopping trip such that those shopping for someone else will experience more extreme levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction as a result of their positive or negative disconfirmation evaluations.

H4: The purchaser's evaluation of the shopping trip will impact satisfaction such that as the shopper's disconfirmation increases, satisfaction also increases.

H5: This relationship will be moderated by focus of the shopping trip such that the effect of disconfirmation on satisfaction will be stronger for those shopping for someone else.

When shopping for someone else, shoppers experiencing positive disconfirmation are expected to have greater levels of satisfaction than those shoppers experiencing simple confirmation and negative disconfirmation. Because shoppers who are high in role shopping motivation are participating in an activity they enjoy, they may report greater satisfaction from the positive shopping experience than those who do not enjoy shopping for others. Similarly, because those high in role shopping motivation enjoy the activity of shopping for someone else, the effect of negative disconfirmation on satisfaction may be mitigated in part because they are

engaged in an activity they enjoy. Therefore, the effect of the negative disconfirmation on satisfaction may be greater for those who do not enjoy shopping for others because they are both experiencing a disappointing shopping trip and they are engaged in an activity they do not enjoy.

Therefore, the following hypotheses are offered:

H6: When shopping for someone else, the purchaser's evaluation of the shopping trip will impact satisfaction such that as the shopper's disconfirmation increases, satisfaction also increases.

H7: This relationship will be moderated by role shopping motivation such that the effect of disconfirmation on satisfaction will be stronger as role shopping motivation increases.

### **5.1.3 Impact of Satisfaction on Shopping Trip Outcomes and the Moderating Role of Focus of the Shopping Trip**

The second research question seeks to understand if those shopping for someone else and those shopping for themselves differ in terms of their overall satisfaction and other outcome variables important to retailers. When investigating these variables, such as satisfaction, word of mouth, and repatronage behavior, traditional retailing research generally assumes that the purchaser and the user of the product are the same person. However, because individuals do not process events focusing on themselves and those focusing on others in the same way, there is reason to believe that these two types of shoppers may not necessarily behave the same way while shopping. There is theoretical reason to believe that differentiating these two types of shoppers may allow us to better understand the shopping process and shopping trip outcomes.

According to the principle of egocentric thought, individuals have an easier time recalling events and situations which involve themselves and place greater importance on these events and situations (Aronson 2008, pages 173-76). Research shows that a person has an easier time processing and retrieving information that pertains to him/herself (Markus 1977). We also tend to focus on events involving ourselves while ignoring those involving others (Brenner 1973).

People tend to remember, process, and interpret information when it is encoded in the memory in such a way as to be self-referencing (Rogers, Kuiper, and Kirker 1977). We also have an easier time making self-referent judgments and have more confidence in these judgments when compared to other-referent judgments (Kuiper and Rogers 1979). Somewhat similarly, and drawing from the notion of power, it has previously been shown that when individuals feel powerful, they spend more money on themselves, however, when they are made to feel powerless, they spend more money on others (Rucker, Dubois, and Galinsky 2011).

Because of our tendency to both think about and reflect upon events involving ourselves, when shopping for ourselves, we may be more likely to have heightened awareness during the shopping trip and have stronger emotional reactions in response to the shopping trip when compared to shopping for someone else. Prior research shows that satisfaction can positively impact many variables of interest to retailers such as positive word of mouth, repatronage, and loyalty (e.g. Jones and Reynolds 2006). This potential heightened emotional response to the shopping trip when shopping for ourselves may increase this effect of satisfaction with the shopping trip on these outcomes of the shopping trip. Based on the principle of egocentric thought, when the focus of the shopping trip is on the self, a person may be more satisfied with the shopping trip and subsequently change his/her behavior based on this satisfaction when compared to situations where the focus of the shopping trip is on someone else, therefore:

H8: Satisfaction will be positively related to (a) positive word-of-mouth intent, (b) loyalty, (c) repatronage intent, and (d) repatronage anticipation and negatively related to (e) negative word-of-mouth intent. (Replication)

H9: This relationship will be moderated by focus of the shopping trip such that the effect of satisfaction on the retail outcome variables will be greater for those shopping for themselves compared to those shopping for someone else.

#### **5.1.4 Impact of Satisfaction on Shopping Trip Outcomes and the Moderating Role of Role Shopping Motivation**

The third research questions deals with understanding how a shopper's role shopping motivation impacts the shopper's behavior in regard to outcomes of interest to retailers. Here, I am interested in understanding if a specific hedonic shopping motivation, role shopping motivation, impacts the shopper's behavior. As noted above, some individuals are motivated to shop when the goal of the shopping trip is making a purchase for someone else (Arnold and Reynolds 2003). While this research shows us the types of people who are motivated by shopping for others, we do not know if these individuals behave differently based on this motivation, which may be important for retailers to understand.

In exploratory study two (see section 3.2), which examined situations involving shopping for someone else where the experience was negative, there was evidence that a person's role shopping motivation impacted various outcome variables of interest to retailers (including his/her shopping trip enjoyment, hedonic shopping value, satisfaction with the shopping trip, negative word-of-mouth intent, and repatronage intent). Here, it was found that when individuals are highly motivated to shop for others, or when the shopper receives enjoyment from shopping for others, they are more likely to enjoy the shopping trip, receive hedonic shopping value from the shopping trip, and be satisfied with the shopping trip. Because these individuals have good feelings toward the shopping trip, they may also be less likely to intend to spread negative word of mouth about the retailer and are more likely to intend to return to the retailer in the future. Thus, there is evidence that a person's role shopping motivation may impact his/her perceptions of the shopping trip. Based on this, I believe that individuals who enjoy shopping for others, or those who have high role shopping motivation, may be more likely to evaluate the shopping trip

favorably simply because they are engaged in an activity they enjoy. Similarly, those who do not enjoy shopping for others may be more likely to evaluate the shopping trip unfavorably simply because they are engaged in an activity they do not enjoy, therefore:

H10: When shopping for someone else, as the shopper's role shopping motivation increases, disconfirmation also increases.

Previous research shows that the relationship between satisfaction and various outcome variables can be impacted by personal and situational factors. For example, the positive relationship between change in satisfaction and share of wallet has been shown to be influenced negatively by income and length of the relationship (Cooli, Keiningham, Aksoy, and Hsu 2007). Other authors find that the relationship between satisfaction and word of mouth can be impacted by length of relationship and that the relationship between satisfaction and switching to an alternative is moderated by switching costs (Baumann, Burton, and Elliott 2005). Gender and age have also been shown to moderate the relationship between satisfaction and repurchase behavior (Mittal and Kamakura 2001, Homburg and Giering 2001). The shopper's economic shopping orientation and personalizing shopping orientation can also impact the effect of satisfaction on share-of-purchase (Magi 2003).

Here, I am interested in how a person's role shopping motivation may impact his/her behavior based on his/her satisfaction with the shopping trip. Because of the residual good feelings associated with the act of shopping for someone else, individuals with high role shopping motivation may evaluate the shopping trip more favorably and therefore experience more positive feelings and engage in more favorable behaviors. In other words, if a person enjoys shopping for others, s/he may be more likely to experience satisfaction while shopping for someone else and to engage in positive post-shopping behaviors such as positive word of mouth and repatronage simply because s/he enjoyed the act of shopping for someone else. Similarly,

those who do not enjoy shopping for others, or are low in role shopping motivation, may evaluate the shopping trip more negatively simply because they do not enjoy the act of shopping for others. This negative evaluation may result in decreased satisfaction and decreased likelihood of engaging in positive post-shopping trip behaviors. Specific hypotheses regarding the impact of role shopping motivation on the relationship between satisfaction and the shopping trip outcomes can be found below.

H11: When shopping for others, satisfaction will be positively related to (a) positive word-of-mouth intent, (b) loyalty, (c) repatronage intent, and (d) repatronage anticipation and negatively related to (e) negative word-of-mouth intent. (Replication)

H12: This relationship will be moderated by role shopping motivation such that the positive effect of satisfaction on (a) positive word-of-mouth intent, (b) loyalty, (c) repatronage intent, and (d) repatronage anticipation will be stronger as role shopping motivation increases.

H13: This relationship will be moderated by role shopping motivation such that the negative effect of satisfaction on negative word-of-mouth intent will be stronger as role shopping motivation increases.

### **5.1.5 Role of User's Evaluation of the Product on the Purchaser's Shopping Trip**

#### **Evaluation**

As discussed previously, the user's satisfaction with the product purchased is believed to impact the purchaser's own satisfaction judgments. Thus, in order to test this notion and to replicate the findings from study one (which examined at how the user's evaluation of the product may impact the shopper's own satisfaction), the following hypothesis is offered<sup>1</sup>:

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<sup>1</sup> Please note that the user's anticipated reaction to the product purchased is used here. Because the purchaser is surveyed as s/he is leaving the retail store, the purchaser does not know the user's actual reaction to the product at the time of measurement. See methodology below.

H14: The purchaser's anticipation of the user's satisfaction with the product purchased will impact the purchaser's own satisfaction such that as the purchaser's anticipation of the user's satisfaction increases, the purchaser's own satisfaction will increase.

#### **5.1.6 Focus of the Shopping Trip and Shopping Trip Characteristics**

Shopping for others has been shown to be a general positive motivation to shop for some people (Arnold and Reynolds 2003). When a shopper finds shopping for others to be enjoyable and is engaged in this activity, s/he may exert more effort in finding the product desired by the other person and to spend more time on the activity, which may increase the amount of money spent while shopping. Because the shopper is enjoying the act of shopping for someone else, s/he may also express more positive affect, less negative affect, and find the shopping trip more enjoyable when compared to those shopping for themselves. However, if the shopper shopping for someone else does not inherently enjoy this activity, or is low in role shopping motivation, s/he may report lower positive affect, higher negative affect, and less enjoyment with the shopping trip compared to those shopping for themselves, therefore:

H15: Those shopping for someone else will report (a) a longer time spent in the store (b) spending more money, (c) higher search effort, (d) greater positive affect, (e) less negative affect, and (f) greater enjoyment with the shopping trip compared to those shopping for themselves, but only if they are high in role shopping motivation.

#### **5.1.7 Role Shopping Motivation and Shopping Trip Characteristics**

As stated earlier, some individuals receive greater hedonic value from shopping for someone else than other people do (Arnolds and Reynolds 2003). When shopping for someone else, those who enjoy shopping for others, or are high in role shopping motivation, may spend a longer time in the store when compared to shoppers low in role shopping motivation, because those high in role shopping motivation are enjoying the activity of shopping for the other person for its own sake. This increased time spent in the store may also cause these high role shopping motivation shoppers to spend more money in the store because they are exposing themselves to

more of the products sold by the retailer. Those low in role shopping motivation may expend less effort while shopping because they may be quicker to give up their search for the product they intend to buy because they are engaged in an activity they are not enjoying.

Because shoppers high in role shopping motivation enjoy the activity of shopping for someone else, they may report higher positive affect and less negative affect during the shopping trip because they were engaged in an activity they enjoy when compared to those low in role shopping motivation. These high role shopping motivation shoppers may also report higher enjoyment with the shopping trip because they are engaged in an activity they enjoy, therefore:

H16: Of the shoppers shopping for someone else, the shopper's role shopping motivation will be positively related to (a) time spent in the store, (b) money spent, (c) search effort, (d) positive affect, and (e) enjoyment with the shopping trip, and negatively related to (f) negative affect.

## **5.2 Methodology**

### **5.2.1 Research Design**

In order to test the proposed hypotheses, a survey of mall shoppers is used. Survey research is chosen over other methods, and particularly key informant techniques, because the variables of interest pertain to individual feelings and behaviors (i.e. satisfaction, affect, behavioral intentions). Because these variables cannot be easily observed by others, survey methodology is best suited for measuring them (Bernard 2000, pages 349-350). Using a survey also allows for comparisons of those shopping for themselves versus those shopping for someone else in an actual retail setting, allowing for increased realism in responses.

### **5.2.2 Pretest Results**

This survey was pretested in order to refine the measures used in the study. The pretest was performed on a sample similar to the one to be used in the actual study. I asked family and friends to complete an online survey similar to the one to be used in the main study. Respondents

were asked to complete the survey in regard to their last shopping trip at a mall. The focus of the pretest was on refining the survey in order to ensure that it is easy to complete, measuring the length of time necessary to complete the survey, and to check the reliability of the measures. I also asked respondents what they thought of the survey, what their reaction to the survey was, and for suggestions for improving the survey. Respondents did not indicate problems with the survey except where noted below regarding the satisfaction with the purchase items. A total of 35 individuals participated in the pretest.

Respondents indicated how easy the survey was to understand by indicating how much they agreed with the statement “This survey is easy to understand” on a scale from 1 “strongly disagree” to 7 “strongly agree.” Using a one sample t-test, the mean of the responses (6.34) was tested against the scale midpoint (3.5) and it was found to be significantly different from the scale midpoint. Thus, there is indication that respondents felt the survey was easy to understand. The start and end times for each response were also measured in order to determine how long it takes respondents to fill out the survey. The average time of completion was ten minutes with a mode of eight and median of nine minutes. Because the pretest was conducted online, respondents had the ability to leave the survey and return to it later which may slightly inflate the time it took respondents to complete the survey. Thus, survey respondents at the mall are likely to take slightly less time to fill out the survey because they are less likely to engage in other activities while taking the survey or to walk away from the survey and return to it at a later time.

All measures used were drawn from existing literature and adapted for this study except the relationship closeness measure which was created for this study. These measures can be found in Table 20. Construct reliability is evaluated using Cronbach’s alpha. All of the measures exhibit acceptable levels of reliability, with the minimum coefficient alpha at 0.77 except the

measure for satisfaction with the purchase. This scale had a coefficient alpha of 0.44. Several respondents indicated that it was confusing to answer the satisfaction measures for satisfaction with the shopping trip and satisfaction with the purchase because the wording was the same (changing only the focus: purchase or shopping experience). Because of this, I removed satisfaction with the purchase from the actual survey because this is not a focal variable in this study. The means, standard deviations, and correlations are displayed in Table 21. The focus of the shopping trip, type of purchase (if the purchase made was for someone else), total time spent shopping, total money spent, disconfirmation, and drivers of satisfaction were also measured.

A confirmatory factor analysis was also performed on the scale items using LISREL 8.8 (Jöreskog and Sörbom 2006). All variables loaded significantly on their intended factors with the exception of three items. The item “surprised” did not load significantly onto the construct positive affect indicating this item should be dropped from this scale. Two items did not load significantly onto the construct satisfaction with the purchase. The reliability with this scale is also problematic, therefore, for the main study this scale was removed. Because of the small sample size used in the survey pretest (see Hunt, Sparkman, and Wilcox 1982), the sample size is less than the number of parameters estimated, therefore fit statistics are not reported here.

Table 20  
Study Two Pretest Survey Items

<b>Source/ Adapted From</b>	<b>Scale/ Items (Coefficient Alpha)</b>	<b>Standardized Loading</b>
Voss, Parasuraman, and Grewal 1998	<b>Satisfaction with Product (User)<sup>a</sup> (0.806)</b> They will be/were satisfied with this product. They will be/were delighted with this product. They will be/were unhappy with this product. (Reversed)	0.54 0.71 0.51

<b>Source/ Adapted From</b>	<b>Scale/ Items (Coefficient Alpha)</b>	<b>Standardized Loading</b>
Voss, Parasuraman, and Grewal 1998	<b>Satisfaction with Shopping Experience<sup>a</sup> (0.77)</b>	
	I was satisfied with this shopping experience.	0.53
	I was delighted with this shopping experience.	0.43
	I was unhappy with this shopping experience. (Reversed)	0.59
Voss, Parasuraman, and Grewal 1998	<b>Satisfaction with Purchase<sup>a</sup> (Purchaser) (0.466)</b>	
	I was satisfied with this purchase.*	0.26
	I was delighted with this purchase.	0.55
	I was unhappy with this purchase.* (Reversed)	0.29
Jones, Reynolds, and Arnold 2006	<b>Repatronage Anticipation<sup>a</sup> (0.947)</b>	
	I look forward to visiting this store again in the future.	
	I always look forward to visiting this store again.	0.66
	No matter how often I visit this store, I always look forward to coming back.	0.67 0.64
Maxham and Netemeyer 2002	<b>Repatronage Intent<sup>a</sup> (0.979)</b>	
	I will probably visit this store again in the future.	0.70
	It is very unlikely that I will shop at this store in the future. (Reversed)	0.66
	I intend to shop at this store in the future.	0.70
Harris and Goode 2004	<b>Loyalty Intent<sup>a</sup> (0.87)</b>	
	I would choose this store over similar stores in the future.	0.59
	Next time I shop for products similar to those in this store, I will choose to shop at this store over other similar stores.	0.55
	I can imagine myself becoming a loyal customer of this store.	0.65
Maxham and Netemeyer 2002	<b>Positive Word-of-Mouth Intent<sup>a</sup> (0.99)</b>	
	I'm likely to say good things about this store.	0.70
	I would recommend this store to my family and friends.	0.70
	I would recommend this store to others.	0.70
Maxham and Netemeyer 2002	<b>Negative Word-of-Mouth Intent<sup>a</sup> (0.969)</b>	
	I'm likely to say bad things about this store.	0.65
	I intend to caution my family and friends against visiting this store.	0.70
	I plan on telling others negative things about this store.	0.68
Baker, Parasuraman, Grewal, and Voss 2002	<b>Search Effort<sup>a</sup> (0.942)</b>	
	In general, searching for this product required a lot of effort.	0.65
	I had to search too hard to find this product.	0.66
	It was difficult searching for this product.	0.67

Source/ Adapted From	Scale/ Items (Coefficient Alpha)	Standardized Loading
Watson, Clark, and Tellegen 1988	<b>Positive Affect<sup>b</sup> (0.841)</b>	
	Surprised*	0.17
	Happy	0.53
	Delighted	0.60
	Interested	0.44
	Pleased	0.54
	Excited	0.58
Watson, Clark, and Tellegen 1988	<b>Negative Affect<sup>b</sup> (0.907)</b>	
	Stressed	0.66
	Frustrated	0.69
	Tense	0.52
Roehm, Pullins, and Roehm 2002	<b>Shopping Trip Enjoyment<sup>a</sup> (0.807)</b>	
	Overall, I really enjoyed this shopping trip before making my purchase.	0.60
	I consider this shopping trip to have been a big hassle. (Reversed)	0.52
	This shopping trip was generally a lot of fun for me.	0.52
Dawson, Block, and Ridgway 1990	<b>Personal Shopping Enjoyment<sup>a</sup> (0.886)</b>	
	I consider shopping a big hassle. (Reversed)	0.63
	When travelling, I enjoy visiting new and interesting shops,	0.54
	Shopping is generally a lot of fun for me.	0.67
	I enjoy browsing for things even if I cannot buy them yet.	0.58
	I often visit shopping malls and markets just for something to do rather than to buy something specific.	0.38
Arnold and Reynolds 2003	<b>Role Shopping Motivation<sup>a</sup> (0.829)</b>	
	I like shopping for others because when they feel good, I feel good.	0.55
	I enjoy shopping for my friends and family.	0.66
	I enjoy shopping around to find the perfect gift for someone.	0.47
New	<b>Relationship Closeness<sup>a</sup> (0.989)</b>	
	I feel very close to this person.	0.71
	I know a great deal about this person.	0.69
	My relationship with this person is strong.	0.69

All scales 7-point.

<sup>a</sup> Anchored by "Strongly Disagree" and "Strongly Agree"

<sup>b</sup> Anchored by "Didn't Feel at All" and "Felt Very Much"

Table 21  
Study Two Pretest Scale Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variable	Mean	Std Dev	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. User Satisfaction	6.58	0.62	1														
2. Relationship Closeness	6.33	1.29	0.73*	1													
3. Shopping Trip Enjoyment	4.92	1.24	0.41	0.40	1												
4. Satisfaction with Shopping Experience	5.39	1.11	0.05	0.14	0.71**	1											
5. Positive Affect	4.28	1.49	0.14	0.39	0.63**	0.65**	1										
6. Negative Affect	2.20	1.46	0.09	0.15	-0.70**	-0.62**	-0.36*	1									
7. Satisfaction with Purchase	5.31	1.55	0.44	0.44	0.49**	0.61**	0.70**	-0.12	1								
8. Search Effort	2.43	1.38	0.20	0.12	-0.38*	-0.56**	-0.32	0.65**	-0.18	1							
9. Repatronage Anticipation	4.83	1.60	-0.23	0.12	0.51**	0.68**	0.49**	-0.54**	0.44**	-0.49**	1						
10. Repatronage Intent	5.84	1.43	-0.32	-0.16	0.46**	0.50**	0.33	-0.62**	0.09	-0.52**	0.80**	1					
11. Loyalty	5.08	1.33	-0.05	0.25	0.55**	0.73**	0.48**	-0.60**	0.30	-0.47**	0.81**	0.76**	1				
12. Positive Word of Mouth Intent	5.42	1.52	-0.07	0.24	0.61**	0.73**	0.58**	-0.59**	0.44**	-0.53**	0.80**	0.66**	0.78**	1			
13. Negative Word of Mouth Intent	1.93	1.31	0.22	0.02	-0.51**	-0.74**	-0.47**	0.72**	-0.22	0.63**	-0.73**	-0.73**	-0.79**	-0.81**	1		
14. Personal Shopping Enjoyment	4.03	1.47	0.55	0.56	0.38*	0.37*	0.28	-0.25	0.25	-0.30	0.41*	0.30	0.38*	0.49**	-0.18	1	
15. Role Shopping Motivation	4.57	1.50	0.52	0.66*	0.21	0.24	0.25	0.07	0.22	-0.14	0.24	0.04	0.19	0.34*	0.03	0.67**	1

Two-Tailed test, N=35 except for user satisfaction and relationship closeness where N=11

\*p < 0.05 (2-tailed).

\*\*p < 0.01 (2-tailed).

### **5.2.3 Data Collection Procedures**

The survey for this study consisted of established and new scales. Respondents were shoppers at mid-sized mall in the southeastern United States. Surveys were collected over a period of two and a half weeks from September 26, 2011 to October 12, 2011. Two undergraduate students aided in the collection of surveys. These students were trained in proper data collection procedures. I also collected data alongside the students for several days so that they could see how to properly administer the survey and ask questions if needed.

Shoppers were approached by the researcher as they left the mall and asked to complete a survey based on their experience at one retail store at the mall. The surveys were paper-and-pencil and took approximately eight to ten minutes to complete. Respondents were approached as they left the mall and were asked if they would mind participating in a survey that was being conducted by the University of Alabama in conjunction with the mall. These potential respondents were told the survey would take approximately ten minutes to complete. If respondents gave verbal consent to participate, they were asked if they were nineteen years old or older. Those under nineteen were told they could not participate. Respondents were asked if they made a purchase at a store in the mall during their shopping trip. Those that did make a purchase were given the study survey on a clipboard and asked to answer the questions thinking about one particular store they shopped at and did make a purchase. Those shoppers who did not make a purchase were given a separate survey regarding a store they visited in the mall. Respondents completed the survey on their own. After the survey was completed, respondents were given a card redeemable for a sandwich at the mall. Seven hundred and fifty total surveys were collected, 500 of which were the study survey involving making a purchase. Two hundred and fifty surveys were given to those who did not make a purchase and are not included in

further analysis. Approximately 983 individuals were approached for the study and declined to enroll, for a total response rate of 43.28%.

In order to reduce researcher biases, every other person leaving the mall was asked to take the survey. Shoppers shopping alone or in a pair were asked to participate in the study. Individuals in groups of three or more or pairs of shoppers who were couples were not approached as groups of shoppers and couples have been shown to shop differently than those shopping alone (e.g. Wells and Lo Sciuto 1966; Borgess, Chebat, and Babin 2010; Mangelburg, Doney, and Bristol 2004; Kiecker and Hartman 1993). Shoppers were surveyed at each mall exit during various days and times. This helps ensure that the sample is as representative of the population of this mall's shoppers as possible (Bush and Hair 1985; Beatty and Ferrell 1998). IRB approval was attained prior to collecting this data (Approval #: 10-OR-157-R1) and the approval form can be found in Appendix A.

#### **5.2.4 Measures and Measurement Validity**

As in study one, the measures used in this study were all drawn from existing measures except that of relationship closeness, which was created for this study. Disconfirmation is the degree to which the actual shopping experience differs from the shopper's expectations of the shopping experience (Oliver 1981) and is measured using a two-item scale adapted from Oliver, Rust, and Varki (1997). Satisfaction is the extent to which the shopping experience provides pleasure for the shopper (Oliver 1981) and is measured using a three item scale developed by Voss, Parasuraman, and Grewal (1998). For those respondents shopping for someone else, the degree to which the shopper believes the user of the product will be satisfied with the product purchased was also assessed using the same Voss, Parasuraman, and Grewal (1998) satisfaction scale.

Repatronage anticipation represents the extent to which the shopper looks forward to returning to the retailer sometime in the future and is measured with a three-item scale developed by Jones, Reynolds, and Arnold (2006). Repatronage intent reflects the likelihood that the shopper will return to a retailer at some point in the future and is measured using a three-item scale adapted from Maxham and Netemeyer (2002). Repatronage anticipation differs from repatronage intent in that repatronage anticipation represents a positive eagerness to return to a given retailer. Repatronage intent simply reflects the likelihood that the shopper will return to a given retail and does not include and positive or negative feelings associated with returning to the retailer.

Loyalty intent represents the degree to which a shopper believes s/he would choose to shop at one store over another and is measured using a three point scale adapted from Harris and Goode (2004). Positive word-of-mouth intent reflects the shopper's likelihood of telling other people positive things about the retailer while negative word-of-mouth intent reflects the shopper's likelihood of saying negative things about the retailer to others. Both are measured using three-items scales adapted from Maxham and Netemeyer (2002).

Positive affect represents the total positive emotions experienced by the shopper during the shopping trip while negative affect represents the total negative emotions experienced by the shopper during the shopping trip. Each of these is assessed using an adapted form of the PANAS scale developed by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988). Shopping trip enjoyment reflects the degree to which the shopping experience itself provides pleasure outside of making a purchase and is assessed using a three-item scale from Roehm, Pullins, and Roehm (2002). Search effort is the amount of work the shopper must give to finding the product in the store and is measured using a three-item scale from Baker, Parasuraman, Grewal, and Voss (2002). Role shopping

motivation reflects the degree to which individuals derive pleasure from shopping for others and is measured using a three item scale developed by Arnold and Reynolds (2003).

In addition to the above measures, the survey also asked about several other aspects of the shopping trip. First, participants in the study were asked to indicate one store they shopped at and made a purchase in order to answer the survey questions about one particular store in the mall. This was later coded to be used as the control variable store type. Respondents were then asked whether they were shopping for themselves or someone else and if they were shopping for someone else, they were asked to indicate if the purchase they made was a gift or not. Respondents were also asked to indicate from 1 “not at all important,” to 7 “very important” the importance of each of the following during the shoppers’ visit to the store: (1) the overall service provided by the employees, (2) the ease of finding the product, (3) the products sold at this store, (4) the store’s atmosphere, and (5) other customers shopping in the store. Finally, respondents were also asked to indicate how long they spent shopping in the store, how much money they spent at the store, how often they shop at the mall, and how often they shop at the store along with providing their gender, age, income, zip code.

Several control variables are also assessed in this study. As in study one, personal shopping enjoyment, or the degree to which individuals enjoy shopping in general, is controlled for in this study because prior research shows that this variable can impact the shopping trip (Dawson, Bloch, and Ridgeway 1990). Relationship closeness, or the intimacy and familiarity between the purchaser of the product and the user of the product, is also controlled for. Relationship closeness is measured using a three-item scale created for this study. Additional control variables in this study are: store type (coded as 1:department or 2:specialty), gender (coded as 1:male or 2:female), age, zip code, income, how often the respondent shops at the

store, how often the respondent shops at the mall, the amount of time spent shopping at the store, and the amount of money spent at the store. Because these are not focal variables in this study but could impact findings, they are controlled for in the data analysis. The nominal control variables store type, zip code, and gender were included in the analyses as is. A significant positive effect for store type would indicate that specialty stores have a stronger effect on the outcome variables. Similarly, a significant positive effect for gender would indicate that females have higher responses to the outcome variables. Finally, a significant effect for zip code would indicate differences exist in responses based on where the individual lives.

Similar to study one, a confirmatory factor analysis was performed with LISREL 8.8 (Jöreskog and Sörbom 2006) on the items from the variables of interest. All items significantly loaded on their intended factors and items with factor loadings below 0.60 were removed. Five items were removed due to low factor loadings. These items are listed in Table 22. Outcome variables were allowed to correlate and the error variance from some individual items within the same scale were also allowed to correlate, however no items from separate scales were allowed to correlate. The analysis yields good overall fit for the hypothesized fifteen-factor model ( $\chi^2 = 1537.28$ ,  $df = 779$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). While the overall  $\chi^2$  is significant, the  $\chi^2 / df = 1.97$ . The model shows acceptable levels of fit as RMSEA is 0.049, NNFI is 0.96, and CFI is 0.97.

The reliability of each scale was also assessed using Cronbach's alpha. Scale reliability is deemed acceptable if coefficient alpha is greater than 0.80 (Nunnally and Bernstein 1994). All scales exhibit acceptable reliability with the exception of shopping trip enjoyment which has a reliability of 0.70. Because this scale has been used successful in prior research (Roehm, Pullins, and Roehm 2002) and because the average variance explained exceeds the recommended level of

0.50 (Fornell and Larcker 1981), the scale is used in this study. Scale items, coefficient alphas, and the average variance extracted can be found in Table 22.

The scale means, standard deviations, and correlations are displayed in Table 23. As in study one, the Fornell and Larcker (1981) test is used to test the discriminant validity of the measures. The average variance explained is determined using the factor loadings from the fifteen-factor measurement model. The square roots of the average variance explained are then placed on the diagonal of the correlation matrix (Table 23) and compared to the corresponding correlations between the variables across both the row and column. If the square root of the average variance explained is greater than each corresponding variable correlation, discriminant validity is demonstrated. Discriminant validity is demonstrated for all scales in this study.

Finally, common method variance (CMV) is also tested for because the independent and dependent variables in this study were collected at the same time using the same instrument. Again, I use the method suggested by Williamson et al. (1989) where the measurement model is compared to the same model that includes an uncorrelated method factor. The fit statistics given above indicate that the measurement model does fit the data well. However, the fit statistics for the uncorrelated method model do improve the model fit slightly (RMSEA=0.042, NNFI=0.97, CFI=0.98). The  $\chi^2$  difference test of the two models also indicates that the two models do differ significantly ( $\chi^2_{(diff)}(43) = 229.45, p < 0.01$ ). I tested the extent to which CMV is present in the data by calculating the average variance explained by the method factor. The method factor accounts for 16.5% of the variance in the model, which is less than the average of 25% reported by Williamson et al. (1989). Therefore, I conclude that CMV does not appear to be a significant problem with the data.

Table 22  
Study Two Scale Items

<b>Source/ Adapted From</b>	<b>Scale/ Items (Coefficient Alpha, Average Variance Explained)</b>	<b>Standardized Loading</b>
Oliver, Rust, and Varki 1997	<b>Disconfirmation (CA=0.88; AVE=0.72)</b> Overall, when compared to my expectations, I found this visit to this store to be <sup>a</sup>	0.84
	Compared to how satisfied I expected to be with this visit to this store, I found that I was <sup>b</sup>	0.86
Voss, Parasuraman, and Grewal 1998	<b>Satisfaction with Shopping Experience<sup>c</sup> (CA=0.83; AVE=0.65)</b> I am satisfied with this shopping experience.	0.80
	I am delighted with this shopping experience.	0.81
	I am unhappy with this shopping experience. (Reversed)	Dropped
Jones, Reynolds, and Arnold 2006	<b>Repatronage Anticipation<sup>c</sup> (CA=0.92; AVE=0.69)</b> I look forward to visiting this store again in the future.	0.80
	I always look forward to visiting this store again.	0.85
	No matter how often I visit this store, I always look forward to coming back.	0.84
Maxham and Netemeyer 2002	<b>Repatronage Intent<sup>c</sup> (CA=0.82; AVE=0.63)</b> I will probably visit this store again in the future.	0.81
	It is very unlikely that I will shop at this store in the future. (Reversed)	Dropped
	I intend to shop at this store in the future.	0.78
Harris and Goode 2004	<b>Loyalty Intent<sup>c</sup> (CA=0.88; AVE=0.60)</b> I would choose this store over similar stores in the future.	0.76
	Next time I shop for products similar to those in this store, I will choose to shop at this store over other similar stores.	0.69
	I can imagine myself becoming a loyal customer of this store.	0.86
Maxham and Netemeyer 2002	<b>Positive Word-of-Mouth Intent<sup>c</sup> (CA=0.96; AVE=0.80)</b> I'm likely to say good things about this store.	0.91
	I would recommend this store to my family and friends.	0.89
	I would recommend this store to others.	0.89
Maxham and Netemeyer 2002	<b>Negative Word-of-Mouth Intent<sup>c</sup> (CA=0.92; AVE=0.72)</b> I'm likely to say bad things about this store.	0.86
	I intend to caution my family and friends against visiting this store.	0.86
	I plan on telling others negative things about this store.	0.82

<b>Source/ Adapted From</b>	<b>Scale/ Items (Coefficient Alpha, Average Variance Explained)</b>	<b>Standardized Loading</b>
Baker, Parasuraman, Grewal, and Voss 2002	<b>Search Effort<sup>c</sup> (CA=0.84; AVE=0.66)</b> In general, searching for this product required a lot of effort I had to search too hard to find this product It was difficult searching for this product	0.65 0.94 0.83
Roehm, Pullins, and Roehm 2002	<b>Shopping Trip Enjoyment<sup>c</sup> (CA=0.70; AVE=0.51)</b> Overall, I really enjoyed this shopping trip before making my purchase. I consider this shopping trip to be a big hassle. (Reversed) This shopping trip was generally a lot of fun for me.	0.75 Dropped 0.67
Watson, Clark, and Tellegen 1988	<b>Positive Affect<sup>d</sup> (CA=0.90; AVE=0.57)</b> Happy Delighted Interested Pleased Excited	0.77 0.76 0.77 0.79 0.68
Watson, Clark, and Tellegen 1988	<b>Negative Affect<sup>d</sup> (CA=0.90; AVE=0.70)</b> Stressed Frustrated Tense	0.80 0.92 0.78
Arnold and Reynolds 2003	<b>Role Shopping Motivation<sup>c</sup> (CA=0.89; AVE=0.69)</b> I like shopping for others because when they feel good, I feel good. I enjoy shopping for my friends and family. I enjoy shopping around to find the perfect gift for someone.	0.81 0.86 0.78
Dawson, Block, and Ridgway 1990	<b>Personal Shopping Enjoyment<sup>c</sup> (CA=0.85; AVE=0.53)</b> I consider shopping a big hassle. (Reversed) When travelling, I enjoy visiting new and interesting shops. Shopping is generally a lot of fun for me. I enjoy browsing for things even if I cannot buy them yet. I often visit shopping malls and markets just for something to do rather than to buy something specific.	Dropped 0.70 0.83 0.75 0.63
New	<b>Relationship Closeness<sup>c</sup> (CA=0.97; AVE=0.85)</b> I feel very close to this person. I know a great deal about this person. My relationship with this person is strong.	0.89 0.92 0.95

<b>Source/ Adapted From</b>	<b>Scale/ Items (Coefficient Alpha, Average Variance Explained)</b>	<b>Standardized Loading</b>
Voss, Parasuraman, and Grewal 1998	<b>User Anticipated Satisfaction with the Purchase<sup>c</sup></b> <b>(CA=0.90; AVE=0.82)</b>	
	They [the person the product was purchased for] will be satisfied with this purchase.	1.08
	They will be delighted with this purchase.	0.69
	They will be unhappy with this purchase. (Reversed)	Dropped

All scales 7-point.

<sup>a</sup> Anchored by "Much Worse" and "Much Better"

<sup>b</sup> Anchored by "Much Less Satisfied" and "Much More Satisfied"

<sup>c</sup> Anchored by "Strongly Disagree" and "Strongly Agree"

<sup>d</sup> Anchored by "Didn't Feel at All" and "Felt Very Much"

Table 23  
Study Two Scale Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variable	Mean	Std Dev	N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Disconfirmation	5.49	1.18	398	<b>0.85</b>														
2. Satisfaction (after user evaluation)	5.97	1.13	399	0.42**	<b>0.81</b>													
3. Repatronage Anticipation	5.91	1.21	399	0.40**	0.59**	<b>0.83</b>												
4. Repatronage Intent	6.32	.98	398	0.28**	0.47**	0.66**	<b>0.80</b>											
5. Loyalty	5.68	1.20	398	0.44**	0.54**	0.67**	0.56**	<b>0.77</b>										
6. Positive Word-of-Mouth Intent	6.09	1.11	398	0.43**	0.59**	0.73**	0.66**	0.76**	<b>0.90</b>									
7. Negative Word-of-Mouth Intent	1.55	1.23	397	-0.08	-0.18**	-0.25**	-0.32**	-0.17**	-0.26**	<b>0.85</b>								
8. Search Effort	2.14	1.42	397	-0.19**	-0.28**	-0.29**	-0.33**	-0.27**	-0.26**	0.32**	<b>0.82</b>							
9. Shopping Trip Enjoyment	5.59	1.23	392	0.40**	0.67**	0.57**	0.40**	0.52**	0.56**	-0.14**	-0.23**	<b>0.71</b>						
10. Positive Affect	5.23	1.32	399	0.46**	0.61**	0.53**	0.42**	0.50**	0.54**	-0.07	-0.18**	0.63**	<b>0.75</b>					
11. Negative Affect	1.96	1.43	396	-0.12*	-0.24**	-0.21**	-0.25**	-0.13**	-0.19**	0.34**	0.42**	-0.17**	-0.09	<b>0.84</b>				
12. Role Shopping Motivation	5.40	1.57	395	0.18**	0.28**	0.37**	0.31**	0.30**	0.38**	-0.07	-0.13**	0.36**	0.28**	-0.05	<b>0.73</b>			
13. Personal Shopping Enjoyment	5.08	1.52	396	0.22**	0.35**	0.43**	0.27**	0.33**	0.37**	-0.06	-0.17**	0.51**	0.40**	-0.04	0.55**	<b>0.82</b>		
14. Relationship Closeness	6.49	1.25	64	0.06	0.16	0.25*	0.08	0.14	0.18	0.07	-0.15	0.22	0.26*	0.00	0.00	.07	<b>0.92</b>	
15. User Satisfaction	6.13	1.33	64	0.33**	0.45**	0.43**	0.10	0.35**	0.38**	-0.14	-0.33**	0.44**	0.30*	-0.13	0.36**	0.29*	0.05	<b>0.91</b>

Two-tailed test, \*(p<0.05); \*\*(p<0.01)

Pair-wise deletion

Square root of the average variance explained in bold on the diagonal

### **5.2.5 Sample Characteristics**

A total of 500 individuals enrolled in the study. Twenty three responses with large amounts of missing data, who answered the survey about a restaurant in the mall, or who answered the survey about the mall in general were removed from the sample. Additionally, because the purpose of the dissertation is to understand differences between those shopping for themselves and those shopping for someone else for non-gift purchases, 78 respondents were removed because they indicated the purchase made for someone else was intended as a gift. The final sample size is 399 responses with 64 of these involving shopping for someone else and 335 involving shopping for yourself. The average age of the respondents is 37.2 years old. A total of 18% of the sample is male and 82% of the sample is female. Seventy one percent of the sample is the primary shopper in their household, 19% of the sample is the secondary shopper in their household, and 9% of the sample is neither the primary or secondary shopper in their household.

### **5.3 Test of the Hypotheses**

In order to test the proposed hypotheses, hierarchical regression is used except where noted. In the regression analyses, all control variables, independent variables, and moderator variables are mean centered and mean substitution was used for missing values. Multicollinearity was tested for by investigating the tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) values. Tolerance values above .1 indicate low multicollinearity while VIF values less than 10 indicate multicollinearity is not an issue (Hair et al. 2006). In this study, tolerance values ranged from 0.318 to 0.985 while VIF values ranged from 1.007 to 3.826. These values indicate that multicollinearity is not a problem with the data.

H1-H3 look at how different aspects of the shopping environment may potentially drive customer satisfaction and how the importance of these aspects may differ depending on whether

shoppers are shopping for themselves or someone else. H1 predicts that the shopper's perceptions of customer service, ease of finding the desired product, product selection, store atmosphere, and other customers will be positively related to satisfaction. In order to test this hypothesis, satisfaction is regressed onto these variables. The overall F-ratio for the final step in the model is significant ( $F = 17.058, p < 0.001$ ), therefore the betas can be interpreted. As can be seen in Table 24, the betas ( $\beta$ ) for all independent variables are significant as is the change in effect size ( $\Delta R^2$ ) at all steps, supporting H1.

H2 predicts that the drivers of satisfaction that deal with making the purchase (customer service, ease of finding the desired product, and product selection) will have a stronger effect on satisfaction for those shopping for someone else. In order to test this hypothesis, the same regression model used to test H1 is used on only the portion of the sample that shopped for someone else. If these factors have higher beta weights compared to the other drivers of satisfaction, the hypothesis will be supported. As can be seen in Table 24, the overall model is not significant ( $F = 1.825, p > 0.05$ ), therefore, the model cannot be interpreted and H2 is not supported.

H3 predicts that the drivers of satisfaction that allow shoppers to identify with a store (store atmosphere and other customers) will have a stronger effect of satisfaction for those shopping for themselves. Similarly to H2, to test this hypothesis, the same regression model used to test H1 is used only on the portion of the sample that shopped for themselves. If these factors have higher beta weights compared to the other drivers of satisfaction, the hypothesis is supported. As can be seen in Table 24, the overall model is significant ( $F = 15.843, p < 0.001$ ). The beta weight for store atmosphere is significant ( $\beta = 0.149, p < 0.01$ ), however it is not larger than the beta weights for customer service ( $\beta = 0.175, p < 0.001$ ) or ease of finding the product

( $\beta = 0.153$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). The beta weight for other customers is not significant ( $\beta = 0.056$ ,  $p = 0.052$ ). Therefore, H3 is not supported.

Table 24  
Study Two Hierarchical Regression Results For H1-H3

Dependent Variable: Satisfaction

Variables	H1: Full Sample <sup>a</sup>				H2: Shopping for Others <sup>b</sup>				H3: Shopping for Self <sup>c</sup>			
	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$
Step 1: Control Variables	F(10,388)=6.402, p<0.000				F(10,53)=1.615, p>0.05				F(10,324)=5.373, p<0.000			
		0.142	0.120	0.142 <sup>***</sup>		0.234	0.089	0.234		0.142	0.116	0.142 <sup>***</sup>
Store Type	0.077				0.198				0.064			
Frequency of Shopping at Store	0.019				-0.123				0.045			
Time Spent in Store	0.002				0.003				0.002			
Money Spent in Store	0.000				0.000				0.000			
Gender	-0.107				-0.703				-0.074			
Age	0.000				0.011				-0.001			
Zip Code	0.000				0.000				0.000			
Income	-0.012				-0.041				-0.013			
Frequency of Shopping at Mall	-0.012				0.205				-0.047			
Personal Shopping Enjoyment	0.137 <sup>***</sup>				0.076				0.132 <sup>***</sup>			
Independent Variables	F(15,383)=17.058, p<0.000				F(15,48)=1.825, p>0.05				F(15,319)=15.843, p<0.000			
Step 2: Service	0.143 <sup>**</sup>	0.309	0.290	0.168 <sup>***</sup>	-0.147	0.290	0.140	0.056 <sup>*</sup>	0.175 <sup>***</sup>	0.333	0.310	0.191 <sup>***</sup>
Step 3: Ease of Finding the Product	0.155 <sup>**</sup>	0.362	0.342	0.053 <sup>***</sup>	0.217	0.331	0.173	0.041	0.153 <sup>**</sup>	0.387	0.365	0.054 <sup>***</sup>
Step 4: Product Selection	0.132 <sup>*</sup>	0.372	0.351	0.010 <sup>*</sup>	0.242	0.347	0.177	0.016	0.123 <sup>*</sup>	0.396	0.372	0.009 <sup>*</sup>
Step 5: Store Atmosphere	0.150 <sup>**</sup>	0.393	0.371	0.022 <sup>***</sup>	0.231	0.356	0.172	0.010	0.149 <sup>**</sup>	0.420	0.395	0.024 <sup>***</sup>
Step 6: Other Customers	0.057 <sup>*</sup>	0.401	0.377	0.007 <sup>*</sup>	0.061	0.363	0.164	0.007	0.056	0.427	0.400	0.007

<sup>a</sup> N=399

<sup>b</sup> N=64

<sup>c</sup> N=335

Note: Unstandardized regression coefficients from the last step reported.

\*p<0.05 \*\*p<0.01 \*\*\*p<0.001

H4 through H7 investigate the effect of disconfirmation on satisfaction (H4 and H6) and how this relationship may be moderated by focus of the shopping trip (H5) and role shopping motivation (H7). As can be seen in Table 25, disconfirmation does positively impact satisfaction ( $F = 12.084, p < 0.001; \beta = 0.339, p < 0.001$ ) such that the more positive shoppers' disconfirmation, the higher their satisfaction, supporting H4. However, the addition of the moderator focus of the shopping trip does not change this relationships and the new model does not explain significantly more variance in the model ( $\beta = 0.087, \Delta R^2 = 0.001, p > 0.05$ ). Therefore, the relationship between disconfirmation and satisfaction does not appear to be moderated by focus of the shopping trip and H5 is not supported.

H6 predicts that disconfirmation will positively impact satisfaction for those shopping for someone else and this hypothesis is supported ( $F = 2.647, p < 0.01; \beta = 0.360, p < 0.01$ ). H7 predicts that this relationship will be impacted by shoppers' individual role shopping motivation, or their enjoyment from shopping for others. However, this hypothesis is not supported ( $\beta = -0.094, \Delta R^2 = 0.009, p > 0.05$ ). A summary of the results of H6 and H7 can be found in Table 26.

Table 25  
Study Two Hierarchical Regression Results For H4 and H5

Dependent Variable: Satisfaction

Variables	H4				H5			
	$\beta$	$R^2$	Adj $R^2$	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	$R^2$	Adj $R^2$	$\Delta R^2$
Step 1: Control Variables								
F(10,388)=6.402, p<0.000		0.142	0.120	0.142***		0.142	0.120	0.142***
Store Type	-0.009				-0.012			
Frequency of Shopping at Store	0.023				0.025			
Time Spent in Store	-0.001				-0.001			
Money Spent in Store	0.001				0.001			
Gender	-0.184				-0.190			
Age	0.003				0.003			
Zip Code	0.000				0.000			
Income	-0.033				-0.028			
Frequency of Shopping at Mall	-0.041				-0.042			
Personal Shopping Enjoyment	0.191***				0.193***			
Step 2:Independent Variable								
Disconfirmation								
F(11,387)=12.084, p<0.000	0.339***	0.256	0.234	0.114***	0.339***	0.256	0.234	0.114***
Step 3: Moderator Variable								
Focus of Shopping Trip								
F(12,386)=11.121, p<0.000					-0.112	0.257	0.234	0.001
Step 4: Interaction Term								
Disconfirmation X								
Focus of Shopping Trip								
F(13,385)=10.297, p<0.000					0.087	0.258	0.233	0.001

N=399

Note: Unstandardized regression coefficients from the last step reported.

\*p<0.05 \*\*p<0.01 \*\*\*p<0.001

Table 26  
Study Two Hierarchical Regression Results For H6 and H7

Dependent Variable: Satisfaction

Variables	H6				H7			
	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$
Step 1: Control Variables								
F(11,52)=1.655, p>0.05		0.259	0.103	0.259		0.259	0.103	0.259
Store Type	-0.040				-0.104			
Frequency of Shopping at Store	-0.190				-0.230			
Time Spent in Store	0.009				0.007			
Money Spent in Store	0.000				0.000			
Gender	-0.392				-0.494			
Age	0.014				0.014			
Zip Code	0.000				0.000			
Income	-0.062				-0.069			
Frequency of Shopping at Mall	0.212				0.260			
Personal Shopping Enjoyment	0.170				0.130			
Relationship Closeness	0.130				0.096			
Step 2:Independent Variable								
Disconfirmation								
F(12,51)=2.647, p<0.01	0.368**	0.384	0.239	0.124**	0.360**	0.384	0.239	0.124**
Step 3: Moderator Variable								
Role Shopping Motivation								
F(13,50)=2.479, p<0.05					0.118	0.392	0.234	0.008
Step 4: Interaction Term								
Disconfirmation X								
Role Shopping Motivation								
F(13,49)=2.345, p<0.05					-0.094	0.401	0.230	0.009

N=64

Note: Unstandardized regression coefficients from the last step reported.

\*p<0.05 \*\*p<0.01 \*\*\*p<0.001

H8 predicts that satisfaction will influence the various retail related outcome variables. As can be seen in Table 27, satisfaction is positively related to positive word-of-mouth intent ( $F = 23.066, p < 0.001; \beta = 0.503, p < 0.001; \Delta R^2 = 0.229, p < 0.001$ ), loyalty ( $F = 18.976, p < 0.001; \beta = 0.489, p < 0.001; \Delta R^2 = 0.184, p < 0.001$ ), repatronage intent ( $F = 12.391, p < 0.001; \beta = 0.370, p < 0.001; \Delta R^2 = 0.157, p < 0.001$ ), repatronage anticipation ( $F = 31.510, p < 0.001; \beta = 0.522, p < 0.001; \Delta R^2 = 0.207, p < 0.001$ ), and is negatively related to negative word-of-mouth intent ( $F = 2.882, p < 0.001; \beta = -0.191, p < 0.01; \Delta R^2 = 0.027, p < 0.01$ ). Therefore, H8a-H8e are all supported. The results of H8 can be found in Table 27.

H9 predicts that the relationship between satisfaction and the retail related outcome variables in H8 will be moderated by focus of the shopping trip. Again, hierarchical moderated regression is used to test the hypothesis and the results can be found in Table 28. The results show that these relationships are not moderated by focus of the shopping trip as the variance explained by adding the moderator to the model does not significantly influence the change in variance explained ( $\Delta R^2$ ) by the model. The beta coefficients for these moderated models are also non-significant. Therefore, we can conclude that H9 is not supported.

Table 27  
Study Two Hierarchical Regression Results For H8

Dependent Variable	Positive WOM Intent				Loyalty Intent				Repatronage Intent				Repatronage Anticipation				Negative WOM Intent			
	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$
Step 1: Control Variables	F(10,388)=7.792, p<0.000				F(10,388)=7.746, p<0.000				F(10,388)=4.495, p<0.000				F(10,388)=14.055, p<0.000				F(10,388)=2.006, p<0.05			
		0.167	0.146	0.167***		0.166	0.145	0.166***		0.104	0.081	0.104***		0.266	0.247	0.266***		0.049	0.025	0.049*
Store Type	0.208*				0.263*				-0.037				0.232*				0.165			
Frequency of Shopping at Store	-0.145*				-0.185*				-0.161*				-0.333***				-0.214*			
Time Spent in Store	0.002				0.003				-0.003				0.002				0.003			
Money Spent in Store	0.000				0.001				0.001				0.000				-0.001			
Gender	0.000				-0.077				-0.002				-0.183				-0.134			
Age	0.008*				0.009*				0.004				0.009**				-0.006			
Zip Code	0.000				0.000				0.000				0.000				0.000			
Income	-0.009				0.010				0.010				0.018				-0.017			
Frequency of Shopping at Mall	0.080				0.032				0.086				0.077				0.084			
Personal Shopping Enjoyment	0.129***				0.109**				0.079*				0.151***				-0.041			
Step 2:Independent Variable	F(11,387)=23.066, p<0.000				F(11,387)=18.976, p<0.000				F(11,387)=12.391, p<0.000				F(11,387)=31.510, p<0.000				F(11,387)=2.882, p<0.001			
Satisfaction	0.503***	0.396	0.379	0.229***	0.489***	0.350	0.332	0.184***	0.370***	0.260	0.239	0.157***	0.522***	0.472	0.457	0.207***	-0.191**	0.076	0.049	0.027**

N=399

Note: Unstandardized regression coefficients from the last step reported.

\*p<0.05 \*\*p<0.01 \*\*\*p<0.001

Table 28  
Study Two Hierarchical Regression Results For H9

Dependent Variable	Positive WOM Intent				Loyalty Intent				Repatronage Intent				Repatronage Anticipation				Negative WOM Intent			
	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$
Step 1: Control Variables	F(10,388)=7.792, p<0.000				F(10,388)=7.746, p<0.000				F(10,388)=4.495, p<0.000				F(10,388)=14.055, p<0.000				F(10,388)=2.006, p<0.05			
		0.167	0.146	0.167***		0.166	0.145	0.166***		0.104	0.081	0.104***		0.266	0.247	0.266***		0.049	0.025	0.049*
Store Type	0.210*				0.264*				-0.036				0.232*				0.155			
Frequency of Shopping at Store	-0.148*				-0.186*				-0.163*				-0.335***				-0.213*			
Time Spent in Store	0.002				0.003				-0.003				0.002				0.003			
Money Spent in Store	0.000				0.001				0.001				0.000				-0.001			
Gender	0.004				-0.075				0.001				-0.180				-0.144			
Age	0.007*				0.009*				0.004				0.009**				-0.005			
Zip Code	0.000				0.000				0.000				0.000				0.000			
Income	-0.011				0.008				0.008				0.017				-0.010			
Frequency of Shopping at Mall	0.082				0.033				0.088				0.080				0.089			
Personal Shopping Enjoyment	0.128***				0.108**				0.078*				0.150***				-0.037			
Step 2:Independent Variable	F(11,387)=23.066, p<0.000				F(11,387)=18.976, p<0.000				F(11,387)=12.391, p<0.000				F(11,387)=31.510, p<0.000				F(11,387)=2.882, p<0.001			
Satisfaction	0.505***	0.396	0.379	0.229***	0.490***	0.350	0.332	0.184***	0.372***	0.260	0.239	0.157***	0.523***	0.472	0.457	0.207***	-0.191**	0.076	0.049	0.027**
Step 3: Moderator Variable	F(12,386)=21.136, p<0.000				F(12,386)=17.360, p<0.000				F(12,386)=11.347, p<0.000				F(12,386)=28.831, p<0.000				F(12,386)=2.739, p<0.001			
Focus of Shopping Trip	0.068	0.397	0.378	0.001	0.038	0.351	0.330	0.000	0.045	0.261	0.238	0.000	0.041	0.473	0.456	0.000	-0.187	0.078	0.050	0.003
Step 4: Interaction Term	F(13,385)=19.498, p<0.000				F(13,385)=15.999, p<0.000				F(13,385)=10.488, p<0.000				F(13,385)=26.692, p<0.000				F(13,385)=2.598, p<0.01			
Satisfaction X Focus of Shopping Trip	-0.056	0.397	0.377	0.000	-0.043	0.351	0.329	0.000	-0.063	0.262	0.237	0.001	-0.105	0.474	0.456	0.001	-0.126	0.080	0.049	0.002

N=399

Note: Unstandardized regression coefficients from the last step reported.

\*p<0.05 \*\*p<0.01 \*\*\*p<0.001

H10 predicts that of those shopping for someone else, as role shopping motivation increases, disconfirmation will also increase. Again regression is used to test this hypothesis. As can be seen in Table 29, H10 is not supported as the overall regression equation is not significant ( $F = 0.545, p > 0.05$ ).

Table 29  
Study Two Hierarchical Regression Results For H10

Dependent Variable: Disconfirmation

Variables	$\beta$	$R^2$	Adj $R^2$	$\Delta R^2$
Step 1: Control Variables				
F(11, 52)=0.389, p>0.05				
Store Type	0.066	0.076	-0.119	0.076
Frequency of Shopping at Store	-0.278			
Time Spent in Store	0.002			
Money Spent in Store	0.001			
Gender	-0.113			
Age	0.015			
Zip Code	0.000			
Income	-0.189			
Frequency of Shopping at Mall	0.292			
Personal Shopping Enjoyment	-0.013			
Relationship Closeness	0.088			
Step 2: Independent Variables				
F(12,51)=0.545, p>0.05				
Role Shopping Motivation	0.258	0.114	-0.095	0.038

N=64

Note: Unstandardized regression coefficients from the last step reported.

\* $p < 0.05$  \*\* $p < 0.01$  \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

H11 investigates the impact of satisfaction on various retail outcome variables for the segment of shoppers who are shopping for someone else. The results show that satisfaction does positively impact positive word-of-mouth intentions ( $F = 6.387, p < 0.001; \beta = 0.358, p < 0.001; \Delta R^2 = 0.124, p < 0.001$ ), loyalty ( $F = 4.434, p < 0.001; \beta = 0.352, p < 0.001; \Delta R^2 = 0.089, p <$

0.001), repatronage intent ( $F = 3.124, p < 0.01; \beta = 0.229, p < 0.05; \Delta R^2 = 0.053, p < 0.05$ ), and repatronage anticipation ( $F = 7.665, p < 0.001; \beta = 0.316, p < 0.01; \Delta R^2 = 0.064, p < 0.01$ ).

However, satisfaction is not negatively related to negative word-of-mouth intent as predicted ( $F = 1.259, p > 0.05$ ). Therefore, as shown in Table 30, H11a-d is supported while H11e is not.

H12 and H13 predict that in the segment of shoppers shopping for someone else, the relationships between satisfaction and the retail related outcome variables will be moderated by role shopping motivation such that when role shopping motivation is high, the effect of satisfaction on the outcome variables will be stronger. Table 31 shows the results of these analyses. The relationship between positive word-of-mouth intentions and satisfaction is moderated by role shopping motivation ( $F = 7.208, p < 0.001; \beta = -0.202, p < 0.01; \Delta R^2 = 0.048, p < 0.001$ ) such that when role shopping motivation is low, satisfaction leads to increased positive word-of-mouth intent. However, when role shopping motivation is high, satisfaction does not impact positive word-of-mouth intent. A graph of this interaction can be found in Figure 6. A simple slopes test is performed to determine if the slopes depicted in Figure 6 are significant. The results show that when role shopping motivation is high, the slope is not significantly different from zero ( $t = 1.5, p > 0.05$ ). However, when role shopping motivation is low, the slope is significantly different from zero ( $t = 6.187, p < 0.001$ ).

The relationship between repatronage anticipation and satisfaction is also moderated by role shopping motivation ( $F = 8.705, p < 0.001; \beta = -0.286, p < 0.01; \Delta R^2 = 0.064, p < 0.01$ ) such that when role shopping motivation is low, satisfaction leads to increased repatronage anticipation. However when role shopping motivation is high, satisfaction does not impact repatronage anticipation. A graph of this interaction can be found in Figure 7. A simple slopes test reveals that when role shopping motivation is high, the slope is not significantly different

than zero ( $t = 0.695, p > 0.05$ ). However, when role shopping motivation is low, the slope is significantly different from zero ( $t = 5.025, p < 0.001$ ).

Because the betas for the interaction terms and the change in variance explained by the regression model with the interaction term are not significant, the relationships between satisfaction and loyalty intent ( $F = 4.391, p < 0.001, \beta = -0.053, \Delta R^2 = 0.002$ ) and repatronage intent ( $F = 3.286, p < 0.01, \beta = -0.163, \Delta R^2 = 0.033$ ) are not moderated by role shopping motivation. Finally, the relationship between satisfaction and negative word-of-mouth intent ( $F = 1.255, p > 0.05$ ) is not shown to be moderated by role shopping motivation. While the relationship between satisfaction and positive word-of-mouth intent (H12a) and repatronage anticipation (H12d) is moderated by role shopping motivation, this moderating relationship is opposite than proposed. Therefore, H12 and H13 are not supported.

Table 30  
Study Two Hierarchical Regression Results For H11

Dependent Variable	Positive WOM Intent				Loyalty Intent				Repatronage Intent				Repatronage Anticipation				Negative WOM Intent			
	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$
Step 1: Control Variables	F(11,52)=4.295, p<0.000				F(11,52)=3.442, p<0.001				F(11,52)=2.805, p<0.01				F(11,52)=6.522, p<0.000				F(11,52)=0.544, p>0.05			
		0.476	0.365	0.476***		0.421	0.299	0.421**		0.372	0.240	0.372**		0.580	0.491	0.580***		0.103	-0.086	0.103
Store Type	0.340				0.389				0.091				0.486				0.595			
Frequency of Shopping at Store	-0.038				-0.203				-0.821***				-0.767**				0.035			
Time Spent in Store	0.007				0.014*				0.005				0.006				0.004			
Money Spent in Store	-0.001				-0.001				0.001				0.001				0.001			
Gender	-0.534				-0.096				0.476				-0.066				-0.482			
Age	0.013				0.012				0.015				-0.003				0.005			
Zip Code	0.000				0.000				0.000				0.000				0.000			
Income	-0.133				0.040				-0.193*				-0.002				-0.054			
Frequency of Shopping at Mall	-0.068				-0.143				0.534*				0.303				0.045			
Personal Shopping Enjoyment	0.185*				0.154				0.099				0.323**				0.002			
Relationship Closeness	0.115				0.078				0.053				0.163				0.146			
Step 2:Independent Variable	F(12,51)=6.387, p<0.000				F(12,51)=4.434, p<0.000				F(12,51)=3.124, p<0.01				F(12,51)=7.665, p<0.000				F(12,51)=1.259, p>0.05			
Satisfaction	0.358***	0.600	0.506	0.124***	0.352**	0.511	0.395	0.089**	0.229*	0.425	0.290	0.053*	0.316**	0.643	0.559	0.064**	-0.354**	0.229	0.047	0.125**

N=64

Note: Unstandardized regression coefficients from the last step reported.

\*p<0.05 \*\*p<0.01 \*\*\*p<0.001

Table 31  
Study Two Hierarchical Regression Results For H12 and H13

Dependent Variable	Positive WOM Intent				Loyalty Intent				Repatronage Intent				Repatronage Anticipation				Negative WOM Intent			
	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$
Step 1: Control Variables	F(11,52)=4.295, p<0.000				F(11,52)=3.442, p<0.001				F(11,52)=2.805, p<0.01				F(11,52)=6.522, p<0.000				F(11,52)=0.544, p>0.05			
		0.476	0.365	0.476***		0.372	0.240	0.372**		0.372	0.240	0.372**		0.580	0.491	0.580***		0.103	-0.086	0.103
Store Type	0.216				0.361				-0.008				0.307				0.690*			
Frequency of Shopping at Store	-0.123				-0.343				-0.910***				-0.815***				0.077			
Time Spent in Store	0.004				0.012*				0.002				0.001				0.007			
Money Spent in Store	-0.001				0.000				0.001				0.000				0.001			
Gender	-0.622*				-0.188				0.393				-0.148				-0.429			
Age	0.011				0.010				0.014				-0.004				0.005			
Zip Code	0.000				0.000				0.000				0.000				0.000			
Income	-0.114				0.041				-0.178*				0.028				-0.069			
Frequency of Shopping at Mall	0.005				-0.037				0.607**				0.353				0.006			
Personal Shopping Enjoyment	0.149				0.045				0.053				0.334**				0.010			
Relationship Closeness	0.058				0.066				-0.008				0.080				0.189			
Step 2:Independent Variable	F(12,51)=6.387, p<0.000				F(12,51)=4.434, p<0.000				F(12,51)=3.124, p<0.01				F(12,51)=7.665, p<0.000				F(12,51)=1.259, p>0.05			
Satisfaction	0.293**	0.600	0.506	0.124***	0.297*	0.511	0.395	0.089**	0.170	0.425	0.290	0.053*	0.248*	0.643	0.559	0.064**	-0.312*	0.229	0.047	0.125**
Step 3: Moderator Variable	F(13,50)=6.407, p<0.000				F(13,50)=4.778, p<0.000				F(13,50)=3.166, p<0.01				F(13,50)=7.127, p<0.000				F(13,50)=1.183, p>0.05			
Role Shopping Motivation	0.199*	0.625	0.527	0.024	0.290*	0.554	0.438	0.043*	0.200	0.451	0.309	0.026	0.134	0.650	0.558	0.006	-0.105	0.235	0.036	0.007
Step 4: Interaction Term	F(14,49)=7.208, p<0.000				F(14,49)=4.391, p<0.000				F(14,49)=3.286, p<0.01				F(14,49)=8.705, p<0.000				F(14,49)=1.255, p>0.05			
Satisfaction X Role Shopping Motivation	-0.202**	0.673	0.580	0.048***	-0.053	0.556	0.430	0.002	-0.163	0.484	0.337	0.033	-0.286**	0.713	0.631	0.064**	0.153	0.264	0.054	0.029

N=64

Note: Unstandardized regression coefficients from the last step reported.

\*p<0.05 \*\*p<0.01 \*\*\*p<0.001

Figure 6  
Study Two Moderation Effects of Role Shopping Motivation on the Relationship Between Satisfaction and Positive Word-of-Mouth Intentions

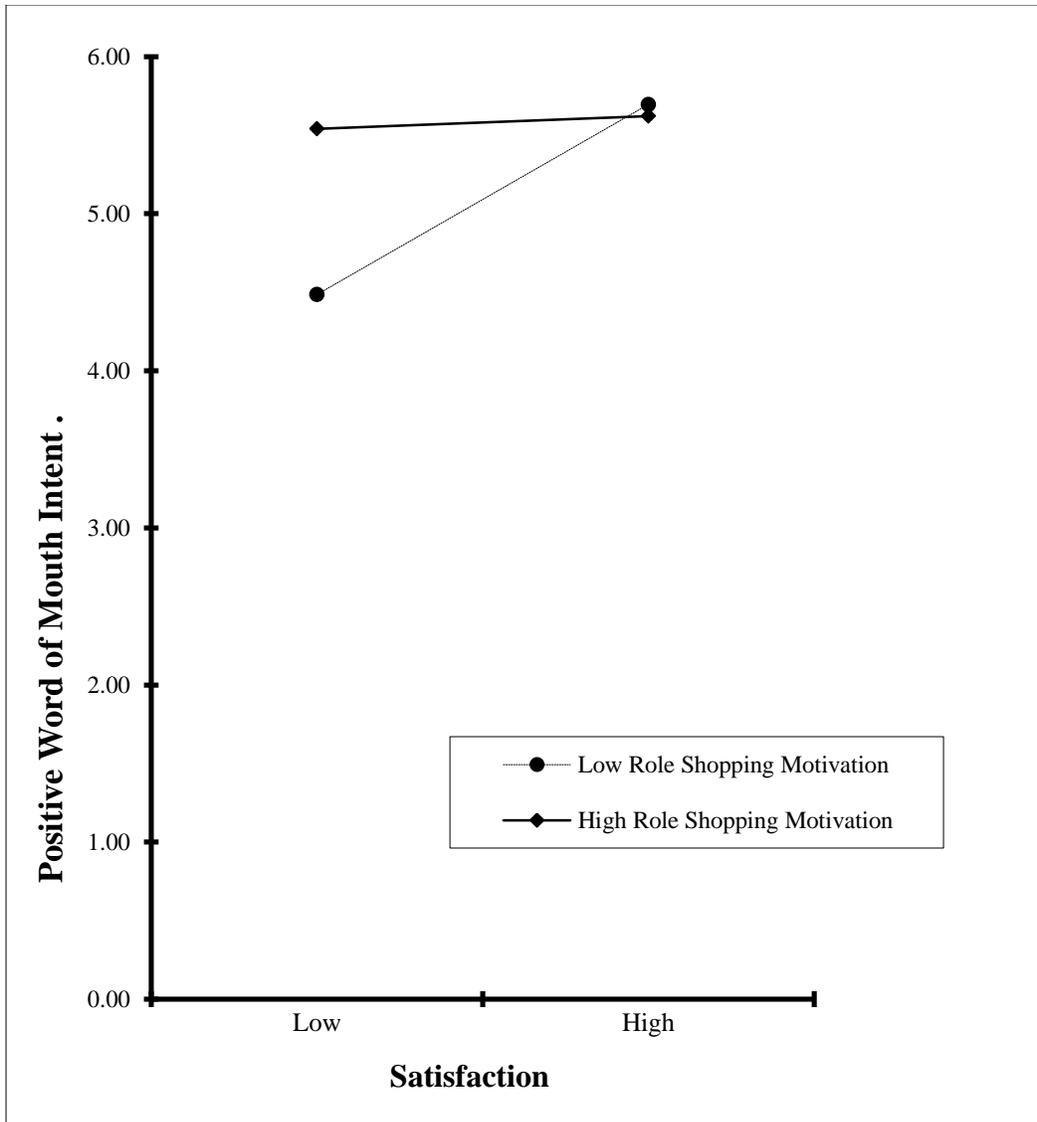
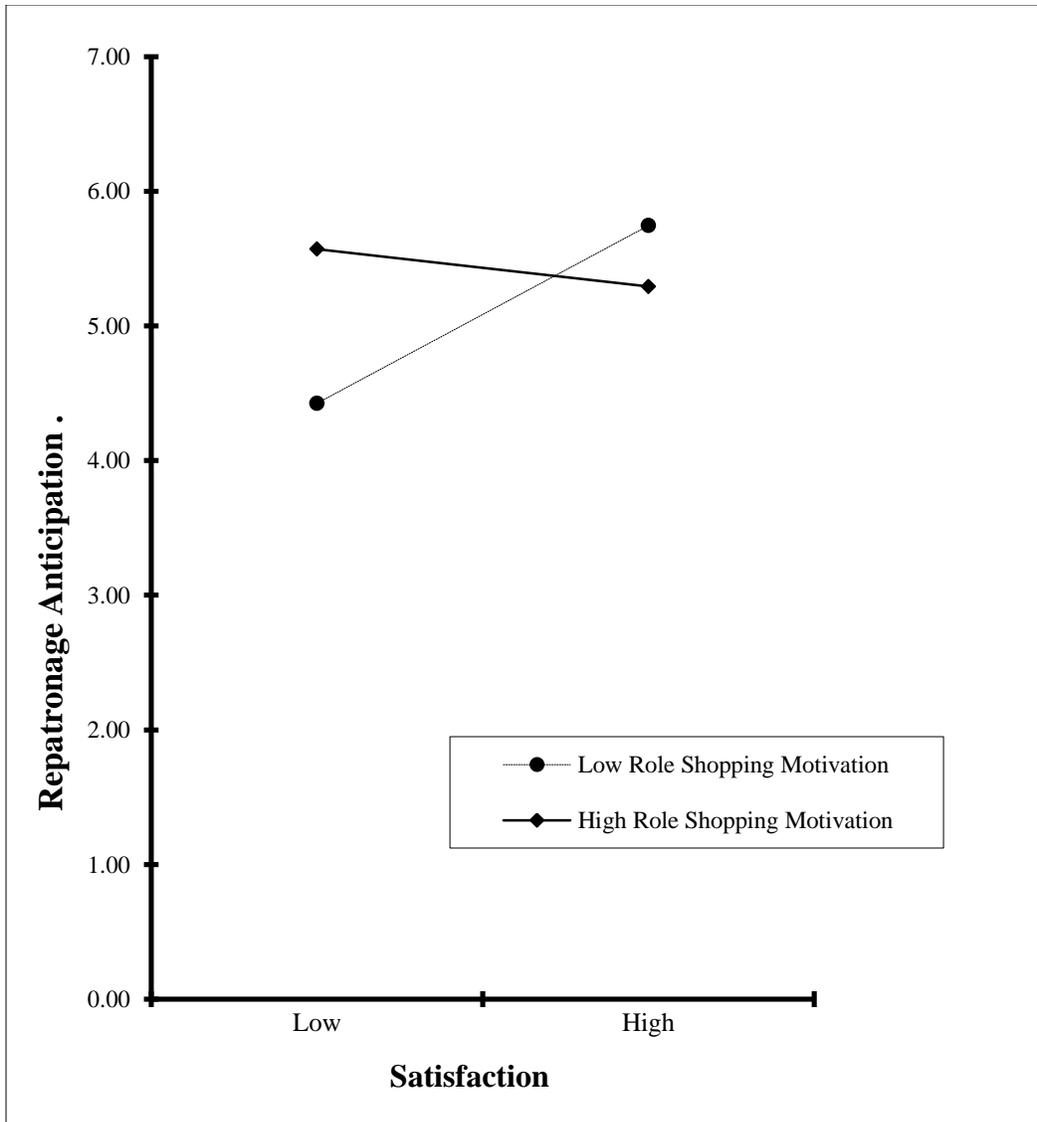


Figure 7  
Study Two Moderation Effects of Role Shopping Motivation on the Relationship Between Satisfaction and Repatronage Anticipation



H14 proposes that for those shopping for someone else, the extent to which the shopper believes the user of the product will be satisfied with the product purchased (anticipated user satisfaction) will impact the shopper's own satisfaction. As shown in Table 32, this hypothesis is supported ( $F = 2.565, p < 0.05; \beta = 0.339, p < 0.01; \Delta R^2 = 0.117, p < 0.01$ ) such that as the anticipated user satisfaction with the product purchased increases, the shopper's own satisfaction with the shopping experience increases.

Table 32  
Study Two Hierarchical Regression Results For H14

Dependent Variable: Satisfaction				
Variables	$\beta$	H14		
		$R^2$	Adj $R^2$	$\Delta R^2$
Step 1: Control Variables				
F(11,52)=1.655, $p > 0.05$		0.259	0.103	0.259
Store Type	-0.190			
Frequency of Shopping at Store	-0.282			
Time Spent in Store	0.006			
Money Spent in Store	0.001			
Gender	-0.216			
Age	0.020			
Zip Code	0.000			
Income	-0.128			
Frequency of Shopping at Mall	0.220			
Personal Shopping Enjoyment	0.134			
Relationship Closeness	0.127			
Step 2: Independent Variable				
Anticipated User Satisfaction				
F(12,51)=2.565, $p < 0.05$	0.339**	0.376	0.230	0.117**

N=64

Note: Unstandardized regression coefficients from the last step reported.

\*\* $p < 0.01$

H15 looks at differences between those shopping for themselves and those shopping for someone else on characteristics of the shopping trip. It is proposed that those shopping for someone else will spend a longer time shopping in the store, spend more money, have higher

search effort, greater positive affect, less negative affect, and higher enjoyment with the shopping trip when compared to those shopping for themselves if role shopping motivation is high. Multivariate analysis of covariance was used to test this hypothesis. As shown in Table 33, the overall omnibus F-test is not significant for focus of the shopping trip ( $F = 1.173$ ,  $p = 0.320$ ), role shopping motivation ( $F = 1.045$ ,  $p = 0.396$ ), or the interaction term between these two variables ( $F = 0.597$ ,  $p = 0.733$ ). Therefore, H15 is not supported. The MANCOVA results can be found in Table 34.

Table 33  
Study Two H15 Overall Omnibus F-test

Source	F(6,393)	<i>p</i>	$\eta^2$	Observed Power
Covariates				
Store Type	2.920**	0.009	0.050	0.896
Frequency of Shopping at Store	1.371	0.226	0.024	0.535
Gender	1.246	0.282	0.022	0.490
Age	1.230	0.290	0.022	0.483
Zip Code	0.738	0.619	0.013	0.293
Income	1.856	0.088	0.032	0.690
Frequency of Shopping at Mall	0.973	0.443	0.017	0.385
Personal Shopping Enjoyment	14.796	0.000	0.210	1.000
Factor				
Focus of Shopping Trip	1.173	0.320	0.021	0.462
Role Shopping Motivation	1.045	0.396	0.018	0.413
Focus of Shopping Trip X Role Shopping Motivation	0.597	0.733	0.011	0.238

All values based on Wilks' Lambda.

\*\* $p < 0.01$

Table 34  
Study Two H15 MANCOVA Results

		Dependent Variable							
		Time Spent Shopping	Money Spent	Search Effort	Positive Affect	Negative Affect	Enjoyment with the Shopping Trip		
Source	Factor	Store Type	F	9.831**	1.110	2.722	0.484	0.036	1.610
			p	0.002	0.293	0.100	0.487	0.849	0.205
			power	0.878	0.183	0.377	0.107	0.054	0.244
			$\eta^2$	0.028	0.003	0.008	0.001	0.000	0.005
		Frequency of Shopping at Store	F	5.079*	0.377	0.235	0.058	0.076	0.726
			p	0.025	0.539	0.628	0.810	0.783	0.395
			power	0.613	0.094	0.077	0.057	0.059	0.136
			$\eta^2$	0.015	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.002
		Gender	F	1.692	0.263	1.154	1.148	0.799	0.052
			p	0.194	0.608	0.283	0.285	0.372	0.820
			power	0.254	0.080	0.188	0.188	0.145	0.056
			$\eta^2$	0.005	0.001	0.003	0.003	0.002	0.000
		Age	F	2.508	4.253*	1.335	0.129	1.071	0.514
			p	0.114	0.040	0.249	0.719	0.301	0.474
			power	0.352	0.538	0.211	0.065	0.178	0.110
			$\eta^2$	0.007	0.012	0.004	0.000	0.003	0.002
		Zip Code	F	1.557	0.015	1.852	1.009	0.226	0.133
			p	0.213	0.902	0.174	0.316	0.635	0.716
			power	0.238	0.052	0.274	0.170	0.076	0.065
			$\eta^2$	0.005	0.000	0.005	0.003	0.001	0.000
		Income	F	0.891	5.364*	2.740	0.563	0.023	0.007
			p	0.346	0.021	0.099	0.454	0.879	0.932
			power	0.156	0.637	0.379	0.116	0.053	0.051
			$\eta^2$	0.003	0.016	0.008	0.002	0.000	0.000
		Frequency of Shopping at Mall	F	5.241*	0.586	0.583	0.210	0.223	0.024
			p	0.023	0.445	0.446	0.647	0.637	0.877
			power	0.627	0.119	0.119	0.074	0.076	0.053
			$\eta^2$	0.015	0.002	0.002	0.001	0.001	0.000
Personal Shopping Enjoyment	F	7.326**	0.016	5.216*	37.955***	0.001	74.865***		
	p	0.007	0.900	0.023	0.000	0.972	0.000		
	power	0.770	0.052	0.625	1.000	0.050	1.000		
	$\eta^2$	0.021	0.000	0.015	0.101	0.000	0.181		
Focus of Shopping Trip	F	0.034	3.539	1.852	0.184	1.028	1.966		
	p	0.853	0.061	0.174	0.668	0.311	0.162		
	power	0.054	0.467	0.274	0.071	0.173	0.287		
	$\eta^2$	0.000	0.010	0.005	0.001	0.003	0.006		
Role Shopping Motivation	F	0.727	0.506	3.630	1.411	1.498	2.707		
	p	0.394	0.477	0.058	0.236	0.222	0.101		
	power	0.136	0.109	0.476	0.220	0.231	0.375		
	$\eta^2$	0.002	0.001	0.011	0.004	0.004	0.008		
Focus of Shopping Trip X Role Shopping Motivation	F	0.974	0.012	0.019	1.158	0.131	1.487		
	p	0.325	0.914	0.890	0.283	0.718	0.223		
	power	0.166	0.051	0.052	0.189	0.065	0.229		
	$\eta^2$	0.003	0.000	0.000	0.003	0.000	0.004		

\* p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.001

Finally, H16 looks at those shopping for someone else and predicts that role shopping motivation will be related to various shopping trip characteristics. Regression is used to test this hypothesis and the results are found in Table 35. Role shopping motivation is not related to any of these variables. Specifically, the results for each variable are: time spent shopping in the store ( $F = 2.171$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $\beta = 0.2.236$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = 0.006$ ), money spent ( $F = 1.360$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $\beta = -5.233$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = 0.005$ ), search effort ( $F = 1.349$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ,  $\beta = -0.239$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = 0.026$ ), positive affect ( $F = 1.709$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ,  $\beta = 0.078$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = 0.003$ ), enjoyment with the shopping trip ( $F = 3.718$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $\beta = 0.217$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = 0.026$ ), and negative affect ( $F = 0.393$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ,  $\beta = -0.152$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = 0.008$ ). Therefore, H16 is not supported.

Table 35  
Study Two Hierarchical Regression Results For H16

Dependent Variable	Time Spent Shopping				Money Spent				Search Effort				Positive Affect				Enjoyment with the Shopping Trip				Negative Affect			
	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$
Step 1: Control Variables	F(19,54)=2.383, p<0.05				F(9,54)=1.149, p>0.05				F(9,54)=1.288, p>0.05				F(9,54)=1.902, p>0.05				F(9,54)=3.744, p<0.01				F(9,54)=0.387, p>0.05			
		0.285	0.165	0.285 <sup>*</sup>		0.200	0.066	0.200		0.177	0.039	0.177		0.241	0.114	0.241		0.386	0.284	0.386 <sup>**</sup>		0.061	-0.096	0.061
Store Type	-18.828 <sup>**</sup>				-18.390				-0.494				-0.216				-0.400				0.002			
Frequency of Shopping at Store	-5.731				18.400				-0.072				-0.230				-0.335				-0.235			
Gender	5.844				-14.523				-0.267				0.086				-0.294				0.855			
Age	-0.389				0.150				-0.013				0.007				-0.003				0.004			
Zip Code	-0.001				-0.001				0.000				0.000				0.000				0.000			
Income	0.465				14.221 <sup>*</sup>				-0.050				-0.199				-0.163				-0.109			
Frequency of Shopping at Mall	10.054				0.175				0.227				0.433				0.602 <sup>*</sup>				0.283			
Personal Shopping Enjoyment Relationship Closeness	6.154 <sup>*</sup>				7.783				-0.106				0.286 <sup>*</sup>				0.337 <sup>**</sup>				0.000			
	-3.719				0.322				-0.154				0.284 <sup>*</sup>				0.209				0.063			
Step 2:Independent Variable	F(10,53)=2.171, p<0.05				F(10,53)=1.360, p>0.05				F(10,53)=1.349, p>0.05				F(10,53)=1.709, p>0.05				F(10,53)=3.718, p<0.01				F(10,53)=0.393, p>0.05			
Role Shopping Motivation	2.236	0.291	0.157	0.006	-5.233	0.204	0.054	0.005	-0.239	0.203	0.052	0.026	0.078	0.244	0.101	0.003	0.217	0.412	0.301	0.026	-0.152	0.069	-0.107	0.008

N=64

Note: Unstandardized regression coefficients from the last step reported.

\*p<0.05 \*\*p<0.01

## 5.4 Conclusion

The primary purpose of study two was to compare those shopping for themselves and those shopping for someone else to better understand differences in the outcomes of these shopping trips. The impact of role shopping motivation on the relationships was also investigated. Hypotheses were developed and tested using a survey of actual shoppers at a mall. The results show the relationships of interest in the study do not differ depending on whether a person is shopping for him/herself or someone else. The results also show a small influence of role shopping motivation on the relationships of interest. A summary of the hypotheses results can be found in Table 36.

Table 36  
Study Two Summary of Hypothesis Results

<b>Hypothesis</b>	<b>Independent Variable</b>	<b>Dependent Variable</b>	<b>Moderator</b>	<b>Portion of Sample</b>	<b>Result</b>
H1	Customer Service	Satisfaction	--	Full Sample	Supported
	Ease of Finding the Product		--		Supported
	Product Selection		--		Supported
	Store Atmosphere		--		Supported
	Other Customers		--		Supported
H2	Customer Service	Satisfaction	--	Shopping for Other	Not Supported
	Ease of Finding the Product		--		Not Supported
	Product Selection		--		Not Supported
H3	Store Atmosphere	Satisfaction	--	Shopping for Self	Not Supported
	Other Customers		--		Not Supported
H4	Disconfirmation	Satisfaction	--	Full Sample	Supported
H5	Disconfirmation	Satisfaction	Focus of the Shopping Trip	Full Sample	Not Supported
H6	Disconfirmation	Satisfaction	--	Shopping for Other	Supported
H7	Disconfirmation	Satisfaction	Role Shopping Motivation	Shopping for Other	Not Supported
H8a	Satisfaction	Positive WOM	--	Full Sample	Supported
H8b	Satisfaction	Loyalty	--		Supported
H8c	Satisfaction	Repatronage Intent	--		Supported

<b>Hypothesis</b>	<b>Independent Variable</b>	<b>Dependent Variable</b>	<b>Moderator</b>	<b>Portion of Sample</b>	<b>Result</b>
H8d	Satisfaction	Repatronage Anticipation	--		Supported
H8e	Satisfaction	Negative WOM	--		Supported
H9	Satisfaction	Retail Outcome Variables from H8	Focus of the Shopping Trip	Full Sample	Not Supported
H10	Role Shopping Motivation	Disconfirmation	--	Shopping for Other	Not Supported
H11a	Satisfaction	Positive WOM	--	Shopping for Other	Supported
H11b	Satisfaction	Loyalty	--		Supported
H11c	Satisfaction	Repatronage Intent	--		Supported
H11d	Satisfaction	Repatronage Anticipation	--		Supported
H11e	Satisfaction	Negative WOM	--		Not Supported
H12a	Satisfaction	Positive WOM	Role Shopping Motivation	Shopping for Other	Not Supported: Moderated in opposite direction
H12b	Satisfaction	Loyalty	Role Shopping Motivation		Not Supported
H12c	Satisfaction	Repatronage Intent	Role Shopping Motivation		Not Supported: Not Supported: Moderated in opposite direction
H12d	Satisfaction	Repatronage Anticipation	Role Shopping Motivation		Not Supported: Not Supported: Moderated in opposite direction
H13	Satisfaction	Negative WOM	Role Shopping Motivation	Shopping for Other	Not Supported
H14	Anticipated User's Satisfaction	Satisfaction	--	Shopping for Other	Supported
H15a	Focus of Shopping Trip	Time Spent Shopping	Role Shopping Motivation	Full Sample	Not Supported
H15b	Focus of Shopping Trip	Money Spent	Role Shopping Motivation		Not Supported
H15c	Focus of Shopping Trip	Search Effort	Role Shopping Motivation		Not Supported
H15d	Focus of Shopping Trip	Positive Affect	Role Shopping Motivation		Not Supported
H15e	Focus of Shopping Trip	Negative Affect	Role Shopping Motivation		Not Supported
H15f	Focus of Shopping Trip	Enjoyment with the Shopping Trip	Role Shopping Motivation		Not Supported
H16a	Role Shopping Motivation	Time Spent Shopping	--	Shopping for Other	Not Supported
H16b	Role Shopping Motivation	Money Spent	--		Not Supported

<b>Hypothesis</b>	<b>Independent Variable</b>	<b>Dependent Variable</b>	<b>Moderator</b>	<b>Portion of Sample</b>	<b>Result</b>
H16c	Role Shopping Motivation	Search Effort	--		Not Supported
H16d	Role Shopping Motivation	Positive Affect	--		Not Supported
H16e	Role Shopping Motivation	Negative Affect	--		Not Supported
H16f	Role Shopping Motivation	Enjoyment with the Shopping Trip	--		Not Supported

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND FUTURE RESEARCH**

#### **6.0 Introduction**

In this chapter the findings of both studies along with the implications, limitations, and areas for future research for this dissertation are discussed. The theoretical implications section discusses the finding in relation to prior research and theory. The managerial implications section offers ways in which retailers might use the findings from this dissertation.

#### **6.1 Study One Discussion**

Study one tests the notion that when shopping for someone else, the user of the product's evaluation of the product can impact the purchaser of that product's satisfaction with the shopping trip. In H1-H3, I look at how the user's evaluation of the product purchased can change the purchaser's satisfaction with the shopping trip. Here, it is found that, in general, when the user evaluates the product more positively or more negatively than the purchaser evaluates the shopping trip, the purchaser's satisfaction changes as a result. For example, if the purchaser experiences simple confirmation during the shopping trip (i.e. the shopping trip is exactly what the shopper expects it to be) and the user evaluates the product purchased as negative disconfirmation (the product is worse than the user expects it to be), the purchaser's satisfaction as a result of the user's evaluation of the product decreases.

While not supported in the hypothesized manner, the results of H2 also provide interesting insight into the relationship between the purchaser and user evaluations. H2 posits

that when the purchaser and user have the same evaluation level (for example, both experience positive disconfirmation), the purchaser's satisfaction will not change as a result of the user's evaluation of the product. The results show however, that when both parties have the same evaluation, satisfaction changes in a negative direction. When the user evaluates the product the same as the purchaser evaluates the shopping trip, the purchaser's satisfaction decreases overall, even when both parties experience positive disconfirmation or simple confirmation.

In the supplementary analysis to these hypotheses, I investigate the change in satisfaction for each of the nine combinations of purchaser and user evaluations to discover how satisfaction changes for each of these groups specifically. Here, it is shown that this change in satisfaction is crucial when either the purchaser or user experience negative disconfirmation. That is, when either the purchaser or user experiences negative disconfirmation, the purchaser's satisfaction with the shopping trip changes significantly. In cases where the purchaser experiences negative disconfirmation with the shopping experience, if the user experiences simple confirmation (change in satisfaction = 0.78) or positive disconfirmation (change in satisfaction = 1.1), then the purchaser's satisfaction with the shopping trip increases.

On the flip side, in cases where the user experiences negative disconfirmation, purchaser satisfaction decreases regardless of the actual shopping trip experience. We see that even if the store provides a satisfactory shopping experience and the purchaser evaluates the shopping experience positively (simple confirmation or positive disconfirmation), if the user does not like the product purchased (negative disconfirmation), the purchaser will re-evaluate the shopping trip negatively. Here, we see large swings in satisfaction when the user evaluates the product poorly (purchaser simple confirmation change in satisfaction = -2.76; purchaser positive disconfirmation change in satisfaction = -2.54).

It is also shown in the supplementary analysis that this negative change in satisfaction when the user evaluates the product more negatively than the purchaser evaluates the shopping trip is significantly stronger than the positive change in satisfaction that results when the user evaluates the product more positively than the purchaser evaluates the shopping trip. In other words, other people's negative evaluations (negative contagion) appear to have a stronger impact on satisfaction than their positive evaluations (positive contagion). Therefore, it would seem as though negative emotional contagion has a stronger effect on satisfaction than positive emotional contagion. This finding seemingly contradicts previous research regarding emotional contagion which finds no difference in the degree of contagion based on type, either positive or negative (Barsade 2002).

In hypotheses 4-6, the direct impact of the user's evaluation on the purchaser's final satisfaction is assessed. The findings show that there are no differences in the purchaser's final satisfaction when the user evaluates the product as simple confirmation (the product is just as the user expected) or positive disconfirmation (the product is better than the user expected). However, when the user evaluates the product as negative disconfirmation (the product is worse than the user expected), the purchaser's final satisfaction is significantly lower. These findings support the above conclusion that the user's evaluation of the product has the biggest impact on the purchaser when the product is not what the user desired. This highlights the importance of the purchaser purchasing either the correct product or a better product than the user wants. This also illustrates the impact a party outside of the purchase transaction (the user of the product) can have on the purchaser's overall satisfaction with the shopping experience. While this would seem to be out of the control of the retailer, ways in which retailers can account for this factor that can influence shopper satisfaction are discussed below in section 6.4.

## 6.2 Study Two Discussion

Study two looks at differences between those shopping for themselves and those shopping for someone else. The moderating role of role shopping motivation is also investigated. H1 shows that for the full sample of shoppers, perceptions of customer service, ease of finding the desired product, product selection, store atmosphere, and other customers all drive shopper satisfaction with the shopping experience. This expands our knowledge of what factors of the retail environment influence customer satisfaction. Previous research shows that in a service setting, perceived service quality and value are the primary determinants of satisfaction (McDougall and Levesque 2000). Other research has also investigated the drivers of customer satisfaction. However, the work is context specific to certain industries (e.g. Slotegraaf and Inman 2004 for automobiles; Kekre, Krishnan, and Srinivasan 1995 for computer software). This research provides a better understanding of what drives customer satisfaction in a retail setting.

I also investigate the drivers of satisfaction for those shopping for themselves and those shopping for someone else individually (H2 and H3). Here, it is shown that when shopping for yourself, customer service, ease of finding the product, product selection, and store atmosphere all drive customer satisfaction with the shopping experience. However, when shopping for someone else, none of these factors drive satisfaction with the shopping experience. Thus, it appears that there are differences in what drives customer satisfaction based on whether the shopper is shopping for themselves or for someone else.

I also test the notion that when shoppers are shopping for someone else, how the shopper believes the user of the product will react to the product will impact the shopper's satisfaction with the shopping trip (H14). I find that satisfaction with the shopping experience is significantly impacted by how the shopper believes the user of the product will react to it. Therefore, it would

appear that when shopping for someone else, perceptions of customer service, ease of finding the desired product, product selection, store atmosphere, and other customers are not important drivers of satisfaction. However, the shopper's confidence that the user will be satisfied with the product purchased is an important driver of shopper satisfaction.

I also find that disconfirmation does positively impact satisfaction (H4 and H6), which supports expectancy disconfirmation theory (Oliver 1980; 1981). However the relationship between disconfirmation and satisfaction is not moderated by focus of the shopping trip (H5) or role shopping motivation (H7). Similarly, role shopping motivation does not appear to impact the shopper's evaluation of the shopping trip (H10). Thus, it appears that disconfirmation impacts satisfaction regardless of who the shopper is shopping for or what the shopper's degree of role shopping motivation is.

Following expectancy disconfirmation theory and prior research, I hypothesize that satisfaction will impact various outcome variables of interest to retailers. I find that satisfaction does positively impact positive word-of-mouth intent, loyalty, repatronage intent, and repatronage anticipation while negatively influencing negative word-of-mouth intent (H8 and H11). This finding supports prior research that shows a link between satisfaction and various outcome variables (e.g. Jones and Reynolds 2006; Anderson and Sullivan 1993; Mooradian and Oliver 1997; Szymanski and Henard 2001; Swan and Oliver 1989). While previous research finds that the relationship between satisfaction and various outcome variables can be moderated by situational variables (Baumann, Burton, and Elliott 2005; Cooli et al. 2007), I do not find support for the notion that focus of the shopping trip (H9) impacts the relationship between satisfaction and these outcome variables.

Previous research shows that the shopper's economic and personalizing shopping orientation moderates the relationship between satisfaction and share-of-purchase (Magi 2003). Similarly, I find that role shopping motivation does moderate the relationship between satisfaction and positive word-of-mouth intent and repatronage intent (H12). I find that when shoppers' role shopping motivation is low, as satisfaction increases, positive word-of-mouth intent and repatronage intent also increase. However, when role shopping motivation is high, satisfaction does not impact positive word-of-mouth intent or repatronage intent. Because those who are high in role shopping motivation inherently enjoy the activity of shopping for someone else, it would appear that the effect of satisfaction on these outcome variables is mitigated. These shoppers enjoy the activity in which they are partaking (shopping for someone else); therefore satisfaction does not appear to be a necessary prerequisite for these shoppers to spread positive word-of-mouth or to patronize the store in the future.

Finally, the results show that there are no differences between those shopping for someone else and those shopping for themselves with regard to time spent shopping, money spent, search effort, affect, and enjoyment with the shopping trip (H15). This would seem to contradict previous research that does find differences between those shopping for themselves and those shopping for someone else (Laran 2010; Moreau, Bonney, and Herd 2011). I also find no differences in these variables based on the shopper's role shopping motivation (H16).

### **6.3 Theoretical Implications**

This research makes several contributions to the existing literature. First, the expectancy disconfirmation model is expanded to accommodate shopping situations in which the person purchasing the product is not the same person who will be using the product. The B2C literature to date on satisfaction does not account for situations in which the shopper is shopping for

someone else. We do not have a clear understanding of how the shopper's satisfaction may be impacted by the reaction to the product purchased by the person s/he is shopping for. Here, the expectancy disconfirmation model is expanded to accommodate multiple parties' evaluations and subsequent satisfaction with either the shopping experience and/or the product purchased. This allows us to better understand how a person's judgment of satisfaction with the shopping trip can be impacted by another person's evaluation of the product purchased. Specifically, this study shows that in cases of negative disconfirmation, someone else can greatly impact our own satisfaction judgment. When the purchaser experiences a bad shopping experience, the resulting low satisfaction can actually be increased if the user of the product evaluates the product positively. On the other hand, if the user evaluates the product poorly, the shopper's high satisfaction resulting from a good shopping experience can dramatically decrease.

The results from study one provide interesting insight into how other individuals can impact our own feelings about the shopping experience. Research on purchase pals shows that other people with whom we are shopping can impact the shopping trip itself (Hartman and Kiecker 1991; Mangleburg, Doney, and Bristol 2004; Woodside and Pitts 1976). Similarly, research also shows that salespeople can influence the shopping trip and its outcomes (Goff, Boles, Bellinger, Stojack 1997; Swan, Bowers, and Richardson 1999; Reynolds and Beatty 1999). These studies, however, look at how another person present during the shopping trip can influence how we feel about the shopping trip. In this current study, I investigate how a person not present during the shopping trip can influence how the shopper feels about the shopping experience. This broadens our understanding of how others can impact the shopping experience by showing that even when they are not present during the shopping trip, other individuals can influence the shopping trip.

The findings from study one also show support for emotional contagion in shopping research. This study tests emotional contagion in both a positive and negative direction, which expands our understanding of how emotions can change in a positive or negative direction in reaction to others' emotions. This study also provides insight into the valence of this emotional contagion by looking at the change in satisfaction as a result of the other person's evaluation. Here, it is shown that the user's negative evaluation of the product decreases purchaser satisfaction to a larger degree than the user's positive evaluation of the product increases purchaser satisfaction. In other words, in this study, the user's negative reaction to the product has a larger impact on satisfaction than the user's positive reaction to the product.

The results from study two also contribute to our understanding of satisfaction in a retail context. First, there is little research linking all of the relationships present in this model, including linking the antecedents to satisfaction with the shopping experience and satisfaction with the shopping experience to the retail outcomes. Many researchers have linked satisfaction to these outcomes individually (e.g. Jones and Reynolds 2006; Anderson and Sullivan 1993; Mooradian and Oliver 1997; Szymanski and Henard 2001; Swan and Oliver 1989) and a few researchers have looked at factors that drive satisfaction with products or services (e.g. McDougall and Levesque 2000; Slotegraaf and Inman 2004; Kekre, Krishnan, and Srinivasan 1995). However, no research to my knowledge puts all of these antecedent and outcomes together. This is an important contribution to the literature. First, by taking into account many drivers of satisfaction, we can gain a better understanding of what factors shoppers value the most. This allows retailers to better allocate their resources to those factors that will result in the biggest increase in customer satisfaction. Second, by looking at all of the outcomes of satisfaction, we get a better understanding of how satisfaction impacts each of these variables.

This study provides a more holistic model of retail satisfaction than is currently found in the literature. Thus, this study strengthens our understanding of how retail satisfaction is created and the outcomes of satisfaction with the shopping experience.

Little shopping research to date distinguishes between those shopping for themselves or for someone else (Rucker, Dubois, and Galinsky 2011; Moreau, Bonney, and Herd 2011; Laran 2010). While research in this area is deficient, it does show that shoppers may behave differently while shopping depending on whether the product purchased will be used by themselves or by someone else. It also hints that the outcomes of the shopping trip may also vary depending on whether the shopper is shopping for him/herself or for someone else. Therefore, this research investigates the differences between two groups of shoppers in order to better understand shoppers based on whether they are shopping for themselves or for someone else.

The principle of egocentric thought shows that individuals process information pertaining to themselves differently than they process information pertaining to others such that we have an easier time recalling information regarding ourselves and we place more weight on this information (Aronson 2008, pages 173-76). Thus, theoretically it would seem that those shopping for themselves and those shopping for someone else might differ in their shopping behaviors and in their behavioral outcomes following the shopping trip. However, focus of the shopping trip did not act as a moderator in the proposed model; therefore, I do not find support for this hypothesis. Therefore, while previous studies do show differences in the cognitive patterns of those shopping for themselves versus someone else (Rucker, Dubois, and Galinsky 2011), these do not appear to influence actual shopper behaviors in this study.

Somewhat contrary to this, I do find differences in what drives satisfaction based on whether the shopper is shopping for themselves or for someone else. While disconfirmation does

significantly impact satisfaction for both groups of shoppers, it is the only common factor impacting satisfaction for both groups. I find that when shopping for yourself, customer service, ease of finding the product, product selection, and store atmosphere all drive satisfaction. On the other hand, when shopping for someone else, none of these factors significantly impact satisfaction. When shopping for someone else, the degree to which you believe the person you are shopping for will be satisfied with the product you purchase for them is the only factor other than disconfirmation which influences satisfaction. This helps building our knowledge of the factors driving retail satisfaction and helps us to better understand under what conditions these factors are important.

Finally, I find that role shopping motivation does moderate the relationships between satisfaction and positive word-of-mouth intent and repatronage intent. This helps build our understanding of how personality traits can moderate the relationship between satisfaction and various retail outcomes.

#### **6.4 Managerial Implications**

The results of this research could be used by retailers in several ways. The results of study one highlight the importance of getting the right product in the shopper's hand. In this study, it is shown that regardless of how great the in-store shopping experience is, if the shopper is shopping for someone else and s/he does not purchase the correct product, satisfaction with the shopping experience can drop dramatically as a result. On the other hand, if the shopper has a bad shopping experience but s/he purchases the correct product, satisfaction increases. This shows just how important it is for retailers to make sure the purchaser is purchasing the correct product so that they ensure the user of the product is happy and satisfaction with a good shopping experience remains high.

Retailers can help those shopping for someone else to get the right product in several ways. First, retailers should make sure they have signage that is descriptive and easy for shoppers to find and see so that they can easily find the product desired by the person for whom they are shopping. Retailers might also minimize merchandising techniques (such as cross-merchandising and scattering products within the store to encourage browsing) which may make it difficult for the shopper to find the product within the store. When possible, retail salespeople should also attempt to help customers who are shopping for someone else find the correct product within the store.

In study two, it is shown that for those shoppers shopping for someone else, satisfaction is higher if the shopper believes the user will like the product purchased. Retail salespeople might also attempt to make the shopper believe that the person s/he is shopping for will like the product that is purchased. Employees could do this by simply pointing out the product benefits of the chosen product or by showing the shopper various product alternatives and helping him/her come to the most optimal purchase decision for the other person. These techniques might improve the chances that shoppers purchase the correct product desired by the person they are shopping for and can build shoppers' confidence in the chosen product, which can increase satisfaction with the shopping experience.

Retailers can also use these results in developing front-line employee adaptive selling techniques. I find differences in what drives customer satisfaction based on whether customers are shopping for themselves or for someone else. Therefore, this variable could be used by employees to easily adapt their selling techniques. When the shopper enters the store, the salesperson can ask the shopper for whom s/he is shopping. Based on the information provided by the shopper, the employee can quickly adapt how they treat the customer. For example, I find

that customer service is not an important driver of satisfaction for shoppers shopping for someone else, therefore, the salesperson may leave these customers alone to shop. On the flip side, if the customer is shopping for themselves, the salesperson may provide more assistance to the customer.

This research may also provide a better understanding of the tradeoffs to make concerning elements of the retail environment. Many stores cater to a specific group of customers, whether their primary customers are generally those individuals who are shopping for themselves (i.e. women's clothing stores, outdoor stores, hobby stores, home décor stores, etc.) or whether their primary customers are generally those individuals who are shopping for someone else (i.e. children's clothing stores, toy stores, gift and collectable stores, etc.). I find differences in the drivers of satisfaction across these two groups of shoppers. This allows retailers to know what elements of the retail environment they should focus on based on their key shoppers.

For example, I find that customer service is the most important driver of satisfaction for those shopping for themselves. Retailers whose primary customers are those who shop for themselves might focus their resources on making sure they provide excellent levels of customer service to their customers while knowing that providing a pleasing store atmosphere, while important, may not be the best use of resources in order to drive customer satisfaction. On the other hand, when shopping for someone else, neither customer service, ease of finding the product, product selection, nor store atmosphere drive satisfaction. Therefore, retailers whose primary customer base might be those shopping for someone else would know from these findings that devoting additional resources to these factors in order to increase customer satisfaction may not be the most productive way to allocate their resources as these factors do not

impact customer satisfaction for these shoppers. The shopper's belief that the person they are shopping for will be satisfied with the purchased product does, however, impact satisfaction for this group of shoppers. Therefore, stores catering to those shopping for someone else might concentrate their resources on making sure shoppers are purchasing exactly what the person they are shopping for wants and that shoppers feel confident that the person will like the purchased product.

Finally, this research also provides an understanding of how role shopping motivation can impact retail outcomes. Here we see that when shoppers' role shopping motivation is low, satisfying shopping experiences greatly increase shoppers' positive word-of-mouth intent and repatronage intent. This highlights the importance of retailers providing satisfying shopping experiences in order to reap the positive rewards of positive word-of-mouth and repatronage, even when the shopper does not enjoy the shopping activity itself.

## **6.5 Limitations**

As with all research, the studies presented in this dissertation do have limitations, however these limitations also provide opportunities for future research as discussed below. First, study one looks only at those shopping for a spouse/partner for a grocery product. Because the study uses a scenario-based experiment to test the hypotheses, by nature of this format, the context has to be limited in order for the scenarios to be written. While spouse/partner and grocery products were chosen because an exploratory study showed that individuals most often shop for their spouse for groceries, the findings may be somewhat limited by this context. Future research is discussed below to help overcome this issue. This study also uses scenarios rather than manipulating actual shopping events. While the scenarios did pass a realism test, the use of scenarios can present a problem with realism.

In study two, there was only a small portion of the sample shopping for someone else for a non-gift purchase (16% of the sample). While power analysis showed that this sample size is adequate to detect medium effect sizes and while some results were found in differences between those shopping for someone else and those shopping for themselves, this small sample size could limit the ability to detect differences between the two groups of shoppers. Future research may benefit from a larger sample size of those shopping for someone else. Study two also uses a survey methodology which presents problems in testing for true causality in the relationships studied. Future research may benefit from using other techniques such as experimentation in order to assess causality in the relationships tested.

## **6.6 Future Research**

There are several avenues for future research within this area. First, the expanded model of satisfaction developed and tested in study one could also be applied to other areas of research. The framework in study one which allows us to understand how the judgments of multiple parties interact could be applied to research on in other areas. For example, this model could be used in work on shopping companions and purchase pals to better understand how others' enjoyment with the shopping trip can impact our own evaluations and subsequent enjoyment with the shopping trip. This expanded model could also be applied to better understand satisfaction in industrial buying situations.

In study one, the scenarios used involve shopping for a spouse/partner for a grocery product. Future research could replicate this study using different relationships such as shopping for a child, parent, or friend and using different products, such as a gift, a product for the household to be jointly used between the two parties, or a higher-valued non-gift purchase such

as clothing. This work could compare and contrast findings to better understand how individuals interact in a wide-range of shopping for someone else purchase situations.

Additionally, future research could also look at how the purchaser's feelings about the shopping experience can affect the user's satisfaction with the product. This work could use a scenario-based experiment with a set-up similar to that in study one and using similar manipulations only taking the viewpoint of the user of the product. Here, respondents could read the scenario regarding how they react to the product then their satisfaction to the product could be gauged. Next, the respondents could be told how the purchaser's shopping experience at the store was and their satisfaction with the product could then again be measured. This would test to see if the user's satisfaction with the product changes as a result of knowing how easy or difficult it was for the purchaser to attain the product.

This dissertation compares situations where shoppers are shopping for themselves and shopping for someone else by investigating differences in shopper behaviors for these two groups. While differences are not found in the variables of interest in this study, prior research suggests that we process information regarding ourselves and others differently (Aronson 2008). Thus, there may be differences in what shoppers feel during the shopping trip between these two groups of shoppers (which is also suggested in exploratory study three). Therefore, future research could look at differences in variables such as flow, hedonic and utilitarian shopping value, fantasy, and shopping pleasure which may differ across the two groups of shoppers.

Future research might also look at the decision processes of those shopping for others. This work might compare and contrast the purchase decision making process between those shopping for themselves and those shopping for someone else. This work could investigate how

individuals develop the consideration set, determine the selection criteria and the weight to place on various product attributes, and come to the final purchase decision when shopping for others.

Future research could also look at shopping for others more holistically and qualitatively investigate why we shop for others, including the motivations for shopping for others and how individuals feel about shopping for others. This work might include creating a taxonomy of situations in which individuals shop for others. This research could also investigate what social forces require us to shop for others and the individual forces which push some people to shop for others. Here, shopping for others could be investigated in relation to theories such as role theory and investigate the obligatory nature of shopping for others as well as the hedonic aspects of shopping for others.

Future research may benefit by understanding the influence of different relationship variables in the investigated relationships in this study. Research might investigate if and how relationship closeness impacts the tested relationships in this study. Similarly, future research might investigate how other relationship differences such as type of relationship, relationship length, and satisfaction with the relationship impact the shopping trip while shopping for someone else.

Finally, in both study one and study two there are limitations in understanding how the user's reaction to the product impacts the purchaser's satisfaction. In study one, a scenario is used to simulate how satisfaction can change based on the user's reaction to the product. In study two, the purchaser's belief about how the user will react to the product is used to understand how the purchaser's satisfaction can be impacted by the user's reaction to the product. In neither of these studies, however, do we have an actual user's reaction to the product. Future research could look at actual shopping situations and measure satisfaction before and after the user evaluates the

purchased product to truly understand how the purchaser's satisfaction can be impacted by the user's evaluation of the product.

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## APPENDIX A

May 2, 2011

Office for Research  
Institutional Review Board for the  
Protection of Human Subjects

THE UNIVERSITY OF  
**ALABAMA**  
R E S E A R C H

Stephanie T. Gillison  
Department of Management & Marketing  
College of Commerce & Business Administration  
The University of Alabama

Re: IRB # 10-OR-157-R1 "Exploring the Negative Side of Role Shopping"

Dear Ms. Gillison:

The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board has granted approval for your renewal application.

Your renewal application has been given expedited approval according to 45 CFR part 46. You have also been granted the requested waiver of informed consent. Approval has been given under expedited review category 7 as outlined below:

*(7) Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.*

Your application will expire on May 1, 2012. If your research will continue beyond this date, complete the relevant portions of Continuing Review and Closure Form. If you wish to modify the application, complete the Modification of an Approved Protocol Form. When the study closes, complete the appropriate portions of FORM: Continuing Review and Closure.

Should you need to submit any further correspondence regarding this proposal, please include the above application number.

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,



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