

Thesis
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MOOD AND MOTIVATION IN
SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR

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ABSTRACT

This thesis is concerned with the motivation of shopping behaviour. The main aim of the research is to examine internal factors that influence a person's motivation, with specific focus on how consumers' shopping goals and mood states prior to a retail encounter affect their in-store behaviour and the outcomes of the activity in terms of goal attainment and evaluations of the retail outlet. The conceptual basis for the research is provided by theories of goal-directed behaviour, which assume that people are purposive in their behaviour and that there is a synergistic relationship between cognition and motivation (Ratneshwar, 1995; Pervin, 1989). Two complementary perspectives on the motivational role of mood are linked into this conceptualisation: one that emphasises the role of associative cognitive networks and proposes that mood serves to regulate goal-directed behaviour by altering goal-relevant thought and perception (Gardner, 1985; Isen, 1984); the other that postulates that mood is a biopsychological phenomenon that registers the availability of personal resources given near-term demands and alters goal-relevant thought, perception, and motivation in accordance with this (Morris, forthcoming; Batson *et al.*, 1992; Thayer, 1989).

In order to examine the motivation of shopping behaviour, an investigation was carried out amongst visitors to craft fairs in Scotland. The research adopted a quantitative approach. The data collection was driven by five main research hypotheses and involved asking consumers to complete two parts of a questionnaire: the first part was filled in upon their arrival at the craft fair and the second part was completed just before their departure. In this way, data on the progression of goal-directed behaviour over the course of a shopping episode was captured.

The main findings of the research were that:

- a) individuals' mood states prior to the retail encounter influenced consumers' levels of commitment to shopping goals, although the importance of mood state varied depending on the type of shopping goal in question;
- b) types of behaviour exhibited in the course of shopping were influenced by the types of goals that consumers identified to be important to them upon arriving at the craft fair and there was some evidence that individuals' mood states moderated the effects of their goals on their in-store behaviour;
- c) attainment of shopping goals was dependent on whether the relevant goals were specified as important prior to the retail encounter and in-store behaviour. Mixed evidence was obtained on the role of mood as a factor that moderates the effects of commitment to goals on attainment of goals.
- d) attainment of shopping goals was partly responsible for the change in a person's mood state between entering and leaving the craft fair;
- e) retail outcomes in terms of consumers' enjoyment of the retail encounter, their preference for and intentions to patronise the retail outlet in the future were influenced by consumers' evaluations of the extent to which they had attained their shopping goals and their mood state following the shopping episode.

One of the main implications of the research is that a view of consumers as purposive in their shopping activities makes a useful contribution to the understanding of shopping behaviour and how repeat patronage can be encouraged. As far as retailers are concerned, there is a need to understand what goals consumers have in mind when they visit a store and how to facilitate behaviour directed towards the attainment of those goals in order that consumers evaluate the shopping activity as successful and leave with favourable impressions of the store. In addition, attempts to locate in an environment that helps to boost the resources that contribute to mood, rather than draining them, and to smooth the way for goal-directed shopping activities may also increase repeat patronage and ultimately customer loyalty to retailers.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.0 Research Context and Objectives

Retailers today are increasingly reliant on developing an understanding of shopping behaviour in order to create strategies that enable them to better meet consumer needs and advance the organisation's competitive position. A key area of interest in the retailing and consumer behaviour literature has been on the motivation of shopping behaviour. To date, research on shopper motivation has taken two distinct paths: one that adopts a behavioural model and one that focuses on internal motivational factors.

The research based on behaviourist assumptions has received a growing amount of attention in recent years (Foxall, 1997; Tai and Fung, 1997; Donovan *et al.*, 1994) following the application of Mehrabian and Russel's (1974) environmental psychology framework to the retail context by Donovan and Rossiter (1982). The environmental psychology model is based on a stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) framework, which suggests that individuals' perceptions of stimuli in the retail environment influence their emotional states and, consequently, their approach-avoidance behaviour. This approach has laid heavy emphasis on understanding how elements of the retail environment can be manipulated to encourage in-store behaviour that results in higher takings and to influence evaluations of the retail establishment.

Within the second stream of research, which focuses on internal motivational factors, a key area of interest has been to identify the shopping motives or goals (Babin, Darden and Griffin, 1994; Buttle and Coates, 1984; Tauber, 1972). This stream of research assumes that motivation is incentive-based and has contributed to the understanding of what consumers want to achieve in the course of their shopping activities. Literature representing this perspective on shopping motivation has

devoted limited attention, however, to questions of how consumers realise their goals in the course of in-store activities.

In building an understanding of how consumers behave in a retail context there should be a balance between research that focuses on internal and external factors. That is, research that recognises that there are internal motivational factors that bring people to the retail outlet in the first place and drive their behaviour while shopping should be developed alongside the research that acknowledges the capacity of environmental stimuli to produce automatic responses in shoppers. Ultimately, integration of these two perspectives should provide a more rounded view of shopper motivation.

The study reported in this thesis sought to take forward the research that views shopping motivation as purposive by developing an understanding of how shopping goals that bring people to a retail outlet influence their in-store behaviour and the outcomes of the retail encounter. Specifically, the aim of the research is to examine internal factors that influence a person's motivation, focusing in particular on how consumers' shopping goals and mood states prior to a retail encounter affect their in-store behaviour and the outcomes of the activity in terms of goal attainment and evaluations of the retail outlet.

1.1 Methodological Approach

The study adopted a deductive approach. The theoretical framework for the research was drawn from theories of goal-directed behaviour (Bagozzi, 1993; Ford, 1992; Heckhausen, 1991). The goal concept recognises relationships between cognition and motivation and assumes that individuals' behaviour is purposive. It offers a broad conceptualisation of motivation, regarding everything from general life goals that exert the most abstract motivational influence on behaviour, to action specific goals that are more concrete notions of what an individual wants to achieve on a particular occasion (Pervin, 1989). The present research drew, primarily, on the

conceptualisation of action specific goals because it was concerned with situation specific shopping goals.

In addition to examining shopping goals that people had in mind when they arrived at the retail outlet, the research also aimed to track individuals' progression towards shopping goals in the course of the retail encounter. The theoretical framework for the research was, therefore, developed on the basis of existing literature that distinguishes sequential stages goal pursuit: the pre-actional, actional and post-actional phases (Gollwitzer, 1996; Heckhausen, 1991). Discussion of the shopping behaviour literature was developed within the framework of these three stage of goal pursuit.

One of the factors that is recognised to influence goal-directed behaviour is a person's mood state (Ford, 1992). Given the growing emphasis on the role of affective processes in determining the outcome of consumption-related activities (Cohen and Areni, 1991) and calls from retailing research to account for mood upon arrival at a store as an influence on shopping behaviour (McGoldrick and Pieros, 1996), the present research devoted particular attention to the role of mood in goal-directed behaviour. Two complementary perspectives on the role of mood in motivation were linked into the conceptualisation of goal-based motivation: one that emphasises the role of associative cognitive networks and proposes that mood serves to regulate goal-directed behaviour by altering goal-relevant thought and perception (Gardner, 1985; Isen, 1984); the other that postulates that mood is a biopsychological phenomenon that registers the availability of personal resources given near-term demands and alters goal-relevant thought, perception, and motivation in accordance with this (Morris, forthcoming; Batson *et al.*, 1992; Thayer, 1989).

On the basis of these streams of literature five research hypotheses were formed relating to the motivation of shopping, influences on in-store behaviour and the

consequences for shopping goal attainment, evaluations of the shopping experience and of the retail outlet. The null form of the five hypotheses were:

H₀₁: There is no evidence to suggest that consumers' mood states influence the establishment of shopping goals.

H₀₂: There is no evidence to suggest that goals or mood influence resource expenditure during shopping activities.

H₀₃: There is no evidence that a relationship exists between mood and goals identified as important upon arrival at a retail outlet and attainment of those goals.

H₀₄: There is no evidence of a relationship between the attainment of important goals and mood change between entering and leaving the retail setting

H₀₅: There is no evidence that retail outcomes are influenced by the attainment of important goals and the change in mood state following the retail encounter

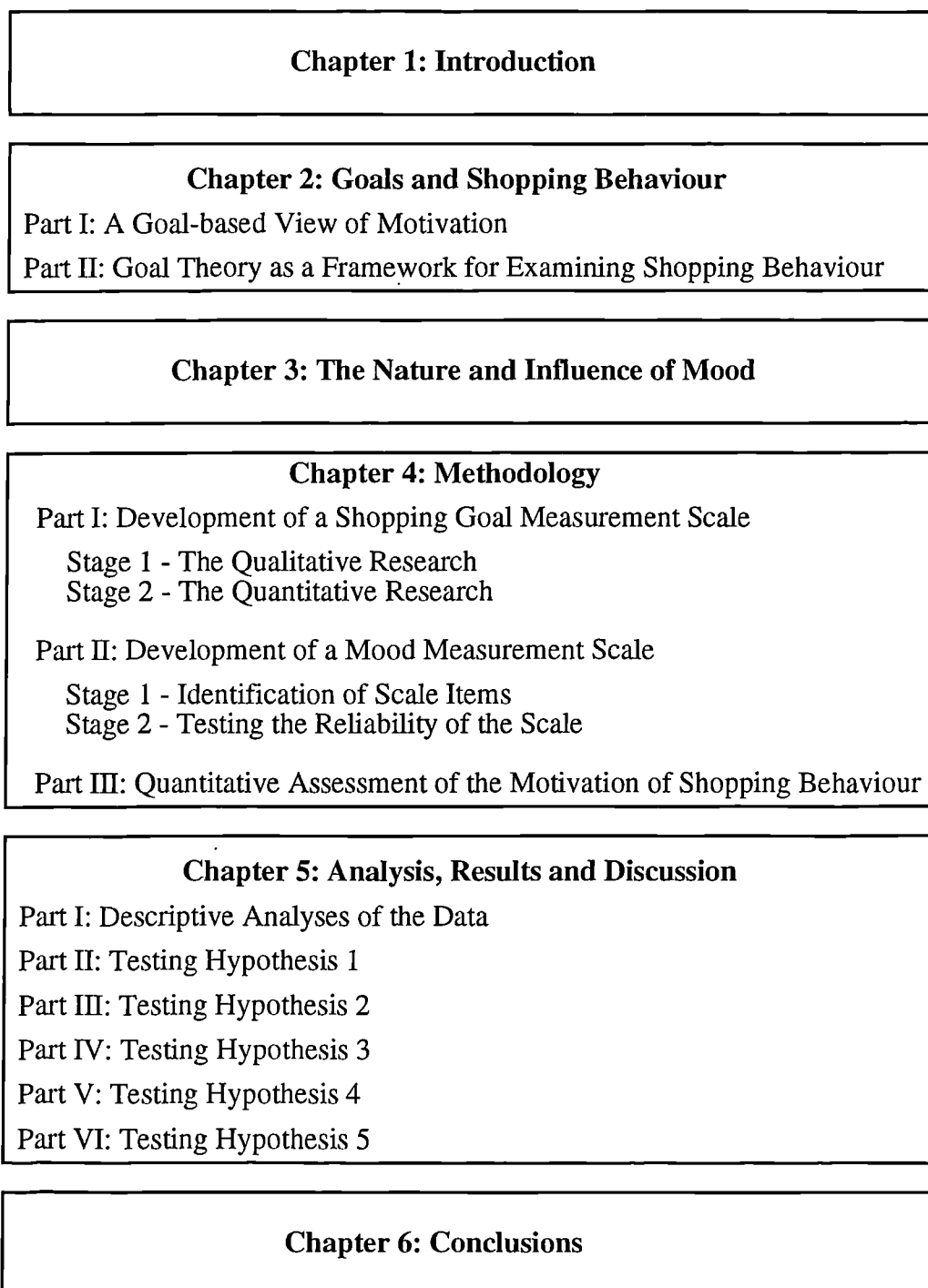
A quantitative research method was employed to test the research hypothesis. Following two preliminary studies, carried out to develop scales to measure shopping goals and mood state, the data for the main study were collected by means of questionnaires administered at craft fairs in Scotland. The craft fair setting was chosen because it has previously been identified as an appropriate retail context within which to investigate shopping motivation on the basis that consumers' product-related and experiential motives are heightened in such contexts (Dawson, Bloch and Ridgeway, 1990). Moreover, craft fairs are usually located away from other retailers and are more likely to represent a distinct behavioural episode in a consumer's mind. Because the research sought to capture the dynamics of shopping motivation the questionnaire was split into two parts: the first part was completed when respondents arrived at the craft fair and the second part was filled in just before they left the venue.

The final number of respondents who correctly completed both parts of the questionnaire amounted to 398. Multivariate statistical analysis employed to test the hypotheses primarily involved multiple linear regression.

1.2 Structure of the Thesis

For the sake of clarity, the structure of the thesis is presented in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1: Outline of Thesis Structure



The thesis continues in Chapters 2 and 3 with literature reviews. Chapter 2 covers the research into goal-directed behaviour and, in the second part, links literature on

shopping behaviour to this theoretical framework. Chapter 3 considers the nature of mood and its motivational function, developing a discussion of the role of mood in the pre-actional, actional and post-actional phases of goal-directed behaviour. Chapter 4 presents the research methodology. The main body of the chapter includes three main parts, the first detailing the method employed to develop a shopping goal-measurement scale, the second reporting the method used to develop a mood measurement scale and the third covering the method for the main stage of the study. Chapter 5 focuses on the results of the analysis and a discussion of those results in relation to existing literature. This chapter is presented in six main parts, the first presenting descriptive statistics on each set of data and the remaining five devoted, one each, to the results of analyses performed to test the five research hypotheses. Finally, in Chapter 6, the findings of the research are evaluated with regard to theoretical and practical implications and, with regard to the limitations of the research, suggestions for future research in this area are advanced.

CHAPTER 2: GOALS AND SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR

2.0 Introduction

The introduction to the thesis outlined the main themes guiding the research and specified the research hypotheses to be tested in this thesis. The purpose of this chapter is, first, to introduce the goal concepts as a framework for studying human motivation and, secondly, to review previous shopping behaviour research which provides insights that can be linked with the principles of the goal-based view of motivation. The chapter is split into two main parts. Part I presents the goal-based perspective of motivation, starting with a general overview of the goal concept and moving on to a more in-depth discussion of the principles that guide the study of the motivation of behaviour on a particular occasion, which is the issue of key concern in this research. Part II reviews shopping behaviour research on consumers' mental processes and behaviour prior to, during and following the performance of shopping behaviour. Discussion of this literature explores links between the findings of the shopping behaviour research and the goal concept framework.

Part I: A Goal-based View of Motivation

2.1 Personal Goals as Incentives for Behaviour

Recent years have witnessed growing interest among consumer behaviour researchers in views of motivation that account for both individual differences and situational influences on behaviour. One key movement that has driven this shift is the improved understanding of cognitive structures and processes. As a consequence of advances in this area greater emphasis has been laid on the importance of self-knowledge, for example: *personal values*, as cognitive representations of things that are important to people in their lives (Lai, 1995; Pitts, Woodside and Whalen, 1991); *self-concept* as

an image of what a person would like to become, feels they should become or would dread to become (Belk, 1988), *personal goals* associated with the self in different life contexts (Pieters et al., 1995; O'Shaughnessy, 1987); and *self-efficacy, expertise or involvement* in a particular domain (Andrews, 1988; Zaichkowsky, 1985). Another movement that has provided an impetus to this shift is the acknowledgement of the role of situational factors in consumer behaviour (Belk, 1975; Troye, 1985), not only as determinants of what consumers want and intend to do on particular occasions but also as factors which facilitate or inhibit the realisation of their planned behaviour (Bagozzi, 1993).

Personal goals are, therefore, among the self-relevant factors that are increasingly considered as motivational components that not only provide positive and negative incentives for behaviour but also guide individuals' interpretations of and action plans in specific situations.

2.2 The Goal Concept

On a general level one of the main strengths of the goal concept is the breadth of enquiry to which it extends, regarding everything from the initiation to the realisation of actions and the explanation of choices that are made in the process. This is reflected by Ford's (1992) definition of goals which emphasises the content and process elements:

“Personal goals have two basic properties: they represent the consequences to be achieved (or avoided), and they direct the other components of the person to try to produce those consequences (or prevent them from occurring)” (p 83)

The goal concept, therefore, presents a view of human motivation as cognitively-generated and incentive-based, and of human behaviour as purposive. In emphasising the role of anticipation in motivation the goal concept recognises an individual's capacity to focus on the future and the ability to override the immediate influence of

current stimuli. It provides an explanation of how an individual sets standards and established hierarchies of priorities in his or her life. Moreover, it accounts for the relationship between motivation and the means by which the desired ends can be achieved, recognising that there are several alternative routes by which an individual may arrive at the same ends and taking into account that past experience provides feedback about which means are most appropriate under the circumstances and which are most affectively appealing.

2.3 Goals and Motivation

The goal-based view of motivation has a long history in psychological research. The work of James (1890) touched on many of the issues that are of primary concern to goal theorists. One key question that concerned James was the translation of conscious thoughts to the unfolding of an organised pattern of movement, in other words, the relationship between cognition and an end result of action. Modern goal theory attempts to explain this relationship starting from Tolman's (1949) suggestion that there is something akin to a cognitive map within the black box which mediates stimulus-response relationships.

A major boost in the investigation of links between cognition and behaviour was provided by research which focused on information processing models of behaviour. During the 1960s and early 70s the focus on cognition and information processing overshadowed motivational research in psychology and consumer behaviour research. Since motivation had been closely tied to Hullian style drive theory, when evidence mounted highlighting the inadequacy of drive theory (Berlyne, 1960) interest in motivation waned and models that emphasised the problem solving nature of humans became the centre of attention. This shift was reflected in the consumer behaviour domain where information processing models of consumer decision making became dominant (e.g. Howard and Sheth, 1969; Bettman, 1979). One of the shortfalls of information processing perspectives was that, although some paid lip service to the

relationship between cognition and affective and conative mental functions, such relationships tended to be neglected in practice.

The 1970s and 80s witnessed a revitalisation of motivational concepts and a number of new perspectives emerged in psychology and social-psychology. These new approaches did not reject the foregoing cognitivism but were essentially derived from it, for example, cognitive social learning theory (Mischel, 1973), Rokeach's conception of personal values (1973) and the concept of the Self (Markus and Nurius, 1986). Researchers pursuing these new perspectives started to pay attention to the relationship between cognition and motivation, particularly self-referent motivational elements such as goals, emotions, mood and self-efficacy.

The motivational properties of goals stem from their affective quality, which develops through a process of social learning. Schwarz and Bilsky (1987) suggest that the affective quality of goals evolves as people learn to respond to their human requirements and to communicate to others about them:

"Through cognitive development, individuals become able to represent their requirements consciously as goals or values, through socialisation, individuals are taught culturally shared terms that enable them to communicate about goals or values" (Schwartz and Bilsky, 1987: 551).

The process by which goals are learnt means that they come to represent what is personally and socially desirable. As such, their motivational role is closely related to their standard setting role. It has been proposed that:

"a person's values provide a comprehensive set of standards to guide actions, justifications, judgements, and comparisons of self and others" (Rokeach, 1973: 216).

The affective quality of a high level goal (see Section 2.4.2), therefore, depends on whether it is personally or socially desirable. It also relates to an individual's past experience of activities relating to the achievement of the goal. This affective quality

influences the size and direction of a goal's influence on a person's behaviour when it is activated through lower level goals that are involved in everyday activities.

The motivational function of life goals has made them a focus of interest in consumer behaviour research where they have proved a useful basis for developing an understanding of consumer choice. Gutman (1982; 1985), for example, proposes that product features are sought for the purpose of achieving some goal or valued state, and that features that are relevant to a consumer's goals relate to attributes by which specific products and brands are differentiated.

The affective quality of goals can be better explained by reference to the concept of goal systems. A goal's value for an individual is explained by the process by which goal hierarchies are established and the position of a particular goal within the hierarchical structure of an individual's goals system.

2.4 The Goal System

Goals that people commit themselves to and pursue in everyday activities are not arbitrarily established to achieve *ad hoc* needs and wants. Rather they link up to a big picture of more general goals that reflect a person's preferred life view¹. Behaviour on a particular occasion typically serves several purposes simultaneously, or produces a conflict among goals (e.g. a comfortable life vs. an exciting life). This conflict might be within the situation or across situations. Whichever is the case, it means that goals must be co-ordinated and prioritised in some way. O'Shaughnessy (1987) explains that when people are undecided in some way "it is not because they do not know what

¹The goal concept is closely related to theories of the self which are used to represent the organisation and integration of human functioning. Allport (1955) suggests that the capacity of self concept to explain the unity and goal-directed nature of behaviour is one of the main factors that justifies its necessity as a psychological construct. He highlights that behavioural psychologists, and others who deny its importance find it difficult to discuss the person as a whole and struggle with a fragmented conceptualisation of personality. The goal system which is comparable in many ways to the self system (Cantor *et al.*; 1996) finds one of its strengths in its view of human behaviour in which it stresses that the parts are coherent and interrelated.

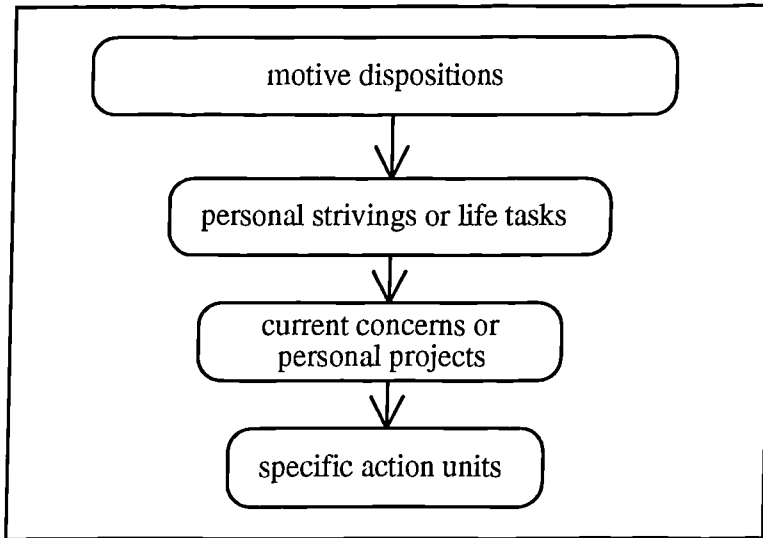
they want - they want full attainment of all the goals constituting the preferred life vision - but they are still deciding priorities" (p 10). The goal system is a tool that people use to solve conflict and to help them make decisions.

2.4.1 The Goal Hierarchy

The relationship among goals in the goal system is hierarchical. Within this hierarchical structure goals exist at various levels of abstraction. At each level goals differ in the extent to which their consequences are abstract and the degree to which their influence on behaviour is situation specific and idiographic. They are perhaps more accurately described as occupying a position on a continuum which, at one extreme represents goals with concrete consequences that are easy to evaluate, and at the other extreme represents goals whose consequences are highly abstract and relate to complex psycho-social outcomes. Abstract life goals cannot be achieved by current activities and so are broken down into less abstract sub-goals which, in turn, are eventually translated into goals that related to specific action units that guide everyday activities. By acting on clusters of lower level goals an individual can work towards the attainment of the superordinate goals.

The concept of goal hierarchies provides a broad framework within which human motivation can be understood. A range of psychological research has contributed to the development of this comprehensive goal-based conceptualisation of motivation. The relevant literature can be distinguished in terms of the level of specificity at which it deals with motivation. Four such level are distinguished here: (1) motive dispositions, (2) personal strivings and life tasks, (3) current concerns and personal projects, and (4) specific action units. Each of these can be considered to occupy a position in the goal hierarchy as illustrated in Figure 2.1.

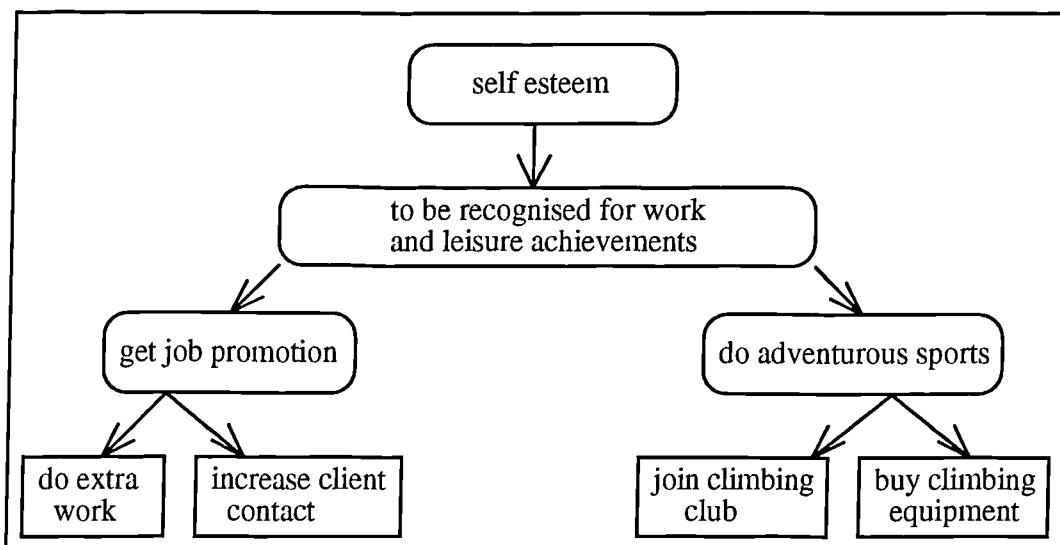
Figure 2.1 The Hierarchical Structure of the Goal System



Source: adapted from Emmons (1989)

The following sections will consider the literature which discusses the motivational role of goals at each of these four levels. Beforehand, it is perhaps useful to provide an illustration of how the various levels of a goal hierarchy are interrelated. Figure 2.2 provides such an example.

Figure 2.2: An Example of The Hierarchical Structure of the Goal System



In this example, those goals at the highest level relate to a general disposition to advance towards the *self esteem* goal. An abstract goal such as *self esteem* cannot usually be satisfied by a single experience, rather its influence on behaviour is enduring. The way in which the *self esteem* goal is serviced differs for each individual; for some it may involve doing well at work, for others it may mean developing close friendships. These subordinate manifestations of motive dispositions have been called personal strivings (Emmons, 1989) and life tasks (Cantor and Kihlstrom, 1989)². At the lower levels of the hierarchy the *ambition* goal is broken down into sub-goals that an individual can act upon. Any number and variety of personal projects and specific action units can be undertaken to service the higher order goals and the specific behaviour of an individual is distinguished by the paths that he or she chooses to advance towards more abstract life goals and personal strivings (see Pieters *et al.*, 1995 for an empirical study of the means-end relationship between goals at different levels of abstraction in the goal hierarchy).

As well as the vertical links in the hierarchical structure of the goal system there are also horizontal relationships. As stated above, behaviour is often guided by multiple goals simultaneously, some that are compatible and others that are conflicting. Where there is tension amongst conflicting goals the key to its resolution resides in the personal importance of various life goals, and the salience of strivings and lower level goals in the specific situation.

As noted above, the following sections develop the explanation of goal-based motivation by focusing on the literature which relates to the four levels of the goal hierarchy presented in Figures 2.1 and 2.2.

²The relationship between motive dispositions and personal strivings or life tasks is comparable to Rokeach's (1973) conceptualisation of terminal and instrumental values which is employed in marketing literature (e.g. Peter and Olson, 1996; Pitts and Woodside, 1991).

2.4.2 Motive Dispositions

Motive dispositions are conceptualised as broad, superordinate constructs which encompass people's needs, values and beliefs. They are generally described in terms of a relatively small number of motives. Schwartz and Bilsky (1987) define values or goals as:

"cognitive representations of three types of universal human requirements: biologically based needs of the organism, social interaction requirements for interpersonal co-ordination, and social institutional demands for group welfare and survival" (p 551).

Ford (1992) offers an alternative but essentially commensurate categorisation of goals at the highest level of abstraction, suggesting that they can be divided into two broad categories: those that represent desired consequences within the individual and those that represent desired consequences in person-environment relationships. *Within person goals* may be affective, cognitive or what are referred to as subjective organisation goals. Affective within person goals are categorised as entertainment, tranquillity, happiness, bodily sensations and physical well-being. Cognitive goals include exploration, understanding, intellectual creativity and positive self-evaluation. Finally, subjective organisation goals, classified as unity and transcendence, refer to a desire to avoid conflicting affective and cognitive states, to go beyond average everyday experiences and to reach some optimal state.

Goals relating to *person-environment relations* can be split into social relationship goals and task goals. Ford (1992) distinguishes between social relationship goals on the basis of Koestler's (1978) suggestion that they relate to a person's ability to integrate or be self-assertive in relationships. Integrative goals include those of belonging, social responsibility, resource provision and equity, while self-assertiveness goals include individuality, self-determination, superiority and resource acquisition. Task goals represent the desire to improve performance or to maintain a certain

standard of achievement and incorporate mastery, task creativity, management, material gain and safety.

This latter class of goals is in line with other claims that social motives can be reduced to a limited number of categories such as achievement, intimacy and power (McClelland, 1951; 1985). McAdam (1985) argues that there are just two central elements of a person's identity which represent instances of two fundamental themes in people's lives: agency (power, mastery, separation) and communion (intimacy, surrender, union).

It was suggested earlier (under the heading of Goals and Motivation) that high level goals become socially or personally desirable through a process of social learning and that they consequently develop an affective quality. It was further noted that the affective quality of high level goals influences the size and direction of their influence on a person's behaviour when they is activated through lower level goals that are involved in everyday activities. O'Shaughnessy (1987) provides an illustration of these principles in his explanation of *Why People Buy* (in his book of the same name). He suggests that the way in which marketing influences consumers is to colour their images of what they value, need and want. The opportunity to do this arises because high level goals are abstract and people's images of them tend to be vague. Moreover, he points out that marketing is able to influence goal priorities by emphasising the consequences of pursuing or, alternatively, of neglecting a particular goal. Although colouring a person's image of an abstract goal is not sufficient to prompt the purchase of a particular good or service, if that good or service is portrayed as a key means of advancing towards the desired end goal then the potential for developing the market is increased.

Not surprisingly marketers have picked up on the potential of life goals for segmentation purposes, as consumer preferences for particular product categories and

brands tend to be consistent with their general life goals. Segmentation on the basis of life goals or values has, therefore, been used by academics (Kamkura and Novak, 1992; Vinson, Scott and Lamont, 1977; Vinson and Munson, 1977) and commercial organisations who have invested in developing value-based segmentation schemes such as SRI's VALS (US) and CCN's PSYCHE (UK).

Despite their uses, considered in isolation, the power of *motive dispositions* to explain behaviour, as is the case with other personality theories, has been disappointing (see reviews by Kassarian and Sheffet, 1981; Wells and Beard, 1973). The general nature of life goals means that everyday activities can only advance people towards them to a very small degree. Their motivational function exerts influence only through links with less abstract goals that are context specific and that an individual can more easily envisage progressing towards.

2.4.3 Personal Strivings or Life Tasks

The notion of *personal strivings* as a concept for understanding individuals' behaviour has been developed relatively recently by Emmons (1989). An analogous concept is Cantor and Kihlstrom's (1989) life tasks. These authors pursue arguments presented by Allport (1937) that personality traits or dispositions are inadequate for describing an individual's personality and that a more idiographic perspective is required. Allport suggested that behavioural tendencies were better described in terms of what a person was "trying to do" and claimed that focusing on "what a person is trying to do in this life, including what he is trying to avoid, and what he is trying to be" (Allport, 1953: 112) provides a more dynamic and discriminating picture of an individual. *Personal strivings* and *life tasks* are not limited to the behavioural domain but may also relate to cognition or affect, for example, a person might strive *to see good in everyone* but it might be difficult to find behavioural manifestations of this type of goal.

These quite broad goals have a relatively enduring influence on an individual. For example, *life tasks* are described as problems that people are currently working on, that give meaning to everyday activities. They tend not, therefore, to be attained by one relative experience, but are realised through many different courses of action. *Life tasks* are similar to *motive dispositions* in that they are superordinate constructs and exert their motivational influence through their links with lower level goals. But, they are more idiographic than motive dispositions in that what each individual is "trying to do" and the circumstances under which he or she is trying to do it are quite unique. For example, referring back to the illustration presented in Figure 2.2, gaining *recognition for achievements in leisure* might relate to *doing adventurous sports* for one person, but for another it may involve writing a radio play or painting.

The person and situation specific nature of *personal strivings* and *life tasks* means that there are potential problems theoretically because of lack of comparability. Emmons (1989) argues, however, that by considering *personal strivings* to occupy a position in the goal hierarchy between *motive dispositions* and more *specific actions*, goals that may be phenotypically different can be united around common themes and in terms of common qualities.

2.4.4 Current Concerns and Personal Projects

The more abstract goals in the hierarchy relate to more enduring influences on behaviour that have commonly been investigated under the auspices of involvement, social norms, preferences and evaluations of product attributes. These motivational influences account for the capacity to act but they do not necessarily lead to action because they do not account for the will to act.

Personal strivings and life tasks, at the second level in the goal hierarchy, are presumed to generate lower level goals that are more likely to lead to action. Two similar but separately developed conceptualisations of goals that operate at this level

of specificity are *current concerns* and *personal projects*. The concept of *current concerns* was developed by Klinger (1977). A *current concern* may be defined as a state occupied between two points in time: the identification of a goal and either the attainment of the goal or disengagement from it. This state guides a person's ongoing thoughts, emotional reactions and behaviour during the time that it is active, which means that the *current concerns* concept facilitates investigation of naturally occurring thoughts and behaviour³. Streams of thought and behaviour depend on certain properties of the *current concerns* that they relate to, particularly their value and the degree of commitment to them (Klinger, Barta and Maxeiner, 1980).

A separately developed concept was Little's (1983; 1986) *personal projects* which are interrelated sequences of personally relevant actions intended to achieve a certain goal. Little proposes that *personal projects* take account of situational and personal factors and include such things as 'finding a part-time job' and 'shopping for holidays'. They are things that people think about, plan for, carry out and sometimes, but not always, complete (Little, 1983).

Both of these concepts reflect a view of motivation which accounts for situational and personal influences on behaviour and, therefore, acknowledges that goals are forever changing. This contrasts to motivational perspectives which emphasise personality dispositions which exert a long-term, stable influence on behaviour. As for *personal strivings* and *life tasks*, *personal projects* and *current concerns* are unique to each individual but they can be compared along dimensions such as value, expectancy for success, complexity and perceived difficulty. Moreover, these properties tie goals to affective, cognitive and behavioural outcomes that are likely to transcend their idiographic content (Emmons, 1989).

³One of Klinger's main reasons for developing the current concerns concept was to examine naturally occurring thoughts and behaviour which were not captured in social motivation research which relied on thematic apperception tests.

2.4.5 Action Specific Goals

Goals that represent *specific action units* are associated conceptually with *current concerns* and *personal projects*. These latter concepts deal with goals that may be relatively broad or narrow, and which take place within a relatively long or limited time frame. *Action specific goals* relate to *concerns* or *projects* at the narrower end of the range. As such, they are associated with specific courses of action and are likely to be accomplished by a single experience. The motivational capacity of *action specific goals* relates to their instrumentality for achieving other goals. It was explained earlier that the motivational properties of abstract goals stem from their affective quality, which depends on whether they are personally or socially desirable and on an individual's past experience of activities relating to the achievement of the goal. The incentive value of concrete goals is linked to the affective quality of higher goals towards which they contribute and to expectations of how that contribution might be achieved in the current situation (Klinger, 1977). (These factors are the basis for attitudes towards goals that feature in the attitude-intention model presented in the next section).

Goal-based analyses of behaviour tend to set boundaries in terms of behavioural episodes, where an episode is defined as:

“Any natural division of social life ... [which] includes not only overt behaviour, but the thoughts, feelings, intentions and plans, etc., of the participant” (Harre and Secord, 1972)

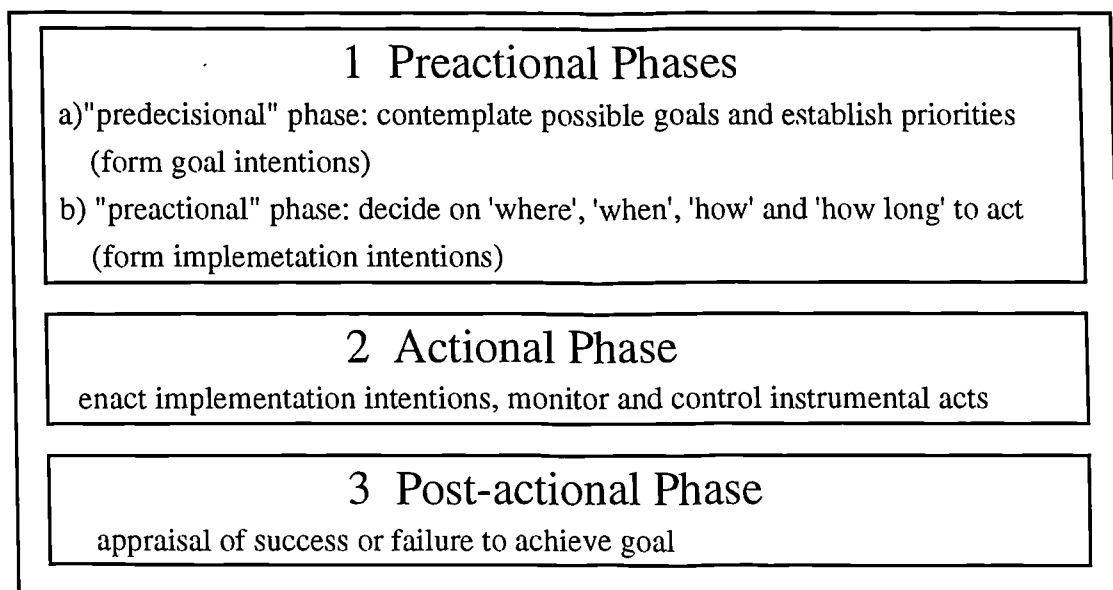
In this research, the behavioural episode will be delimited by the point at which an individual enters into a retail setting and the point at which he or she leaves that setting. Within these limits, the examination of the relationship between shopping goals and in-store behaviour and retail outcomes will be approached by considering individuals' goals upon arrival at a retail outlet (representing the point at which people can be assumed have committed themselves to particular goals) and upon departure

from the retail setting (at which point they can be assumed to have attained or abandoned their goals for that particular activity). There is a need, therefore, to extend the review of the literature of goal-based motivation to consider the thoughts (cognitive strategies), behaviour and emotional reactions that characterise a person's state between becoming committed to pursuing a goal and either gaining or abandoning it.

2.5 Establishing, Pursuing and Attaining Goals

Problems facing consumer behaviour researchers include "when do people succeed or fail to achieve goal that they have set themselves?" and, in the event of failure, "why do they abandon the goals?" The goal concept suggests that people establish goals and select means for pursuing those goals, execute behaviour guided by the goals, monitor and then control their behaviour depending on progress (Heckhausen, 1991; Gollwitzer, 1990; 1996). The end product of these processes is goal attainment or abandonment. This processes is depicted in Figure 2.3:

Figure 2.3: Phases of Goal-directed Behaviour



The following sections discuss the three main phases of goal-directed behaviour: 1) the preactional phases involved in the process of a person becoming committed to goals; 2) the actional phase encompassing the processes that occur during goal pursuit; and 3) the post-actional phase associated with the attainment or abandonment of goals.

2.5.1 Establishing Goals: The Pre-actional Phases of Goal-Directed Behaviour

Becoming committed to a goal involves two phases: (a) a "predecisional" phase which is initiated by wants and needs and involves the contemplation of alternative goals and establishment of preferences among them. The outcome of the predecisional phase is a general goal intention, that is, a decision to try to pursue a goal or perform a behaviour. The goal intention serves as a transition to (b) a "pre-actional" phase when an individual "reflects and decides on 'when', 'where', 'how' and 'how long' to act" (Gollwitzer, 1996: 290) and thus forms an implementation intention. The product of the pre-actional phase is a decision to enact the goal intention when appropriate circumstances present themselves (Bagozzi and Edwards, forthcoming; Bagozzi, 1993).

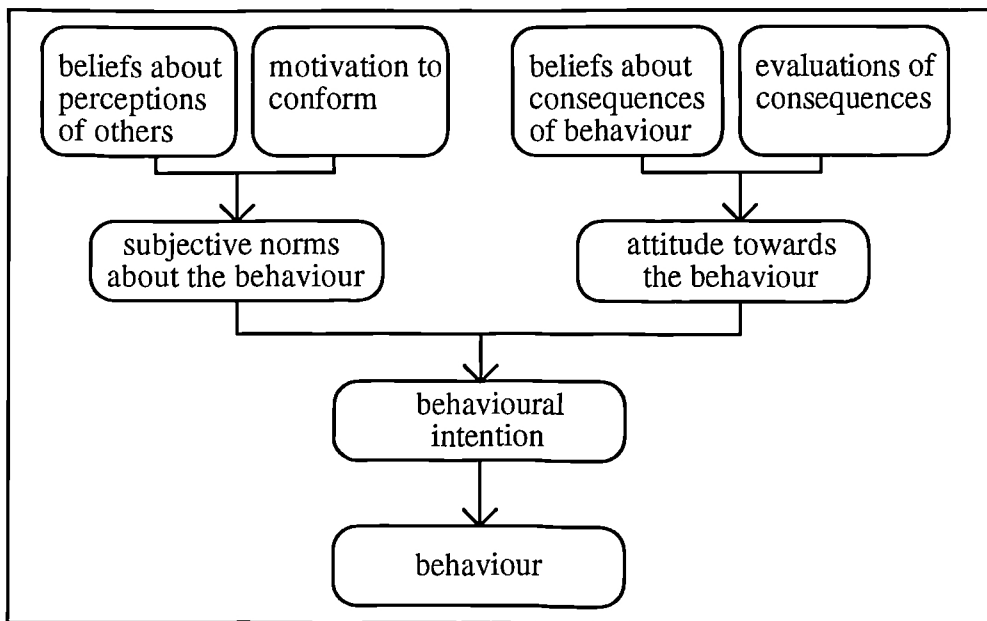
Theories of goal-directed behaviour have advanced understanding of the processes involved in both of the pre-actional phases. Before discussing the contributions of goal theorists, however, attention is turned to attitude models. The attitude models and, in particular, the well-known Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980) and Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1985), are considered because this is a key research area on which the goal theories draw.

2.5.1.1 Attitude-Intention Models

Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) Theory of Reasoned Action proposed that an *intention to act* was the immediate antecedent to and, therefore, an effective predictor of behaviour. An intention to act was itself supposed to be determined by *attitudes*

towards the consequences of behaviour that one wishes to attain or avoid and *social norms* towards the behaviour, as illustrated in Figure 2.4 (antecedents to attitudes and social norms were also included in the model).

Figure 2.4: The Theory of Reasoned Action



Source: adapted from Fishbein and Ajzen (1975)

One of the main limitations of the Theory of Reasoned Action is that it only applies to cases where people can easily perform these behaviours if they are inclined to do so (Bagozzi and Kimmel, 1995; Ajzen, 1985). That is, the model distinguishes between behavioural intentions and goals intentions, acknowledging that it deals with behaviour such as applying for loan or shopping for a new car, but not outcomes that result from the behaviour, namely attaining a loan or finding a suitable car. Unfortunately, the distinction between behavioural intentions and goal intentions has not always been observed by researchers choosing to apply the model to investigate consumer behaviour (see Sheppard, Hartwick and Warshaw, 1988 for a details of applications of the Theory of Reasoned Action).

Recognising that there are a wide range of circumstances in which individuals lack complete volitional control and, therefore, that there was a need for a framework within which to study goal intentions, Ajzen (1985) proposed the Theory of Planned Behaviour. This model introduced the notion of *perceived behavioural control* as a predictor of intentions and behaviour, where perceived behavioural control represents individuals' perceptions of the ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour of interest. As such, perceived behavioural control is presumed to reflect not only anticipated impediments but also past experiences and, as such, it measures a person's subjective estimate of goal attainment. Ajzen (1991) reviews a wide range of empirical research documenting the effects of perceived behavioural control in contexts such as searching for jobs, selecting leisure activities, losing weight and gift giving.

Although, by accounting for impediments to behaviour, the Theory of Planned Behaviour contributes to the understanding of the link between intentions and behaviour, this framework has been criticised for not going far enough in its attempts to account for the psychological processes involved. Moreover, it does not deal with the actual pursuit of goals. More light has been shed on these issues in developments in theories of goal-directed behaviour.

2.5.1.2 Theories of Goal-Directed Behaviour

The last decade has seen an increasing amount of research seeking to advance the models of goal-directed behaviour (Bagozzi and Edwards, forthcoming; Bagozzi, 1993; Bagozzi and Warshaw, 1990; Gollwitzer, 1996; 1990; Ford, 1992; Heckhausen, 1991; Pervin, 1989). As suggested earlier, when dealing with the development of commitment to goals, goal theories distinguish between the processes that lead to the formation of goal intentions (the "predecisional" phase) and those that result in implementation intentions (the "pre-actional" phase).

With regard to the formation of goal intentions, goal theories are in line with attitude models, recognising that the incentive value of a goal depends on its instrumentality for achieving higher level goals. A key issue raised by goal theorists, however, is that situations are often suitable for the pursuit of a variety of desirable goals, and people need to prioritise among them in order that resources can be devoted to those that are most pressing. The importance attributed to goals in a particular situation has attracted substantial attention because goals can vary dramatically in the extent to which they direct behaviour depending on their relative importance.

The importance attributed to goals is partly due to their incentive value and partly based on evaluations of whether or not they can be attained in the current situation. With regard to the issue of the relative importance of goals, they can be considered to occupy a position on a continuum. At one extreme of the continuum are relatively unimportant goals that have failed to gain priority, partly because they are evaluated as unrealistic or so removed from an individual's current state that meaningful progress towards the goal is unlikely in the current circumstances (Heckhausen and Kuhl, 1985). Alternatively, low-priority goals may occupy this position because they are associated with inhibiting emotions, such as anxiety or guilt.

Occupying more central positions on the continuum are goals that have been evaluated to be important and emotionally salient, and that have a directive influence on behaviour. Because they are not of utmost importance, however, they are superseded by high-priority goals when choices need to be made about the use of available time, energy and material resources.

At the other extreme of the continuum are high-priority goals that are dominant in organising and directing behaviour. High-priority goals are generally those that are regarded as intentions in the attitude-intention models (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). An individual's greatest commitment in a current behavioural context is to pursuing

these most salient goals. It is as such that intentions have been demonstrated to be strong and reliable predictors of what a person will try to do in a particular situation (Ajzen, 1988). However, it is useful to be able to account for goals that do not represent the primary concerns in the current situation, or that are not conceptualised as clearly because these goals may account for certain behaviours during a behavioural episode.

In addition to exploring the formation of goal intentions, much of the recent literature on goal-directed behaviour is devoted to implementation intentions. The reason for the strong interest in this phase is that it deals with the problematic issue of the discrepancy between attitudes towards goals and goal-directed behaviour. It is suggested that when people form implementation intentions they are better at getting started at an activity and remaining focused on their pursuit of important goals (Heckhausen, 1991).

When people consider 'when', 'where', 'how' and 'how long' to act to achieve particular goals there are usually a variety of alternative strategies open to them. In many instances the appropriate behaviour will be very similar to that used in previous, similar circumstances. Typically, however, situational factors (see Belk, 1975) demand modification of action plans that have been used in the past.

When selecting an action plan, a person's goals, alongside other motivational components, colour his or her interpretations of particular situations and alternative strategies, which in turn influence the individual's beliefs about action strategies that are "appropriate" in a specific contexts (Showers and Cantor, 1985). Bagozzi (1993) proposes that additional motivational components that influence evaluations of options for 'when', 'where', 'how' and 'how long' to act during the formation of

implementation intentions include three appraisal tasks: *self-efficacy beliefs*, *context beliefs* and *emotional arousal processes*⁴.

The *self-efficacy beliefs* appraisal process involves self-assessment, by an individual, of his or her competency to perform the acts required to pursue alternative courses of action. The notion of specific self-efficacies is derived from Bandura's (1982) work on self-efficacy. Bandura's concept of self-efficacy relates to more abstract goals but it can be extended to instrumental acts in that a person's commitment to pursue a goal is partly dependent on perceived self-efficacy with respect to the means of goal pursuit.

Context beliefs are judgements of the likelihood that each alternative means for pursuing a goal will lead to achievement of the goal. Generally, the level of commitment to a goal depends of the likelihood of achieving the desired end.

The third appraisal process that may influence a person's implementation intentions relates to *emotional arousal processes*. Some means of goal pursuit are more attractive than others because they are perceived to be more pleasant than others. It has been suggested that individuals may classify situations according to the emotions elicited (Pervin, 1977), and that future decisions to select particular means of pursuing a goal may be strongly influenced by emotions elicited in past experiences of similar situations (Emmons and Diener, 1986). The output of these appraisal processes serves to channel energy into the goal-directed behaviour.

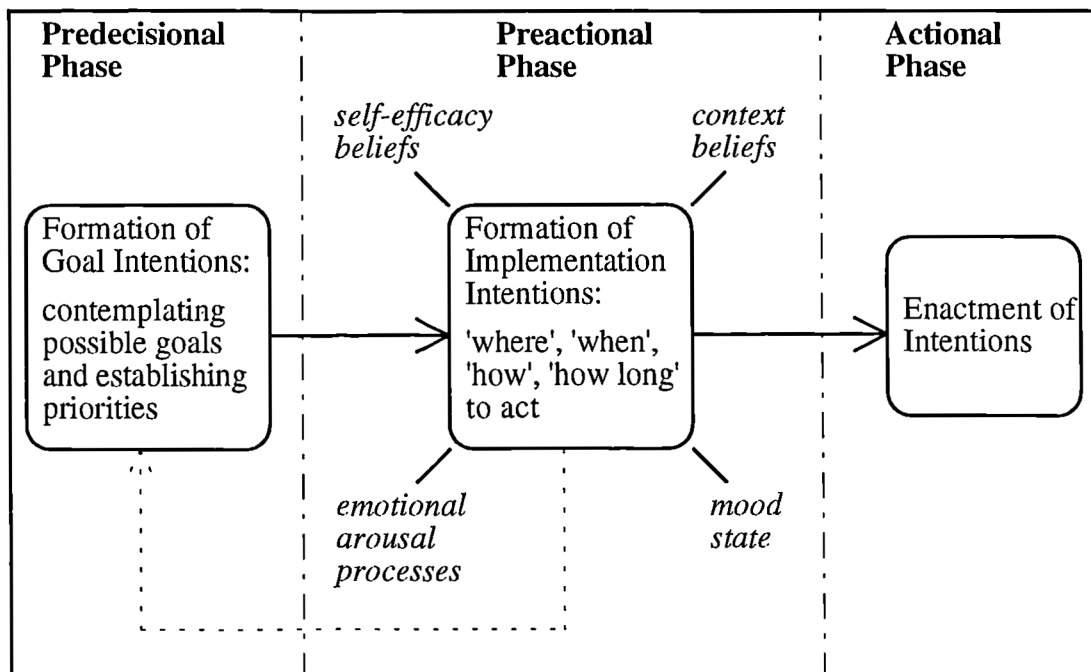
The forms of appraisal that Bagozzi (1993) identifies correspond to those acknowledged by other goal theorists (e.g. Ford, 1992). Ford (1992), however,

⁴Bagozzi (1993) uses slightly different terminology for the appraisal tasks than that used here (namely, *specific self-efficacies*, *instrumental beliefs* and *affect towards means*, respectively). The terms used here are widely used by other authors and have been substituted in order to avoid confusion.

claims that non-emotional affective states, such as mood, should be added to this list of appraisal processes because it too possesses motivational properties (see Section 2.5.1.3).

On the basis of the propositions advanced in perspectives of goal-directed behaviour, Figure 2.5 was drawn up to illustrate the stages that lead to the enactment of intentions, showing the appraisal tasks that influence an individual as he or she considers alternative opportunities or means for goal pursuit. It also illustrates that, although the stages are essentially consecutive, goal intentions may be influenced and subsequently modified following feedback (represented by the broken arrow) from the evaluative processes involved in the formation of implementation intentions.

Figure 2.5: Factors that Influence the Enactment of Goal Pursuit



Source: created by the author on the basis of the literature

The processes that Ford recognises as influencing the enactment of goal-directed behaviour are classified as motivational on the basis that they possess certain

properties (described below). His definition of motivational processes is a useful basis for distinguishing these processes from other non-motivational psychological and biological processes that are involved in goal-directed behaviour.

2.5.1.3 The Motivational Nature of Goal Setting Components

Personal goals, alongside self-efficacy beliefs, context beliefs, emotional arousal processes and non-emotional affective states are classified as motivational, and thus distinguished from non-motivational psychological and biological processes (such as information processing and memory functions) on the basis of three criteria:

- motivational processes are *within-person constituents* rather than qualities of the context;
- motivational processes *focus on the future*, rather than the past or present. Processes that focus on the past or present are skill-related processes⁵.
- motivational processes are *evaluative* rather than instrumental. That is, they provide a basis for decisions about whether to attempt to maintain or restore an existing state or to strive for a new and improved outcome. Motivational processes are responsible for identifying and assessing problems and opportunities, but not for solving those problems or turning opportunities into reality. Instrumental processes - including biological, skill and environmental components - are, by contrast, directly involved in the task of changing the current state into a preferred one.

(Ford, 1992)

⁵The distinction between feedback and feedforward processes is salient in defining motivational processes. Motivationally, what matters is not success or failure *per se*, but how an individual interprets and integrates that information into the goal and other motivational component processes (Ford, 1992). This proposition finds support in research that indicates that cognitions about anticipated consequences are more accurate predictors of motivational outcomes such as choice, effort and persistence, than are cognitions of perceived outcomes (ie. performance evaluations) (Bandura, 1986).

The components suggested as contributing to the process of becoming committed to goals are considered to be motivational in nature on the basis that they satisfy each of these criteria.

Personal Goals - goals are psychological processes that represent desired future states and outcomes and prepare an individual to try to produce those desired futures. As such, goals are both anticipatory and evaluative. Goals, that also provide criteria for evaluating activity, can therefore work to identify alternative goal options and prioritise among them. The label *Personal Goals* emphasises that goals are cognitive processes that direct an individual from within. Where attempts are made to impose goals from outside, such as when social norms are impressed upon an individual, they only have a motivational impact if they are adopted in some form by the individual concerned (Locke and Latham, 1990). They may, however, be adopted as a means of achieving other goals that they do value or for avoiding undesirable consequences.

Self-efficacy Beliefs - as noted above, self-efficacy beliefs relate to whether a person thinks that an outcome is attainable based on evaluations of personal capabilities required for activities that will effectuate the desired consequences (Bandura, 1982). Self-efficacy expectations provide the person with information required to decide whether to initiate, maintain, amplify or inhibit some pattern of goal directed activity.

Context Beliefs - there is an anticipatory quality to evaluations of whether environmental circumstances will facilitate or, at least, not significantly impede efforts to achieve desired consequences. As self-efficacy expectations, an individual uses information derived from context evaluations to make decisions about goal directed behaviour⁶.

⁶Self-efficacy and context beliefs are comparable to the conceptualisation of expectancies in expectancy-value theories of motivation (McClelland, 1985; Atkinson, 1964) except that in the latter case expectancies do not explicitly refer to self-efficacy or the behavioural context but are defined and operationalised as the general attainability of a goal.

Emotional Arousal Processes - emotions are motivational processes in that they provide an individual with information about problems and opportunities of potential personal relevance and help to prepare the person to deal with them. Thus they are anticipatory in the sense of creating "a state of action readiness" (Frijda, 1988: 351). Because they serve an arousal function, emotions are also a source of energy in motivational patterns.

Non-emotional Affective States - states such as happiness, fatigue and depression are also anticipatory and evaluative in that they provide the individual with information about resources available for action and confrontation of impediments encountered in the physical and social environment. They also colour a person's evaluation of goal outcomes, self efficacy and the likelihood that the goal can be attained in a particular context.

Those processes that do not meet the motivational criteria include: environmental processes (providing external incentives, pressure and support to facilitate or constrain motivation); control and transactional processes (responsible for designing and executing actions needed to make progress towards a goal, including the preparatory processes of cognitive planning and problem solving); information processing and memory functions, and attention and consciousness arousal processes (although providing content and energy for governing functions including thoughts about personal goals, these processes only help to carry out orders sent out by the motivational processes, they do not contribute to the initial design of those orders); and, finally, performance evaluations (providing feedback on how things are going, but leaving cognitions of what this means for the future to self-efficacy and context evaluative functions) (Ford, 1992).

The distinction between motivational and non-motivational components of goal-directed behaviour needs to be carefully attended. One of the main difficulties in attempting such a distinction is that all components must be closely integrated with one another to enable integrated and effective functioning. Therefore, although many environmental and within-person components are not motivational themselves, they influence and are influenced by motivational processes in very significant ways.

Recognition of the processes that motivate the initiation and, subsequently the maintenance, of goal-directed behaviour offers a way forward in understanding the links between people's intentions to pursue a goal and their actual behaviour. It should be noted, however, that personal goals, self-efficacy beliefs, context beliefs, emotions and non-emotional affective states are components that are involved in a *reasoned* path to action. Not all instances of becoming committed to goals are based on reasons provided by these appraisal processes, however. Behaviour energisation may also arise from conative *impulses or compulsions to act* (Bagozzi, 1993). This type of motivation emerges from intense urges or desires, or may be a reaction to coercive influences. Impulses or compulsions to act may lead directly to action without elaboration of the motivational components involved in the reasoned path to action.

In sum, the goals that an individual develops commitment to in a particular behavioural episode depend on a variety of motivational components including personal goals, self-efficacy and context beliefs, emotional arousal processes and non-emotional affective states. Alternatively, goal-directed action may be initiated via an unreasoned path in which case behaviour is described as impulsive or compulsive. The behaviour-directing function of goals, resulting from the motivational processes involved in forming and deciding to implement goal intentions, can be summarised in terms of the priority attributed to goals on a particular occasion. The following sections move on to consider the stages of goal-directed behaviour that occur after

the decision to enact goal pursuit has been made, that is, the active pursuit of goals during a behavioural episode.

2.5.2 Pursuing Goals: The Actional Phase of Goal-Directed Behaviour

The "actional" phase of goal-directed behaviour involves the enactment of implementation intentions, and the monitoring and controlling of instrumental acts.

There are two main views on the enactment and control of instrumental acts, but they are advanced as complementary rather than competitive. Gollwitzer (1993) argues that, in many instances, the situation identified as suitable for goal pursuit acts as a behavioural cue which, when encountered, directly instigates the unfolding of intended goal-directed behaviour. That is, the behaviour unfolds automatically, without further conscious intent on the side of the individual. Although this behaviour may resemble habitual behaviour, it is the result of a conscious mental act (i.e. the formation of an implementation intention) and is, therefore, willed and intended. By contrast, habitualised behaviour, believed to always result from frequent and consistent performance of particular actions, is subject to only automatic control (Uleman and Bargh, 1989).

The alternative perspective of planning, popular amongst cognitive psychologists and researchers in the field of artificial intelligence, assumes that the execution of actions is subject to conscious control during its execution (Taylor and Schneider, 1989; Miller, Gallanter and Pribram, 1960). This view emphasises that when action plans are developed, the cognitive system allows for a certain level of flexibility such that as events unfold. Action strategies can be modified on the basis of feedback about whether the intended behaviour turns out to be appropriate.

Gollwitzer (1993) provides substantial evidence from experimental research and from neuropsychology to support the notion that goal-directed behaviour is controlled

automatically. Nevertheless, when a person faces any significant inhibiting factors in the course of goal pursuit it seems plausible that there would be conscious intervention serving to revise the action plan.

A person's perseverance in pursuit of their goals, and the effort invested in relevant actions is determined by the strength of the goal intentions and the difficulties that need to be overcome (Heckhausen, 1991). As the episode evolves, the control of effort is influenced by feedback about progress towards important goals. This feedback is generated by the same appraisal processes that feature in the pre-actional phases of goal-directed behaviour: self-efficacy beliefs and context beliefs, emotional arousal processes and non-emotional affective states. Feedback on progress not only serves to control effort and perseverance, but can also provide a basis for readjustment of personal standards for goal attainment (Bandura, 1987).

2.5.2.1 Standards for Goal Attainment

Feedback on progress towards goals relies, first, on a person having an idea of a desired standards for goal attainment and, secondly, being able to evaluate the effectiveness of his or her behaviour by comparison to those standards. Klinger, Barta and Maxeiner (1980) posit that affect plays a key role in this feedback process, indicating when progress is being made towards goals or when an important goal has been attained.

Criteria for performance evaluations are typically referred to as achievement standards. Such standards are usually derived from one or two sources; goals themselves or contextual points of comparison (e.g. factual points of reference or normative standards). In some cases standards for achievement are embedded in goals. This is likely to be the case when the behavioural context is highly organised (see Foxall's [1990] description of "closed settings") or familiar, when a person has a clear idea of how events will unfold. In other cases, there is nothing in the goal that

implies a standard for achievement, rather standards are generated by cognitive or environmental processes as the individual interacts with the environment. This is more likely to be characteristic of goals in situation that are less organised (see Foxall's [1990] description of "open settings") or unfamiliar, where the appropriate way to behave is not clear beforehand.

Levels of aspirations amongst individuals vary, however, because standards for achievement are influenced by self-serving bias in the interpretation and planning of behaviour. The bias reflects a global goal of enhancing or protecting self-esteem and maintain or improve one's affective state. When interpreting situations and planning behaviour people often play through the behaviour and predict the likely outcomes. Imagined scenarios will be more optimistic or pessimistic (Showers and Cantor, 1985). Optimistic images, in which positive outcomes are foreseen, lead to an individual setting high standards for achievement. Given this approach there is a greater probability of raising standards of performance (Locke and Latham, 1990) and consequently enhancing confidence of one's capabilities and, by association, improving or maintaining affective states. By contrast, pessimistic images, in which negative outcomes of behaviour are anticipated, tend to be defensive strategies. By setting low expectations people cushion themselves against unsatisfactory outcomes.

2.5.2.2 The Evolution of Standards in the Course of Goal Pursuit

The process for integrating standards for goal attainment into the goals directing behaviour is a dynamic and continuous one. For example, an individual with a strong desire to redecorate a new house may decide to settle for a sub-optimal standard of achievement as it becomes evident how much time, money and energy is required to complete the task as foreseen. The importance of distinguishing goals from standards for achievement is greater where goals directing behaviour do not play a key role in the definition of standards for goal attainment. For instance, people who simply want to have fun, spend time with friends or relax might suggest that they do not have any

goals on that occasion, when what they mean is that they do not have any concrete standards for goal attainment. Bergin (1989) suggests that a key source of pleasure in such situations is that people are not bound by the standards for attainment that are common in everyday life. Instead they can take things as they come, without worrying about incompetence or failure (because success is almost guaranteed when the standards of goal attainment are so flexible).

This type of goal pursuit is commensurate with Csikszentmihalyi's (1975) notion of flow, as a concept that describes the pattern of activity and enjoyment that people experience in contexts in which specific standards for goal attainment are permitted to emerge as a consequence of interactions with the environment. In such instances behaviour is goal directed but it is not constrained by preconceived expectations that typically accompany "fixed" standards for goal attainment. This enables people to discover the standards that are appropriate for them given the pattern of interests and skills that they bring to the situation and the variety of transactional opportunities afforded by the task or social environment. The main advantage of approaching situations without preconceived standards is that success, as well as enjoyment and satisfaction that accompany success, are an almost inevitable consequence of engaging in the activity (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975). An additional advantage of *flow* experiences is that creative processes and products are likely to emerge when there are many different ways of engaging in an activity and no predetermined notion of what the optimal result might be.

The vague specification of standards for goal achievement is one of the reasons for the prevalence of ill-defined action strategies. Also, individuals may be purposefully vague about their action strategies, for example, when an individual has multiple goals, some of which may be incommensurate with others, or when plans involve more than one person and the various parties have different goals and different ideas about how to attain them. Moreover, plans are highly likely to change when they are

put into action because the environment in which the activities take place can never be perfectly predicted. Therefore, people have to rework their plans in response to continuous feedback (Oatley, 1988).

The execution of action strategies invariably involves the expenditure of resources in terms of time, energy and materials. With regard to the effort and commitment devoted to the pursuit of goals, the resources invested in activities depends on the desirability of the goal and on what an individual believes to be necessary to attain appropriate achievement standards. Where goals are easily attained (or avoided) people tend not to invest a great deal of valuable resources in pursuing them. Whereas, goals that are more difficult to achieve require greater sacrifice.

2.5.3 Attaining Goals: The Post-Actional Phase of Goal-Directed Behaviour

Once a pattern of behaviour has started to unfold in a particular context, it should continue until one of the following conditions is met:

- the goal organising and directing the behaviour is accomplished or, at least, accomplished to a satisfactory level;
- the individual's attention is diverted by some internal or external factor and another goal takes precedence, at least temporarily;
- the goal is evaluated as unattainable, at least under the current circumstances.

(Pervin, 1983)

The conclusion of action directed towards pursuit of a goal signals the onset of post-actional phase and can occur when any one of the above conditions is met. It involves an individual assessing the goal-directed activity and its consequences and considering the implications for future actions. If the goal has been attained an individual will normally move on to some other activity. If not, an individual evaluates why the goal has not been reached (causal attributions) in order to decide whether or not to

continue to pursue it at another time, in another place, in a modified form or whether to abandon it altogether (Heckhausen, 1991).

2.6 Summary of Part I

So far, this chapter has provided an overview of the goal-based view of motivation, providing a framework within which to study shopping motivation from a cognitive perspective. The chapter started by introducing the goal concept as a perspective on human motivation. The motivational quality of goals was explained by reference to the hierarchical structure of an individual's goal system. It was suggested that within the goal hierarchy goals exist at various levels of abstraction. Although it is perhaps more accurate to consider goals as occupying a position on a continuum, for the sake of clarity, four levels were distinguished. At each level goals differ in the extent to which their consequences are abstract and the degree to which their influence on behaviour is situation specific and idiographic.

Goals at the lowest level of the hierarchy (action specific goals), are those of specific interest in this research. It was suggested in Chapter 1 that the principles of goal-directed behaviour relating to action specific goals would be used to explore the dynamics of shopping motivation during a particular shopping episode. Therefore, the remainder of Chapter 2 up to this point has focused on a discussion of the three main stages of goal-directed behaviour (as illustrated in Figure 2.3). In this discussion it was suggested that for an understanding of the pre-actional phases of the process - the way in which individuals form goal intentions and implementation intentions - one can draw on the attitude-intention models of Fishbein and Ajzen. It was argued, however, that to obtain an in-depth understanding of how people become sufficiently motivated to enact goal intentions in a particular situation it is necessary to turn to theories of goal-directed behaviour, because even later developments of the attitude-intention models do not go far enough in accounting for psychological processes that influence enactment. Theories of goal-directed behaviour have distinguished the

motivational processes that lead to goal enactment, and have also provided further understanding of the actional and post-actional phases of goal-directed behaviour. Although this research does not investigate of the complex cognitive processes that intervene between the pre-actional and post-actional phases, comprehension of feedback and control process during a behavioural episode can aid interpretation why goals that an individual sets out to achieve are attained or abandoned.

As noted, the foregoing discussion was developed to provide a theoretical framework within which to consider shopping motivation. Part II of this chapter, therefore, goes on to review the literature on shopping motives and shopping behaviour that can be linked to the goal-based view of motivation.

Part II: A Goal-based View of Shopping Motivation

2.7 Introduction

The purpose of this second part of the chapter is to consider research relating to shopping goals or motives and shopping behaviour, and to discuss it in relation to the principles of goal-directed behaviour outlined in Part I. Literature on shopping behaviour does not fit neatly into the framework outline in Part I. Nevertheless, attempts are made, as far as possible, to relate shopping behaviour research that refers to consumers' cognitive processes to the main stages of goal-directed behaviour. Figure 2.6 illustrates this structure and indicates which streams of shopping behaviour research are associated with the three stages of goal-directed behaviour in the following discussion.

Figure 2.6: Shopping Behaviour Research Associated with Each Phase of Goal-directed Behaviour

Phases of goal-directed behaviour	Shopping behaviour research
<p>1 Preactional Phases a) formation of goal intentions b) formation of implementation intentions</p>	<p>shopping motives - types of shopping - types of shopper</p>
<p>2 Actional Phase enact implementation intentions monitor and control instrumental acts</p>	<p>time use in shopping shopper typologies</p>
<p>3 Post-actional Phase appraisal of success of failure to achieve goal</p>	<p>shopping satisfaction</p>

2.8 Establishing Shopping Goals: The Pre-actional Phases of Goal-directed Shopping Behaviour

The pre-actional phases of goal-directed behaviour - the formation of goal intentions and implementation intentions - have received a substantial amount of attention, not only in the consumer behaviour and retailing literature but also in areas of anthropology, sociology and cultural studies (Falk and Campbell, 1997; Shields, 1995), psychology (Csikzentmihalyi and Rochberg-Halton, 1987) and human geography (Jackson and Thrift, 1995). In consumer behaviour and retailing, the streams of literature that relate to one or both of the pre-actional phases include research on shopping motives, shopper typologies and patronage behaviour. The following discussion considers the nature of shopping goals and implementation intentions as illustrated in this research. Before embarking on this discussion, however, Section 2.8.1 addresses questions pertaining to the relative effects of personal and situational influences on shopping motivation.

2.8.1 Personal and Situational Influences on Nature of Shopping Goals

A key issue in literature that deals with shopping goals is whether consumers have a general orientation towards shopping, or whether their motives vary depending on circumstances. Buttle (1992) presents a strong case to suggest that shopping motives are not personal attributes or a general orientation. He refers, for example, to one male subject who supposedly hated shopping yet expressed great enthusiasm for shopping for fishing equipment, and another male subject who had not bought himself a pair of socks in three years but who would spend weeks shopping for a present for his wife. Buttle emphasised that people contextualise the shopping experience before providing a motivational account and that they explain their shopping behaviour both as a result of prefigurative causes and practical reasons. He argues that both of these factors are incompatible with the notion of a general shopping orientation.

Buttle's position is in line with the principles of goal-directed behaviour which stress that action specific goals, more than those further up the goal hierarchy, are linked to situations. This view also mirrors that adopted by Dawson and Sparks (1985) who categorise shopping as essential chore shopping, purposive shopping, time-pressured shopping, fun shopping and experiential shopping, emphasising that consumers seek out different types of retailers to serve their goals peculiar to the type of shopping trip. Reiterating his position, Dawson (1994) highlights that consumers seek different combinations of value (functional, social, emotional, epistemic and conditional) on different shopping occasions. An 1986 Mintel report provided evidence of contrasts in consumer attitudes towards shopping across different types of shopping trips. These attitudes are displayed in Table 2.1 below.

The most commonly expressed attitudes towards shopping were that it is an *essential chore*, a *family obligation* and *fun*. However, comparison of the results for these three items across different shopping contexts (groceries, clothes and household goods) reveals marked contrasts between different types of shopping.

Table 2.1: Consumer Attitudes Towards Shopping

	for groceries (%)	for clothes (%)	for household items (%)
family obligation	38	23	37
essential chore	78	53	34
educational	2	1	4
creative	1	9	2
active	7	5	4
relaxing	1	11	5
social	4	7	5
fun	4	29	23
none of these	2	3	6

Source: Mintel (1986: 45-47)

The results illustrate that grocery shopping was perceived to be much more of an *essential chore* than shopping for household items and clothes, with clothes shopping being least likely to be considered as a chore. Clothes shopping was also considered to be less of a *family obligation* than the other two types of shopping. Presumably this included shopping for children and possibly a partner's clothes and would have been even less of an obligation had it referred solely to shopping for clothes for oneself. Finally, grocery shopping was considered to be much less *fun* than shopping for clothes and household goods.

Others argue, however, that consumers exhibit both enduring and situational differences in shopping motivation. Westbrook and Black (1985) observe that:

"while [motives] are held to be relatively stable over time for a given consumer, they may nevertheless vary appreciably across individuals and shopping situations" (pp 87-88)

Mooradian and Olver (1996) adopt this stance as a premise for their research into the links between personality characteristics and shopping predispositions. Similarly, Bergadaa, Faure and Perrien (1995) argue that there is an element of stability in

shopping motivation in their exploration of enduring shopping involvement, as do Wang and Rao (1995). One might question the validity of this type of study on the grounds that question formats often do not allow respondents to highlight differences between types of shopping even if they exist. For example, Bergadaa, Faure and Perrien (1995) assess attitudes towards shopping where shopping is defined as "to seek out information, to window shop, to run errands or make purchases" (p 24). However, qualitative approaches (e.g. Lunt and Livingstone, 1992) have found certain individuals (especially women) to be more predisposed to shopping in general, which suggests that there is reasonable evidence of a stable as well as a situation specific disposition towards shopping.

2.8.2 Shopping Goals

The 1990s have seen growing interest in the issue of consumer shopping motives (goals). Prior to this, a few key studies provided a foundation for this line of research (Westbrook and Black, 1985; Buttle and Coates, 1984; Tauber, 1972) but it had received relatively little attention and there was no dominant perspective on the issue. In fact, Buttle and Coates (1984) suggested Tauber's (1972) research was the only pertinent work on shopping motives that they could locate.

Tauber's (1972) work became prominent because he challenged the view that consumers only shop for the functional benefits associated with purchasing goods and services, proposing that they also seek a range of social and personal goals. Based on a series of 30 depth interviews about subjects' behaviour on a recent shopping trip he found support for his proposals, identifying five social motives and six personal motives:

Social Motives

- *social experiences outside the home* - chance or organised meeting with friends, interaction with salespeople and other shoppers,
- *communication with others having a similar interest* - either obtaining specialist information concerning an activity or simply talking about a hobby or particular activity, issue or object of interest,
- *peer group attraction* - a desire to be with one's reference group or a group to which one aspires to belong which enhances the appeal of a particular retail setting. This motive is not necessarily related to an interest in the product category sold in that setting, although if peer group status is linked with knowledge of the category one might be motivated to learn about the product,
- *status and authority* - relating to a desire to be the centre of attention and to command power in a relationship, both or which may be realised by being on the receiving end of sales service, and finally
- *pleasure of bargaining* - some enjoy the process of haggling and derive satisfaction from having obtained what they believe to be a reasonable price, while others find it degrading and "cheap". In fixed price situations similar benefits may be attained by shopping around and sale shopping.

Personal Motives

- *role playing* - playing out socially roles, for example, father, student, housewife, wife, which are have been learned and internalised and which motivate people behave in ways that they feel are required of them,
- *diversion* - seeking entertainment through shopping as an escape or diversion from the routine of everyday life,
- *learning about new trends* - where products are viewed as symbols of reflecting attitudes and lifestyle, learning about new trends and the symbols which reflect

them can motivate shopping activities, regardless of whether a purchase is intended,

- *self-gratification* - the ability of shopping to alleviate negative moods and to enhance or maintain positive moods is a key shopping motive. The buying process itself being as important, if not more so, than the product purchased
- *physical activity* - the opportunity to engage in gentle exercise, by means of the walking involved in shopping, is often welcomed,
- *sensory stimulation* - the range of sensory stimulation derived from shopping at a particular retail outlet, from scents, music and imaginative and brightly coloured displays, may influence patronage choice, but do not generally emerge as a reason for going shopping.

Although Tauber's (1972) research was exploratory, and makes no reference to any particular conceptualisation of motivation, the 11 motives that he identified correspond by and large to the categories of goals distinguished by goal theorists. Section 2.3.2 in Part I of this chapter reported that Ford's (1992) classification differentiated between *within-person goals* and *person-environment goals*. The subcategories within each of these broad types were as follows:

within-person goals

affective: entertainment, tranquillity, happiness, bodily sensations, physical well-being

cognitive: exploration, understanding, intellectual creativity

subjective

organisation: unity, transcendence

person-environment goals

social relationships:	integrative (belonging, social responsibility, resource provision, equity) self-assertive (individuality, self-determination, superiority, resource acquisition)
task goals:	maintain standard of achievement/improve performance/achieve mastery, management, material gain, safety

Most of Tauber's Social Motives relate to either the integrative or self-assertive motives distinguished by Ford, whereas Tauber's Personal Motives correspond with Ford's within-person goals of the cognitive or affective variety. There are some shopping motives whose categorisation might be questioned, for example, *communication with others having a similar interest* and *role playing* could arguably be classified as within-person goals or as social relationship goals. Nevertheless, the compatibility of the types of shopping motives identified by Tauber with the classifications offered by goal theorists (based on a research across a wide range of contexts) lend support to his findings.

Further support has been provided by a range of qualitative and quantitative shopping behaviour research and the broader view of why people shop is now widely held. The quantitative research (Westbrook and Black, 1985; Babin, Darden and Griffin, 1994) has, however, tended to categorise shopping motives either as functional (alternatively referred to as utilitarian or product-related) or non-functional (also referred to as hedonic or experiential). Table 2.2 summarises research that has attempted to categorise shopping goals.

The next two sections consider the two main categories of shopping goals that are highlighted by research into shopping motives: functional and non-functional goals.

Table 2.2 : Summary of Shopping Motive Classifications

author and date	shopper population/ context	sample size	measurement	shopping motive classification
Tauber (1972)	most recent shopping trip	30	depth interview	functional social personal
Westbrook and Black (1985)	female department store shoppers	203	satisfaction with shopping experiences, settings and outcomes scale	product-related experiential
Buttle and Coates (1994)	female adults - shopping in general	20	depth interviews	functional social personal
Babin, Darden and Griffin (1994)	stage 1: members of university community stage 2: undergraduate students stage 3: residents of midwestern town	stage 1: 14 stage 2: 125 stage 3: 440	stage 1: focus groups stage 2: shopping value scale stage 3: shopping value scale	utilitarian (work) hedonic (fun)
Mooradian and Olver (1996)	undergraduate marketing students	211	personality traits and shopping motives scales	functional, social and personal motives correlated with personality types: neuroticism, extroversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness

2.8.2.1 Functional Shopping Goals

Functional shopping goals are those that relate to tasks, and often reflect a work mentality (Babin, Darden and Griffin, 1994). The desired ends of functional goals relate to the benefits to be obtained from the purchase and use of goods and services (or the negative consequences of failing to make a suitable purchase). These consequences vary depending on the nature of the good or service sought (the product category, whether it is for public or private consumption, intended for personal/family use or as a gift) and the meaning that it has for the consumer.

The consequences of the purchase can bear an important influence on whether shopping for the item is considered to be a chore that a person wants to complete as efficiently and effectively as possible, or whether a degree of pleasure is also derived from the shopping process. As implied by the Mintel (1986) study cited earlier, one type of shopping that tends to involve more of a work mentality, that is considered to be "an essential chore", is grocery shopping. Other research has shown that women consider grocery shopping to add to their work load and to the time pressures on them, and that this is especially true of women employed outside the home (Maher, Marks, Grimm, 1997). Campbell found that many females expressed that they disliked food shopping, "seeing it as part of their 'job' or 'work-role' of housewife" (Campbell, 1997: 173). By contrast, shopping for products which have a greater symbolic value for consumers, although having a work-related component, is more likely to be a source of enjoyment. An example of purchases with high symbolic value might be a conspicuously consumed or luxury product (e.g. clothes or furniture), a product relating to an individual's interests or hobbies (e.g. computers, electrical goods or musical instruments) or it might be a self-gift (e.g. as a reward, or to cheer oneself up).

Another type of purchase that has attracted attention in research concerned with the extent to which shopping is considered as work is gift buying. Gifts are described by Belk and Coon (1993) as extensions of the giver's self and, as such, they are suggested to be a means of demonstrating commitment to the receiver. Because of the symbolic nature of gift giving (Sherry, 1983; Belk, 1979), and the risks of miscommunication (Belk, 1996), shopping for gifts can be an arduous and stressful task. This seems to be particularly true in the case of women who carry more responsibility for gift buying than men (Hill and Romm, 1996; Fischer and Arnould, 1990), although Fischer and Arnould (1990) point out that men are more likely to be more involved if they hold egalitarian gender-role attitudes. Fischer and Arnould's (1990) research focuses on Christmas shopping and suggests that although it may be a

"labour of love", it is most widely considered as "women's work". The difficulty of the gift shopping task depends on the nature of the gift and the social role that the giver wishes to express. In the context of Christmas gift selection, Otnes *et al.*'s (1993) explore the notion that recipients are either "easy" or "difficult" to buy for, concluding that:

"almost without exception, the perception of recipients as easy or difficult stemmed from some aspect of the particular relationship between giver and recipient" (p 229).

Belk (1982) reports that wedding gifts and birthday gifts for close friends are, for example, more involving than birthday gifts for casual friends. In general, it appears that gift buying for specified gift-giving occasions, is largely considered to be a task, although one that varies in difficulty. Pleasure may be derived from gift shopping, but it is often experienced when the task is successfully completed.

In sum, there are a variety of contexts in which the goals driving shopping behaviour are characterised by a "work" element. In general, it is more relevant to refer to the shopping goals as functional where individuals are happy to "get through it all" (Babin, Darden and Griffin, 1994), as opposed to contexts in which an individual enjoys the *process* of shopping.

2.8.2.2 Non-functional Shopping Goals

Non-functional shopping goals are those associated with the hedonic rewards of shopping activities. Acknowledgement that many people enjoy shopping for its own sake has led to a range of research into "recreational" or "leisure" shopping and Fergusson (1992) argues that it has become a favourite British pastime. Some support for his argument can be drawn from figures on the number of hours that consumers spend on this activity. According to the Henley Centre (1991) people in Britain spend an average of 4.6 hours per week shopping for essentials and other

items. More recently, research carried out for Mintel in November 1994 revealed that three quarters of their sample spent at least some time "looking around" the shops in an average week.

Table 2.2: Time Spent Looking Around the Shops in Average Week

	%
Any	76
11 or more hours	2
7-10 hours	5
5-6 hours	7
3-4 hours	16
2 hours	23
up to 1 hour	22
None	24

Source: Mintel (1996)

The figures show that 30% of the sample spend three or more hours a week looking around the shops and 7% spent in excess of seven hours on this activity.

Unfortunately, it is not clear from the report how the distinction was drawn between browsing for its own sake and looking around the shops with the intention to purchase a particular good or service. Nevertheless, the research provides evidence that a substantial number of British people devote a significant amount of their free time to "looking around the shops". This is likely to have been influenced of recent by changes in the retail sector such as Sunday and late night opening, the organisation of out-of-hours events for store card holders (e.g. Debenhams, Marks and Spencers) and the development of out-of-town sites where retailers share the complex with leisure facilities such as restaurants, cinemas and bowling alleys.

Hirschman and Holbrook (1982) discuss the hedonic dimensions of consumption-related activities, linking it to perceived freedom, fantasy fulfilment and escapism. Babin Darden and Griffin's (1994) research, designed to develop a scale to measure

shopping value among US consumers, found evidence of such motives in the shopping context. For example, the final scale measuring hedonic value included items such as: "this shopping trip truly felt like an escape" and "I was able to do a lot of fantasising during this trip".

Hewer and Campbell (1997) pick up on the "freedom" element of hedonic experiences. Referring to Campbell (forthcoming) they propose that:

"pleasure derived from shopping is related to the extent that it is self-determined, with the activity understood as an autonomous field of action in which the pleasure is correlated to the extent to which individuals are able to undertake it as they please" (Hewer and Campbell, 1997: 189)

A similar line of argument is followed by Falk (1997) who muses that the pleasures that shopping affords may be quite independent from purchasing and stem directly from the freedom that an individual has to engage in "just looking". The lack of constraint felt by shoppers also emerged in Babin, Darden and Griffin's (1994) hedonic value scale, where one of the items was "I had a good time because I was able to act on the spur of the moment". These suggestion correspond with Csikzentmihalyi's (1975) suggestions, relating to the notion of *flow*, that people experience pleasure in contexts where specific standards for goal attainment are permitted to emerge as a consequence of interactions with the environment.

Falk (1997) also emphasises that an additional source of shopping pleasure is an individual's emotional response to the retail environment. Pleasure and arousal experienced due to interaction with the retail environment has received a great deal of attention in behaviourist research on consumer shopping behaviour (e.g. Foxall, 1997; Donovan and Rossiter, 1982). Falk (1997) stresses that retailers provide a unique opportunity for individuals searching for "aesthetic stimulation" by enabling them to enjoy close encounters with the object of interest (whereas in other contexts, such as

galleries and museums they are expected to keep their distance). These types of benefits relate to what Sheth (1983) refers to as epistemic goals. In a later article Sheth *et al.* (1991) suggests that epistemic goals reflect a desire for knowledge, novelty and both the arousal and satisfaction of curiosity. Few studies of shopping motivation identify epistemic goals as a specific class of goals. There is, nevertheless, evidence of shopping goals that correspond with Sheth *et al.*'s (1991) description of epistemic goals. For example, Tauber (1972) suggested that *learning about new trends* was one of the key personal motives for shopping, while one of the items in the Babin *et al.*'s (1994) hedonic shopping value scale was "I enjoyed being immersed in exciting new products". Falk (1997) notes that hedonic benefits come from employing visual and other sensory registers through actions such as touching and trying on. Likewise, MacInnes and Price (1987) highlight the benefits of vicarious consumption, suggesting that people can enjoy a product's benefits without purchasing it.

The intrinsic pleasures of shopping, although not dependent on purchasing, are not necessarily independent of it. Referring back to Tauber's (1972) original list of personal shopping motives it is noted that *self-gratification*, which relates to the ability of shopping to alleviate negative moods and to enhance or maintain positive moods, is a key shopping motive. Tauber highlighted that the buying process itself is as important, if not more so, than the product purchased. This sentiment has been echoed in research on impulse buying has revealed that consumers often buy a product during a shopping trip because of the enjoyment and excitement that they derive from undergoing the purchase process. Rook (1987) claims that consumers feel a "need to purchase" rather than "a need for a product". Likewise, it has been suggested of compulsive shoppers that the purchase process is a key source of pleasure (Elliot, Eccles and Gournay, 1996). The buying process has also been reported to be enjoyable for its own sake in reports of 'sale' shopping. Analysis of a series of group discussions conducted by Betts and McGoldrick (1995) to uncover

why sale shopping activity was appealing to consumers revealed that *excitement* was amongst the main reasons for which individuals engage in sale shopping.

Although the category of non-functional goals might be expected to incorporate both the personal and social motives to which Tauber (1972) referred, recent literature provides more evidence that shopping serves personal than social ends. This is the case for both qualitative (Buttle and Coates, 1984) and quantitative (Babin, Darden and Griffin, 1994) studies. For example, Buttle and Coates (1984) attempted to update Tauber's work, continuing to focus on social and personal shopping motives. Their research revealed eight categories of motives which were agreed between the authors and independent analysts:

- to kill time,
- to relax, exercise and be stimulated,
- a reflection of temperament,
- to acquire information,
- to take advantage of proximity to shops when a trip has been made for another purpose,
- to enjoy shopping as a social event,
- to compare alternatives,
- to enhance, or actually be, a special occasion

Generally, these can be assimilated with Tauber's (1972) list of motives. However, three items in Tauber's list did not emerge in this study, namely, status and authority, the pleasure of bargaining, and communication with others having a similar interest. All of the categories which failed to be replicated in Buttle and Coate's (1984) study were among the social motives for shopping. Given the absence of goals that relate to social benefits of shopping, questions are raised about the emphasis that consumers place on the social aspect. This said, most of the research on shopping motivation has been carried out in the United States or, in the case of Buttle and Coates, New

Zealand and similar results may not necessarily be replicated in the UK. An indication that one should be cautious in drawing conclusions about lack of social motives for shopping is provided by Betts and McGoldrick (1995) who report that one of the reasons for 'sale' shopping was *camaraderie*, which they illustrate with the following extract from one of the group discussions: "you're with people like you, who are hunting for bargains, you have a good laugh together" (p 318).

The research reported above outlines types of goals, subsumed under the broad categories of functional and non-functional goals, that have incentive value for individuals which can be realised via shopping activities. The two broad classes of goals espoused by quantitative researchers are useful as a means of engendering parsimony in this line of research. However, coverage of the range of literature shows that these two categories incorporate a wide variety of sub-goals, some of which appear to be at risk of being overlooked if an oversimplified view of shopping motives becomes the norm. It is perhaps worth questioning the degree to which parsimony should be sought over the need to account for a better understanding of the range of shopping goals directing behaviour in a particular context.

Having discussed the pre-actional phases of goal-directed behaviour in the context of shopping behaviour this chapter now moves on to consider the actional phase of goal-directed shopping behaviour.

2.9 Pursuing Shopping Goals: The Actional Phase of Goal-Directed Shopping Behaviour

The actional phase of goal-directed behaviour was described in Part I of this chapter as the stage at which a person enacts implementation intentions and monitors and controls instrumental acts, accounting for feedback on progress towards goal attainment. The conceptualisation of goal pursuit is relevant to understanding

behaviour that is instrumental to goal attainment but also to understanding why goals are achieved, with a greater or lesser degree of success, or not.

One line of existing retailing and consumer behaviour literature that can be drawn upon to gain insights into individuals' action strategies when pursuing shopping goals is the shopper typology research. This branch of research tends to focus on one or a combination of the following factors: the benefits that people hope to gain from shopping (or the negative consequences that they hope to minimise), attitudes towards shopping, shopping behaviour, and response to elements of the retail marketing mix. Westbrook and Black's (1985) typology developed on the basis of individuals' shopping motives was referred to in the discussion of the pre-actional phases of goal-directed behaviour (Section 2.8.2). Of interest in this part of the discussion are studies that provide information on shopping behaviour and responses to elements of the retail marketing mix. The latter is of interest because elements of the retail marketing mix are means to the end of achieving desired goals and consumers' reactions towards these means is indicative of the types of behaviour that they see to be instrumental to certain types of goals.

One issue that should be highlighted, however, is that despite the understanding of shopping strategies that this literature affords, there is a point of conflict with the goal concept. Shopper typologies are suggested to reflect relatively general shopping orientations. In contrast, the goal concept proposes that goals at the lower end of the goal hierarchy are heavily influenced by situational factors. The criticism levelled at the shopper typology literature relates to the issues discussed in Section 2.8.1. In drawing on this stream of research, therefore, the lack of contextualisation should be borne in mind.

A number of alternative typologies have been suggested. Table 2.3 presents an updated adaptation of Westbrook and Black's (1985) summary review of this literature:

Table 2.3: Shopper Typologies 1954-1996

Author and Date	Shopper Population/ Context	Sample Size	Measurement	Shopper Types
Stone (1954)	female department store shoppers	124	depth interview	economic personalising ethical apathetic
Chicago Tribune (1955)	female department store shoppers	50	depth interview	dependent compulsive individualistic
Stephenson and Willett (1969)	adult buyers of apparel, shoes and toys	315	number of stores shopped and patronised	store loyal compulsive/recreational convenience price/bargaining
Darden and Reynolds (1971)	female heads of households	167	AIO statements	economic personalising moralistic apathetic
Darden and Ashton (1974)	female supermarket shoppers	116	store attribute preferences	quality oriented fastidious convenience demanding stamp collectors stamp avoiders apathetic
Moschis (1976)	cosmetics buyers	206	AIO statements	store loyal brand loyal specials shopper psycho socialising problem solving
Williams, Painter and Nicholas (1979)	adult grocery shoppers	298	store image semantic differentials	low price convenience involved apathetic
Bellenger and Korgaonkar (1980)	adult shoppers	324	single item shopping enjoyment	recreational economic
Westbrook and Black (1985)	female shoppers in major shopping centres	203	shopping satisfaction scale	shopping process-involved choice optimising shopping process-apathetic (a)* shopping process-apathetic (b) economic shoppers average shoppers
Jarratt (1996)	inhabitants of selected rural and urban retail trading areas	931	shopping area attribute importance	practical service experiential moderate product-focused have-to

*Westbrook and Black's (1985) cluster analysis identify 6 types of shoppers. Clusters 3 and 4, however, are very similar - neither derives much satisfaction from anticipated utility, affiliation, stimulation, or negotiation motivations. The main difference between them is that Cluster 3 scores high on choice optimisation and economic role enactment, whereas Cluster 4 only scores high on choice optimisation. The authors do not, therefore, find distinct labels for these two types of shoppers.

■ study focuses on grocery shopping

The various shopper types identified provide information that can be used by retailers as a basis for developing their offering to consumers. The differences amongst the studies make it difficult to identify predominant types, however. Some of the differences between the shopper types are undoubtedly due to research design. For example, shopper types were discerned on the basis of different shopping contexts (supermarkets vs. department stores vs. shopping area) and different sectors (specific products vs. groups of products vs. the retail market place in general). Nevertheless, a few shopper types appear repeatedly: in the context of grocery shopping *convenience*, *involved/fastidious*, *low cost*, and *apathetic shoppers* are key types; while in a broader shopping context *economic*, *recreational* and *apathetic shoppers* are core types.

Descriptions of each of these types of shoppers are offered by the authors who created the relevant typologies. More detailed profiles are developed in literature which focuses on one particular shopper type, such as Bellenger and Korgaonkar's (1980) research on recreational shoppers and Groeppel and Bloch's (1990) research on experience-oriented shoppers.

Convenience shoppers are primarily concerned with saving time and energy. In order to achieve this goal convenience is important to them and they often accept price-convenience trade-offs (Williams, Painter and Nicholas, 1978). It has been suggested that convenience orientation in shopping is partly due to time pressures on working women and a greater demand for "me-time" (Berry, 1979).

Apathetic shoppers are described by Stone (1954) to shop out of necessity, deriving no or little pleasure from the activity itself. Darden and Reynolds (1971) found that this group disliked chain stores and was not interested in establishing any form of relationship with local retailers. These findings were supported by Westbrook and Black (1985) who found that apathetic shoppers were only really interested in finding a suitable product in the least possible time. Jarratt (1996), who described this group as *have to* shoppers, found that they considered neither service elements or the retail environment to be important but, in this study, they were found not to be particularly concerned about the price, quality and range of products available either. This result may be due to the nature of the sample in Jarratt's (1996). Whereas earlier studies which had focused on shoppers, Jarratt's sample comprised inhabitants of a number of retail catchment areas, increasing the likelihood of including respondents who rarely engage in shopping activities.

The descriptions of both convenience and apathetic shoppers indicate that these shopper types represent individuals who are obliged to pursue functional shopping goals and who try to limit resource expenditure in pursuing those goals. It was suggested earlier that limited resources are invested in goal-directed behaviour under two conditions: either when goals are a low priority compared to others that are competing for similar resources, or when it is relatively easy to attain a satisfactory standard for the goal concerned. This implies that the limited investment of resources (or at least the apparently highly valued ones of time and energy) may be due to either the low relative priority of shopping goals for these groups or the ease of attaining satisfactory standards for those goals due to the familiarity of the activity. (These two conditions tend to be linked in that easily attainable standards are characteristic of goals that are relatively unimportant).

Economic shoppers, according to Stone (1954) are "unambiguously directed to the purchase of goods" (p 11) and, as such, pay careful attention to merchandise

assortment, price and quality. Darden and Reynolds (1971) illustrate that, like the apathetic group, economic shoppers are not interested in personalising shopping by developing relationships with retailers. This is supported by Jarratt's (1996) suggestion that, what she calls, *product-oriented* shoppers are interested in the variety, price and quality and are relatively unconcerned about service and the retail environment. Achieving value for money was also found to be important for economic shoppers in their role as homemakers (Westbrook and Black, 1985). This emphasis on value for money is reinforced in a study of catalogue showroom retailing (Korgaonkar, 1981) which revealed that patrons were more likely to be economic shoppers and, as such, showed a greater concern for value for money than convenience. This view is slightly different than that presented by Bellenger and Korgaonkar (1981) who make only broad distinctions between shoppers types (economic and recreational) and consider economic shoppers to be analogous to convenience shoppers. The dominant profile of economic shoppers implies that these are descriptions of people pursuing functional goals. By contrast to the convenience and apathetic shoppers, however, they spend more time and effort diligently searching for the "best buy". This may be due to personal factors, the nature of the purchase or a combination of the two.

Recreational shoppers were suggested by Bellenger, Robertson and Greenberg (1977) to represent the antithesis of economic and convenience shoppers. These are people who enjoy shopping as a leisure time activity (Groepel and Bloch, 1990). This shopper type is suggested to be important to retailers because, although they may not have a specific purchase in mind they are more prone to unplanned and impulse buying. For recreational shoppers a high value is attributed to the pleasurable nature of the experiences and the information gathered (Boedeker, 1996; Bellenger and Korgaonkar, 1980). By association, the retail environment and the merchandise assortment are suggested to be the elements of the retail marketing mix that are most

important for the recreational shopper, although there is evidence to suggest that service factors are also important to this group (Jarratt, 1996).

The profiles of recreational shoppers represent people pursuing non-functional shopping goals. The suggestion that the merchandise, the retail environment and service factors are important to this group implies that people pursuing the intrinsic benefits of shopping spend time and effort on the activity, but that their efforts are directed to different types of in-store behaviour than are the efforts of economic shoppers. Consumers on recreational shopping trips appear to be more likely to interact with elements of the retail environment that are emotionally stimulating.

These descriptions of shopper typologies by no means cover the full range proposed in the literature but provide basic insights into the main types that emerge repeatedly in this line of research. They also provide a basis for considering the types of behaviour exhibited by individuals pursuing different types of shopping goals.

In addition to the shopper typology literature, there is a stream of research on time use in shopping that highlights additional factors that influence shopping behaviour. This research suggest that variations in resource expenditure in the pursuit of goals depend on personal (socio-demographic and psychological) and situational factors (e.g. attitude towards type of shopping, perceived risk associated with the purchase). McDonald (1994) assessed the effects of socio-demographic factors (age, marital status, income and working status) and time perception (the extent to which individuals view structure and purpose in their daily lives⁷) on time and effort spent on shopping activities. A regression analysis of the relationship between socio-

⁷time perceptions were measured on the basis of the Time Structure Questionnaire (TSQ) developed by Bond and Feather (1988) which considers consumer views of their general a) *sense of purpose*, b) *structured routine*, involving the planning of activities; c) *lack of present orientation*, measuring a tendency to think about missed opportunities or about the future; d) *sense of effective organisation* about time management, motivations and pattern activities; e) *sense of persistence* in daily activities.

demographic variables and time spent shopping mirrored previous qualitative and quantitative research (Campbell, 1997; Sommers, Wynes and Brinkley, 1992; Kolodinsky, 1990) such that individuals who were younger, male, married, in households with higher incomes, in paid employment and/or were brand or store loyal spent less time on shopping activities than their counterparts in the sample. Adding time perception into the regression explained further variance in the data. The time perception factors found to be associated with *time spent on search activities* revealed that individuals with a sense of structure and purpose in their lives, who are organised and who focus on the present spend less time searching. By contrast *time spent on purchase activities* was less for individuals who were organised and focus on the present, although time spent purchasing was not influenced by a sense of structure and purpose, nor did the degree of persistence in activities significantly influence time spent purchasing.

This research is subject to the criticism that, by considering this question on a general level, one fails to take account of situational factors (Reid and Brown, 1996). Of particular concern in this context is that it ignores the range of shopping goals that an individual seeks to satisfy during a shopping episode. In instances where non-functional goals are given relatively high priority, time spent engaging with the retail environment is a source of pleasure in itself and it is not desirable to increase the efficiency of the activity directed towards this type of goal by reducing the time and effort invested in it. With regard to functional goals associated with purchases, time and effort spent shopping may reflect a desire to reduce the risks associated with the purchase (Mitchell and McGoldrick, 1996) or to achieve a higher standard of achievement, i.e. finding a superior alternative, and does not necessarily reflect a tendency towards aimless wandering. It is, therefore, desirable to account for the range and nature of goals and the level of priority attributed to them in exploring resource expenditure during shopping episodes.

2.10 The Post-Actional Phase of Goal-Directed Shopping Behaviour

The post-actional phase of goal-directed is the stage that coincides with goal attainment or abandonment. According to the goal-concept, consumers assess their goal-directed shopping activity and its consequences following the shopping episode. This assessment, leading to consideration of the implications for future shopping occasions, involves the motivational processes involved in preceding phases in the process: goals, self-efficacy and context beliefs, emotional arousal processes and non-emotional affective states. Patronage behaviour research provides insights into satisfaction with the elements of the retail marketing mix (Westbrook, 1981), i.e. appraisals associated with context beliefs. There is little research, however, which focuses on the interaction between the other motivational processes at this post-shopping stage and their influence on retail outcomes such as liking of the retail outlet and future patronage intentions. Therefore, the focus on the interaction between goals and mood in this thesis is extended to the post-actional phase of goal-directed behaviour to assess how appraisals associated with these two motivational processes influence retail outcomes.

2.11 Summary

Part II of this chapter aimed to illustrate how the goal concept can be applied to the context of shopping behaviour to build on our understanding of consumer motivation in this area. In order to do so, shopping behaviour research was discussed in relation to the three main phases of goal-directed behaviour as outline in Part I.

The pre-actional phases of goal-directed behaviour cover the formation of goal intentions and implementation intentions. The formation of goal intentions was related to the literature on shopping motives and discussion was centred around the classification of motives as functional and non-functional. As far as implementation intentions are concerned, there is a wide range of shopping behaviour research which relates to choices of 'where', 'when', 'how' and 'how long' to shop associated with this

phase. This literature was not reviewed here, however, as the purpose of my research is to explore the relationships between goals and mood as two motivational processes that influence the motivation of shopping behaviour generally, rather than to examine any particular choice that is made as part of the process.

The influence of goals and mood is extended to each phase of goal-directed behaviour. Perhaps the most complex phase is the actional phase because it is at this stage that cognitive processes guiding behaviour are most dynamic. The dynamics of the actional phase are difficult to track because plans for the pursuit of goals are continually adapted depending on features of the retail setting, goal pursuit is interrupted and so forth. Therefore, discussion focused on the expenditure of resources as an indicator of continued commitment to goals during a shopping episode, particularly time and effort. Although various socio-demographic factors have been found to influence time and effort spent shopping, it was argued here that it was necessary to account for the types of shopping and the range of goals directing behaviour on a particular occasion to develop a clearer and truer picture of the determinants of resource expenditure during a shopping episode.

Finally, the post-actional phase of shopping behaviour was linked to individuals' appraisals at the point when shopping goals are attained or abandoned. It was highlighted that although individuals' assessment of retail outlets have been considered, there is little research which looks beyond the assessment of context beliefs when considering motivational processes that influence retail outcomes such as preference and future patronage intentions. Given the importance of understanding retail outcomes from a consumer perspective, this gap in the literature suggested that it would be useful to extend the exploration of relationships between mood and goals in the motivation of shopping behaviour to the post-actional phase of shopping behaviour.

In order to understand the relationship between mood and the motivation of goal-directed behaviour throughout a shopping episode it is necessary to consider the nature of mood, and the way in which it influences behaviour, in depth. Therefore, Chapter 3 is devoted a review of mood research.

CHAPTER 3: THE NATURE AND INFLUENCE OF MOOD

3.0 Introduction

The preceding chapters have identified the aims of the research to involve examining the role of mood in the motivation of shopping behaviour. More specifically, it was emphasised in Chapter 2 that the research seeks to investigate the relationships between goals and mood as two motivational process that influence goal-directed behaviour.

In Chapter 2 (Section 2.5.1.3) it was suggested that motivational processes are distinguishable in that they are *within-person constituents* rather than qualities of the context; *focus on the future*, rather than the past or present; and are *evaluative* rather than instrumental. Brief consideration was given to why mood qualifies as a motivational process in Chapter 2. This is elaborated in the present chapter which provides further detail on the nature of mood and the mechanisms by which it influences human behaviour. The chapter also considers the implications of the nature and influence of mood for goal-based motivation and, more specifically, the implications for goal-based shopping motivation.

The chapter is organised around three main issues: first it addresses the definitional issues associated with mood research. A key part of this discussion relates to the mechanisms by which mood influences behaviour. Two perspectives on the influence of mood are presented; one, which proposes that mood's influence on behaviour, operates via its effects on cognitive processes (*the associationist perspective*), the other, which highlights the motivational capacity of mood (*the functional perspective*). Secondly, consideration is given to the issue of mood measurement; and, finally, the chapter turns to discussion of literature that provides insights into the

effects of mood on goal-directed behaviour.

3.1 Mood Research in the Field of Consumer Behaviour

Mood has received an increasing amount of attention in the consumer behaviour literature over the last decade. Mood research in consumer behaviour is part of a wider movement, which highlights the need to rethink models of consumer behaviour that suggest affective processes to have only a weak role in determining the outcome of purchase and consumption behaviour (Cohen and Areni, 1991). This movement follows psychology's so called "rediscovery of affect" in the 1970s and 1980s that is producing a growing body of evidence that affective processes have a strong motivational influence as well as an effect on information processing and choice (Hoffman, 1986; Isen, 1984; Zajonc, 1980).

Literature that specifically focuses on mood has followed the lead of Gardner (1985). Amongst the mood research that has been carried out in the field of consumer behaviour there is a tendency to focus on consumers' responses to marketing communications (Murray, Lastovicka and Singh, 1992; Goldberg and Gorn, 1987) and brand choice (Gardner and Hill, 1988). There has, however, been some research that considers the effects of mood on consumer behaviour within service environments (Swinyard, 1995; Spies, Hesse and Loesch, 1997) and its role in impulsive, compulsive and compensatory shopping (Rook and Gardner, 1993; Elliot, Eccles and Gournay, 1996; Woodruffe, 1996).

Discussion of how mood influences goal-directed behaviour later in this chapter draw on this consumer behaviour literature. Beforehand, however, the following sections consider how mood is defined and distinguished from other affective phenomena.

3.2 The Definition of Mood

The problems of distinguishing between different forms of feeling states have often lead to terms such as mood, feelings, affect and emotion being used interchangeably or one term being employed as an umbrella term for any of the more specific states (Grunert, 1993; Mano and Oliver, 1993). Yet, concise definitions remain highly desirable for the sake of conceptual clarity. Perhaps the most widely cited definition in consumer behaviour research is the one used by Gardner (1985). She defines it as:

"a phenomenological property of a person's subjectively perceived affective state" (p 282)

Gardner's definition identifies mood as a sub-category of feelings. She adopts Fisk's (1982: 231) definition of feelings as states which "suffuse all one's experiences, even though directed at none" and identifies mood as a transient form of a general and pervasive affective state. She distinguishes mood from emotion (following Clark and Isen, 1982) by highlighting that emotions tend to be more intense, to attract more attention and are tied to specifiable behaviour. These characteristics have remained the focus of the distinction in consumer behaviour literature (Curren and Harich, 1994; Hornick, 1993; Cohen and Areni, 1991; Gardner and Hill, 1988) and are specified in Swinyard's (1993) definition of mood:

"a mild, transient, generalised, and pervasive affective state, not an intense emotion, and not directed at specific target objects" (p 271)

The psychology literature of the late 1980s and the 1990s, however, offers further debate on the definition of mood. In the 1970s and 1980s psychology witnessed a resurgence of interest in affective phenomena (see Strongman, 1996 for discussion of the multitude of theoretical perspectives of affective phenomena, from both before and since this movement). As the literature emerging from this movement matures the concepts of affect, mood and emotion have come under closer scrutiny. A brief

review of more recent debate of the definition of mood is presented below in an attempt to provide further clarity.

3.3 Psychological Perspectives on the Definition of Feeling States

There are two main streams of research on affective phenomena: one focuses on structural issues, regarding the qualities and antecedents of different emotional states; while the other concentrates on functional issues, exploring the purposes served by emotional states.

3.3.1 Structural Analyses of Emotional Experience

Research which analyses structural aspects of emotional states follows James who, in his 1884 essay entitled "What is emotion?", explored questions about the *nature* of feeling states. James stated that:

"bodily changes follow directly the perception of the exciting fact, and that our feelings of the same changes as they occur is the emotion" (cited in Plutchik, 1994: 2)

The research tradition that builds on James' work considers questions such as whether cognition (Ortony *et al.*, 1988) and various forms of physiological arousal are necessary components of emotion, whether facial expressions and facial muscle activity (Ekman, 1982) is necessary and whether there should be a change in brain functions (Davidson and Fox, 1982). The basic concern here is with the sequence of events, that is, whether the bodily changes associated with strong emotions come first and the feeling of an emotion arises when a person recognises the bodily changes.

Much of the research on the structure of emotions focuses on specific, discrete emotions. There are several prominent emotion models (Izard, 1977; Plutchik, 1980; Ekman, 1982) all of which suggest that there is a relatively small number, usually between seven and eleven, of discrete emotions. The core emotions that normally

feature include joy, interest, surprise, sadness, contempt, disgust, fear and anger. These theories suggest that each basic emotion is a consequence of certain conditions and initiates a characteristic range of adaptive behaviour, for instance, interest leads to novel and exploratory goal-directed behaviour, and therefore to mastery of the environment (Plutchik, 1980).

Of the discrete emotional states, some are suggested to be elicited automatically through some innate preprogramming, while other are linked to cognitive evaluative processes. While researchers tend more towards one explanation or the other, most agree that different types of emotional states are better explained by the innate or the cognitive view (Lewis, 1992; Ortony *et al.*, 1988; Bowlby, 1969). For example, fear and joy are more likely to be responses to particular stimuli, whereas emotions such as guilt and shame that result from comparison of one's behaviour to social norms are better explained by the view that emotions result from cognitive appraisal processes.

Alongside the theories of discrete emotions is a line of research which emphasises the importance of a few (usually two or three) broad, non-specific affect factors that reflect substantial and systematic relations amongst basic emotions. This research has provided evidence that there is a substantial amount of overlap amongst basic emotions identified as specific and discrete. Watson and Clarke (1992) highlight that this has important implications for theories of affective phenomena because it points to a large degree of redundancy amongst the specific emotions. However, they suggest that these two perspectives can be integrated. One means of achieving this is to adopt the model proposed by Watson and Tellegen (1985), which outlines an hierarchical model in which the broad, non-specific states are higher order factors composed of several correlated yet distinct lower order emotions.

This discussion of how the two approaches described above can be integrated is

perhaps helpful when addressing the problem of how mood and emotion are distinguished in the structural research tradition. Often, mood and emotion are not differentiated in research that focuses on structural analyses. Morris (1992) suggests that this may well be because they have several common characteristics: both are experienced, have positive or negative valence, are expressed to others and each influences cognitive processes and predisposes individuals to certain types of behaviour.

Where distinctions are made between mood and emotions they are normally based on two main factors: the existence of a specific target (emotions focus on a particular object or event while moods are more pervasive feelings with no specific focus), and timing (emotions are more imminent than moods which are relatively remote) (Schwarz and Clore, 1988). These distinguishing characteristics are clearly those represented in definitions of mood employed in consumer behaviour research (Curren and Harich, 1994; Swinyard, 1993; Hornick, 1993; Cohen and Areni, 1991; Gardner and Hill, 1988). The proposed imminency of emotions and their association with a specific target are founded in the belief that emotions are elicited by individual events, whereas moods result from a number of events, none of which produce sufficient intensity to give rise to an emotion (Ortony, Clore and Collins, 1988). Also, some theorists argue moods result from decayed emotions (Isen, 1984), that is, when the intensity of emotions fades one is left with a general good or bad feeling which is not closely associated with the causal event.

Linking this to Watson and Clarke's (1992) discussion of research on specific versus general emotional states, one could argue that the non-specific affect factor, which they refer to as a "higher order Negative Affect factor", implies a mood-like construct because of its lack of specificity. By no means is this a suggestion that measures of emotional state which focus on two or three general factors are pure measures of

mood because the transition from emotion to mood occurs somewhere along a specificity/time continuum and, as Scherer (1986) highlights, it is difficult to clearly demarcate the change from emotion to mood. Moreover, one might question the ability of individuals to detect such qualitative difference in their feelings. In the absence of clear distinctions, however, this may be a coarse means of respecting the conceptual parameters of mood and emotion proposed in literature on the structure of emotional states.

3.3.2 Functional Analyses of Emotional States

The second research tradition, referred to as the *functional perspective*, is presented as a Darwinian perspective which suggests that emotional feelings guide behaviour with respect to the two basic life principles of self-preservation and the preservation of the species (McClellan, 1963). Its early roots are accredited to McDougall's (1908) work that suggested that feeling states were at the core of every instinct (Batson *et al.*, 1992). Amongst proponents of this view are psychologists such as Morris (1989), Thayer (1989), Schwarz (1990) and Batson *et al.* (1992). Working on the basis of the survival principles, these psychologists advance the idea that feeling states, in many instances, cause motivational effects or, at least, mediate between some instigating situation and its motivational effects. Current literature that analyses of the role that feelings play in relation to goals and motives, views feeling states as mechanisms by which a person obtains and maintains desired states.

The following discussion highlights the distinctions between affect, mood and emotion with regard to their respective motivational functions. Affect and emotion are treated first as more attention is devoted to clarifying the motivational role of mood.

3.3.2.1 Affect

Of the three forms of feeling states - affect, mood and emotion - it is widely accepted that affect is the most general (Parkinson, 1995). Affect has tone (positive or

negative) and intensity (weak or strong) and is suggested to operate at the relatively primitive level of operant conditioning (Batson *et al.*, 1992). Zajonc (1980) highlights that affect indicates to an individual that certain states of affairs that are preferred to others. This indication of valence encapsulates the motivational capacity of affect in that, if it did not exist, people would not care what they did and their behaviour would lack direction. Given the input of affect in developing preference it is well recognised component of attitude formation and, as such, has featured widely in consumer behaviour research over many years (Batra, 1986).

3.3.2.2 Emotions

As noted earlier, research into the functional role of emotions has been guided by evolutionary principles and the assumption that fit organisms are endowed with psychological processes that help them to avoid dangers and obtain attractions. This premise offers reason to believe that one function of emotions is to increase the likelihood of survival. Researchers pursuing functional analyses of emotions offer explanations of *how* emotions fulfil this role. Frijda, for example, claims that:

"emotions exist for the sake of signalling states of the world that have to be responded to, or that no longer need response and action" (Frijda, 1988: 354).

There are two ways in which they do this: by expressive behaviours which communicate the presence of threats or attractions in the environment (Buck, 1984), and by interrupting ongoing behaviour, instigating and energising learned or prepared responses to deal with the relevant environmental conditions (Mandler, 1984). The function of emotions, therefore, is to increase the likelihood of overcoming an unforeseen obstacle or of benefiting from unforeseen circumstances by rapidly influencing activation level and producing prepared responses. Emotions occur where there is a discrepancy between expectations and perception of environmental conditions which may help or inhibit the attainment of a particular goal (Toates, 1988;

Batson *et al.*, 1992; Morris, 1992).

3.3.2.3 Mood

With regard to mood's motivational function, Isen (1984) proposes that mood has more pervasive effects compared to the more specific consequences of emotions. She is supported by Schwarz (1990) and Morris and Reilly (1987) who suggest that because mood is not focused, it has a more pervasive motivational effect. Isen (1984), Schwarz (1990) and Morris and Reilly (1987) all indicate that it can affect a wider range of cognitive and behavioural processes than emotions. Batson *et al.* (1992) and Morris (1992; 1989) posit that mood's motivational function involves a set of beliefs about whether an individual is likely to experience pleasure or pain (positive or negative affect) in the future and they suggest that mood signals the state of the self, regarding physical, psychological and social resources available to meet perceived demands of interacting with a physical or social environment. The effect is to increase the likelihood of approach (for good moods) or avoidance (for bad moods) behaviour.

3.3.2.3.1 The Signalling Function of Mood

Mood is suggested to motivate an individual by signalling the availability of resources to him or her (Morris, 1989). The proposition that mood operates by signalling the state of the self to a person follows earlier arguments about the function of mood developed by Nowlis (Nowlis and Nowlis, 1956), Jacobson (1957) and Pribram (1970). That is, mood serves as a cue in a person's self-regulatory system, such that negative mood signals some deficit and positive mood signals a satisfactory state of affairs (Morris, 1989).

Thayer's (1989) conceptualisation of the motivational role of mood is comparable to Morris's (1992). Thayer (1989) recognises that moods cannot be understood simply in terms of hedonically relevant events and proposes that biological factors make their

own, partly independent contribution to a person's mood state. Much of Thayer's analysis relates to the notion that there are two major dimensions of mood, the first dimension is represented at one extreme by aroused, pleasant states which reflect energetic feelings such as enthusiasm and excitement, while at the other extreme it is represented by states in which arousal is absent reflecting feelings like fatigue and sluggishness. The second dimension of mood is represented by aroused, unpleasant states like stress and irritability at one pole, whereas the other pole represents unaroused states such as feelings of calm and tranquillity. The moods represented by the four poles of the two primary dimensions of mood are seen by Thayer to signal information about the environment and the self:

"I view the subjective states as signal systems of resources and depletions ... They register conscious awareness of the state of the whole body at any point in time and provide a continuing indication of readiness for action or of the need for rest or recuperation" (p 64)

One cannot be sure of the mechanism by which the signalling function of moods operates. One interpretation offered by Thayer is that at the higher levels of the nervous system there exists a kind of planning system which facilitates the on-going registration of information concerning the state of the body, especially resources and depletions¹. This log of information would be used to plan activities and make decisions such that an individual's actions take into consideration the availability of available resources. In addition Thayer theorises that, by signalling an aroused, energetic state to an individual's consciousness, mood enables the person to communicate this information to others. Because it is possible to describe to others one's readiness for action, or indeed one's need for rest, group decisions can be made concerning activity or rest, which is an important capability given that humans are social animals.

¹It is worth noting that, in Thayer's view, energetic arousal is more directly tied to biological processes than tense arousal, which results from changes in environmental demands.

On the issue of personal resources Thayer clearly views biological factors as central to energetic arousal signalled by positive mood. A study by Cunningham (1988) illustrated these effects by comparing interest in various activities among people in elated, depressed and neutral induced-moods. He found that subjects in elated moods were more interested in social, prosocial, strenuous and leisure activities than subjects in neutral moods. Subjects in depressed moods, by contrast, preferred to sit and think, take a nap or simply spend time alone. The differences in activity preference can be traced to two factors: expectations of a positive outcome of activities and perceptions of available resources. Although this is not solid proof that mood-congruent memory serves the self-regulatory system, it provides an indication that mood relates to physical as well as cognitive factors.

3.3.2.3.2 Types of Personal Resources that Contribute to Mood

Although Thayer's recognition of the role of biological factors in mood determination is suggested to be one of his most important contributions to the understanding of mood, Morris (forthcoming) posits that bodily resources should be seen as just one resource alongside others such as social support and feelings of self-efficacy². He argues that changes in any or each of the three types of resources is accompanied by mood change: i) physical energy varies with temporary factors such as sugar ingestion, physical exercise and the use of drugs, for example caffeine, or with more stable influences such as age, health and metabolic rate; ii) since humans are social beings they often depend on others to help them to achieve goals, and the availability of the help of others may also be a varying resource, again as a temporary or more permanent feature; finally, iii) personal resources in terms of feelings of self-efficacy, which are a product of self-awareness, self-evaluation and memory, can vary

²The link made here between self-efficacy and mood is not surprising given that it an association between these two factors has already been highlighted in Chapter 2 where it was suggested that these two are amongst the motivational processes that influence a person's evaluations in the preactional phase of behaviour.

(Bandura, 1986; McFarland and Ross, 1982). Although this latter resource is unlikely to fluctuate to any great magnitude, it can be influenced to a degree by recent successes and failures. If mood changes with fluctuations in any of these resources, it is reasonable to suggest that mood change is continuous.

3.3.2.3.3 How and When Mood Changes

In general, moods do not constantly occupy one's focal attention which, following the above propositions, suggests that there is a reasonable balance between the supply of and demand for resources required to deal with the events of everyday life. Therefore, although mood change is constant, it is normally only a series of minor changes. This said, there is evidence that positive moods show greater variation than negative moods (this research assumes that positive and negative mood are independent rather than opposite states, see Section 3.7.1 for a discussion). Whereas positive mood fluctuates as daily events and activities take place, negative mood generally remains stable except for occasional expressions of marked distress when troubles are encountered, after which it returns to baseline (Stone and Neale, 1984).

With regard to the behavioural consequences, whereas major mood change may result in exaggerated approach-avoidance behaviour, minor mood change triggers behavioural responses involving more subtle (approach-avoidance) adjustments in accordance with available resources.

A second issue, which is worth reconsidering, is the proposition that emotions are distinguished from mood on the basis that emotions "interrupt" behaviour (Cohen and Areni, 1991). Morris (1992) and Toates (1988) propose that moods, despite their diffuse nature, also interrupt behaviour but that they vary in the signals that they send: emotions signal disparity between the expected and perceived aspects of the environment which relate to goals, whereas mood signals a discrepancy between

necessary and perceived levels of resources available to the self for the purpose of achieving goals. In a particular environment the relationship between both mood and emotions to goals may mean that they both appear to occur in response to the same event. However, the two do not necessarily coincide. For example, environmental circumstances that threaten a person's goals may lead to emotional reactions but negative mood only coincides if the individual feels that he or she does not have the resources necessary to cope with the circumstances. If the appropriate resources are available behaviour should proceed and progression towards the goals be re-established (Thayer, 1989). It may even lead to positive mood as it is confirmed to the individual that he or she can cope effectively (Carver and Scheier, 1990).

The foregoing discussion outlines two conceptual treatments of affective phenomena: one that analyses the structure of emotional states and another that focuses on their motivational functions. The functional perspective was of particular interest in the context of this thesis because this research considers the role of mood in the motivation of shopping behaviour. The discussion of the functional perspective of mood has emphasises that mood influences behaviour by signalling some deficit or a satisfactory state of affairs and, as such, is part of an individual's self-regulatory system. The proposition that mood performs a self-regulatory role can be supported by reference to a second branch of mood research which has also explored the effects of mood on behaviour. This line of investigation, to which Alice Isen has been a key contributor (see Isen, 1984; 1987), emphasises that the influence of mood on behaviour operates via its influence on cognitive processes. More specifically, this branch of literature, referred to as the *associationist perspective*, proposes that mood's influence on cognitive processes is due to mood-congruent memory and perception. In order to clarify the claim that these two streams of research are commensurate, and to extend the discussion of how mood exerts an influence on behaviour, the following sections cover literature that focuses on the associationist

view of mood and proceeds to outline the links with research from the functional school of mood research.

3.4 The Influence of Mood on Cognitive Processes

One major conceptual treatment of mood during the 1970s and 80s was that offered by Isen. Her research tends to focus on the broad influence of mood on cognitive and behavioural processes, drawing on the associationist principle of mood-congruent memory.

Greater interest in the effects of mood on cognition has emerged following the proposition that this relationship mediates the effects of mood on behaviour. The two key ways in which mood is suggested to influence cognition are by i) *its effects on memory-based tasks* - how material is encoded, stored and retrieved from memory - and ii) *its effects on judgmental tasks* (Isen, 1987). The general conclusions of research on this issue are: an individual's recall of the information is influenced by his or her mood state at the time of learning and/or retrieval of information; and mood biases judgements in a mood-congruent direction on the basis that mood-congruent items are more accessible from memory (Hill and Gardner, 1986). The research on which these conclusions are based and points of discussion which have arisen among researchers of these issues are covered in the following sections.

3.4.1 The Effects of Mood on Cognitive Organisation: Links to Memory-Based Tasks

A body of research exists that reports the effects of mood on memory-based tasks. This area of inquiry is frequently regarded within frameworks such as Bower's associative network model of mood and memory (Bower, 1981). In such models constructs are conceptualised as nodes and the relationships between them as known as links. Literature that has contributed to the development of this perspective has proposed that mood state at the time when material is retrieved from memory can

facilitate improved recall. In particular, individuals in a positive mood have been found to better recall of positive material than people in neutral moods (Isen, Shalke, Clark and Karp, 1978). The concept of *accessibility* has been used to explain this finding. It has been demonstrated that the presence of some memory-provoking cue at the time of recall influences the relative accessibility of the material (Tulving and Pearlstone, 1966). It is suggested that mood functions as a cue to access cognitive material and that it might operate similarly to influence other cognitive process such as expectations, decision making and evaluations (Teasdale and Barnard, 1993).

In addition to the research that focuses on the effects of mood at the time of retrieval, there is a body of work that suggests that mood at the time when the material is encoded (learnt) also influences recall effectiveness. Bower is a key figure in the development of this work. He demonstrated the effects of *mood-congruent learning* through experiments which showed that subjects in whom positive mood was induced at the time of learning material recalled facts about individuals described as happy better than control groups (Bower, Gilligan and Montiero, 1981). On the basis of this and related work (Nasby and Yando, 1982) it is proposed that individuals in positive moods are more able to recall material which is consistent with their mood at the time of learning.

Bower also pursued research investigating whether matching mood at the time of learning and the time of retrieval enhanced recall. Bower, Monteiro and Gilligan (1978) found that when learning and recall moods were the same, subjects' average recall was improved compared to subjects whose learning and recall moods were different. It has since been argued, not only by other researchers (Isen and Simmonds, 1978) but by Bower himself (Bower and Mayer, 1985), that this is not a robust phenomena and that the suggested effects are unreliable.

Research has provided evidence that the patterns of material stored in memory are different for different types of affective material. The influence of positive affect on cognitive organisation is suggested to produce an extensive, elaborated and well-interconnected pattern of material in memory. Support for this argument is provided by research findings which suggest that positive mood may give rise to the recognition of more, and more different, features of items (as long as the items are neutral or positive in valence) and prompts people to engage in more elaboration and thinking about neutral things in which they are interested (Kahn and Isen, 1993; Isen, Daubman and Nowicki, 1987). Isen, Johnson, Mertz and Robinson (1985) found that when positive word cues are used subjects provide a broader range of word associations than they do when presented with neutral or negative word cues.

3.4.2 The Effects of Mood on Judgmental/Evaluative Tasks

Clore (1992) expressed conviction to the notion that mood influences judgements stating that:

"The most reliable phenomena in the cognition-emotion domain is the effect of mood on evaluative judgement" (p 134)

Research suggests that affective state influences evaluations of neutral objects and events in a mood-congruent direction. For example, Isen and Shalke (1982) studied how individuals in positive, neutral and negative affective states evaluated pictures previously judged to be positive, negative or neutral in tone. They found that individuals in positive affective states rated pictures more favourably than did those in neutral or negative states. This was particularly true for the neutral pictures. The authors concluded that positive moods did not reduce a person's ability to discriminate among pictures but, rather, produced a tendency to raise the general level of evaluations.

There are two bases for the explanation of mood-congruent evaluations: the first is linked to the notion of mood-congruent recall. If one accepts that positive mood facilitates recall of positive material from memory, it follows that a person in a positive mood is more likely to have improved expectations of the outcome of anticipated neutral or positive experiences or events (Kahn and Isen, 1993). The second basis for explanation is associated with the notion that individuals attempt to protect their positive mood states (Isen and Simmonds, 1978). The consequences of mood protective tendencies are that people in good moods may selectively perceive stimuli that are consistent with their mood (Batra and Stayman, 1990; Mackie and Worth, 1989; Worth and Mackie, 1987) and they may also positively bias their evaluations in order to avoid negative thoughts that may undermine their mood (Schaller and Cialdini, 1990).

Related to the issue of judgement are the evaluation processes involved in decision making. Decision making strategies can be seen to occupy two ends of a continuum, at one end are those that involve careful attention to all available sources of information and systematic information processing. At the other extreme are short cut strategies in which there is greater reliance on superficial aspects of communication such as the personality of a person presenting an argument or, in a marketing context, the colour of the packaging or demeanour of a salesperson.

Petty and Capiccio (1986) argue that people in positive moods are more likely to follow short cut routes to decision making than people in neutral moods. Other research reveals similar findings (e.g. Isen and Means, 1983). However, the implications of using short cut strategies, in terms of effectiveness, are not clear-cut. Studies by Isen *et al.* (1982) and Tversky and Kahneman (1973) show that the use of intuitive and heuristic strategies by individuals in positive moods impairs their performance, that is, they are more likely to make inaccurate judgements than people

in neutral states. By contrast, in the study by Isen and Means (1983) people in positive moods were compared to individuals in neutral states in a decision making task involving the choice of a car. The cars chosen by the two groups did not differ on the whole, however, the individuals in positive moods, on average, reached a decision in 11 minutes compared to the control group who took an average of 19 minutes. Isen (1987) concludes that the tendency for positive moods to result in short cut decision strategies has been reliably demonstrated whereas there is ambiguity about the consequences for performance.

The above review provides a summary of the existing body of knowledge on the influence of mood on cognitive processes. It is now possible to consider how this literature corresponds with mood literature that focuses on the motivational functions of mood.

3.5 The Links between the Functional Perspective and the Associationist View

The link between the view that mood has a motivational function (the functional perspective) and research which investigates mood's influence on cognitive processes (the associationist perspective) is based on the notion that mood is part of a person's self-regulatory system. Previous research has reported mood's role in the self-regulatory system such that mentally healthy people have learned to self-generate thoughts that help them to maintain positive moods and disrupt or change negative moods. The implication is that the generation of positive thoughts to counteract negative moods is part of a coping system (Gardner and Hill, 1988). The thrust of Morris's (1992) argument, however, is that mood-congruent memory and judgmental bias serve a motivational function in that they influence adaptive response. For example, personal goals that require large expenditures of resources are more likely to be achieved if a person is in a positive mood. Mood-congruent memory contributes to a person's motivation to engage in goal-directed behaviour when in a good mood

by making him or her more optimistic about the outcomes of engaging in that behaviour. By contrast, when a person's resources are depleted, negative mood-congruent recall serves to discourage involvement in goal-directed behaviour that would require more resources than are currently available.

The foregoing pages have discussed the distinguishing characteristics of mood and the mechanisms by which it influences behaviour. The following sections move on to review research that applies the principles of mood's effects to various behavioural contexts.

3.6 The Principles of Mood Effects Applied

There is a substantial body of literature that explores the effects of mood on behaviour. Researchers have developed various branches of mood literature, often reflecting interdisciplinary interests. The relationships between mood and food consumption (MacDiarmid and Hetherington, 1995; Rosenthal and Heffernan, 1986), drug or substance use (Foulds, 1994; Post *et al.*, 1984) and other health issues, especially mental health, (Carver and Sheier, 1982) has been of explored by those whose interests span the fields of psychology and medicine. Related to this is the research on the effects of weather and the seasons on mood state (Rosenthal *et al.*, 1985; Howarth and Hoffman, 1984). Other key bodies of literature include the social psychology research which focuses on the relationships between mood and everyday activities, especially work and pleasure (Hesse and Spies, 1996; Belsky *et al.*, 1995; Clarke and Watson, 1988), social interactions (Forgas *et al.*, 1984; Erber *et al.*, 1996) and helping behaviour (Carlson, Charlin and Miller, 1988).

As outlined at the beginning of this chapter, in the consumer behaviour domain, researchers have considered the role of mood in compensatory consumption (Grunert, 1995) decision making (Gardner and Hill, 1988), response to marketing

communications (Goldberg and Gorn, 1987) and behaviour in service environments (Swinyard, 1995; 1993; Bitner, 1992).

The broader body of mood literature is drawn upon in Section 3.8 of this chapter in a general discussion of how mood influences the three main stages of goal-directed behaviour. Beforehand, issues associated with the measurement of mood state are addressed because some of the problems and discrepancies in measurement approaches have implications for the review of research into the effects of mood on behaviour.

3.7 The Measurement of Mood

There are two main approaches to mood research: the researcher either induces subjects with a particular mood state or attempts to measure their actual mood state. The use of induction techniques is common where research focuses on the effects of mood on behaviour and Velten (1968) mood induction techniques have been widely used by psychologists and consumer behaviourists. The range of Velten mood induction techniques include: giving subjects a bag of candy (Kahn and Isen, 1993), asking them to read a short story (Gardner and Hill, 1988), showing them films (Goldberg and Gorn, 1987; Hornik, 1993; Curren and Harrich, 1994) giving false feedback on achievement (Swinyard, 1995) and asking them to read self-referent statements designed to induce elated, neutral or depressed mood states (Hornik, 1993).

As for the measurement of mood and other affective states various indicators have been employed in the past including behavioural, physiological and self-report measures. Examples of behavioural indicators are facial and vocal expression (Schlosberg, 1952, Green and Cliff, 1975), while physiological indicators are responses such as pupil dilation, breathing, pulse rate, muscle tension and the thermal

properties of skin (Berlyn, 1960). Arguments for the validity of the behavioural measures are based on the notion that there are physiological and behavioural correlates of pleasure-pain experiences. Arousal of an organism can be detected in the activation of the ascending reticular activation system (ARAS) (Malmö, 1959). Although this can be measured directly by EEG desynchronisation, it is also possible to use behavioural and physiological correlates of EEG desynchronisation which are more easily assessed (see Mehrabian and Russell, 1974).

Self-reports of mood state are another widely used indicator. The validity of self report measures is supported by research which has found that the combined index of several aspects of physiological arousal correlate highly with verbal self-reports of arousal state (Thayer, 1967; 1970). Self-reported mood has been widely used by psychologists (Nowlis, 1965; Borgatta, 1961; Izard, 1972). It has also been used as an indicator of this affective phenomenon in consumer behaviour research (Peterson and Sauber, 1983), largely for practical reasons.

Perhaps the main problem with the above measurement techniques stems from the fact that, despite researchers' attempts to clarify the distinctions between mood and emotions conceptually, finding a measurement tool which distinguishes between the two in practice is problematic. This means that distinctions are often ignored when it comes to the measurement of mood or emotion. With regard to self-report techniques, a review of the literature reveals that similar self-report measurement tools are used to measure moods and emotions. Moreover, debates addressing measurement problems often move freely between the literature on mood and emotions, which is less common in conceptual arguments. For example Watson and Tellegen (1985), Russel (1980) and Mano and Oliver (1993) have all devoted considerable effort to issue of the structure of mood or emotions (see Section 3.7.1). Regardless of the choice of approach to research on mood and emotions, therefore,

there is a common problem: how do we know whether the data that we have captured is a measurement of mood, emotion or a combination of the two?

It was suggested that one might crudely satisfy conceptual distinctions by using a measure of emotional experience that captures the general dimensions rather than specific emotions. Ideally, one would want to measure mood and emotion and correct for emotion before assessing the effects of mood. This may be possible in reverse, for example, Watson and Clarke (1992) suggest that one option for research into the effects of discrete emotions would be to partial out the effects of the general factors and then to assess the remaining influence of each individual emotion on behaviour. However, this avenue is not feasible to assess the more general emotional states associated with mood.

Setting aside the problems of differentiating between measures of mood and emotions, the discussion moves on to consider research which attempts to improve the measurement of affect³. Regardless of the choice of indicator chosen to measure affective state it is argued that research that considers human feeling states should take into account the structure of affective experience (Oliver, 1993; Russell, 1980). There is a substantial body of theory and evidence that considers the types and structure of affective experiences and reveals information about relationships among various affective states. This literature is reviewed in the following sections as it is prerequisite to a critical review of existing mood research.

3.7.1 The Dimensionality of Affect

Russell reported in 1980 that factor analytic evidence had led most psychologists to describe affect as a set of monopolar dimensions such as pleasure, distress, depression and excitement, each varying independently of the others (Lorr, Datson and Smith,

³given the confusion between mood and emotion when it comes to measurement, the generic term "affect" is used in the discussion of measurement issues in the following sections

1967; Izard, 1972). In the same study, however, he produced evidence to suggest that, rather than being independent, affective states are systematically interrelated. He proposed that the pattern of relationships can be represented by a spatial model in which the dimensions of affect fall in a circle where the angle between two affective states indicates the relations between them. For example, *content* falls approximately 180° from *distressed* which suggests that they are opposites in terms of an individual's affective experience. This perspective has been further examined and supported by Daly, Lancee and Polivy (1983) and Russell (1983).

Following these ideas, there has been increased emphasis on two major dimensions of affect, namely, pleasantness-unpleasantness and level of arousal or activation (Watson, 1988; Diener and Iran-Nejad, 1986; Warr *et al.*, 1983). Watson and Tellegen (1985), review psychological research on affective states and report that studies using facial and vocal emotional expression (Green and Cliff, 1975; Abelson and Sermat, 1962), judged similarities among words (Russell, 1980, 1983; Bush, 1973) and semantic differential ratings of mood terms (Averill, 1975) provide substantial evidence of these two dimensions. Other studies have extracted a third dimension that has been called dominance, aggression, or attention-rejection (Averill, 1975; Mehrabian and Russell, 1974; Bush, 1973) but this additional dimension tends to be small and it is reported less consistently. Studies using self-reported measures of affect, however, have produced much more variable and seemingly inconsistent results. In view of this Watson and Tellegen (1985) reanalysed a number of self-report studies (Watson Clark and Tellegen, 1984; Russell and Ridgeway, 1983; Zevon and Tellegen, 1982; Lebo and Nesselroade, 1978; McNair, Lorr and Droppleman, 1971; Hendrick and Lilly, 1970; Thayer, 1967; Borgatta, 1961), concluding that:

"in virtually all published self-report studies that we have subsequently reanalysed, we have encountered the same two large bipolar dimensions: Positive Affect and Negative Affect" (Watson and Tellegen, 1985: 220)

The bipolarity of each of these two dimensions is such that *high positive affect* is opposite to *low positive affect* (PA) and *high negative affect* is opposite to *low negative affect* (NA). The difference between the *high* and *low* poles is that affective states associated with the *high* poles are aroused affective states, whereas those affective states associated with the *low* poles are states in which arousal is absent. Therefore, high PA is a state of high energy, full concentration and pleasurable engagement, whereas low PA is characterised by sadness and lethargy. High NA, on the other hand, is a state of subjective distress and unpleasurable engagement which subsumes feelings such as guilt, fear, nervousness and disdain, while low NA is a state of calmness and serenity.

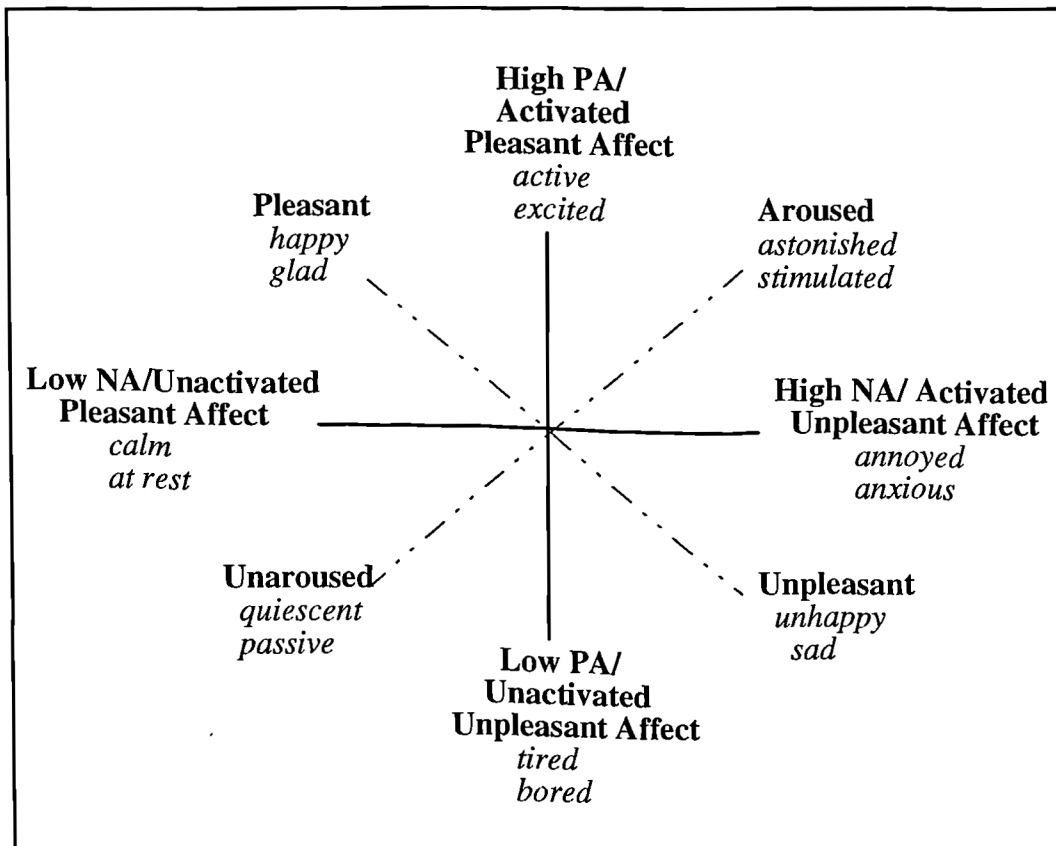
On the basis of this work, Watson, Clark and Tellegen (1988) developed a measurement scale that they called the Positive Affect, Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) scale. To ensure inclusion of a broad and representative sample of mood descriptors they developed a questionnaire using a sample of descriptors from each of 20 categories of affect (see Zevon and Tellegen, 1982). The final scale includes 10 positive affect and 10 negative affect terms which were selected on the basis that they were relatively pure markers of positive and negative affect and represented a wide range of the content categories. The terms used in the Watson, Clark and Tellegen (1988) PANAS scale are: *interested, distressed, excited, upset, strong, guilty, scared, hostile, enthusiastic, proud, irritable, alert, ashamed, inspired, nervous, determined, attentive, jittery, active* and *afraid*.

Watson and Tellegen's (1985) circumplex mapping is essentially similar to Russell's arrangement but with a rotation of the axes through 45°. Thus the two schemes are intertranslatable, with high PA combining high levels of Arousal and Pleasantness and high NA combining high levels of Unpleasantness and Arousal. Correspondingly,

Pleasantness can be seen as a combination of high PA and low NA.

Figure 3.2 provides an illustration of the circumplex model of affect characterised by a structure comprising two principle factors. It shows the two alternative schemes described above.

Figure 3.1: A Circumplex Model of Affect



Source: adapted from Larsen and Diener (1992)

This diagram can be interpreted in the following way: there is high positive correlation between terms within the same quadrant and high negative correlation between terms that are in opposite quadrants, that is, at an angle of 180°. Terms that are 90° apart are essentially unrelated. This approach does not mean to suggest that all affective experience can be reduced to two variables, Watson and Tellegen (1985) propose that other affect terms that fall at various acute angles from the poles marked in the

diagram and that the relationship between each type of affect and the main dimensions is implied by moderate correlations. Nevertheless, in the studies that Watson and Tellegen (1985) reanalyse, the two major factors account for half to three quarters of the total explained variance.

The circumplex structure of affective experience makes some key contributions to mood research, but it also incurs some problems. Strengths and weaknesses associated with use of the model are discussed below.

3.7.2 Pros and Cons of the Circumplex Structure of Affective Experience

The circumplex model is important for several reasons. Two important roles that it performs are: first, it provides a clear structure for examining affective experience and its effects on behaviour. The circumplex is a standard of reference providing guidance in terms of knowing what is being measured, based on the relations that should be obtained between measures from different octants of the circumplex. Secondly, as a measurement model it affords a simple but powerful way to organise findings about affective experience by accounting for the majority of variance in affect measures. Wide use of the circumplex is a way towards achieving comparability across studies and avoiding lexical confusion (Larsen and Diener, 1992).

Mood research in the field of consumer behaviour has devoted little attention to the issue of the dimensionality of affect and wider recognition of the dimensionality of mood is required to advance mood research in consumer behaviour in a direction that is theoretical sound and consistent with associated branches of academic interest.

Among the main problems of applying the current conception of the circumplex model of affect a key point of debate has been the issue of naming the main axes of the model (Larsen and Diener, 1992). There is general acceptance of the labels attributed

to the pleasure-arousal dimensions. The naming of the alternative dimensions as positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA) by Watson and Tellegen (1985), however, has been criticised. Opposition to these labels is justified on the grounds that the meaning they are intended to convey is not adequately communicated by the terms employed and that this may easily lead to misunderstanding. Thayer (1989) argues that the PA and NA labels sufficiently reflect the hedonic valences that characterise these dimensions but they do not convey the activation component. He suggests that *energetic arousal* as a preferable label for PA and *tense arousal* for NA.

Larsen and Diener (1992) propose that the bipolar nature of the major dimensions in the model calls for both ends to be named. They argue that the use of the PA label to describe a dimension of affect that is anchored at one end by adjectives that represent high activation, pleasant states and at the other by terms that represent low activation, unpleasant states is especially misleading - as is the comparable situation for the NA dimensions. These authors propose that the essence of the PA and NA constructs can be more simply communicated by labelling them as Activated Pleasant Affect (high PA), Unactivated Unpleasant Affect (low PA), Activated Unpleasant Affect (high NA) and Unactivated Pleasant Affect (low NA).

In addition to problems of comprehension, Watson and Tellegen's designation of the PA and NA labels also poses difficulties because their conception of these labels does not necessarily correspond with the meaning that other researchers have attributed to them. For example, the mood states induced by techniques typically employed in experimental research (free gifts, films, music and false feedback) are often referred to as PA and NA (Isen, 1987). However, these mood induction techniques appear to involve primarily hedonic state changes, with minimal activation changes (Elmes, Chapman and Selig, 1984) and, consequently, they would be more accurately reflected by measures from the pleasantness or unpleasantness octants of the

circumplex structure. Therefore, Isen's conception of PA contrasts with the PA construct that is represented in Watson and Tellegen's interpretation of the circumplex model, which is likely to confuse researchers.

With regard to the choice between the two rotational schemes, Larsen and Diener (1992) suggest that neither is fundamentally superior, but that one may be judged preferable to the other depending on the purposes of a particular investigation.

Where research is concerned with the role of mood in the motivation of physical and mental activity it is preferable that the rotational scheme selected should account for changes in level of activation/energy.

Regardless of the choice made, the recent literature strongly advocates use of the circumplex model as a guiding structure for mood measurement in research contexts. Having considered the issue of mood measurement, the following pages move on to consider research that illustrates the effects of mood on behaviour.

3.8 The Influence of Mood on Goal-Directed Behaviour

The main stages of goal-directed behaviour were outline in Chapter 2 to consist of the pre-actional phases, the actional phase and the post-actional phase. The following sections review a selection of the mood literature that provides insights into the role of mood at each of these stages. In many instances the research focuses on the behaviour of individuals in positive moods (pleasant states) compared to a control group in a neutral mood state. The reason for this bias is explained below before moving on the main discussion.

3.8.1 The Different Effect of Positive and Negative Mood

Isen (1984) reviews a number of studies, some of which show positive and negative moods (NB. Isen's conception of positive and negative affect correspond with the pleasant and unpleasant octants in the circumplex model of affect, respectively) to

have opposite effects on cognition and behaviour, some revealing them to have similar effects, and others producing findings which indicate that their effects are unrelated. The general conclusion is that the effects of negative moods are more complex than the effects of positive mood (Isen, 1987).

The source of this complexity resides in two key factors: first, there is evidence to suggest that the range of negatively valenced moods (and their effects on cognition and behaviour) is more diverse than that of positive moods. For example, a study by Nasby and Yando (1982) found that the induction of sadness in subjects failed to facilitate recall of negative materials whereas anger, under the same conditions, did result in improved memory of negative materials. In the same study, these authors found that positively valenced moods consistently resulted in recall of positive materials. Secondly, motivational processes to improve unpleasant, negative moods may compete with automatic tendencies to engage in mood-congruent behaviour.

Because of the complexity of the effects of negative mood, some researchers choose to focus on positive mood. Nevertheless, among the experimental psychology and consumer behaviour mood research, the mood states that are compared vary: positive (good) vs. negative (bad) mood; positive vs. neutral mood; and positive vs. neutral vs. negative mood. Comparability of results across the literature is sometimes difficult, therefore, because of inconsistencies in mood states being compared.

3.8.2 Establishing Goals: The Role of Mood in the Pre-actional Phases of Goal-Directed Behaviour

The pre-actional phases of goal-directed behaviour are described in Chapter 2 as including the formation of goal intentions (contemplating possible goals and establishing priorities) and implementation intentions (deciding 'where', 'when', 'how' and 'how long' to act). It was suggested that although these stages are conceptualised as consecutive, the importance attributed to goals is partly due to their incentive value

and partly based on evaluations of whether they are achievable in the current situation. Therefore, goal intentions may be influenced and subsequently modified following feedback from the evaluative processes involved in the formation of implementation intentions.

There are three ways in which mood may effect these pre-actional phases: first, the desire to maintain or repair mood state serves to heighten the importance of various goals; secondly, mood influences the number of action strategies that an individual considers as means for goal pursuit and, thirdly, mood's influence may be due to its self-regulatory function, by which it biases a person's judgement of the achievability of a goal under particular circumstances.

3.8.2.1 Mood Management and Commitment to Goals

Moods that individuals become aware of may instigate strategic (i.e. non-automatic) mood maintenance or mood repair efforts because the mood state is enjoyable and worth preserving or is sufficiently aversive to stimulate the person to get rid of it (Morris, 1992). The desire to maintain or repair mood state is suggested to influence behaviour by raising an individual's consciousness of the hedonic rewards of various activities:

"people in a positive mood might think about behaviours that have produced positive feelings in the past and might be more likely to perform those behaviours in order to maintain their moods. People in negative feeling states... may think of and perform behaviours associated with positive feelings specifically to relieve their negative feeling state" (Clarke and Isen, 1982: 94)

Psychologists have studied a number of areas of behaviour that are influenced by individuals' attempts to manage their mood states, including effort invested in decision making activities (Isen and Means, 1983), the degree of message scrutiny (Wegener *et al.*, 1995), past behaviour people choose to recall (Parrott and Sabini, 1990), food

and drug use (MacDiarmid and Hetherington, 1995; Grunert, 1993), the types of entertainment that people choose (Zillman, 1988) and helping behaviour (Batson *et al.*, 1989).

One of the key questions in research which focuses on mood management is how the desire to maintain a positive mood differs from the desire to repair negative mood in its effects on behaviour. The two main perspectives on the issue have been represented by the Negative State Relief (NSR) model (Cialdini *et al.*, 1981; Cialdini *et al.*, 1973) and the Hedonic Contingency Hypothesis (HCH) (Wegener and Petty, 1994).

The negative state relief model proposes that individuals in negative moods are more likely to engage in pleasant tasks because such activities reduce their negative feelings. In explaining this behaviour the negative state relief model attributes particular importance to the process of learning. It suggests that people in bad moods are hedonically rewarded for choosing to engage in activities that relieve their sadness, making helping activities more likely to be chosen in subsequent situations when a person is feeling low.

Proponents of the negative state relief model do not believe that happy moods foster scrutiny of the hedonic consequences of action choices. Instead, it is suggested that the behaviour of happy people could be a consequence of a range of other positive mood effects. For example, individuals in good moods have been found to show greater liking for others, increased optimism that good things will happen, experience feelings of emotional advantage and have increased memory of positive experiences of past behaviour.

By contrast, the hedonic contingency hypothesis suggests that people in positive

moods scrutinise the hedonic benefits of various actions more closely than people in negative moods. The rationale for the hedonic contingency hypothesis position, advanced by Wegener and Petty (1994), is that for individuals in a bad mood engagement in a wide range of activities would tend to make the person feel better and would therefore be rewarded. On the other hand, they suggest that the range of activities that would provide hedonic rewards for a person in a good mood is more restricted and that many activities would actually make the individual feel worse and that choosing those options would be punished. Therefore, they argue that:

"scrutiny of the hedonic consequences of potential future activities should become more usual, more practised, and more likely in positive than in negative moods" (p 1035)

There is a wide range of evidence to support both the negative state relief model and the hedonic contingency hypothesis. Research on the effects of mood on information processing, for example, highlights that individuals in negative moods tend to process information in systematic fashion. In contrast, asymmetrical effects are observed for individuals in positive moods such that some may engage in systematic processing while others take short cut decision making strategies (Hirt *et al.*, 1996, also see Gardner and Hill, 1988 reported in Section 3.8.3).

The anomalies within this line of research indicate that neither the negative state relief model nor the hedonic contingency hypothesis provides a definitive answer to questions regarding the different effects of positive and negative mood on mood management motivation. Given the current evidence, it seems more realistic to adopt a middle position that acknowledges that the hedonic rewards of alternative activities are scrutinised and learned by individuals in positive and negative moods, but also recognises that mood congruent bias is also likely to be at work in the process of that scrutiny.

The mood management research relates to the question of how mood influences goal-directed behaviour because of the potential for mood management motives to influence goal intentions. The mood literature would suggest that mood management motives increase an individual's propensity to scrutinise the hedonic consequences of various goals that they may choose to pursue and increase a person's commitment to goals that serve mood management ends. Scrutiny of the consequences of pursuing alternative goals would be expected to involve both immediate and longer term costs (time, effort and money) and benefits (functional and non-functional) of each option.

The impact of variability in costs - other than hedonic ones - on the effects of mood management motives is not well understood as research in this domain tends to focus on activities that differ in hedonic tone but that are otherwise low cost. For example, tests of the hedonic contingency hypothesis involve choosing amongst videos to watch (Wegener and Petty, 1994). Similarly, the impact of long versus short-term consequences of behaviour has received little attention, partly due to the predominance of experimental research in the mood literature and the design of that research. In a naturalistic setting, the costs associated with particular behaviour and the consequences of behaviour at different points in time may well effect the way in which mood management motives effect behavioural choices. Therefore, not only is more research required to assess the different effects of mood maintenance versus mood repair motives, but the parsimony and external validity of this research needs to be established by incorporating variables that may moderate the influence of mood management on behavioural choices in real life settings.

Because mood management is recognised as a key source of motivation for various consumption-related activities, including eating, buying goods and services, self-gift buying or simply shopping, it has been identified as an area of interest to consumer

behaviour researchers (Grunert, 1995; Elliot, 1994). Consumption for the purpose of mood management is suggested by Grunert (1995) to be *normal* behaviour, in that it is a fairly frequent occurrence for many and all sorts of consumers. By contrast, Elliot (1994) and Elliot, Eccles and Gournay (1996) have focused on a more extreme and less *normal* form of consumption - addictive consumption. Addictive consumption is described as habitual behaviour which often involves the experience of a strong urge to perform the behaviour and a feeling of limited self control. The behaviour is maintained despite personal consequences and attempts at control or abstention. With specific regard to shopping, these authors suggest that addictive shopping has dysfunctional elements, and can have more negative consequences than general shopping for mood management.

Research has revealed that consumption motivated by mood factors is often intended to serve a compensatory function. For instance, the self-gift literature has shown that "therapy" is amongst the reasons why women buy gifts for themselves when, for example, personal relations are poor or disrupted and the self-gift experience is used in an attempt to provide for oneself what cannot currently be obtained from others (Mick, DeMoss and Faber, 1992). Similarly, Woodruffe (1996) conducted a preliminary study of "why women shop when they are fed up" using phenomenological interviews with three women. She found that spending money on oneself was a means of combating depressed and stressful feelings caused by pressure at work and poor marital and family relationships.

The research on mood-motivated shopping, although limited to date, provides reasonable evidence that shopping trips are motivated by desires to maintain or improve mood. Considering how this type of shopping motive relates to the more general functional and non-functional shopping goals outlined in Chapter 2, it seems reasonable to suggest that where a positive mood state is the desired outcome of an

activity a person may well have other sub-shopping goals which are seen as a means of working towards the goal of maintaining or improving mood state. Certainly, the self-gift literature suggests that consumers often seek to buy something for themselves as a means of achieving mood-related goals (Mick and DeMoss, 1990). Likewise, Rook and Hock (1985) and Rook (1987) report that individuals sometimes go shopping with the express intention to "impulse buy" and that in some instances impulse buying is explained as mood-motivated. The literature on shopping for mood management highlights the issue that amongst the consumers who pursue certain shopping goals to maintain or improve their mood state some will be in positive moods while others will be in more depressed or stressed mood states.

3.8.2.2 The Influence of Mood on Strategies for Goal Pursuit

The second way in which mood might influence the pre-actional phases of goal-directed behaviour is via its effects on the strategies that a person considers as means to pursue certain goals. The influence of mood on strategies for goal pursuit relates to research on cognitive organisation. As noted earlier, positive mood is suggested to produce a well-interconnected pattern of material in memory and an individual in a positive mood is suggested to recognise more (and weaker) relationships among variables, and develop more creative solutions to problems (Isen, 1987). Therefore, positive mood directly effects the number of alternative action strategies that a person considers as a means of progressing towards a goal in a particular situation. By contrast, studies of depression suggest that the negative mood of depressed individuals may prevent them from seeing multiple interpretations of a situation (Markus and Nurius, 1986). Given that a person's commitment to a particular goal depends partly on whether he or she believes that it is achievable in the current situation, it seems reasonable that individuals who consider a wider range of strategies for goal pursuit are more likely to view a particular goal as attainable. The importance of this factor varies, however, depending on the familiarity and complexity

of the task. Little difference is observed between individuals in positive and negative moods where the task at hand is relatively simple or is carried out with reasonable frequency (Forgas, 1994).

3.8.2.3 The Self -Regulatory Function of Mood

Mood is suggested to serve a self-regulatory function because it influences an individual's evaluation of whether he or she is likely to achieve a certain goal. Proponents of the functional perspective of mood suggest that an individual becomes committed to pursue goals in a particular context if the person perceives a reasonable balance between the resources necessary for goal pursuit and the personal resources available to them at that point in time. Goals requiring a large expenditure of resources are more likely to be evaluated as achievable if a person is in a positive mood, having substantial personal resources available to undertake the activity. The associationist notion of mood-congruent memory contributes to the explanation of a person's motivation to engage in goal-directed action in that it suggests that when a person is in a good mood he or she is more optimistic about the outcomes of engaging in that behaviour. By contrast, when a person's resources are depleted, negative mood-congruent recall serves to discourage involvement in goal-directed behaviour which would require more resources than are currently available (Morris, 1989). The effects of mood via its self-regulatory function are suggested to be particularly important because mood is especially influential where self-relevant material is concerned (Kihlstrom and Cantor, 1984). Furthermore, it can bear a substantial influence on things such as self-esteem and self-efficacy beliefs which also influence a person's propensity to pursue certain goals (Bandura, 1986).

Research on achievement motivation has provided evidence that mood plays a role in the process of becoming committed to goals by colouring expectancies of success. For example, Hom and Arbuckle (1988) found that mood influenced goal-setting

standards in children. It is also suggested by these authors that improved performance was related to mood, although it was not clear whether this effect was mediated by goal setting or whether goal setting and performance were independently related to mood.

In sum, there are three ways in which mood might be suggested to influence the pre-actional phases of goal-directed behaviour. First, the desire to manage one's mood state can increase the importance of goals considered to have hedonic consequences. Individuals in positive and negative moods are suggested to scrutinise the hedonic consequences of alternative activities and to learn which produce hedonic rewards, although mood-congruent bias may influence whether pursuit of particular goals will be hedonically rewarding. In consumer behaviour research there is evidence that the hedonic consequences gained through consumption-related activities are sought as compensation for lack of such rewards from other domains of life. Secondly, mood's influence on the range of strategies considered for goals pursuit was suggested to effect individuals' commitment to goals because of the consequences for the formation of implementation intentions. Finally, arguments that mood's self-regulatory function should influence goal commitment were presented by making a person more optimistic or pessimistic that relevant goals could be achieved under given circumstances. The weakness of the research reported here is that it focuses on the hedonic tone of mood and does not account for levels of activation. If the effects of this latter aspect of mood is accounted for, slightly different results may be observed. The following section moves on to consider research that provides insights into how mood might influence the actional phase of goal-directed behaviour.

3.8.3 Pursuing Goals: The Role of Mood in the Actional Phase of Goal-Directed Behaviour

Perseverance in the pursuit of goals during the actional phase of goal-directed behaviour was suggested in Chapter 2 to be dependent on the strength of an

individual's goal intentions and the difficulties that need to be overcome (Heckhausen, 1991). As a behavioural episode evolves, control of effort is influenced by feedback about progress towards important goals. This feedback also serves as a basis for the adjustment of standards for goal attainment. The following discussion of how mood affects persistence in the pursuit of goals relates to both how mood influences behaviour that is instrumental in progressing towards goal attainment and how far a person follows through with that behaviour towards goal attainment.

The principles of the goal concept suggests that, where an individual has important goals, the influence of mood on the actional phase of goal-directed behaviour would be to increase persistence at the activity because positive mood serves as positive feedback about progress towards goals. This position is supported by control theorists who posit that moods lead to either increased effort or withdrawal due to their effects on expectancies of success (Carver and Scheier, 1990). There are, however, various caveats to this proposed relationship. The following sections discuss these issues by referring to both social psychology and consumer behaviour mood literature.

3.8.3.1 The Influence of Mood on Task Persistence

Research that has focused on the relationship between mood and persistence at goal-directed behaviour distinguishes between enjoyment-based goals (pursued for their own sake) and performance-based goals (pursued to the end of attaining some standard or criteria for performance) (Hirt *et al.*, 1996; Martin *et al.*, 1993). Martin *et al.* (1993) found that the effects of mood on persistence at an impression formation task varied as a function of the goals most salient at the time. That is, subjects in positive mood states showed greater persistence at enjoyment-based tasks, but spent less time and effort on performance-based tasks.

One explanation for this, offered by Hirt *et al.* (1996), is that positive mood increases an individual's motivation when performing a task in which attention is focused on whether or not the task is enjoyable. This is because people assume that there is a relationship between their mood and their enjoyment of the task and therefore devote more time and effort to the task than would otherwise be the case. Alternatively, if attention is focused on a task at which a person wishes to attain a certain standard, people may assume that their good mood is a reflection of their good performance at the task and therefore finish the activity more quickly, feeling that they have achieved a satisfactory standard. In this case positive mood might be expected to reduce the level of persistence at the task.

Hirt *et al.* (1996), themselves provided further evidence of this pattern of relationships between mood and task persistence. In their study subjects induced in happy, sad and neutral moods were asked to identify similarities and differences between television programmes. The results illustrated that more time was spent on the task and more items were generated by people in happy moods when attention was focused on enjoyment of the activity than did subjects in other mood conditions. By contrast, when attention was focused on adequacy of performance at the task, individuals in good moods spent less time on the activity, but generated a comparable number of items representing similarities or differences between the programmes as produced by other subjects. This suggests that mood state does not necessarily influence level of performance at a task, but that greater endurance may be necessary for individuals in negative mood states to achieve a performance-based task to a comparable standard.

On the other hand, Nichols *et al.* (1991) found that children induced with positive and negative mood via false test feedback showed no difference in task persistence. One possible explanation for this outcome is that the measurement of persistence used in this study was an *intention to persist* rather than the actual behaviour. In a normal

classroom situation, therefore, differences may well emerge between children's persistence with a task depending on their mood state. Other reasons offered by the authors were, first, that the novelty of the experimental setting and the attention of the research assistants might have influenced the children participating in the experiment. Secondly, Lock and Latham (1990) have emphasised that goals imposed by others only have a motivational impact if the individual concerned adopts them in some form. Therefore, the subjects may not have adopted the task set by researchers as an important goal. These latter explanations would also have influenced other experimental studies but do not appear to have influenced their results in the same way.

Amongst the research that has investigated the relationship between mood state and task persistence, there is a predominance of experimental studies for which mood is induced by various induction techniques. This serves to manipulate the hedonic tone of individuals' moods, but induction tends not to affect activation levels, which are also a component of mood state. Further research that accounts for mood's hedonic tone and level of activation would add to the insights gained from this line of research. In particular, this may be a key issue if the goal-directed behaviour of interest involves active rather than passive behaviour.

Moving on to consider the role of mood in the actional phase of goal-directed behaviour in the specific context of shopping behaviour, one might recall that the discussion in Chapter 2 focused on the expenditure of resources in the retail context as an indicator of perseverance in goal pursuit. In this discussion it was highlighted that although resource expenditure would be expected to be higher for consumers who are committed to achieving shopping goals, the type of shopping goals sought, consumer's socio-demographic characteristics and time perceptions also influence time and effort spent shopping.

Consumer behaviour research has not specifically explored the relationship between mood and task persistence. There are, however, two branches of research which offer insights on mood's effects on the expenditure of resources during the pursuit of shopping goals, that is, research which focuses on: the influence of mood of consumers' evaluations of products; and, mood's influence on consumers' use of information in decision making.

3.8.3.2 The Influence of Mood on Product Evaluation

Srull (1986; 1983; Lichtenstein and Srull, 1985; Lynch and Srull, 1982) has been responsible for substantial ground work in applying the psychological principles of the effects of mood on consumers' evaluations of products in the course of decision making. Srull (1986) argues that the affective influences on consumer decision making should not be considered outside the bounds of information processing models, rather, attempts should be made to account for the mechanisms by which they operate within that context. He, therefore, proposes a model that can be used to study mood within an information-processing framework. In a series of experiments Srull (1986) showed that mood at the time of evaluation bore a marked influence on product judgements. However, when subjects with little knowledge or experience of the product class were compared with those of more experienced consumers it emerged that clear effects of mood on judgement pertained only to the less knowledgeable consumers, while they were more ambiguous for the experienced group.

Curren and Harich (1994) have since provided support for the notion that the effects of mood on product evaluation are only significant for low involvement purchases. These authors found that evaluation of product information for unimportant evaluations was biased in a mood congruent direct. This corresponds with previous

research (e.g. Johnson and Tversky, 1983) which suggests that positive mood tends to lead to more positive evaluations and that negative mood leads to more negative evaluations. The effects were not replicated for evaluations of high involvement purchases.

The implications of these findings for goal-directed behaviour are that if consumers' functional goals relate to low involvement purchases, individuals in positive mood states are likely to judge various products offered by a retailer to be acceptable. Consequently, they are more likely to feel that they are progressing towards attainment of their functional goals and to persevere until those goals are achieved. This does not necessarily mean that individuals in positive moods will spend more time and effort shopping, however. As suggested in the research on task persistence reported above, a person in a positive mood might be able to achieve performance-related shopping goals more quickly because it is easier to find a satisfactory product. Individuals in other mood states, by contrast, may stick at the task longer in order to satisfy their criteria for achievement of that goal or they may simply abandon purchase-related goals because of their more negative evaluations.

As far as non-functional goals are concerned, it seems reasonable to suggest that the principle of mood-congruent evaluations might also be observed in consumers' judgements of retail elements that facilitate their progress towards non-functional shopping goals. The effects of this would be to enhance the consumer's perceptions that progress was being made towards non-functional goals and, therefore, to increase their persistence in pursuing such goals. Where non-functional goals are dominant, however, task persistence is likely to mean that the person spends more time and effort in pursuing the goal because the activity is a source of pleasure in its own right. Individuals in other mood states, on the other hand, may well abandon their pursuit of these types of goal if they are not enjoying the experience. In some instances,

however, one would expect their mood improve because the retail encounter proves to be a pleasant experience.

In reality, many shopping trips are motivated by functional and non-functional goals. The expenditure of resources during the retail encounter is, therefore, likely to be a consequence of the combined effects of mood on persistence in the pursuit of enjoyment-based and performance-based goals. Of course, this muddies the waters in terms of the expected relationship between mood and resource expenditure during a retail encounter.

With regard to high involvement purchases, mood is suggested not to influence consumers' judgements of the products on offer. That is not to say, however, that their positive mood state will not make them optimistic about the likelihood of achieving their functional goals and encourage perseverance in the task when people in other mood states might abandon the goal. Whether the suggestion that positive mood allows a performance-based task to be achieved in less time holds true in this high involvement context is questionable, however. If mood does not influence evaluations of high-involvement products, there is little reason to believe that individuals in positive moods should feel more confident that they can adequately satisfy the criteria for the attainment of functional goals by purchasing the products available in a particular retail context.

3.8.3.3 The Influence of Mood on Brand Choice

An additional line of research which informs the understanding of the actional phase of shopping behaviour is presented in the consumer behaviour mood literature on brand choice, including research on information use in brand choice and variety seeking behaviour.

Gardner and Hill (1988) examined the relationship between mood and choice strategies that were labelled as either experiential (primarily affective - Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982) or informational (primarily cognitive - Bettman, 1979). The analysis indicated that people were more likely to use experiential strategies as mood improved. Despite this general trend, the results revealed asymmetrical effects in that subjects in positive moods were likely to use both strategies (55.4% used an experiential strategy while 44.6% used an informational strategy), while subjects in negative mood were more apt to use informational strategies (64.2%, compared to 35.8% who used experiential strategies).

Gardner and Hill (1988) suggest that their findings regarding the asymmetrical effects of mood on decision strategies are consistent with the literature as there are anomalies amongst studies of mood and decision making. For example, results of studies which report the cognitive effects of mood suggest that positive pre-processing mood are associated with informational strategies, while studies focusing of the behavioural effects of mood suggest that mood is associated with experiential strategies. This anomaly can similarly be explained in the context of the functional perspective of mood proposed by Morris (1992) and Batson *et al.* (1992). From this view point it is proposed that subjects with substantial resources available, that is in an activated pleasant mood state, may employ these resources in more demanding informational decision making strategies. On the other hand if, as previously suggested, people in positive moods are less concerned about failure, they can reasonably be expected to use short cut strategies. The use of informational strategies by people in negative moods might be explained by doubts about self-efficacy and the feeling that more attention needs to be paid to detail to arrive at a satisfactory decision.

The findings of this research would suggest that individuals in positive moods would, on the whole, spend less time pursuing functional shopping goals because they have a

greater tendency to use experiential, short cut decision strategies to choose amongst alternatives. Even if informational strategies are used, individuals in positive moods are better equipped to handle information than are people in negative moods. It is only possible to speculate about the relationship between decision styles and time and efforts spent shopping, however, as a number of other factors may influence the relationship. For example, individuals in positive mood state may be motivated to seek out more information and compare a greater number of alternatives, resulting in the more resource expenditure during shopping, at least for product categories. Moreover, it is worth remembering that this research was carried out in an experimental setting. It may well be that in a real life setting individuals in negative moods would not feel that they had the resources to engage in the laborious information processing required to make a satisfactory choice and may abandon or postpone the decision to a later point in time.

Another line of mood research, which is loosely related to that on choice strategies, is the impulse buying literature. Traditionally impulse buying was associated with unplanned purchases (Bellenger, Robertson and Hirschman, 1978; Kollat and Willet, 1967; West, 1951). For several years, however, there has been general agreement that this is too broad a definition. Clarification has centred on the notion that impulse buying involves relatively thoughtless and quick acting (Rook and Hoch, 1985; Weinberg and Gottwald, 1982). Hoch and Lowenstein (1991) have since interpreted the underlying processes of buying impulses as desires that compete with individuals' willpower.

These latter definitions suggest that impulse buying is characterised by experiential choice strategies⁴. Given the research on choice strategies it perhaps not surprising

⁴Varying degrees of impulsiveness have been recognised in conceptualisations of impulse buying behaviour. Rook and Gardner (1993) propose an impulse buying continuum ranging from highly to slightly impulsive buying behaviour. It is possible that when a consumer's purchase is only slightly

mood is suggested to play a prominent role in consumer impulse buying (Weinberg and Gottwald, 1982). Rook and Gardner (1993) found evidence of this relationship in a study based on consumers' anecdotal impulse buying experiences. This approach to studying the effects of mood on impulse buying has limitation because of the time delay between the behaviour and the data collection, which is likely to reduce the accuracy of the data due to poor memory. Nevertheless, as expected, the findings demonstrated that impulse buying was closely associated with positive moods, although a third of the sample reported that they had bought on impulse when in a negative mood.

Kahn and Isen (1993) have addressed another aspect of the effects of mood on brand choice. These authors conducted a series of experiments to assess the influence of positive affect on variety seeking in brand choice. Their main findings were that, compared to subjects in neutral mood states, those in positive moods were more prone to variety seeking, that is, to include more items within their choice set and to switch more among those items. This trend only emerged when circumstances did not highlight possible negative features of some of the brands (such as negative health consequences of foodstuffs). When negative features were made apparent there was no significant difference between the positive mood group and the control group. It, therefore, appears that positive affect and variety seeking are positively correlated when the choice is made under relatively "safe" circumstance.

The switching behaviour is explained by the notion that positive mood leads to greater elaboration (following the earlier discussion of cognitive networks where it was suggested that networks associated with positive affect are more extensive, elaborate and well-interconnected). People in positive moods are more likely to notice distinctions between items that encourage them to switch whereas people in neutral

impulsive that more attention may be paid to objective product information.

moods are less likely to switch because they do not notice the same distinctions between the items. This outcome was not expected to be replicated when negative features of the products were highlighted to the respondents as it has been shown that positive mood does not distort perceptions of negative materials (Isen and Shalcker, 1982). Also, the proposition that people in positive moods avoid things that may have negative consequences implies that mood management motives may override the experiential objectives sought by variety seeking behaviour.

If consumers in positive moods are more likely to be variety seekers, they may well invest more time and effort in their functional shopping goals because of time required to make comparisons amongst alternatives. One cannot be sure from Kahn and Isen's (1993) work, however, that the effects of mood on variety seeking extend beyond the context of fast moving consumer goods. If this trend does not apply across product categories, it may not be an issue for many types of shopping behaviour.

To briefly summarise, the literature that provides insights on the relationship between antecedent mood and the actional phase of goal-directed behaviour includes: first, the social psychological research that focuses on the effects of mood on persistence at enjoyment and performance-based tasks. This research indicates that time and effort invested in activities is a function of the nature of the task at hand. However, research into these relationships in naturalistic settings, particularly in the context of certain types of shopping, would pose problems because many individuals are driven by a combination of enjoyment or performance-based tasks and it would be difficult to separate out the effects of each on time and effort invested in the activity. Secondly, the contribution of consumer behaviour research on mood's effects of product evaluations and brand choice was examined. The research into the effects of mood on product evaluation implied that although the relationships between mood and resource expenditure suggested in the psychology literature might hold true for low

involvement purchases, this would not necessarily be replicated in the case of high involvement purchases. Finally, the brand choice literature highlighted various factors that might lead to anomalies in the relationship between mood and resource expenditure while shopping. For example, individuals in positive moods tend to have quicker decision makers, either because they use short cut decision strategies or because their information processing capacity is greater. On the other hand, they have a greater propensity for variety seeking and may, therefore, notice or seek out a wider range of information in order to make their choice.

Although the research reviewed in this section provides some insights into the effects that mood might have on individuals' in-store behaviour, it leaves many gaps in the understanding of what and how much people invest in the pursuit of various shopping goals. Experimental studies of task persistence focus attention on the individual's capacity to complete a task, whereas in naturalistic settings part of an individual's motivation depends on whether the behavioural environment is judged to facilitate progress towards important goals. With regard to the mood literature on consumer decision making, the research carried out to date has a narrow focus on individuals' motivation to perform cognitive acts associated with functional/purchase-related goals. To understand how mood affects in-store shopping behaviour, however, there is also a need to account for physical activities and investment in social interactions and to link them to the different types of goals driving a particular shopping episode.

3.8.4 Attaining Goals: The Role of Mood in the Post-actional Phase of Goal-directed Behaviour

The final stage of goal-directed behaviour is the stage at which behaviour directed towards a particular goal concludes, either because the individual judges that the goal has been accomplished to a satisfactory standard, the goal is deemed unattainable under current circumstances or because another goal diverts the person's attention.

(Pervin, 1983).

There is little research that provides evidence of the relationships between mood and goal attainment. The principles of the associationist perspective of mood would suggest, however, that an individual's evaluations of whether goals have been attained to a satisfactory standard would be biased in a mood-congruent direction. Clearly, the degree to which mood biases these assessments depends on the vagueness of criteria for achievement of a particular goal. For example, if one of the goals of playing football is to win the match, success or failure is clear cut, although there may be room for some influence in that mood may effect a player's judgement of the margin by which they lost. On the other hand, if the objective of playing is to enjoy the match, there is more room for bias in the assessment of goal attainment.

The main concern in this thesis is with the effects of mood as an independent variable. However, an individual's evaluations of whether or not a goal has been achieved, as well as experiences during goal pursuit, may lead to a shift in mood state. Emmons and Diener (1986) have provided evidence that individuals experience more positive affect in situations in which they have important goals and believe that they are making progress towards those goals. However, their findings revealed that people did not necessarily experience negative mood when their goals were thwarted. One explanation offered for this result was that when goals are thwarted, people may well reformulate plans or re-evaluate their position relative to their goals, thus avoiding disappointment and negative mood.

3.9 Summary

This concludes the review of the mood literature. The review started with a general overview of the psychology literature representing the main conceptualisations of the nature and functions of mood. Within this part of the chapter, definitions of mood

and its distinction from other affective phenomena were discussed. With regard to the motivational function of mood, two main perspectives were presented: the associationist perspective proposing that mood influences behaviour via its effects on cognitive processes; and the functional perspective suggesting that mood signals the existence of resources or depletions to the self and thus acts as part of a person's self-regulatory system indicating when it is and is not advisable to engage in certain activities. It was proposed that these two views of mood make complimentary rather than competitive contributions to the understanding of how mood influences behaviour.

Before moving on to consider research which offers insights into how mood influences the main stages goal-directed behaviour, the issue of mood measurement was addressed with a particular attention devoted to literature on the structure of affect. This discussion highlighted that a key distinction between existing mood literature is that some research (typically studies which employ mood induction techniques) focus solely on the hedonic tone of an individual's mood state while other research accounts both for the hedonic tone and activation components of mood. It was argued that where researchers are specifically interested in the motivational functions of mood the latter approach is preferable.

Finally, the role of mood in the motivation of goal-directed behaviour was discussed. Drawing on findings of existing mood research and principles of the goal concept it was proposed that an individual's mood state influences each stage of goal-directed behaviour. An overview of the various strands of research reviewed indicate that the relationship between mood and goal-directed behaviour is such that positive mood will lead to greater commitment to goals, greater perseverance in goal-pursuit and make an individual more favourable in his or her judgements of whether or not goals have been attained to a satisfactory standard. Although the literature, taken together,

indicates this general direction in relationships between mood and various stages of goal-directed behaviour, the discussion of the range of mood literature highlighted that many anomalies have been identified regarding the nature of mood's influence on behaviour.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

4.0 Introduction

It was reported in Chapter 1 that the main aim of this research is to build the understanding of shopping motivation and the consequences for retail outcomes. This chapter presents the research problem in more detail and the research methodology employed.

The chapter starts by discussing the research approach adopted in the thesis. Secondly, it presents the research hypotheses that were developed from the literature review in Chapters 2 and 3. Before outlining the research methods used to test the hypotheses, preliminary research carried out to develop scales for use in the main study is reported. Therefore, the remainder of the chapter is split into three parts. Part I and Part II outline the research involved in the development of a shopping goal measurement scale and a mood measurement scale, respectively. Part III describes the methods used for the main stage of the research in which the research hypotheses were tested. This covers the research procedures, sampling, the instruments and the methods of analysis employed.

4.1 The Research Approach

The research approach adopted in this thesis involved a deductive method. Deductive research methods entail the development of a conceptual and theoretical structure which is tested through empirical observation (Gill and Johnson, 1991). Within the process of deductive research it is the logic of deduction and operationalisation, that is, how the theory is tested, that is of prime importance. In the first instance, concepts considered to be sufficiently important to warrant examination are identified from some source of theory. Causal links are then established between two or more concepts. Because the concepts and the relationship between them are abstract, they

have to be translated into observables or indicators. The operationalisation of concepts in an empirical context must incorporate clear definitions of what has been measured and how it represents the abstract concept under investigation. This process of operationalisation produces clear instructions about how to measure variability within the concepts of interest.

Collection of data according to these instructions enables the testing of hypotheses and theories by comparing them with the empirical data (Gay and Diehl, 1992). The outcome of the testing process enables the researcher to state what has happened and also to make predictions of future occurrences of the phenomena under comparable circumstances. In reality, however, it is the emergent statistical relationship that is cited by social scientists in such statements, as it is possible that theory will not be corroborated on future occasions (Gill and Johnson, 1991).

The nature of the deductive research process has led to some controversy about the value of the findings that it produces. On one hand, it has been argued that observations made during empirical research feed into theoretical understanding of the world. The alternative view, by contrast, holds that 'empirical reality' is a consequence of theories that are used to organise understanding of the issue (Gilbert, 1993). Because of the belief that hypotheses reflect biases in the existing body of research and biases of the researcher, there have been calls for empirical research to be carried out prior to developing an understanding of the area from existing literature (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Others differ in their opinion, however, arguing that:

“fuller utilisation of the concepts and hypotheses ... as part of the process of observation and measurement promises to be a shorter road, perhaps even the only road, to understanding” (Koopmans, 1947: 162 – cited in Gummesson, 1991: 55)

Furthermore, Gummesson (1991) highlights that theories and models can help the researcher to select which phenomena to study, and which to exclude, which can be otherwise problematic when confronted with an overwhelming mass of stimuli.

The view that an advanced knowledge of the area under study is an asset to the researcher appears to be diametrically opposed to the view that it serves to bias the research process. Gummesson (1991) suggests, however, that the two are not necessarily contradictory:

“If we claim that scientists should have preunderstanding, but also that they should have the innocent mind of a child when searching for data, we may end up by populating our business schools with schizophrenic professors. We should not require split personalities, but dual personalities: Those who are able to balance on the razor’s edge *use their preunderstanding but are not its slave*¹” (p 56).

For a researcher who views deductive and inductive research, and the associated set of philosophical assumptions, as incommensurable alternatives, the choice between them comes down to a personal belief about the nature of human action. There are many, however, who regard deductive and inductive research to serve useful and often complementary roles. Generally speaking, inductive research is considered as a basis for developing theory, while the objective of deductive research is to verify theory in a particular domain (Creswell, 1994).

In my research the decision to use a deductive research approach was guided by the purpose of the study and the nature of the concepts to be investigated. As stated in the introduction, the focus of the research is on action specific goals. The general aim of the research is to build on the understanding of internal influences on shopping motivation and to explore the consequences for retail outcomes. The literature review in Chapter 2 illustrates that there is a substantial body of existing literature on action specific goals which conceptualises the nature of the relationships between

¹author's original emphasis

motivational elements of goal-directed behaviour. Therefore, in this research it was possible to examine shopping motivation - to detect patterns between elements of goal-directed shopping behaviour - by applying the principles outlined in previous literature. Moreover, by the adoption of a quantitative approach, my research follows the tradition that has developed in motivation research where the concern is with action specific goals (Bagozzi and Edwards, forthcoming; Gollwitzer and Heckhausen, 1987; Lewin, 1951).

Research into action specific goals contrasts with other streams of motivation research, in particular those dealing with higher level, abstract goals. In the latter case, qualitative research methods, such as Thematic Aperception Tests, projective techniques and laddering, have been preferred. This preference is based on the notion that higher level goals are complex, personalised constructs. That is, they are peculiar to the individual, developing as a product of an individual's personal and social background and experiences. Therefore rich descriptions of individuals' higher goals can aid understanding of *why* a person is motivated to engage in certain behaviours. Research into action specific goals has favoured quantitative research, however, because they are concerned with problems such as identifying *which* goals drive behaviour and establishing *how* the strength of commitment to goals influences motivation.

With regard to mood, the various indicators that have been employed for purposes of measurement were outlined in Chapter 3 (Section 3.7). In the context of consumer behaviour research, where actual mood state has been measured (as opposed to mood being induced as part of an experimental research design), self-report mood has generally be employed as an indicator of this affective phenomena (Peterson and Sauber, 1983), largely for practical reasons. Self-report was chosen as a means for data collection in this research because the skill and equipment required for assessing physiological changes in mood state made them unfeasible options. Further

discussion of the appropriateness of quantitative research methods for exploring the concepts of interests in this research is developed in Section 4.4.2.

The application of the deductive approach started with the discussion of theoretical principles regarding goal-based motivation and mood in Chapters 2 and 3 of the thesis. The hypotheses developed from that discussion are presented below.

4.2 Formulation of the Research Hypotheses

It was emphasised in Chapter 2 that analyses of goal-directed behaviour tend to set boundaries in terms of behavioural episodes. In this research, the behavioural episode is delimited by the point at which an individual enters into a retail setting and the point at which he or she leaves that setting. The hypotheses regarding the relationship between shopping motivation and mood were developed with these boundaries in mind.

4.2.1 Establishing Goals

One of the principle arguments presented in the literature chapters regards the role of mood in the context of goal-directed behaviour. The discussion of how people establish action specific goals in Chapter 2 identified mood as one of the key motivational components in the process by which an individual becomes committed to goals.

The discussion of how mood influences the degree to which an individual becomes committed to particular goals was developed in Chapter 3. This discussion drew on three areas of mood literature: research relating to mood management, research which focuses on the effects of mood on creativity in strategic thinking and, finally, research which emphasises the self-regulatory role of mood. Various anomalies in the effects of mood are highlighted by this research with regard to the effects of mood on commitment to both functional and nonfunctional goals. It was argued, however, that

the body of literature, taken together, suggests that a positive relationship exists between mood and goal commitment. That is, people in activated pleasant moods are more likely to develop a strong commitment to goals, whereas the commitment to goals by people in unactivated unpleasant moods is likely to be weaker. The first hypothesis tested in this research examined whether mood did influence the level of commitment to shopping goals for a particular retail encounter:

H₁: Consumers' mood states influence the establishment of shopping goals such that people in activated pleasant mood states are more likely to have important shopping goals upon arrival at a retail setting than those in unactivated unpleasant states.

The null hypothesis is, therefore:

H ₀₁ : There is no evidence to suggest that consumers' pre-shopping mood states influence the importance that consumers attribute to shopping goals.

4.2.2 Pursuing Goals

According to Chapter 2, people's investment of resources in current activities depends on what is necessary to achieve the goals that they have set themselves. This implies that more resources are invested in goals that are difficult to achieve than those that are easily attained and, also, that resources are directed into different types of actions depending on the nature of the goal. This holds true for shopping behaviour where, not only are people expected to put more into shopping when they are highly committed to particular shopping goals but, the nature of the behaviour in which individuals invest depends on what is required to achieve relevant goals.

The general proposition with regard to mood's influence on goal pursuit is that positive mood increases the likelihood that an individual will persist at an activity until important goals have been achieved to a standard that meets relevant criteria. Part of the rationale for this proposed relationship is that mood serves as positive

feedback about progress towards goals. In addition, the rationale draws on the view that positive mood is a signal of resource availability and that one type of resource that contributes to mood relates to physical energy. Therefore, individuals in positive mood states should have more energy available to them to invest in pursuing their shopping goals.

The second hypothesis tests the relationship between goals, mood and the investment of resources in shopping activities:

H₂: Subjects with important shopping goals will invest more resources in their shopping activities than people without important shopping goals. An individual's pre-shopping mood will have a positive effect on resource expenditure, either directly or as a moderator of the effects of goal importance.

The corresponding null hypothesis takes the following format:

H ₀₂ : There is no evidence to suggest that goals or pre-shopping mood influence resource expenditure during shopping activities.
--

4.2.3 Achieving Goals

A goal-based perspective of human behaviour assumes that having important goals is a pre-requisite to achieving those goals and a positive relationship is, therefore, expected to exist between the two. The mood literature emphasises that people in positive moods generate more, and more creative strategies for achieving goals and are, therefore, more likely to attain them. In addition, it is assumed here that the suggestion that mood colours people's evaluations extends to their evaluations of whether or not they have attained goals, especially those for which the outcomes are largely intangible. A third variable that is expected to influence goal attainment is resource expenditure during the retail encounter, on the basis that the more time, money and energy that a person channels into the pursuit of goals, the more likely that individual is to attain them.

The third hypothesis examines the relationship between goals established in anticipation of the retail encounter and those attained during it, accounting for the additional effects of mood and resource expenditure during shopping activities.

H₃: There is a positive association between goals that are identified as important in anticipation of a retail encounter and those that are attained during the encounter. Pre-shopping mood is expected to influence goal attainment either directly or via an interaction with goal importance. In addition, resource expenditure during shopping activities is expected to contribute to the determination of goal attainment.

The null hypothesis is, therefore:

H ₀₃ : There is no evidence that a relationship exists between pre-shopping mood, shopping goals identified as important upon arrival at a retail outlet and resource expenditure during the retail encounter and attainment of shopping goals.
--

A caveat to the proposition that prior commitment to goals is pre-requisite to goal attainment is when goal plans change during the retail encounter due to the consumer's interaction with the social and physical environment. This might apply to functional or non-functional goals. With regard to functional goals, a person who has no intentions of making a purchase may find that they particularly like the goods available in the store or find that there are some "bargains" on offer and are tempted to buy, possibly impulsively or even compulsively. Conversely, it is likely that many consumers with express intentions to purchase something for themselves or for others will not find anything suitable among the store's offerings. This may be especially true when buying gifts, where the recipients are often considered to be "difficult" to buy for (Otnes *et al.*, 1993). Similarly with non-functional goals, individuals may find themselves pursuing such goals because they find the environment more pleasant or stimulating than anticipated. Alternatively, the intention to pursue non-functional goals may be abandoned if the environment is not perceived to be conducive.

4.2.4 Consequences of Goal Achievement

With regard to the feedback process involved in goal-directed behaviour, it was suggested in Chapter 2 that positive affect is experienced where progress is being made towards goals or where important goals have been achieved, implying that mood improvements are experienced along with goal achievement. Moreover, success in pursuing goals feeds back into self-efficacy cognitions. As self-efficacy is one of the personal resources that contributes to mood state this also implies that mood will improve when important goals are attained.

The fourth hypothesis regards the relationship between shopping goal attainment and mood state following the retail encounter:

H₄: There is a positive relationship between the attainment of important goals and change in mood state following the retail encounter.

The null hypothesis takes the following form:

H₀₄: There is no evidence of a relationship between the attainment of important goals and mood change between entering and leaving the retail setting

Although various studies focus on consumers' satisfaction with retail attributes (Oliver, 1993; Westbrook, 1981), it was noted in Chapter 2 that there is little research which provides insights into the consequences of goal attainment for retail outcomes (in terms of enjoyment of the shopping experience, retail preference and future patronage intentions). The general principles of goal-directed behaviour would suggest, however, that individuals who achieved their goals in a particular context would evaluate that context more favourably. In particular, it would be evaluated as suitable for future occasions when a person wants to pursue similar goals (Heckhausen, 1991). Positive or negative affect experienced as a consequence of the

retail encounter, represented by mood change, would also be expected to influence retail outcomes because it acts as a source of information on the shopping experience (Emmons and Diener, 1986). The effects of mood on retail outcomes are not expected to be restricted to mood change, however, as a person's mood state (regardless of change) would be expected to influence retail outcomes by virtue of mood-congruent bias effects on judgements. In testing the effects of mood on retail outcomes it is, therefore, desirable to account for a person's mood state following any changes that have occurred in that state. Therefore, the fifth and final hypothesis examines the effects of post-shopping mood and goal attainment on retail outcomes:

H₅: Retail outcomes are influenced by the attainment of shopping goals and post-shopping mood.

The null hypothesis is, therefore:

H₀₅: There is no evidence that retail outcomes are influenced by the attainment of shopping goals and post-shopping mood.

4.2.5 Summary of Hypotheses

In summary, the primary research in this thesis aims to accept or reject the following null hypotheses:

H₀₁: There is no evidence to suggest that consumers' pre-shopping mood states influence the establishment of shopping goals.

H₀₂: There is no evidence to suggest that goals or pre-shopping mood influence resource expenditure during shopping activities.

H₀₃: There is no evidence that a relationship exists between pre-shopping mood, shopping goals identified as important upon arrival at a retail outlet and resource expenditure during the retail encounter and attainment of shopping goals.

H₀₄: There is no evidence of a relationship between the attainment of important goals and mood change between entering and leaving the retail setting.

H₀₅: There is no evidence that retail outcomes are influenced by the attainment of shopping goals and post-shopping mood.

A diagram illustrating the hypothesised relationships is provided in Section 4.4.1.

In order to test these hypotheses it was first necessary to create an appropriate research design and to operationalise the various concepts incorporated within them. Before discussing these issues, however, the choice of context in which to carry out the empirical research is explained.

4.3 The Choice of Retail Context

The choice of the retail context in which to conduct the research was based on two main criteria: the first criteria was that a typical behavioural episode in that context should frame shopping behaviour directed towards the attainment of specific shopping goals; and the second criteria was that the retail context should provide scope for exploring the motivation of shopping behaviour associated with both functional and non-functional goals.

In retail contexts where consumers are typically shopping for various goods and services, such as the high street, the behavioural episode incorporates a complex set of goal-directed behaviours. Such contexts were therefore considered to be inappropriate for the present research. Other retail settings, such as supermarket shopping, would have been more appropriate in terms of the first criteria, but provide less scope for exploring both functional and non-functional goals.

The craft fair context was selected on the grounds that it met both of the criteria outlined above. Because craft fairs are usually held in a location that is "off the beaten track" and because they are held on an *ad hoc* basis, a visit to a craft fair is more likely to represent a distinct behavioural episode in a consumer's mind. Moreover, craft fairs have previously been identified as an appropriate retail context within which to investigate shopping motivation on the basis that consumers' functional and non-functional motives are heightened in such contexts (Dawson, Bloch and Ridgeway, 1990).

Having selected craft fairs as an appropriate retail setting, it was desirable to maintain a certain level of consistency across the craft fairs. It has been emphasised already that the focus of this research is on the motivation of shopping behaviour, and not the influence of element of the retail marketing mix on consumers' behaviour. The influence of external factors may be substantial, however, and it is desirable to control those factors. External influences cannot be totally controlled if the research is to be carried out in a real-life setting (rather than an experimental one). However, the selection of craft fairs that were similar was an attempt to provide some level of consistency across the retail settings in which the behavioural episodes of interest in this research took place. The following sections outline how craft fairs at which the research was carried out were selected.

4.3.1 The Definition of Crafts

The term *crafts* is used as a label for a wide variety of products. The feature that is most widely acknowledged to distinguish crafts from industrially manufactured products is that they are hand-made, at least to some degree. Other characteristics that are associated with crafts include originality, skill, personal, traditional, unique and quality (Bruce and Filmer, 1983). Despite general recognition of the qualities of crafts, a search of a wide range of sources suggests that there is no single definition of crafts and that researchers generally settle for a definition that suits their particular purpose.

Research that has attended the economic significance of the crafts sector, rather than focusing purely on its social and aesthetic role, has generally been commissioned by crafts organisations, including regional crafts councils, advisory boards and guilds. In 1994 the Crafts Council in London published a report which claims to be the most extensive research project on the craft sector carried out to date (Knott, 1994). This study was restricted to those crafts which fall within the Crafts Council's established

remit. The decision to include or exclude makers from the study was based on four main criteria which correspond with their remit.

First, the maker's line of business had to be among the categories specified in the Craft Council's remit: textiles, wood, ceramics, metal/jewellery, glass, musical instruments/toys, leather, graphic crafts and, finally, a miscellaneous class that includes such crafts as egg painting and corn dolly making. Photographers and fine artists are not included, although the report acknowledges that "many craftspeople produce work which is non-functional and in some cases borders on that of sculptors and painters" (Knott, 1994: 3). Other exclusions are those crafts that are usually regarded as building trades, such as masonry and thatching, and other produce "sometimes styled as crafts" such as perishables, foodstuffs and perfumes.

The second criteria related to the originality of the work. The Crafts Council represents people who conceive, design and develop their own craft ideas or at least have considerable personal input from starting with the raw materials through to completion. Therefore, makers who simply assemble parts or make up designs bought in from outside are excluded, as are those solely involved in reproduction and restoration.

Thirdly, makers had to be professionals, that is, their products had to be available for sale. This provided a basis on which to decide whether to include those who teach crafts and those in transition from being hobbyists to commercial producers.

The final criteria related to the size of the enterprise. Because craftspeople are expected to have close involvement with their products throughout the production process the study concentrated on individual makers. As others are often involved in production at some stage, however, workshops of up to ten workers were considered.

The rather strict definition of craft fostered by the Crafts Council contrasts with that adopted by Morris (1992). In an attempt to develop a definition of the craft sector for the study for the Welsh Development Agency and the West Wales TEC, Morris reports that discussion with craft makers and active committee members from a variety of Welsh crafts organisations and advisory bodies concluded that the sector incorporates:

"Those in the manufacture of gifts, art, craft and textiles where there are significant individual design and hand made components" (p 11)

In contrast, representatives of advisory bodies primarily concerned with economic development took a different view point, describing crafts as:

"Consumer goods (not in the industrial sector) made on an individual or small batch production basis" (p 11)

The range of products that may be identified as crafts according to the various definitions of the sector is reflected in the range of quality that one can expect to find at a retail outlet labelled as a craft fair.

4.3.2 Selection of Craft Fairs

Everything from the Chelsea Craft Fair to a collection of stalls at a village fete is advertised as a craft fair. Nevertheless, there tends to be a certain level of homogeneity in the standard of crafts sold at any one craft fair. This comes about either because the organisers take a strategic approach to the management of their fairs, placing restrictions on the types of crafts sold at their fairs in order to appeal to a particular consumer segment. Alternatively it arises because exhibitors are discriminating and will only take a stand at fairs that they believe will attract their target consumer segment.

In Scotland there is one craft fair organiser who claims to operate the largest business of this kind based north of the border. This enterprise is responsible for

organising over eighty fairs per year, which are held in main towns and cities across Scotland. The founder of the organisation, a craftsman himself in years gone by, aims to represent *true* craft makers, that is, those who fall within specifications outlined by the London Crafts Council. In order to exhibit at craft fairs organised by this enterprise, therefore, craftspeople must go through a vetting process for which they are assessed on the basis of a portfolio of their work and the nature of their business. Given the attempts to achieve a consistent standard across all of their fairs this craft fair organiser was approached and kindly gave permission for the fieldwork to be carried out at a number of his fairs. The restriction of data collection to these fairs was an attempt to ensure some level of consistency across retail settings.

4.4 Research Design

The following account of the research design starts by specifying the data requirements for the study. It then discusses the decisions regarding methodology.

4.4.1 Data Requirements

The concepts incorporated within the hypotheses that need to be accounted for in the research design are as follows:

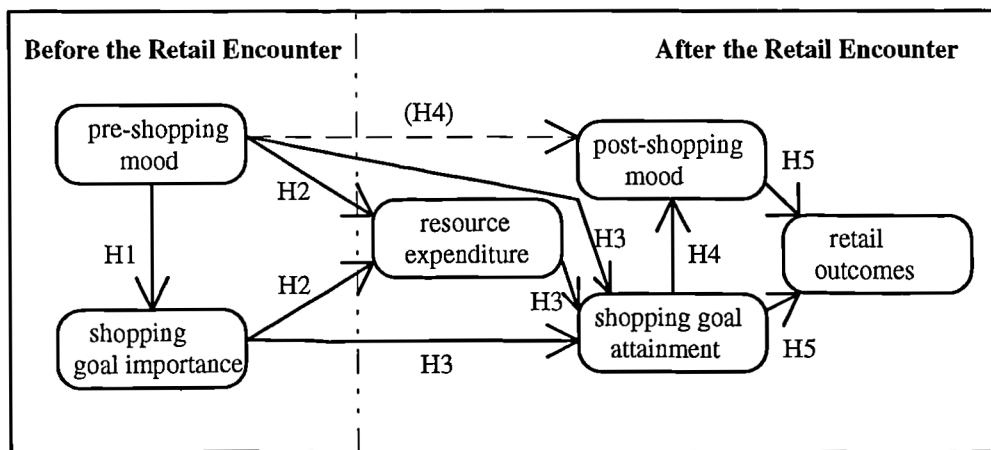
- pre-shopping mood state (prior to the retail encounter)
- commitment to shopping goals (prior to the retail encounter)
- resource expenditure (during the encounter)
- attainment of shopping goal (following the retail encounter)
- post-shopping mood state (following the retail encounter)
- retail outcomes (following the retail encounter)

These data requirements clearly indicate the need for a research design that allows data be collected at different points in time. In order to account for this, the research design incorporated two stages of data collection: i) *before the retail encounter*

(representing data collection from respondents upon their arrival at the craft fair), and ii) *after the retail encounter* (representing data collection from respondents upon their departure from the craft fair). In the *before* stage, data were collected on respondents' commitment to goals and their mood states. In the *after* stage, respondents were asked about their expenditure of resources during the encounter, their attainment of shopping goals, their mood state and the retail outcomes (in terms of choice, preference and future patronage intentions).

The diagram below provides an illustration of the hypothesised relationships. It also indicates the *before* and *after* stages of the data collection.

Figure 4.1: The Relationships Between Shopping Motivation, Mood and Retail Outcomes



4.4.2 Research Method

A quantitative research method was used to test the hypotheses. The data were recorded on a two-part, self-completion questionnaire administered at craft fairs. The first part was completed by respondents upon their arrival at the craft fair, while the second part was completed as they left (the questionnaires were marked by respondents' initials in order that the two parts could be matched up).

As suggested in Section 4.1, the nature of action specific goals was a key factor in deciding on the methodology to be employed for the main study. Goals that guide everyday activities are less abstract than higher level life goals and personal strivings and people habitually think about their motives on this more concrete level (Reynolds and Gutman, 1988). This type of goal is typically less complex because its position at the base of the hierarchically ordered goal system means that it is not as heavily interconnected as goals higher up the hierarchy. The less complex fabric of goals relevant to current activity means that, generally speaking, individuals are able to express them more easily and concisely than higher order goals. Therefore, investigations of action specific goals are more suited to quantitative research than are investigations of higher level goals.

Another issue that arises concerning goals is whether individuals' shopping goals can be adequately explored by the use of a data collection method that involves fitting responses to pre-specified categories, given the notion (outlined in Chapter 2) that goals are phenotypic. It can be argued, however, that although people pursue action specific goals to serve different types of motives within their goal system there are likely to be only a limited number of goals that guide behaviour in any particular setting. Examination of the motivational capacity of everyday goals does not necessitate knowledge of their relationship with more abstract goals, but can be assessed by measures of their relevance and salience. It was, therefore, deemed appropriate to collect data regarding shopping goals by means of a quantitative measurement tool incorporating common craft fair shopping motives.

It was also noted earlier that self-reported measures of individuals' mood states was considered to be practical in this context and that there is substantial evidence to suggest that this is a reliable method of collecting mood data.

On a practical level, it was desirable to carry out the fieldwork at the time and place when the shopping activity was taking place in order to avoid problems of recall (Bloch, Ridgeway and Dawson, 1994). In-depth, qualitative data collection methods would have required space and time resources that were unavailable to the researcher. In addition, the time demanded of subjects to take part in qualitative methods would have posed problems for recruitment, especially given that the research design required data to be collected both before and after shopping activities.

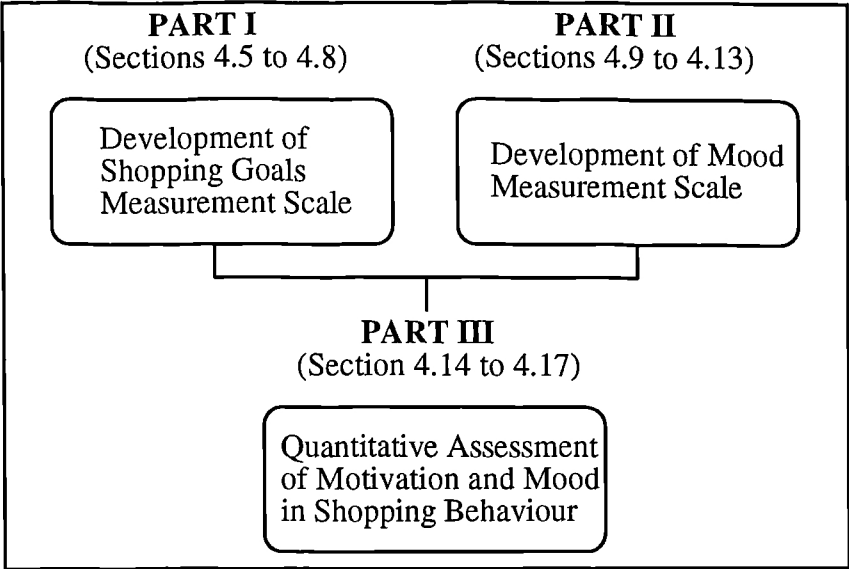
4.4.3 Operationalising the Concepts

Given the decision to use quantitative methods to test the research hypotheses it was necessary to operationalise the concepts incorporated within them. To measure individuals' shopping goals at craft fairs, a preliminary phase of research was carried out to develop a scale that would be valid in this context. A second preliminary phase of research was also carried out to develop a scale to measure mood. This scale was developed because measurement scales previously used in consumer research into mood (Peterson and Sauber, 1983) do not account for recent developments in the debate of the nature and structure of mood (as outlined by Watson and Tellegen, 1985; Thayer, 1989) and were, therefore, considered to be inadequate. Existing indicators of resource expenditure during the retail encounter and retail outcomes (see Section 4.13.8) were considered to be appropriate and, therefore, further work to develop these measures was not carried out.

Because of the need to develop measurement scales for shopping goals and mood three phases were involved in the empirical research. The diagram overleaf illustrates the three phases involved in the research. This remainder of the chapter is split into three main parts corresponding with the three phases of research identified in Figure 4.2. The first part focuses on the development of the shopping goal measurement scale, the second part is devoted to the mood measurement scale development and,

finally, the third part presents the research for the main phase of the study in which the research hypotheses are tested.

Figure 4.2: Stages of the Research



Part I

Development of a Scale to Measure Shopping Goals

4.5 Introduction

The aim of this phase of research is to develop a shopping goal measurement scale that can be used in the main phase of the research to explore the role of shopping motivation and mood. Chapter 2 discusses goal-based motivation and the nature of goals that characterise everyday activities. It also identifies the types of goals that typically motivate shopping activities. This part of the chapter presents the rationale for and method employed to develop a scale to measure shopping goals in the context of a craft fair retail setting. It was used to assess both goals that respondents suggested to be important to them upon entering the craft fair and those that people felt that they had attained upon departure from the fair. The analysis and results obtained from this stage and a discussion of those results are also presented, it being necessary to consider the outcome of this stage prior to designing the main phase of the research.

4.5.1 Theoretical Issues in Scale Development

The development of multi-item scales is a key means of operationalising abstract concepts - such as attitudes, opinions, perception and psychological traits - for quantitative research (Bryman and Cramer, 1990). Problems of measurement in the social sciences have been strongly influenced by psychometrics (Anderson, Basilevsky and Hum, 1983; Nunnally, 1978). Psychometric methods for developing scales have been used to measure a range of concepts beyond the original focus of psychometrics, which is highlighted in particular by the widespread use of psychometric definitions of reliability and validity, the popularity of factor analysis in social science research (Duncan, 1994).

Studies of shopping motivation are among those for which factor analytic approaches have been considered an appropriate means of assessing the phenomena of interest (Babin, Darden and Griffin, 1994; Westbrook and Black, 1985). Although other models can be used to describe the relationship between items in a scale and underlying constructs, the assumptions of a factor model more accurately reflect the nature of relationships found in real life situations (assumptions concerning the relationships between items and underlying constructs are further discussed later). It was, therefore, considered to be an appropriate strategy for the development of a scale to measure shopping goals in this research.

4.5.2 Latent Variables and Measurement Scales

When developing a measurement scale issues of validity and reliability are major concerns. Central to the question of validity and reliability is the nature of relationships between measured variables and the underlying constructs that they represent.

As for many other phenomena of interest to consumer behaviour researchers, shopping motives and goals are elusive and intangible. They cannot be directly observed and must be investigated by collecting data from which they can be derived. A measurement scale comprises items whose values arise due to their relationship with an underlying construct or latent variable (Bollen, 1989). In other words, a latent variable is typically represented by a set of measured variables and it accounts for the intercorrelations between them (Crawford and Lomas, 1980). For example, the scale developed in Babin, Darden and Griffin's (1994) study of shopping value, eleven items including *this shopping trip was truly a joy* and *during the trip I felt the excitement of the hunt* emerged to represent the latent variable of hedonic shopping value, while four items including *I accomplished just what I wanted to on this trip* and *I feel really smart about this trip* were linked to the construct of utilitarian shopping value.

Given assumptions about the relationships between latent and measured variables, measurement theory proposes various theoretical models which can be employed to examine those relationships. Classical measurement theory assumes that each measured variable, within a set of items that represent a certain latent variable, has an equal relationships with that latent variable (DeVellis, 1991). Various tests are employed to assess the effectiveness of each item as a representative of the latent variable (e.g. various parallel tests [Allen and Yen, 1979] and the congeneric model [Carmines and McIver, 1981]). Another that is widely used in the development of measurement scales in consumer behaviour research (Churchill, 1979), and in the social sciences generally (Cronbach, 1990; Anderson, Basilevsky and Hum, 1983), is a general factor model (see Kim and Mueller, 1985). The appeal of the factor model is that its assumptions about the relationships between measured variables and the underlying construct are less stringent because it allows multiple latent variables to serve as causes of variance within a set of scale items and so enables the researcher to identify, empirically, how many specific latent variables are required to adequately describe a data set.

The literature reviewed in Chapter 2 highlighted various dimensions of shopping motivation which might be expected to emerge as latent craft fair shopping goals. However, there is not sufficient evidence to suggest that these dimensions are transferable to the specific context of a craft fair. Therefore, an exploratory rather than a confirmatory approach was taken in developing the scale and identifying the latent variables.

4.5.3 Scale Development Method

Having discussed some of the theoretical issues of concern in scale development this section details the method by which it was applied to the creation of a scale to measure shopping goals for a visit to a craft fair. In order to establish the principle

goals of individuals in a craft fair shopping context a two stage, qualitative - quantitative research design was selected. This approach involved different types of self-report. In the first stage of this design open-ended responses were sought to find the range of goals reported in the craft fair context. In a separate stage of data collection, goals were rated on a Likert-type scale according to the importance that an individual attributed to each goal in the situation. This approach is recommended by Graham, Furnham and Argyle (1980).

An alternative option would have been to use an actual or adapted version of an existing scale to measure shopping motives. Yet another option would have been to generate a list of items from the shopping motives literature and anecdotal knowledge of consumer motives for visiting craft fairs and to narrow that list down in a preliminary quantitative study. However, the qualitative-quantitative method was considered to be more likely to reflect the range of shopping goals that specifically describe consumers' motives for shopping at a craft fair and, consequently, to result in a more valid measurement tools for the present research.

The following pages present the qualitative-quantitative method used to develop the mood measurement scale. The text is split into two main sections: Stage 1 - The Qualitative Research, and Stage 2 - The Quantitative Research

Stage 1

4.6 The Qualitative Research

The aim of this first, qualitative stage of research was to generate a sample of items which could potentially be included in a scale to measure major dimensions of craft fair shopping goals in the main questionnaire.

In qualitative research fieldwork is approached without imposing a previously determined structure on the data. In other words, it is not constrained by predetermined categories but, rather, allows individuals to report in their own terms (Patton, 1990). A major strength of qualitative research is that it permits the study of selected issues in depth and detail (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982).

Qualitative research is increasingly valued in the field of marketing as an approach which provides deeper and richer insights into research questions (Belk, 1991). One of the most popular forms of qualitative data collection is in-depth interviews (Jones, 1985). For this study the aim, as stated above, was to generate a pool of shopping goal items from which to select items to be further analysed in the quantitative research (Stage 2). The rationale for taking this approach related to the fact that this was essentially an exploratory exercise and the researcher did not wish to impose any preconceived categories on the respondents, thus restricting the range of items identified. Secondly, it was anticipated that some of the motives for shopping at a craft fair would relate to experiential benefits and qualitative techniques offered the advantage of being able to prompt respondents to retrieve such motives.

4.6.1 The Interview

In order to collect the relevant data it was only necessary to conduct brief interviews with visitors to a craft fair to pose open-ended questions pertaining to their motives for the visit. Face-to-face, mini-interviews, conducted with visitors to the craft fair, were designed to last approximately 5 minutes.

The data from the interviews were recorded by means of the researcher writing down phrases used by the respondents to express their shopping goals. Although audio recordings of the interview could have been made and transcribed at a later date, the data were not complex and it was more efficient to write it down immediately. This method also enabled validity checks to be carried out. At the end of each interview

the respondent was shown the list of phrases recorded by the researcher and asked to indicate if any of the phrases misrepresented his or her shopping motives.

In general, subjects did not find it difficult to talk about their shopping goals. Most people were able to cite a number of primary goals and, after some hesitation, to add to their list various subsidiary or more intangible goals. Others, who were more vague about their shopping goals, were hesitant in their initial response but, given time to think and a little probing, they were able to suggest a variety of goals. The format of the interview did not impose any preconceived categories on subjects, rather they were able to talk freely of their motives for attending the craft fairs.

4.6.2 The Sample

The population of interest for this research included individuals who shop at the craft fairs at which the fieldwork was carried out. There is a lack of published information on the precise nature of this population. Discussion with craft fair organisers and exhibitors during the early stages of the research, however, provided a general profile of individuals who typically shop at this type of craft fair. The artistic nature of crafts, and their relatively high price (compared to industrially manufactured goods), means that they appeal to a middle-to-upper class market who value their aesthetic qualities and originality. There is also a predominance of women in this market. Although the age range attracted to craft fairs used to be more heavily weighted towards older age groups, they are now popular with younger people, especially students, and people who are in work and have sufficient disposable income to spend on luxury goods.

4.6.3 The Sampling Design

As this phase of the research was concerned with identifying a range of shopping goals it was not necessary for the sample to be representative of the wider population. However, efforts were made to ensure that a reasonable variety of individuals were interviewed. A sample of 40 visitors to a craft fair organised in Edinburgh during

August 1995 was selected for this stage of data collection. Subjects were selected using a quasi-random method which involved asking every fifth person who entered the craft fair following the end of the preceding interview.

4.6.4 Analysis and Results

The purpose of qualitative data analysis is to reduce the sometimes vast amounts of data in the form of words, phrases or opinions into patterns, categories or themes and to interpret these those categories in the research context (Marshall and Rossman, 1989). In this study the open-ended questions regarding people's craft fair shopping goals were not designed to produce extensive data but, rather, to identify phrases which could be used to measure craft fair shopping goals when testing the research hypotheses. The nature of the data collected, therefore, lent itself to a relatively simple coding framework in which phrases relating similar shopping goals were combined (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992).

Phrases used to describe shopping goals were of varying levels of specificity, for example, highly specific responses were goals such as *I am looking for an anniversary present for my sister*. Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) suggest that the level of specificity of scale items should match that required by nature of the research question. Highly specific items were not appropriate for use in this research. The scale to be developed for the main questionnaire needed to be relatively short and, therefore, the items to be included in that scale are required to be reasonably general. Also, there should be comparable specificity among items because those which are similar in their level of specificity are likely to relate more strongly to one another (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). Therefore, specific goals were collapsed into higher order goals, such as *I am looking for a gift*.

As explained earlier the scale was ultimately to be used to gather data on goals identified to be important upon arrival at the craft fair and goals attained following the

retail encounter. The purpose of the scale meant that certain goals were inappropriate for inclusion. For example, ethical shopping motives such as *to support local businesses* was considered inappropriate because a respondent's achievement of such a goal would depend on whether they had bought anything at the fair. Such items were therefore excluded from further analysis.

The wording of certain items was altered slightly from the verbatim data in order to make them clear and of an acceptable length and complexity for inclusion in the questionnaire to be used in the second stage of analysis.

A tally of all the goals mentioned was produced and those goals which were mentioned by at least two respondents were retained for inclusion in the next stage of analysis. In addition to those goals identified by the primary research a number of supplementary shopping goals were taken from the literature (Babin, Darden and Griffin, 1994; Sheth, Newman and Gross, 1991; Westbrook and Black, 1985; Buttle and Coates, 1984; Graham, Argyle and Furnham, 1980; Tauber, 1972). A total of 36 items were selected for further testing.

4.6.5 Types of Craft Fair Shopping Goals

DeVellis' (1991) recommends that the pool of items chosen for further analysis should be relatively large to ensure against poor internal consistency when the correlations among the items are uncovered. He asserts that the items chosen should be those which reflect the constructs of interest. There should be a sufficient number of items selected from the pool which represent each construct in order that more than one item will be available to represent each latent variable and, also, to give the researcher the opportunity to select from amongst the items those which better represent a particular latent variable.

In this two-stage research design for developing a shopping goal measurement scale, the quantitative stage of research was designed to ascertain the number and nature of underlying constructs in the data. It was, therefore, not possible to guarantee that an appropriate number of items had been selected from this qualitative stage of the research. Attempts were made, however, to pre-empt problems that might arise with regard to this issue. The items generated in the interviews, once collated, were grouped under a number of headings that, at this stage, appeared to represent the main underlying dimensions of craft fair shopping goals. The majority of the items could be grouped into five general types of shopping goals: hedonic, seeking goods for self, seeking gifts, epistemic, and social intercourse.

Hedonic goals - a range of items related to goals of simply passing one's leisure time, amusing oneself or soaking up the atmosphere. These were considered to be a primarily emotional (Sheth *et al.*, 1991) or hedonic (Babin *et al.*, 1991) motives.

Seeking goods for self - several items related to the goal of finding something to buy for oneself. In many instances the type of good to be purchased was specified and it tended to be a luxury rather than a more pragmatic purchase, not surprisingly given the nature of the product categories which are typically sold at craft fairs. These could, therefore, be argued to be self-gifts (Mick *et al.*, 1992) and to be goals which have a strong emotional or hedonic component, although not excluding their possible functional aspect.

Seeking gifts - gift buying was variously represented among the items. Gift buying has been described by some as pleasurable and by other as an obligatory chore (Fischer and Arnould, 1990). Because, there are external consequences of not finding a gift and shoppers are generally aware of the need to succeed in this task, gift buying can be argued to be a functional goal, but one which is not devoid of hedonic rewards.

Epistemic goals - a range of items referred to viewing items on display, things that are different, unique, colourful. Associated with those items relating to *viewing* goods at the craft fair, were some which referred to feeding interest in and learning about crafts through interaction with the crafts people. This type of goal, which reflects a desire to learn about craft design and making can be labelled as epistemic motivation. The sensory reward of aesthetic appreciation indicates that there is also an element of hedonic motivation.

Social intercourse goals - the social motive of shopping suggested by Tauber (1972) emerged in the data, represented by various items relating to the opportunity to interact with both known and unknown others at the craft fair. People felt that, in the craft fair setting it was more of a norm to talk to both the crafts people and to other shoppers than it is in more formal retail settings, and both buyers and sellers were more relaxed in this type of retail setting.

Of the 36 items that were selected for further testing there were at least four that represented each of these categories. As stated above, this gives no guarantee that there will be a sufficient number of items to represent each underlying construct that emerges in the quantitative stage of the scale development research, it simply represents an attempt to address potential problems in this regard.

4.6.6 Validity and Reliability

4.6.6.1 Internal Validity

Performing and interpreting a content analysis of data collected in interviews with respondents raises the issue of whether the analysis is representative of what the individual meant, that is, its internal validity. One of the problems which commentators on qualitative research have highlighted is whether an individual's command of language is sufficiently good to enable the person to provide an accurate

account of his or her thoughts and feelings (Brenner, 1981). Inaccurate use of language is suggested to be a potential source of bias in qualitative data which poses problems in data analysis.

Whyte (1980) argues that the purpose of qualitative data is to provide an understanding of why people think, feel or behave the way that they do. He claims that the data need not be considered as scientific statements, rather it provides access to an individual's understanding of self and the world. The only means by which a researcher can gain insights into that personal understanding are via the actions and self-report of the respondent. The researcher must, therefore, assume - unless other sources of information such as body language, manner or tone of voice are contradictory - that what the respondent says or does is a valid representation. Methods have been suggested by which incidence of misinterpretation of the data by the researcher can be detected, for example, subjects can be asked to comment on the interpretation of the results (Creswell, 1994) to ensure internal validity.

Another problematic issue pertains to whether subjects respond in a manner that is true to form or whether, for some reason, they reveal only what they want the researcher to hear or see - or what they think that the researcher wants to hear or see. For instance, Jones (1985) notes that a subject's interpretation of the researcher's attitudes, interests, values and reaction to the subject him or herself has substantial potential as a source of bias. The researcher should be self-conscious of such sources of bias which results from the personal interaction with the subject and, as with problems of communication, the researcher is able to refer to various sources of verbal and non-verbal communication which may belie a respondent's overt expression. Beyond this, one must assume that voluntary participation in a study is indicative of a respondent's willingness to provide the required data.

Either of these problems may have threatened the internal validity of the data collected in this first stage of the present study. However, the shopping motives data was in the form of relatively low level, concrete goals, which means that they were relatively easy to communicate and inaccurate use of language was unlikely to have been confused by the researcher. To avoid the problem of subjects saying what they think the researcher wants to hear it was made clear to the respondents that the research was being carried out for a PhD, independent of the craft fair organiser, in the hope that they would feel that they could give an honest response.

4.6.6.2 External Validity

In addition to internal validity there is concern for the external validity of the data and analysis regards whether the findings are generalisable to a wider population. It is not expected in collecting qualitative data that specific findings will be generalisable (Merriam, 1988). Rather the more general coding categories and the themes which are detected amongst those findings are tested for their external validity in the subsequent stage of the scale development process.

4.6.6.3 Reliability

The unique nature of the interaction between the researcher and the respondent means that exactly replicable data can never be generated by the process of qualitative research (Jones, 1985; Creswell, 1994). In the present study, although this first stage of the scale development research employed a qualitative method, it did not seek to extract complex idiographic data. The uncomplex nature of the data improves the chances of replication on future occasions over and above what is expected of qualitative data more generally.

The quasi-random selection of the sample for this study was assumed to provide an approximately representative sample, with the possible under-representation of visitors who were in hurry or who were accompanied by very young children (see

discussion on non-response in Section 4.15.3). The quasi-random sample selection also means that there is an increased probability that the findings would be replicated in other studies.

4.6.7 Summary

This concludes the report of the first stage of the two-stage research method to develop a scale to measure shopping goals in the craft fair setting. The qualitative research carried out for the first stage produced a pool of items which, along with a few additions from the literature (following Baumgartner and Steenkamp, 1996) on shopping motivation, were subsequently used in the second, quantitative stage of the scale development research. The second stage of the scale development research is presented in the following pages.

Stage 2

4.7 The Quantitative Research

The aim of the quantitative stage of the research was to identify parsimonious dimensions of craft fair shopping motivation and items that reliably represent those dimensions. It is recommended (Babbie, 1990) that some form of survey research, which is designed to facilitate generalisations from a sample to a wider population, be employed for this purpose.

In order to collect the relevant data a self-completion questionnaire was distributed by the researcher to visitors to a craft fair in Edinburgh. It was desirable that the questionnaires be completed on site, before entering into the craft fair, in order that the responses pertaining to the subjects' preconceived shopping goals would be effected neither by poor memory (Greenland and McGoldrick, 1994) nor confusion with goals which individuals eventually attained. The decision to distribute the

questionnaire in person was largely based on experience that simply leaving questionnaires to be picked up and completed spontaneously produces a limited number of returns. Moreover, a sample composed of individuals who have spontaneously completed a questionnaire would be likely to suffer from a relatively high level of bias.

4.7.1 The Questionnaire Design

The format of the questionnaire was kept relatively simple. The 36 phrases describing shopping goals were listed and respondents were asked to rate the importance of each one for the present shopping activity on a five point scale, where *1* represented *not at all important* and *5* represented *very important*. Items that were anticipated to represent similar dimensions of shopping motivation were interspersed with those items that were expected to be associated with contrasting dimensions. In the questionnaire *shopping goals* were referred to as *shopping motives* as it was felt that the latter is more familiar in common parlance. This questionnaire format is recommended by Graham, Argyle and Furnham (1980) as a means of identifying items which represent individuals' goals in everyday situations.

One potential source of bias in a questionnaire with a uniform format is that of respondent fatigue. To avoid bias arising from the sequence in which the items appeared in the questionnaire, two versions were produced in which the items were ordered differently. Bias can also arise from the tendency of respondents to answer all questions in a similar fashion. One way of surmounting this problem is to change the wording of a number of items from positive to negative, or *visa versa*. It was not appropriate in this study, however, to reverse the polarity of goals from positive to negative (i.e. it is not logical to ask someone what their shopping goals *are not*), which means that acquiescence bias may be a problem of this data.

The questionnaire was informally pre-tested among acquaintances with no marketing training to establish whether the wording of the phrases used to describe various shopping goals was clear and comprehensible, and to check the clarity of the instructions for completion. As a result of the pre-testing some items were re-phrased and the response options (1 = *not at all important* to 5 = *very important*) were repeated at the head of each page of the questionnaire.

4.7.2 The Sample

The sample was selected on a quasi-random basis by asking every fifth person entering the craft fair (upon finishing speaking to the previous target) to participate in the research. It was assumed that this sampling method would produce a reasonably representative sample of craft fair visitors. Potential sources of bias in this sample arise from those who declined to respond which, from observation, appeared to be mainly those who were very pressed for time and those with young children. The sample may be biased in other ways, for example, amongst those who declined to participate in the study may have been a predominance of certain personality types. It is not possible to attain detailed information on non-respondents, however, and potential biases should be borne in mind in the interpretation of the findings.

A total of 250 visitors to the craft fair completed a questionnaire. A number of questionnaires were either incomplete or incorrectly filled in, leaving 224 usable questionnaires for analysis. One of the main criteria for establishing an adequate sample size was selected on the basis that the results were to be factor analysed. There were 36 items tested in the questionnaire and it is suggested that five observations per variable are required for this type of analysis (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989). The final sample size of 224 meet the criteria of 5 observations x 36 items (= 180).

4.7.3 Analysis and Results

Once the pool of items has been administered to a sample of respondents the next stage is to select those items which are suitable for inclusion in the final scale. This was achieved first, by looking at the distribution of responses for each item to identify those that were relevant to a substantial proportion of craft fair visitors and, secondly, by evaluating the remaining items for their suitability to represent key underlying dimensions of craft fair shopping motivation.

4.7.4 The Distribution of Responses

The aim of this stage of the research was to identify shopping goals which were relevant to consumers in a craft fair context. The first task, therefore, was to eliminate those items which were only applicable to a small proportion of the sample. The criteria established to identify those items suitable to be retained for further analysis was that the item should be identified to be at least *fairly important* (the mid-point of the rating scale) by at least half of the sample (Graham, Argyle and Furnham, 1980). A frequency count was carried out, which revealed that 18 items met this criteria (see Appendix 4.1). In addition, it was desirable that the responses for those items selected be reasonably distributed across the range of the scale in order to ensure that the selection of items would serve to discriminate among respondents (Lehmann and Britney, 1977). The frequency distribution for each of the remaining 18 items was, therefore, scrutinised. Consideration of the mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis statistics revealed plausible ranges for all the remaining items (see Appendix 4.2).

4.7.5 Evaluating Items for Inclusion in the Scale

The third step in the analysis involved evaluating items on the basis of their suitability for inclusion in the final scale, that is, to identify those which best represented the underlying dimension of shopping motivation. Two factors influenced the choice of analytical tool for this task. First, the number of latent variables underlying the set of items was not known, both because existing studies of shopping motivation present a

fragmented view and, more so, because the craft fair context varies substantially from conventional shopping settings and it is reasonable to assume that different dimensions will emerge to explain consumers' goals when visiting a craft fair.

Secondly, it has been established theoretically that there are likely to be relationships amongst the range of latent variables which may emerge as underlying dimensions of shopping motivation at craft fairs. For example, it is suggested that goals relating to enhancing one's knowledge of crafts although primarily epistemic may also provide emotional/hedonic rewards. Therefore, both of these underlying dimensions may cause variation in responses to items associated with acquiring craft-related knowledge. Because it was unknown how many dimensions would emerge and as the nature of interrelationships between dimension was unclear, a factor analytic approach was used to examine how items in the scale represent underlying dimensions of shopping motivations.

The alternative method of evaluating items in the scale involves consideration of item-scale correlations. This approach is only possible where sound preconceptions, established on a theoretical basis, suggest that the latent variables examined in the scale are not interrelated and the researcher is clear from the outset which sub-sets of items are associated with which latent variable.

Factor analysis is a multivariate analytical technique which, used as an exploratory technique, serves three key purposes. It identifies the number of underlying dimensions of a set of items by examining the interrelationships among them. Consequently, it is able to summarise information provided by a large number of variables in terms of a smaller number of latent variables. Finally, the meaning of each underlying dimension is defined, facilitating explanation of the variation in responses to the larger number of original items (Hair *et al.*, 1996). In this case an exploratory factor analysis was performed on 18 items remaining in the analysis to identify how

many latent variables are necessary to adequately distinguish among the various dimensions of craft fair shopping motivation. The items which best represent each of those latent variables can then be identified and labels given to each underlying dimension.

4.7.6 Suitability of the Technique

As for the majority of multivariate techniques, factor analysis is based on assumptions that the data displays normal distribution, homoscedasticity and linearity. Univariate normality is the most fundamental assumption for factor analysis. It is often claimed that violations of this assumption do not seriously affect the statistics. There is evidence to suggest, however, that statistical inferences become increasingly susceptible to Type I error² as the distribution departs from normality (Bradley, 1982). Multivariate normality is also required for factor analysis. If the distribution of each individual variable is shown to be normal, generally speaking, their combinations will also be normally distributed. The reverse, however, is not necessarily true and it cannot be assumed that where there is multivariate normality each of the individual variables will be normally distributed (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989). For this reason, and because univariate normality is more easily assessed, the distribution of each variable to be included in the analysis was considered separately.

To supplement the frequency tables generated to assess the distribution of responses, histograms showing normal curves were created for each variable. This allowed a visual check of the distributions. To verify that responses do not depart sufficiently from normality to belie the assumption of factor analysis the significance of skewness and kurtosis, the two statistical components of normality, can be examined³.

²Type I error occurs if the null hypothesis is rejected when, in fact, it is true. The probability of Type I error is the probability that the test statistic lies in the critical region, beyond the confidence limits of the distribution.

³When a distribution is normal the values of skewness and kurtosis are zero. The tests for the statistical significance skewness and kurtosis, which involve testing the actual value of each against the null hypothesis that each statistic is equal to zero, are carried out by using a z distribution. That is, by transforming values into z scores. The skewness z score is calculated as by:

However, where large samples are concerned it is advisable to check normality visually. Because the standard error for skewness and kurtosis is calculated using sample size, with large samples the null hypothesis is rejected even where only small departures from normality exist. All of the eighteen shopping goal items were approximately normally distributed.

4.7.7 The Factor Solution

4.7.7.1 Number of Factors to be Rotated

As stated above one of the primary purposes of factor analysis is to identify the number of underlying dimensions of a set of items. The number of factors selected for rotation, however, clearly has implications for the interpretability of the solution, on the one hand, and its parsimony, on the other. If too few factors are rotated they tend to be too broad to facilitate meaningful interpretation, whereas if too many are chosen, although a high percentage of the variance in that data set is explained, the dimensions are likely to be specific to the circumstance of the study at hand and unlikely to be replicable in future research (Kline, 1994).

Decisions regarding the number of factors to select for rotation are usually based on the size of the eigenvalues of each factor and on consultation of the Scree plot (Cattell, 1978). Eigenvalues are the amount of variance explained by each factor. Because the variance that each standardised variable contributes to a factor analysis is 1, only those factors which have an eigenvalue greater than 1 are considered to be

$$z = \frac{\text{skewness}}{\text{S.E. Skewness}}$$

Similarly, the the kurtosis z score is calculated by:

$$z = \frac{\text{kurtosis}}{\text{S.E. kurtosis}}$$

Typically the significance of skewness and kurtosis is assessed at the 0.01 or 0.001 level, which is considered to be more than sufficient indication that the data is normally distributed

important and are selected for rotation (a criteria which is set as the default in SPSS). In this study five factors with eigenvalues greater than one were extracted in the initial factor solution. Their eigenvalues were 5.89, 2.39, 1.56, 1.35, and 1.00, respectively. Factor 5, with an eigenvalue of 1.00055, barely exceeded the criteria and was not considered to be sufficiently important as an underlying dimension of the scale items and it was decided that only four factors should be selected for rotation.

The Scree plot, which is a plot of the factor numbers against their respective eigenvalues, was consulted to verify this decision. The *elbow* in the line drawn through the points on the Scree plot, (that is, the point at which the line noticeably changes direction) indicates the cut off point for the number of factors to be selected for rotation. In this case two *elbows* were apparent on the Scree plot indicating that either two or four factors could be selected. It was decided to stick with the four factor solution on the basis that a two factor solution explained insufficient (46.0%) variance in the data, compared to the four factor solution which accounted for 62.2% of the variance.

In addition, substantive logic should play a role in the choice of the number of factors to select. In this case, interpretation of the four factor solution (see Section 4.7.7.3) suggested that the four types of craft fair shopping goals were: gift seeking goals, hedonic goals, self-gifts seeking goals and epistemic goals. In the two factor solution, gift seeking goals were associated with the first factor, while the second factor combined items relating to hedonic goals, self-gifts seeking goals and epistemic goals. Although these three types of goals are similar in that their achievement delivers some kind of emotional reward to the individual, they were considered to be sufficiently different (see the interpretation of the factors in Section 4.7.7.4) for it to be worth maintaining the distinction by choosing the four factor solution in which each was represented separately.

4.7.7.2 Type of Rotation

An oblique rotation factor analysis was conducted on the 18 items. An oblique rotation is recommended when, on the basis of the theory, the dimensions underlying the items in the scale are hypothesised to be interrelated, whereas a varimax rotation is appropriate if the latent variables are hypothesised to be independent (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989). As stated above, the underlying dimensions of craft fair shopping motivation are likely to be interrelated, meaning that an oblique rotation was appropriate in this case. A range of programmes are available for the rotation of oblique factors, however, a Direct Oblimin rotation was used in this instance following Kline's (1994) recommendation that this is the most effective method of obtaining simple and reliable structure.

4.7.7.3 The Adequacy of the Rotation

The aim of rotating the factors is to produce a solution with a simple structure. An ideal outcome, therefore, is one in which each factor is highly correlated with several variables but each variable is highly correlated with (indicating that they reflect the influence of) only one factor. Variables which are highly correlated with more than one factor make the interpretation of the solution ambiguous and it is advisable to avoid them (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989). In this study a variable was considered to be associated with a particular factor if it revealed a loading greater than 0.55 on that particular factor and lower than 0.32 on all other factors⁴. Although there are technical reasons for selecting these cut off points (see footnote) consideration of the factor loadings in the pattern matrix confirmed that these cut off points were also suitable in terms of their practicality. Hair *et al.* (1995) assert that for sample sizes greater than 100 the choice of the size of loading which associates a variable with a

⁴ In deciding which variables were associated with which factors the cut-off point of 0.55 was chosen on the basis that variables with loadings over 0.55 have been shown to share 30% overlapping variance with the factor (Comrey, 1973) which is suggested to represent a *good* level of association. The additional criteria that variables should not load over 0.32 on any other factor was included because a variable with a loading of 0.32 shares 10% overlapping variance with that factor (Comrey, 1973). It was considered that any item loading over 0.32 on a second factor shared a sufficiently high level of variance with that second factor to impair the simplicity of the structure of the solution.

factor should be based on practical significance rather than solely on statistical significance. The factor loadings for the variables which load on each factor are detailed in Table 4.1.

The structure of the factor solution, assessed on the above criteria, appeared to be adequately simple. There were only three items (*to feed my curiosity* and *to buy things for myself which express my personality*, *to get ideas for presents*) which did not clearly load on a single factor and were eliminated from further analysis. Factors 1, 2 and 4 were each associated with several items (5 items loading on Factor 4, and 4 items loading on Factor 1 and 2) meaning that these should be relatively stable factors. A potentially weak link in the solution is Factor 3 which is represented by only 2 items and is likely to be less stable. Overall, however, it was considered that the oblique rotation of the factors was satisfactory in terms of structure of the solution.

4.7.7.4 Interpretation of the Factors

Orthogonal rotation factor analyses are interpreted on the basis of the loading matrix, which details the correlation between each factor and each variable. In oblique rotation factor solutions the loading matrix from the orthogonal rotation is split into two matrices: a structure matrix, which presents the correlations between factors and variables; and a pattern matrix which details unique relationship between each factor and each observed variable, that is, relationships uncontaminated by overlapping factors. The meaning of the factors rotated by an oblique method is derived from the pattern matrix as shown in the table overleaf.

The meaning of each underlying dimension represented by the factors is derived from the variables that load on that factor. The label chosen for each factor is one that is deemed to adequately describe a particular underlying dimension. The label is based on the variables that load on the factor in question, with those variables which have a

higher loading bearing more influence on the choice of label. Table 4.1 details the variables loading on each factor, the order in which they are listed corresponding to the size of their factor loadings.

Table 4.1: Pattern Matrix

	factor loading
Factor 1	
to look for a suitable gift(s)	0.810
to look for presents which have a personal touch	0.751
to hunt for suitable/desirable goods	0.731
to look for things that I can't buy elsewhere	0.600
Factor 2	
to spend time in a pleasant setting	0.836
to spend time in a cultural setting	0.772
to have fun/enjoy myself	0.744
to be entertained/distracted for a while	0.735
Factor 3	
to find something desirable to buy for myself	0.874
to indulge myself	0.870
Factor 4	
to feed my interest in crafts	0.732
to look at creative things/to see new designs	0.723
to see/be inspired by the people who design and make crafts	0.696
to see things which are different/unique	0.559
to develop my own taste	0.550

The four factors emerging from the factor solution in this study were labelled as follows:

Factor 1: Gift Seeking Goals

The two highest loading variables on Factor 1, *to look for a suitable gift(s)* and *to look for presents which have a personal touch*, clearly relate to gift seeking goals. *To look for presents which have a personal touch* and the remaining two variables - *to hunt for suitable/desirable goods* and *to look for things that I can't buy elsewhere* - reflect what Gabriel and Lang (1995) suggest to be salient qualities of gifts in their discussion of the communicative value of gifts. It is reasonable, therefore, that these items were substantially influenced by a latent variable relating to gift seeking goals.

Factor 2: Hedonic Goals

The first two variables which load on Factor 2, *to spend time in a pleasant setting* and *to spend time in a cultural setting*, seem to refer to the passive pleasure of simply being in a particular environment. The other two variables, *to have fun/enjoy myself* and *to be distracted/entertained for a while*, refer to the personal amusement derived from spending time in the craft fair environment. These variables relate to visitors' enjoyment of their activities within that shopping setting. The *hedonic goals* label is attributed on the grounds that hedonic value is associated with pleasure derived from engaging in an activity for its own sake, rather than for external rewards which may be attained as a consequence of undertaking in the activity. All of the variables which load on this factor relate to the intrinsic rewards of visiting a craft fair.

Factor 3: Self-Gift Seeking Goals

Factor 3 is labelled *self-gift seeking goals*. The basis for this decision is that the two variables which load on Factor 3, at a very high and similar level (0.874 and 0.870) are *to find something desirable to buy for myself* and *to indulge myself*. Self-gifts are bestowed for reasons of reward (Pandya and Venkatesh, 1992) or as consolation for failure or the lack of social support from other (Mick, 1986). Although the item relating to buying something for oneself does not specify that the intended purchase is a reward or consolation, the types of merchandise sold at craft fairs include largely luxury goods, which is an indicator that purchases are made as an indulgence of some nature. This is further supported by the high correlation with self-indulgence.

Factor 4: Epistemic Goals

The two highest loading variables on Factor 4, *to feed my interest in crafts* and *to look at creative things/see new designs*. This indicates that responses to items associated with Factor 4 are influenced by a latent variable relating to a quest for knowledge and novelty, which corresponds with the description of epistemic

consumption value offered by Sheth, Newman and Gross (1991). Further indication that Factor 4 represents epistemic goals is provided by the two variables which reveal the next highest load on this factor: *to see/be inspired by people who design and make crafts* and *to see things that are different/unique*. The finally item loading on Factor 4 is *to develop my own taste*. This item specifically relates to learning and is indicative of a goal to attain epistemic value.

4.7.7.5 Reliability of the Scale: Internal Consistency

A widely used measure of scale reliability is the Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Cronbach, 1988; Gerbing and Anderson, 1988; Churchill, 1979). This statistic is typically associated with internal consistency which refers to the degree of intercorrelation between items which represent a given latent variable. The rationale for using such a statistic is that interrelationships between the items serve as an indication that they are measuring the same phenomenon.

The alpha coefficients for each subset of items, representing each of the four factors, are detailed in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Scale Reliability Statistics

Dimensions of Craft Fair Shopping Motivation	alpha coefficient
Factor 1: Gift Seeking Goals	0.84
Factor 2: Hedonic Goals	0.81
Factor 3: Self-Gift Seeking Goals	0.82
Factor 4: Epistemic Goals	0.76

Variability in data is due to variability amongst respondents in terms of the phenomena measured by the scale and error. Calculation of the coefficient alpha, based on matrix algebra, involves separating the total variance in the data between *true* variance and error variance. The alpha statistic represents the proportion of total variance which is *true* or common variance, that is, alpha equals 1 - error variance.

The alpha coefficients presented above are all between 0.76 and 0.84. Hair *et al.* (1995) propose that an acceptable alpha coefficient for reliability is 0.70 or above, while Malhotra (1996) proposes that reliability levels as low as 0.63 are acceptable. It was, therefore, considered that a sufficiently high level of *true* variance is represented by the items representing each dimension of shopping motivation in the scale.

4.7.7.6 The Relative Importance of Factors

The relative importance of a factor is assessed by the amount of variance in the data which it accounts for. However, where factors have been rotated by an oblique method, their variance is overlapping which means that it is not possible to establish precisely how much variance is accounted for by each rotated factor. For oblique rotation factor analyses, therefore, the amount of explained variance accounted for by each factor in the initial solution can be used to estimate the importance of each factor after rotation, but it can be taken as nothing more than an indication.

4.7.7.7 The Relationships Between the Factors

An oblique rotation factor analysis was carried out because there was reason to believe that the factors emerging from the analysis would be correlated. Therefore, in addition to the interpretation of the pattern matrix, which shows the unique relationship between each variable and each factor, the factor correlation matrix provides important information about the factor solution. Table 4.3 below shows the correlation coefficients for each pair of factors

Table 4.3: The Factor Correlation Matrix

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Factor 1	1.000			
Factor 2	0.116	1.000		
Factor 3	0.271	0.127	1.000	
Factor 4	0.363	0.275	0.205	1.000

The most highly correlated pair is Factors 1 (*gift seeking goals*) and 4 (*epistemic goals*). Given that Factor 1 represents items which describe not only gift seeking *per se*, but also the qualitative value of gift (...*that have a personal touch, ... that you can't buy elsewhere*), one explanation for the close association between Factors 1 and 4 is that those individuals who express a higher level of interest in crafts also choose to buy craft products for gift because, for them, craft objects have added meaning.

Pairs of factors which also reveal a relatively high level of correlation are Factors 1 and 3 (0.271) and Factors 2 and 4 (0.275). The link between Factors 1 (*gift seeking goals*) and 3 (*self-gift seeking*) appear to relate to the propensity of individuals to make a purchase. Factors 2 (*hedonic goals*) and 4 (*epistemic goals*), by contrast, would seem to be correlated because they represent the dimensions of shopping motivation which can be attained without spending money.

4.7.7.8 Summary

In sum, this second stage of the scale development research has identified four underlying dimension of craft fair shopping goals and items that represent those dimensions. This was achieved by means of a factor analytic approach to data reduction.

4.8 Conclusions

This concludes Part I of this chapter. The purpose of this phase of preliminary research was to develop a scale to measure craft fair shopping goals in the main stage of the research. The study combined the use of qualitative and quantitative techniques. The qualitative research (Stage 1) served to generate a list of items to represent shopping motives that are valid in the craft fair context. The second, quantitative stage (Stage 2) identified four underlying dimensions of craft fair shopping goals that reflect various aspects of shopping motivation highlighted in the literature review in Chapters 2 and 3.

Part II of this chapter moves on to report the preliminary research that was carried out to develop a mood measurement scale. It starts by reporting the method by which the scale was developed, and proceeds to the analysis and results of the research. It concludes with a discussion of the results and the appropriateness of the scale for use in the main phase of the research.

Part II

Development of a Mood Measurement Scale

4.9 Introduction

This second phase of the research was designed to develop a tool to measure mood state for use in the main phase of the research in testing the research hypotheses. The objectives of this research are to investigate the development of a scale which fulfils the following criteria:

- reflects the structure of affective experience
- reflects the psychological and biological bases of mood
- is easy to administer in field research
- has face validity for respondents
- is reliable and valid

This part of the chapter reports the method, analysis and results of this preliminary scale development research and discusses the results with regard to existing literature and the implications for the use of the scale in the main stage of the research.

4.10 Method

A quantitative method was adopted to develop the scale. It involved two stages of data collection and analysis: the first stage served to identify appropriate items to include in the scale from a pool of mood terms; having selected a small number of items for the scale, the purpose of second stage was to assess the reliability of the scale. This approach follows the method proposed by Thayer (1967; 1978). It was possible to approach the research in this way, that is, without conducting an exploratory study, as a range of existing research has identified mood terms that represent the various dimensions of the circumplex model. It was not the aim here to

re-investigate of the structure of mood but simply to select terms that are clear markers of the main dimensions of mood.

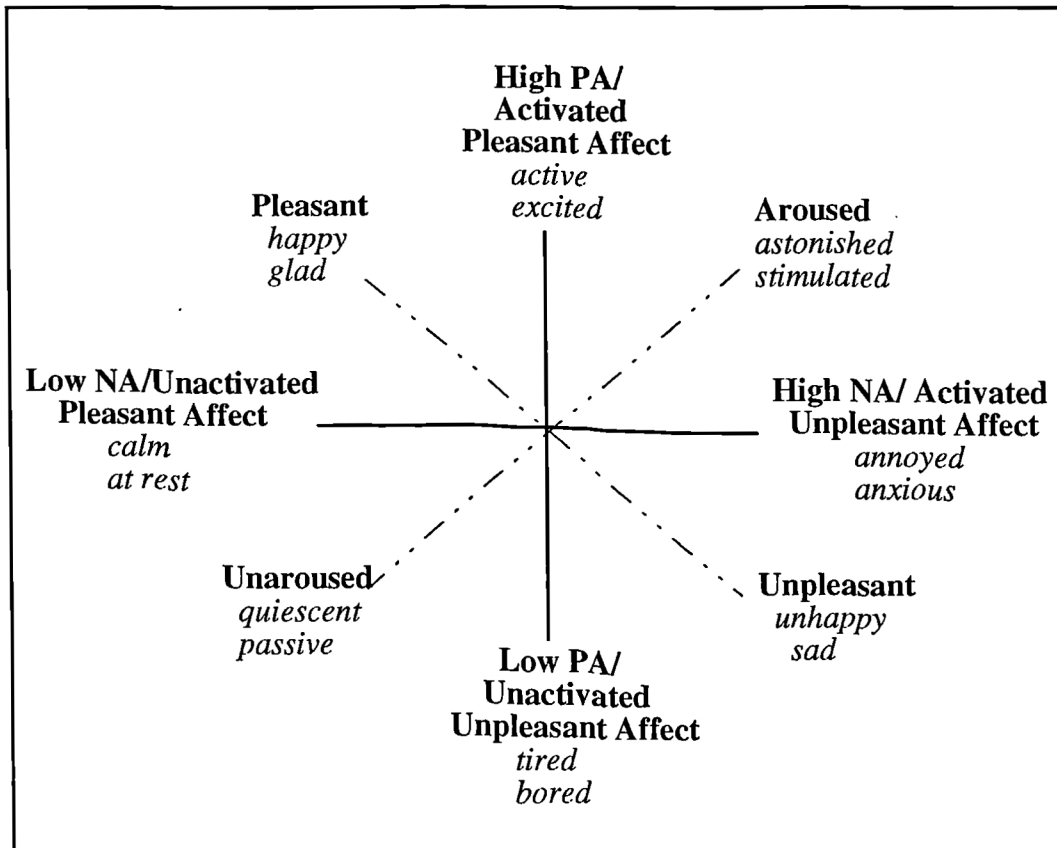
As detailed in Chapter 3, the circumplex model of mood acknowledges two alternative rotational schemes (see Figure 4.3 below), that is, the pleasure-arousal dimensions (Russell, 1980) or the positive affect-negative affect dimensions (PA/NA) (Watson and Tellegen, 1985) may be taken as the primary dimensions of mood. With regard to the decision about which rotational scheme is preferable, Larsen and Diener (1992) suggest that the decision should be made according to the requirements of the study. Much of the consumer behaviour mood research employs experimental design in which Velten induction techniques are used to alter the hedonic tone of subjects' mood states. This relates to the pleasure dimension of the circumplex model and is pertinent in studies that adopt the associationist approach to mood research and focus on how mood influences cognitive processes. The present research is also concerned with the motivational capacities of mood, however. Given that the literature promoting the functional perspective of mood highlights its psychobiological nature, it was desirable to include terms in the scale that reflect both the hedonic tone and the arousal component of mood (following Thayer, 1989). Therefore, the PA/NA dimensions of the circumplex model of mood were considered preferable for the purpose of this research.

In the main phase of the research for this thesis (reported in Part III of this chapter), the investigation of the relationships between mood and shopping motivation will focus only on the PA dimensions on mood. The literature on mood to date has illustrated that the effects of NA are more complicated than the effects of PA. Given that the present study investigates the role of mood in a new context it was desirable to concentrate on PA, for which the effects have been reasonably well established in other areas of study. However, to develop a scale to measure PA it was necessary to

consider both the PA and NA dimensions of mood to ensure that those items selected as markers of PA reflected the structure of the circumplex model.

The four poles of the PA/NA dimensions of mood will be referred to using the terminology proposed by Larsen and Diener (1992): Activated Pleasant Affect - Unactivated Unpleasant Affect and Activated Unpleasant Affect - Unactivated Pleasant Affect, as the connotations of positive and negative affect have proved to be misleading labels for the constructs that they represent (see Chapter 3). One weakness of Larsen and Diener's (1992) proposed labelling, however, is that the labels do not clearly communicate which poles represent which dimension of the model. Therefore, the PA/NA labels are provided in brackets for the sake of clarity.

Figure 4.3: The Circumplex Model of Affect



The aim of this stage of the research, therefore, was to identify terms that are clear markers of the Activated Pleasant Affect - Unactivated Unpleasant Affect (high PA - low PA) dimension and the Activated Unpleasant Affect - Unactivated Pleasant Affect (high NA - low NA) dimension of the circumplex model of mood. The mood terms comprised in the measurement scale were required to be relevant descriptors of how people feel in a shopping context and it was desirable to select only key mood terms, so that the scale would not be cumbersome when included in the main phase of research.

For both stages a self-completion questionnaire was distributed by the researcher to visitors at craft fairs in Edinburgh. Respondents, recruited upon their arrival at the craft fair, were asked to complete the questionnaire at that point in time, to ensure that the data pertained to individuals' mood states in the shopping context. The data were collected over a three day period, two week days and a Saturday. The reason for spreading the data collection across the week is that, for many people, different patterns of activities characterise different days of the week and this may well reflect differences in how people feel when they visit a craft fair.

The following pages report the two stages of the mood scale development research. Stage 1, which aimed to identify appropriate scale items from a pool of mood terms, is reported first. Subsequently, Stage 2, which aimed to assess the reliability of the scale, is presented.

Stage 1

4.11 Identification of Scale Items

4.11.1 The Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire for the study consists of a list of 25 mood terms. The list of mood terms tested in this study (see Appendix 4.3) was developed in consideration of the literature on the structure of affect. The goal of identifying items that are clear markers of Activated Pleasant Affect - Unactivated Unpleasant Affect (high PA - low PA) and Activated Unpleasant Affect - Unactivated Pleasant Affect (high NA - low NA) means selecting items that are highly correlated with each other and uncorrelated with items in the adjacent quadrant of the circumplex model. Watson (1988) demonstrated that the correlation between adjacent quadrants is reliably affected by the descriptors used to comprise the scales. As a consequence, choosing to employ items that are clear markers of, say, Aroused Unpleasant Affect (high NA) and Unaroused Unpleasant Affect (low PA), means ignoring mood states such as *unhappy* that fall between these two poles in the circumplex model and that are moderately correlated with each of them. Justification for focusing on two dimensions of the circumplex model has been provided here, and researchers should acknowledge what types of mood they are investigating and the types that they choose not to examine.

The primary source of items tested in this stage of the research was the Watson and Tellegen (1985) study. When they reanalysed studies of self-reported mood, they presented a list of mood terms corresponding to the four poles of the two main dimensions of the circumplex structure of mood: Activated Pleasant Affect - Unactivated Unpleasant Affect (high PA - low PA) and Activated Unpleasant Affect - Unactivated Pleasant Affect (high NA - low NA). This meant that it was possible to select items for the present study, that had been shown to correspond with the two dimensional structure of mood but which were taken from the work of a range of

researchers. Some items were added that were not drawn from this source but that were similar in meaning.

A self-rating format was used in the questionnaires, following Nowlis's (1965) work on the Mood Adjective Check List. Respondents were asked to fill in the questionnaire by indicating the extent to which each item in the scale describes how they feel *now, at the present moment* using a rating scale of 1 to 5 (as used by Lebo and Nesselrode, 1978), where 1 represented *very slightly or not at all* and 5 represented *extremely*.

To avoid bias due to respondent fatigue four alternative versions of the questionnaire were produced, in each of which the items were ordered differently.

4.11.2 The Sample

Subjects were selected by a quasi-random method at the entrance to the craft fair. As for the other phases of the research this involved asking every fifth person who entered into the craft fair if they would participate. The potential problems of bias in this sample, due to some individual declining the request to complete a question, are also similar to those in the other phases of the research (see Section 4.14.4).

A total of 122 visitors completed the questionnaire in this first stage of the fieldwork for the mood scale development research, 110 of which were complete and correctly filled in. The sample size was decided on the basis of the technical requirements of the factor analysis. As suggested in Section 4.7.2, there is no consensus on the ideal sample size for factor analysis. There should, however, be more subjects than variables and Gorsuch's (1983) guideline of five subjects per variable, and no fewer than 100 individuals per analysis is generally accepted as a reasonable benchmark (Bryman and Cramer, 1990). The final sample size fell just below the number

required to meet this criteria but it was expected that some variables would be dropped before the factor analysis because of their distribution.

4.11.3 Analysis

A primary requirement of the mood terms selected for inclusion in the final scale is that they serve to differentiate among individuals (Lehmann and Britney, 1977; Lebo and Nesselrode, 1978; Watson and Tellegen, 1985). The first stage of analysis, therefore, is to consider the distribution of the ratings for each term. In the second stage of the analysis the relationship between the terms were examined in order to identify which are clear markers of Activated Pleasant Affect - Unactivated Unpleasant Affect (high PA - low PA) and Activated Unpleasant Affect - Unactivated Pleasant Affect (high NA - low NA). Terms failing to meet these requirements were eliminated.

4.11.4 Distribution of Responses

The distribution of responses was assessed by calculating the mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis for each variable, and making visually checks of the histogram of their respective distributions. Items that were considered to reasonably discriminate among subjects were those with a mean close to 3 ($2 \leq \text{mean} \leq 4$), a standard deviation close to 1, and that did not exhibit substantial skewness or kurtosis. The boundaries were set for assessing the acceptability of the mean scores on the basis that, if the mean was lower than 2, a majority of respondents had indicated that the item represented their current mood *not at all* and, if the mean was greater than 4, a majority had said that it represented their mood *extremely*, and an item characterised by such a pattern of responses would not serve to differentiate among subjects. A total of 14 items were selected using these criteria, the rest were excluded from further analysis.

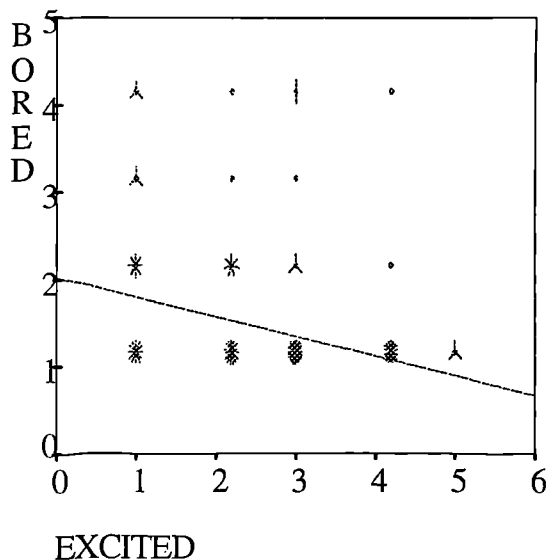
Of the items that were dropped from the analysis, all revealed mean scores below 2 (rather than greater than 4) and all related to Aroused Unpleasant Affect (high NA), such as *tense* and *annoyed* or Unaroused Unpleasant Affect (low PA), such as *bored* and *unenthusiastic*. Conversely, the analysis showed that items which represent affective states that are opposite to these, namely, Aroused Pleasant Affect (high PA) and Unaroused Pleasant Affect (low NA), were approximately normally distributed. This indicates that, certain individuals reported that they did not feel *sluggish* or *nonchalant* but neither did they feel *active* or *excited*, they did not feel *calm* but neither did they feel *uneasy* or *irritable*. This outcome seems to suggest that the connotations of terms which relate to Aroused Unpleasant Affect (high NA) and Unaroused Unpleasant Affect (low PA) are such that people do not use them to describe how they feel in this context. If these terms are not meaningful to people in this context it is justifiable to exclude them in further stages of analysis.

One problem of including items that only represent one end of the dimension is that it leaves some ambiguity. When a person reports that they are not *lively* (1 on the self-report scale) it is not clear whether that person is feeling *weary* (a bipolar opposite of *lively*) or just average (the mid-point between the two ends of the dimension). This problem has been raised in reference to Watson, Clark and Tellegen's (1988) PANAS scale that only include items representing Activated Pleasant Affect (high PA) and Activated Unpleasant Affect (high NA).

The ambiguity associated with this issue cannot be made to disappear, but it needs to be confronted by accounting for the terminology to be employed in the remainder of the thesis to refer to mood states represented various scores on the scale. There is little problem with the use of Activated Pleasant Affect (high PA) as a label for moods represented by high scores on the scale. For the low scores Unactivated Unpleasant Affect (low PA) will be used. This choice is based on the belief that, in the shopping setting, mood states such as *bored*, *sluggish* and *unenthusiastic* are, for the most part,

unlikely to be experienced with great intensity. It is for this reason that where people did indicate that they were to some degree bored or unenthusiastic, they did not use the top end of the scale to indicate how these items represented their mood state. For example, the figure below shows a scatter plot of the relationship between *excited* and *bored*. A majority of the respondents indicate that they are *not at all bored*. Among those who are towards the low end of the scale for *excited*, however, there is an indication of a degree of boredom among some of the respondents.

Figure 4.4: The Relationship between *Excited* and *Bored*



Although the use of Activated Pleasant Affect (high PA) and Unactivated Unpleasant Affect (low PA) was adopted as a solution in this research, this problem should be born in mind in the interpretation of the results presented later in the thesis.

4.11.5 Analysis of the Relationships Between Terms

13 items remained for further analysis after the distribution of responses had been assessed. Of these, it was necessary to identify those that more clearly marked Aroused Pleasant Affect (high PA) and Unaroused Pleasant Affect (low NA).

A factor analytic approach to this task was adopted. Extraction of the solution for this analysis was by means of principle-axis factoring, a common factor analytic technique. Principle-axis factoring aims to extract maximum variance in the orthogonal components. In doing this it estimates communalities to attempt to eliminate error and variance from factors. It thus contrasts with principle components analysis (PCA) in that PCA mathematically determines an empirical solution with common, unique and error variance mixed in together, so that the variance equals the number of variables in the analysis. In common factor analysis, only shared variance is available for analysis, based on the belief that unique and error variance only serve to confuse the picture of underlying processes. Shared variance is estimated by communalities and the solution in common factor analysis concentrates on those variables with high communalities. The sum of the communalities is the variance distributed among the factors and, therefore, is less than the total variance in the set of observed variables (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989).

4.11.6 The Factor Solution

Theoretically, the terms remaining in the analysis were expected to combine into two independent factors, one representing Aroused Pleasant Affect (high PA) and one representing Unaroused Pleasant Affect (low NA). In this data, the factor analysis identified three factors with eigenvalues greater than one in the initial solution. The eigenvalues were 5.26, 1.40 and 1.09. The eigenvalues illustrate that there is one dominant dimension of mood represented in the data and second dimension that is relatively important. The eigenvalue for the third factor only just exceeded 1, however, indicating that this and the other remaining factors have limited explanatory power.

The unrotated factor solution accounted for 48.4% of the total variance. This level of explained variance is acceptable for principle-axis factoring, which only accounts for

common variance (whereas PCA also accounts for unique and error variance) (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989).

Given that the purpose of this research was to identify items that are clear markers of Aroused Pleasant Affect (high PA) and Unaroused Pleasant Affect (low NA) it was desirable to eliminate those items that loaded on Factor 3. To identify which items were most highly correlated with Factor 3, an orthogonal (varimax) rotation of the three factors was performed.

The rotated solution was interpreted by looking at the loadings of the variables on each factor. It is argued in Section 4.7.7.2 that the criteria for assessing the association between a variable should be as follows: a variable was considered to be associated with a particular factor if it revealed a loading greater than 0.55 on that particular factor and lower than 0.32 on all other factors. The loadings are generally lower in common factor analysis than in PCA, however, due to the lower communalities of the variables used in common factor analysis. Therefore, the practical input to interpretation should be given greater consideration here. The rotated factor matrix, detailing the association between variables and factors, is presented in Table 4.4.

The figures in bold indicate significant loading of variables on factors according to the criteria indicated above. There is only one deviation from those criteria, that is, *relaxed* was considered to load on Factor 2 despite revealing a loading below 0.55. Given the lower loading in general factor analysis, 0.512 was thought to be a sufficient level of correlation for the association between *relaxed* and Factor 2 to be meaningful.

Table 4.4 : Rotated Factor Matrix

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
lively	0.698	0.191	0.148
vigorous	0.690	0.236	0.119
excited	0.674	0.162	0.326
engaged	0.570	0.179	0.276
calm	0.104	0.774	0.171
at ease	0.192	0.656	0.258
tranquil	0.168	0.549	0.080
relaxed	0.254	0.512	0.153
interested	0.101	0.119	0.730
enthusiastic	0.504	0.226	0.598
sociable	0.333	0.244	0.476
carefree	0.435	0.395	0.401
inspired	0.202	0.176	0.349

The structure of the factor solution reveals that Factors 1 and 2 are clearly associated with items representing Aroused Pleasant Affect (high PA: *lively, vigorous, excited* and *engaged*) and Unaroused Pleasant Affect (low NA: *calm, at ease, tranquil* and *relaxed*), respectively. The only item that is clearly associated with Factor 3 is *interested*. The remaining items load to a similar degree across all three factors and, therefore, do not clearly represent any particular one.

On the basis of this analysis, those items representing Factor 1 and 2 were considered to be the clear markers of Aroused Pleasant Affect (high PA) and Unaroused Pleasant Affect (low NA) and were retained for further analysis. The other items (*interested, enthusiastic, sociable, carefree* and *inspired*) were eliminated from the study.

The items identified to be appropriate for inclusion in a scale to measure mood in the main phase of the research were subject to a second stage of testing to assess their reliability. Beforehand, the internal consistency of these items was considered.

4.11.7 Reliability of the Scale: Internal Consistency

Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Cronbach, 1988) was used to assess the internal consistency of the items identified to represent the two major dimensions of mood. It was noted earlier that calculation of this statistic involves separating shared variance from unique/error variance. Given that common factor analysis also involves separating out different types of variance, the loadings of the items on Factors 1 and 2 provide an indication that there is internal consistency within the two sets items. The calculation of the alpha coefficients supported this: for the set of items representing Aroused Pleasant Affect (high PA) the alpha coefficient was 0.81 and that for the items representing Unaroused Pleasant Affect (low NA) was 0.76. It was noted in Section 4.7.7.5 that coefficients over 0.63 have been suggested to indicate acceptable levels of internal consistency for scale items. Also, the levels of reliability observed here exceed those attained by Saavedra and Earley (1991) in their testing of scale items to represent the PA/NA dimensions of mood.

In the preceding pages Stage 1 of the research to identify clear markers of Aroused Pleasant Affect (high PA) and Unaroused Pleasant Affect (low NA) has been reported. Eight items, four representing each major dimension of mood of interest in this research, have been identified in this first stage. The following sections are devoted to Stage 2 of the mood scale development research that was carried out test the reliability of these items as a means for measuring mood in the main phase of the research.

Stage 2

4.12 Scale Reliability Test

4.12.1 The Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire for the second stage of the mood scale development research comprised only the eight items that had been identified in the first stage to represent Aroused Pleasant Affect (high PA) and Unaroused Pleasant Affect (low NA). The response format was a five point rating scale, as used in the first stage.

The issue of response fatigue was confronted in the same way as in the first stage of the research by producing alternative versions of the questionnaire in which the items were ordered differently.

4.12.2 The Sample

The respondents were recruited from a craft fair in Edinburgh by the same means as those recruited for the first stage. A total of 115 visitors agreed to participate in the second stage of the research, of which 110 completed the questionnaire and filled it in correctly.

4.12.3 Analysis

The purpose of this stage of the research was to test the reliability of the eight items selected in the first stage as clear markers of Aroused Pleasant Affect (high PA) and Unaroused Pleasant Affect (low NA). In order to test this, a principle-axis factor analysis was carried out on the second set of data.

4.12.4 The Factor Solution

From the factor analysis, two factors emerged with eigenvalues greater than 1: the eigenvalue for Factor 1 was 2.65 and for Factor 2 it was 2.12 (the eigenvalue for the third factor was 0.73 which was well below those for Factors 1 and 2). The Scree

plot clearly confirmed that two major dimensions of mood were represented in the data set.

The aim of this stage was to verify that those items identified to represent Aroused Pleasant Affect (high PA) and Unaroused Pleasant Affect (low NA) in Stage 1, were similarly associated with their respective dimensions of mood in this second stage of research. Therefore, the factors were rotated to obtain a clearer picture of the associations between variables and factors. Because, theoretically, the two dimensions of mood are suggested to be independent, an orthogonal (varimax) rotation was performed.

The analysis was interpreted by considering the loadings of the variables on the factors. To guide assessment of which items were associated with which factor the criteria noted in Section 4.7.7.2 were used: a variable was considered to be associated with a particular factor if it revealed a loading greater than 0.55 on that particular factor and lower than 0.32 on all other factors. It was noted in Stage 1, however, that loadings are generally lower in common factor analysis than in PCA. Therefore, the interpretation allowed some leeway for practical input. The rotated factor matrix is presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 : Rotated Factor Matrix

	Factor 1	Factor 2
lively	0.751	0.051
vigorous	0.662	0.130
excited	0.712	-0.112
engaged	0.666	0.122
calm	-0.023	0.795
at ease	0.093	0.638
tranquil	-0.014	0.551
relaxed	0.128	0.609

The percentage of variance explained by the rotated solution was 46.7%. The figures in bold indicate the significant loadings of items on factors. Each item reveals a high level of correlation with one factor and a low level of correlation with the other. A clear factor structure is evident, therefore, among these variables, such that the items selected in the first stage of the mood scale development research are clear markers of Aroused Pleasant Affect (high PA) and Unaroused Pleasant Affect (low NA).

Further evidence of the reliability of these scale items was sought by reassessing the internal consistency of each factor, as in Stage 1.

4.12.5 Reliability of the Scale: Internal Consistency

Cronbach's alpha coefficient was computed for the two sets of items, each representing one dimension of mood. For those items representing Aroused Pleasant Affect (high PA) the alpha coefficient was 79.0%, and for those representing Unaroused Pleasant Affect it was 73.4%. Both of these statistics are reveal acceptable levels of internal consistency (Malhotra, 1996; Hair *et al.*, 1995).

4.13 Summary

This concludes Part II of this chapter, which reports the two stages of research that were carried out in order to develop a scale to measure shoppers' mood states. In the first stage of the research a pool of items were selected that represent the Activated Pleasant Affect - Unactivated Unpleasant Affect (high PA - low PA) dimension and the Activated Unpleasant Affect - Unactivated Pleasant Affect (high NA - low NA) dimension of the circumplex model of mood. A questionnaire was constructed to gather data on the adequacy of these terms to describe the feeling states of individuals visiting a craft fair. Analysis of the distribution of responses revealed that half of the terms - those describing Activated Unpleasant Affect (high NA) and Unactivated Unpleasant Affect (low PA) - were not used by individuals to describe their mood state in the craft fair shopping context. These items were therefore eliminated from

further analysis. A factor analysis of the items that remained indicated that two major dimensions of mood were represented by data for those items and identified eight items that were clear markers of the Aroused Pleasant Affect (high PA) and the Unaroused Pleasant Affect (low NA) poles of the circumplex model. The reliability of the eight items as representatives of these two dimensions of mood was tested and confirmed in a second stage of research.

Having reported the two preliminary stage of research in Part I and Part II, this chapter now moves on to Part III, which details the main stage of the research in which the motivation of shopping behaviour is assessed.

Part III

Quantitative Assessment of the Role of Mood in Shopping Motivation

4.14 Introduction

The approach to the research was discussed at the beginning of this chapter. To recap, the decision to adopt a deductive approach was explained and the hypotheses developed from the literature review were presented in their declarative form and their corresponding null form. The summary of the null hypotheses is reproduced below for ease of reference:

H₀₁: There is no evidence to suggest that consumers' pre-shopping mood states influence the establishment of shopping goals.

H₀₂: There is no evidence to suggest that goals or pre-shopping mood influence resource expenditure during shopping activities.

H₀₃: There is no evidence that a relationship exists between pre-shopping mood, shopping goals identified as important upon arrival at a retail outlet and resource expenditure during the retail encounter and attainment of shopping goals.

H₀₄: There is no evidence of a relationship between the attainment of important goals and mood change between entering and leaving the retail setting.

H₀₅: There is no evidence that retail outcomes are influenced by the attainment of shopping goals and post-shopping mood.

The research design, which proposed the collection of quantitative data by means of a questionnaire administered in the retail setting, was also rationalised at the beginning of the chapter. The rationale for choosing this research design was based on the nature of goals and mood which are the key variables of interest in this research. Having recapitulated the details of the research approach and design this final part of the chapter will go on to discuss the questionnaire and the sample for the main phase of the research.

4.14.1 The Questionnaire: Place and Mode of Administration

As suggested in Section 4.4.2 it was desirable to administer the questionnaire at the craft fair to avoid problems of recall (Bloch, Ridgeway and Dawson, 1994). With regard to the mode of administration, the questionnaires were completed by the respondent rather than being administered by the researcher. One of the advantages of the self-completion questionnaire is that they sometimes produce more valid responses to certain types of questions where the presence of the interviewer might be a source of bias (Sheatsley, 1983). In this case it was thought that the risk of acquiescence bias (Smith, 1975) would be lower if people filled in the questionnaire than if the questions were posed by the interviewer. Asking the respondents to fill in the questionnaire by themselves also allowed them time to think about their responses. Interviewer administration of questionnaires may pressurise the subjects into a quick and less valid response.

One of the problems of self-completion questionnaires is that they are often misread or misinterpreted by respondents (Dillman, 1983). This is particularly problematic in mail surveys but, in this instance, the researcher was close at hand and the questionnaires were checked as the respondents handed them back. Respondents who filled in the questionnaire incorrectly or who had not completed all questions were asked to rectify the mistakes or omissions.

Another problem of self-administered questionnaires is the issue of bias due to the fact that people can study the whole questionnaire before answering the first questions (Dillman, 1983). In the present research, this problem could have been compounded because there was a *before* and *after* component to the questionnaire. This was addressed in by splitting the questionnaire into two parts, so that the respondent only had access to questions included in the *before* or *after* stage at any one time.

4.14.2 Questionnaire Construction

The first page of the questionnaire was devoted to a cover letter explaining the purpose of the research. The questionnaire itself contained seven sections. The first part of the questionnaire, that was administered to respondents upon their arrival at the craft fair, incorporated three sections: one section to collect background information on the respondents; one devoted to data on their commitment to shopping goals in anticipation of the retail encounter; and one to record their mood state. The second part of the questionnaire, that respondents were asked to complete as they were leaving the craft fair, included the four remaining sections, one devoted to each of the remaining types of data necessary to test the hypotheses: resource expenditure during the encounter; attainment of shopping goal following the retail encounter; mood state following the retail encounter; and retail outcomes (see Appendix 4.4).

4.14.3 Background Variables

The background data collected on respondents was intended to serve two purposes. First, it was gathered to allow a profile of the sample to be generated. The second purpose of the background information relates to the understanding of shopping motivation. The primary focus of the research is on motivational factors that influence shopping behaviour. In particular, the hypotheses indicate that the research aims to develop understanding of how individuals' pre-shopping motivational states, in terms of mood and shopping goals, influence in-store behaviour and outcomes of the retail encounter. In addition, however, it was recognised that background variables may act as outside predeterminants of shopping motivation and so personal characteristics and features of the shopping situation were taken into consideration.

All background variables are included in the model as determinants of an individual's commitment to shopping goals, with the assumption that their influence is exerted through this pre-shopping motivational state. Data collected on respondents' personal characteristics included their sex, age, geodemographics and frequency of shopping at

craft fairs. Situational influences on behaviour were assessed through data on two factors: whether an individual was shopping alone or accompanied by (an)other person(s), and whether they were shopping during the summer or in the run up to Christmas⁵. In addition, respondents were asked to indicate whether they had chosen to come to the craft fair themselves or were accompanying someone else who wanted to come. This questions was used as a filter. Those individuals who were visiting the craft fair simply to accompany (an)other person(s) were excluded from the study on the basis that analyses of goal-based motivation assumes that individuals choose to enter into a particular situation in the belief that it will enable them to achieve certain goals (Argyle, 1976). Since those individuals who did not choose to visit the craft fair are unlikely to have salient shopping goals in that context, if they have any at all, they were not appropriate subjects for research on goal-directed shopping behaviour.

4.14.3.1 Personal Characteristics

Sex was considered to be a relevant variable on the basis that women and men have been distinguished with regard to their attitudes towards shopping and their shopping behaviour (Woodruffe, 1996). Moreover, the social roles of men and women have been suggested to influence their shopping activity (Fischer and Arnould, 1990).

Age was included as a background variable following Dawson, Bloch and Ridgeway's (1990) research which illustrated that older people are more likely to have functional shopping motives in a craft fair setting.

Frequency of shopping at craft fairs was included because, as for age, there is evidence that craft fair shoppers who are more familiar with the retail setting have more functional shopping motives (Dawson, Bloch and Ridgeway, 1990). The notion that familiarity with a retail setting influences shopping behaviour has been supported

⁵Although the time of year when an individuals participated in the research was a sampling issue, this information was recorded because it was a relevant indicator of situational influences on shopping motivation.

elsewhere (e.g. McGoldrick and Pieros, 1996). What is more, increased familiarity is suggested to lead to increased expertise (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987), and expertise has been identified as a factor that influences goal-directed behaviour specifically (Showers and Cantor, 1985). Familiarity is defined by Alba and Hutchinson (1987) as the number of product-related experiences, however, it was considered unfeasible to ask respondents how many times they had ever been to a craft fair. The average frequency with which people visit a craft fair was, therefore, used as an indicator of familiarity.

Geodemographic information, obtained via post codes, were kindly analysed by CCN Marketing with their MOSAIC Scotland system. This information was used for profiling purposes only as the household types were provided in an aggregated form such that individual cases could not be identified.

4.14.3.2 Characteristics of the Shopping Situation

Information on whether or not respondents were shopping alone was considered to be relevant on the grounds that an individual's social surrounding have been identified as one of the situational factors that influences consumer behaviour (Belk, 1975). There is little evidence to illustrate the influence of others on an individual's shopping behaviour. Buttle (1992), however, explored how shopping with significant others (friends and family) influences shopping motivation. He highlighted that shopping with others can enhance one's shopping experience and expediate the achievement of purchase-related goals. Alternatively, it can have precisely the opposite effect, usually when the goals of the individuals concerned are conflicting or they have different strategies for going about the shopping activity. The data collected here was not intended to be sufficiently detailed to explore any of these issues on detail, but simply to identify whether this situational variable was a determinant of individuals' motivational states prior to the retail encounter.

Finally, it was noted whether the respondent had participated in the research during the summer or in the run up to Christmas because of the increased importance of gift seeking goals in the latter period.

4.14.4 Operationalising the Theoretical Concepts

In order to be able to conduct quantitative research to test the hypotheses there was a need for indicators to operationalise the concepts incorporated within the hypotheses.

The five concepts for which measurement tools were required included:

- commitment to shopping goals
- attainment of shopping goal
- mood state
- resource expenditure during the encounter
- retail outcomes

4.14.5 Commitment to and Attainment of Shopping Goals

The preliminary phase of research reported in Part I (Section 4.5 to 4.8) of this chapter was carried out to develop a scale to measure individuals' shopping goals at craft fairs. This scale was used to measure both commitment to shopping goals and attainment of goals.

Individuals' commitment to shopping goals was measured in the first part of the questionnaire that was completed upon respondents' arrival at the craft fair. They were asked to indicate on a 7-point Likert-type scale the importance of each of the shopping goals listed in the context of their visit to the craft fair⁶, where 1 represented *not at all important* and 7 indicated *extremely important*. Commitment to goals is suggested in Chapter 2 to be the product of various processes: (a) those involved in

⁶The term shopping motives was used in the question rather than goals because the former was believed to be more familiar in common parlance with regard to shopping and, therefore, was less likely to cause confusion.

developing a general intention in the form of a decision to try to pursue a goal or perform a behaviour, and (b) those associated with the implementation of the decision by deciding to use a particular means (Bagozzi, 1993) including the evaluation of self-efficacy, context beliefs, emotional responses and non-emotional affective experience. Goal importance is suggested by Ford (1992) to be an indication of the relevance of a goal to an individual in a particular situation and, as such, is arguably a valid indicator of the output of the processes involved in an individual becoming committed to a goal. It has been used elsewhere as an indicator of individuals' context specific goals (Emmons and Diener, 1986) and was considered appropriate for the present research.

Attainment of shopping goals was measured in the second part of the questionnaire, that is, the part that respondents completed just before their departure from the craft fair. They were asked to indicate on a 7-point Likert-type scale the extent to which they felt that they had attained each of the shopping goals listed during their visit to the craft fair, where 1 represented *not at all* and 7 indicated *very much so*. The same scale items were included for the measurement of this concept, but the statements were phrased in the past tense (e.g. *been entertained/distracted for a while*). Goal-directed behaviour is suggested to terminate when: an individual has accomplished the relevant goal, at least to an acceptable standard; attention is diverted by some internal or external factor and another goal takes precedence, at least temporarily; or the goal is evaluated as unattainable, at least under the current circumstances (Pervin, 1983). Asking respondents to record goal attainment was, therefore, employed as an indicator of whether the visit to the craft fair resulted in attainment of the goal to a desired standard or abandonment of the goal in that context. It assumes that those goals that were not attained were either abandoned due to an individual's judgement that the goal could not be attained in that context or because other goals took precedence.

Using the same scale for goal importance and attainment raises no problems as far as hedonic and epistemic goals are concerned. There was an issue to consider, however, with regard to those items relating to the purchase of goods: gift seeking and self-gift seeking goals. Arguably, the indicator for whether an individual has attained such goals is simply whether or not a purchase has been made. However, there are several instances in which a *Yes/No* (purchase/no purchase) response would not reflect their judgement of goal attainment. For example, it is not uncommon for people to spot goods that may be appropriate but to postpone the actual purchase, intending to return later either when they have cash on them, have someone else with them for a second opinion, or have had a look at other shops for reassurance that this is the best buy. On such occasions, people have not made a purchase but it does not necessarily mean that their purchase-related goals have been thwarted. For instance, Babin and Darden (1994) report findings of a focus group in which one respondent expresses:

"even though I may not purchase [the intended item], I could get some ideas and prices on some possibilities ... and it would not have been a waste of time" (p 646).

Alternatively, a purchase is sometimes made when the item is not ideal but "it will do". In such instances the customer has made a purchase but may not be completely satisfied with the outcome.

Therefore, in this research, the items to measure goals were purposefully worded such that they allowed for a wider range of outcomes than a respondent having made a purchase or not. For example, a respondent was not asked how important it was *to buy something for myself* at the craft fair. Instead, the phrase *to find something desirable to buy for myself* was employed, for which the corresponding item in the goal attainment scale was *seen/bought something desirable for myself*. This is not a perfect solution and a few respondents were a little ambiguous about how to rate goal attainment on items relating to the purchase of goods. However, the few who raised it

with the researcher during the fieldwork had arrived at the correct interpretation, that is, that they were required to indicate the degree to which their shopping at the craft fair had advanced them towards satisfaction of their purchase related goals.

4.14.6 Mood State

The second preliminary phase of preliminary research, reported in Part II (Sections 4.9 to 4.13) of this chapter, was carried out to develop a scale to measure mood in the context of craft fair shopping. Mood was measured both in the first and second part of the questionnaire, that is, upon an individual's arrival at and departure from the craft fair. The question and response format used here were very similar to those employed at the mood scale development stage. Respondents were asked to indicate on a 7-point Likert-type scale "to what extent do each of the following terms describe how you feel now, at the present moment?". The only difference at this stage was that a 7-point scale was used, whereas a 5-point scale was used at previous stages in the research. Although researchers have provided evidence that the number of points in the scale makes little difference to the outcome of self-report mood research (Thayer, 1989), scales with a greater number of response options, by their nature, provide more scope for capturing differences among respondents. It is for this purpose that the 7-point scale was preferred.

4.14.7 Resource Expenditure and Retail Outcomes

Resource expenditure and retail outcomes were measured by existing indicators. These two constructs have served particular research aims separately (e.g. Babin and Darden, 1995; Dawson Bloch and Ridgeway, 1990), but they also feature in combination in the context of approach-avoidance behaviour measurement (Mehrabian and Russell, 1974).

The label of *resource expenditure* is used by Babin and Darden (1995). They acknowledge that resource expenditure is similar to approach-avoidance behaviour,

but suggest that it offer a better description for their study which emphasises the role of self-regulation in a retail environment. This seems reasonable in a context where behaviour is not simply seen to be a response to external stimuli (the retail environment) but where the issue of personal control over one's behaviour is emphasised. The goal-based view of motivation lays particular emphasis on the teleological nature of behaviour. It was, therefore, considered to be appropriate to use resource expenditure as an indicator of individuals' behaviour in the retail setting in this study. The items used to assess resource expenditure in this research were an adaptation of items featuring in Donovan and Rossiter's (1982) approach-avoidance scale that relate to time, money and effort expended during shopping. The items included in the scale were as follows:

- This is a place that I wanted to explore
- I did not look around thoroughly (reverse scored)
- I searched for something to buy here
- I felt friendly towards/felt like talking to other visitors who happened to be near me
- I felt like talking to exhibitors
- I did not feel like spending a lot of time here (reverse scored)
- I spent more money than I intended

With regard to *retail outcomes*, Dawson, Bloch and Ridgeway (1990) argue that those of interest to retailers are retail preference and choice, that is, the positive affect that consumers may develop regarding a particular store and their future intentions to patronise the store. These outcomes are those that point towards long-term patronage and, therefore, the ultimate survival of the retailer. These indicators are included in general approach-avoidance indicators but are justifiably distinguished from items that relate to resource expenditure during the retail encounter. To assess retail outcomes in this study, three items featuring in Donovan and Rossiter's (1982)

approach-avoidance scale, that relate to consumers' affective associations with the retail outlet and their future intentions to patronise the craft fair, were employed. The items included in the scale were:

- I enjoyed shopping at this craft fair
- I would *not* want to return to this craft fair (reverse scored)
- Of the craft fairs that I have visited this is one of the most preferable

Respondents were asked to indicate on a 7-point scale the extent to which they agreed or disagree with each of the statements. To avoid bias the statements labelled "reverse scored" were phrased negatively and the scores reversed for the data analysis. The statements relating to resource expenditure and retail outcomes were interspersed to avoid bias arising due to respondents' tendency to answer similar question in the same way (see Section 4.14.8).

4.14.8 Wording of the Questionnaire and Response Format

Both wording and response formats can influence the quality of data gathered by the questionnaire. In order to avoid problems of validity and reliability that can arise with self-completion questionnaires, the following issues should be attended: the instructions should be brief, clear and easy to follow; the questions should be concisely and simply worded; the response categories should be unambiguous; and the questionnaire as a whole should be limited in length (Sheatsley, 1983).

Attempts were made confront each of these issues. Careful attention was paid to the phrasing of instructions and questions. The decision to use Likert-type scales throughout (apart from questions pertaining to background information on the respondent) was made, first and foremost, because they were an appropriate means of collecting the required data. However, an additional advantage of the resultant consistency in response formats was that it simplified the questionnaire for

respondents. There is a risk that this advantage might be cancelled out by poor validity arising from a tendency to respond to all questions in a certain direction (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1985). There are ways of addressing this issue, such as inversion of statements from positive to negative and interspersing questions that refer to similar topics or dimensions of the concept of interest. Both of these techniques were employed in the section of the questionnaire devoted to *resource expenditure* and *retail outcomes*. As mentioned previously (Section 4.7.1) it was not appropriate to invert statements pertaining to motives (ie. it is not logical to ask someone what their shopping goals *are not*). In the sections of the questionnaire dealing with shopping goals issue was confronted by attention to the order in which items appeared in the measurement scales for each concept. Respondent fatigue, generally, was kept in mind in designing the questionnaire. Efforts were made to keep it as short as possible. This was particularly important because respondents had to stop on their way in and out of the craft fair.

4.14.9 Piloting the Questionnaire

A pilot study was carried out to test shoppers' reactions to the questionnaire and to refine the logistics of the administration. The sample for the pilot study comprised 20 visitors to a craft fair in Edinburgh.

As a result of the pilot study it was decided to offer shoppers an incentive to return after their shopping to fill in the second part of the questionnaire. They were given the opportunity to fill in a slip on the first part of the questionnaire by which they would be entered into a draw for £50 of Marks and Spencer vouchers. It was emphasised, however, that their name would only be entered if they had completed both parts of the questionnaire.

Further changes following the pilot study included some modifications to the wording of the instructions and of the cover letter.

4.15 Sample

4.15.1 The Sampling Design

The sample design included two stages: the selection of locations in which craft fairs were held and the selection of respondents from the craft fairs. The selection of locations was partly a convenience approach and partly purposive (judgement) approach (Kinnear and Taylor, 1996). For reasons of convenience it was decided to restrict the sample of locations to towns/cities in the central belt of Scotland that were relatively easy and cheap for the researcher to access. In order to obtain balanced coverage of the central belt craft fairs held in Edinburgh, Glasgow and Stirling were selected.

The second stage of sampling involved selecting a sample of respondents. The sample was recruited by intercepting visitors as they entered the craft fair (Bloch, Ridgeway and Dawson, 1994; Korgaonkar, 1981). As in the preliminary stages of research, the sample was selected on a quasi-random basis by systematic selection (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1985) of every fifth person who entered the craft fair after the researcher had finished dealing with the preceding respondent (Stone *et al.* 1996). The decision to select respondents on a quasi-random basis contrasts with Dawson, Bloch and Ridgeway's (1990) quota sampling approach in their investigation of shopping motives. It was considered preferable to select a sample that reflected the patronage population of the craft fair on the basis that attempts to recruit an equal number of male and female respondents and individuals of various ages were anticipated to involve the risk of selecting people who were not typical shoppers in the craft fair setting. It was possible that these atypical shoppers may include a high proportion of individuals had just come along for reasons of curiosity or to accompany someone else and, as proposed above, these individual were less likely to relevant and salient goals in the craft fair shopping context. Dawson, Bloch and Ridgeway's (1990)

findings revealed that males scored higher for hedonic motives in the craft fair context, which may well have been due to their sampling approach.

4.15.2 Sample Size

A relatively large sample was desirable in this research to reduce the chances of Type I and Type II errors occurring in the estimates provided by the statistical analysis⁷. In particular, because some of the analyses to be used in testing the hypotheses involved breaking the sample down into subgroups, it was necessary that those subgroups contained a sufficient number of respondents for accurate and reliable estimates to be computed and, consequently, for valid interpretations to be made (Chisnall, 1986).

A total of 540 questionnaires were distributed. Of those, 84 respondents did not return to complete the second part of the questionnaire or were incorrectly completed. A further 58 respondents were excluded because they were only visiting the craft fair because the person(s) they were with wanted to attend. The total number of usable questionnaires, therefore, was 398. This sample was sufficient to ensure an acceptable level of statistical validity in the techniques that were used in this research.

The data were collected over a three month period from the 30th of August to the 17th December 1995. The number and percentage of usable questionnaires collected at each of eight craft fairs is recorded in Table 4.6.

⁷Type I error occurs if the null hypothesis is rejected when it is in fact true, and Type II error occurs if the null hypothesis is accepted when it is in fact false.

Table 4.6: Size of Sample per Sampling Location

craft fair	date	location	no. resp.	% of total
1	Wed 30th Aug - Fri 1st Sept	St. Paul's, Edinburgh	97	24.4
2	Sat 11th Nov	Albert Hall Stirling	45	11.3
3	Sun 12th Nov	Union Buildings Glasgow	45	11.3
4	Sat 2nd Dec	Assembly Rooms Edinburgh	39	9.8
5	Sat 9th Dec	Albert Hall Stirling	42	10.6
6	Sun 10th Dec	Concert Hall Glasgow	44	11.1
7	Sat 16th Dec	Trade Hall Glasgow	47	11.8
8	Sun 17th Dec	Assembly Rooms Edinburgh	39	9.8

4.15.3 Sources of Sampling Error

Most of the individuals who were approached and asked to participate in the research agreed to do so. It was not possible to formally analyse non-response in this context and this should be borne in mind in interpretation of the results. Two potential sources of bias within this sample were remarked during data collection, however. First, those individuals who had limited time available for their visit to the craft fair were more likely to decline when asked to participate in the study. Secondly, visitors accompanied by young children were more likely to refuse to complete a questionnaire. These two groups of visitors to the craft fairs are not completely absent from the sample but are probably under-represented.

4.16 Limitations of the Methodology

In carrying out empirical research, the researcher must make decisions about approach, methodological technique and sampling (McGrath, 1982). Each decision reduces the options open to the researcher and consequently a number of

compromises are made which, while offering some advantages, may also act as limitations to the study. Two particular decisions are considered here:

First, the decision to use a quantitative approach to this research is justified earlier in this chapter (Section 4.1 and Section 4.4.2). Nevertheless, the use of a questionnaire implies a number of inherent limitations, especially where the variables are attempting to measure subjective cognitive, affective and behavioural concepts as are inherent to goal-directed behaviour. Although the items included in mood and goal measurement scales were selected on the basis of preliminary work, individual interpretations of those items are bound to differ to a degree. Another issue relating to the scales used in the questionnaire is, because they were developed specifically to fit this context, it is difficult to draw comparisons with previous studies. With regard to the indicators of mood, however, it was considered important to account for the research on the structure of mood. As concerns the shopping goals, developing a scale with face validity was believed to be salient for the validity and reliability of the research.

Secondly, the decision to carry out the research at craft fairs, and to limit the choice of fairs to those run by a particular organisation is a limitation to this research. It does not mean, however, that this research lacks rigour or that theoretical output cannot be generated. It simply relates to the fact that this retail context may be atypical of other retail contexts. Therefore, care must be taken in making generalisations from the findings of this research to other retail contexts, especially those that involve more routine shopping activities such as grocery retailing.

Identifying these problems does not make them go away (Wells, 1993), and these issues are borne in mind in the interpretation of the research later in the thesis.

4.17 Summary

This chapter starts out by describing the approach adopted in this research and presenting the research hypotheses. It explains the choice of the craft fair as a context in which to carry out the research and introduces the research design and method.

The data requirements dictated by the chosen method meant that two preliminary phases of research were required to develop scales to measure shopping motives and mood. The remainder of the chapter was organised into three sections: Part I detailed the research involved in the development of the scale to measure shopping motives in the craft fair context; Part II detailed the mood scale development research; and Part III discussed the main phase of the research designed to test the hypotheses concerning shopping motivation.

This concludes Chapter 4. Chapter 5 reports the analyses carried out to test the five research hypotheses, presents the results of the analyses and a discussion of the results.

CHAPTER 5: ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 4 detailed the research hypotheses and presented the methodological approach to the research. This chapter presents the results of the research, outlining the various forms of analysis used to test the research hypotheses. The chapter is split into six main parts: Part I is devoted to a descriptive analyses of each set of variables for which data were collected; Parts II to VI present the analyses and results for Hypotheses 1 to 5 in turn.

Part I: Descriptive Analyses of the Data

5.2 Profile of the Respondents

Part I of this chapter serves two key roles: first, it develops a profile of the respondents in terms of background information pertaining to personal characteristics and features of the shopping situation; secondly, it summarises the data collected by each set of variables included in the questionnaire. Where necessary, validation of the measurement scale used in the questionnaire is also reported.

The first task of the analysis was to draw up a general profile of the respondents. It was not the aim of this research to create a detailed profile of craft fair visitors and, therefore, measurement of characteristics of the sample was limited to a small number of factors. The factors selected - age, sex and familiarity with the retail setting, whether or not the respondent was shopping alone and whether the visit to the craft fair took place in the summer or in the run up to Christmas - were chosen because of their potential influence on shopping motivation at this type of retail outlet. Postcode data were also collected, enabling analysis of respondents' geodemographic profiles.

Sections 5.3 and 5.4 detail the frequencies observed for the personal characteristics of respondents and the characteristics of the shopping situation, respectively. On the basis of these descriptive statistics, further analysis was conducted to assess whether any interrelationships exist amongst the background variables used to profile the sample. This analysis is presented in Section 5.5.

5.3 Personal Characteristics of Respondents

A breakdown of respondents by age, sex and familiarity with craft fair shopping contexts is provided in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Profile of Respondents: Personal Characteristics

	N	% of total
Age		
18-25	69	17.3
26-35	130	32.7
36-45	97	24.4
over 45	102	25.6
Sex		
male	75	18.8
female	323	81.2
Freq. of visits to fairs		
4 or more times per year	118	29.6
2 or 3 times per year	184	46.2
once per year	43	10.8
hardly ever/never before	53	13.3

5.3.1 Age Profile

The age categories were established post-hoc (the data were collected as age in years). It was desirable that the age classes established should reflect a logical system of age breakdowns and that each category should be sufficiently large to allow the data to be analysed by methods such as ANOVA at a later stage. On the basis of these criteria four categories were identified. The table shows that there is an exact 50:50 split between those respondents under (and including) and over 35 years of age. Within the latter category, the over 35s, there is little difference between the

proportion of the sample which falls into the *36 to 45 years* and *over 45 years* classification. By contrast the former group, incorporating those individuals up to and including 35 years, reveals that a smaller proportion of the sample were between 18 and 25 years (17.3%) than were between 26 and 35 years (32.7%). Inspection of the data before it was categorised into these groups, however, shows that 6.8% of the sample are aged 26 or 27 which, if added to the *18 to 25 years* category and subtracted from the *26-35 years* category would make the two approximately equal in size. In sum, it appears from the sample that visitors to craft fairs include consumers of a wide range of ages, with a reasonably even spread across the age groups.

5.3.2 Sex Profile

By contrast to the age profile the statistics on the sex of respondents show a highly biased sample. Women (81.2% of the sample) are by far the primary group of craft fair visitors, male respondent accounting for only 18.8% of the sample. These figures reflect the general trend that shopping is a predominantly female leisure activity (Lunt and Livingstone, 1992).

5.3.3 Frequency of Visits to Craft Fairs Profile

The figures relating to the frequency with which members of the sample visit craft fairs reveal that for nearly half the sample (46.2%) a typical pattern is to visit such events two or three times per year. In addition to this group are a further 29.6% who report visiting four or more fairs annually. These results suggest that the majority of craft fair shoppers in this sample (75.9%) have a reasonable level of experience of this type of retail institution. The remainder of the sample consists of individuals who either visit a craft fair once a year (10.8%) or hardly ever/never before (13.3%).

5.3.4 Geodemographic Profile

In addition to the characteristics detailed above respondents' postcodes were collected in order to be able to create geodemographic profiles. A total of 319 postcodes were provided, 279 of which were Scottish. Among those respondents who did not

provide their postcodes, some were unwilling, others simply did not know their postcode and a minority were foreign tourists. The geodemographic profiles were kindly created by CCN Marketing using MOSAIC (a neighbourhood classification scheme which provides associated information on lifestyles), Scottish MOSAIC (a classification system developed specifically for the Scottish market using Scottish rather than UK statistics¹) and PSYCHE (a values driven segmentation tool²). Because a high proportion of the postcodes collected were Scottish (87%), the following summary is of the profiles created using Scottish MOSAIC and PSYCHE and is restricted to the 279 members of the sample with Scottish addresses

Unfortunately, CCN were only able to provide summary geodemographic profiles, as opposed to classification of each respondent. Therefore, although the data are useful to profile the sample, it was not possible to examine the relationship between respondents' geodemographic characteristics and their shopping motivation.

5.3.4.1 Scottish MOSAIC Profile

Scottish MOSAIC classifies individuals by 47 neighbourhood types, which are in turn amalgamated into 10 more general types. Table 5.2 displays how the general neighbourhood types are represented in the sample for this study.

The figures in the table show that the majority of respondents for whom geodemographic data were analysed (70.2%) live in accommodation that falls into three neighbourhood types: singles and flats, high income areas and middle income owners. The *index* figures in the third column illustrate the comparison between the sample composition and all Scottish households³.

¹ Scottish MOSAIC is based on 89 variables taken from a range of Scottish statistics including the Scottish Electoral Role, the Postal Address File for Scotland, Scottish County Court Judgements, plus CCN's credit data bases and census data

² PSYCHE is based on geodemographic information combined with face-to-face interviews by Synergy Consulting.

³ NB. MOSAIC statistics are calculated within 95% confidence limits

Table 5.2: Profile of Respondents: General Neighbourhood Type

Neighbourhood Groups	Percentage of Sample (279)	Percentage of Scottish Households	Index (base=100)
Singles and Flats	26.5	8.7	303
High Income Areas	25.1	12.2	206
Middle Income Owners	19.0	14.8	128
Low Income Owners	7.9	9.0	88
Renting Singles	7.5	8.4	89
Better Off Council	5.4	18.1	30
Poor Families in Council Flats	3.6	8.6	42
Country Dwellers	2.9	8.3	35
Disadvantaged Council Estates	2.2	10.8	20
Institutional Areas	0.0	1.1	0

These figures reveal that the three neighbourhood types inhabited by the craft fair visitors who participated in this research are up to three times over-represented compared to the national figures.

The descriptions of the three most common groups within this sample, and information on their respective buying behaviour, are as follows:

Singles and Flats: contains a blend of young professionals and students, many of which are co-habitees. They tend to be found in tenement blocks in larger Scottish cities, most are renting but there are home owners within this group. There tends to be a greater expenditure among this group on grocery products and leisure rather than on large consumer goods.

High Income Areas: those areas which contain more affluent individuals, normally professionals living in mostly detached or large semi-detached homes.

Middle Income Owners: generally in their early thirties to mid fifties and have comfortable although not excessively wealthy lifestyles. They are most likely to live

in typical suburban semi-detached homes in which there will be relatively high numbers of purchases of both brown and white goods.

(Source: Scottish MOSAIC Descriptions)

The descriptions of the types of housing and typical residents of the three top neighbourhood groups imply that there is a wide spread of ages among the respondents, supporting the findings of the age profiling. In addition, these descriptions provide an indication of the socio-economic position of the sample. The descriptions of the Singles and Flats and the High Income Areas groups (cumulatively 51.6% of the sample) highlight that professionals are a major group in this market. The Middle Income Owners are described in the more detailed breakdowns as having careers or jobs in the service sector and a reasonably high level of disposable income. The respondents in this sample, therefore, appear to be largely from the higher socio-economic groups, all with relatively high disposable incomes.

5.3.4.2 PSYCHE Profile

The PSYCHE value based segmentation scheme classifies people into 7 motivational types. The table below shows the proportion of respondents which were grouped into each category:

Table 5.3: PSYCHE Profile

PSYCHE Category	Percentage of Respondents
Self Explorer	28.2
Belonger	25.7
Conspicuous Consumer	16.3
Survivor	13.5
Social Resister	8.2
Experimentalist	6.0
Aimless	2.2

The profile shows that 53.9% of the sample is composed of two PSYCHE types, Self Explorers and Belongers. A further 29.8%, taking the cumulative percentage up to 83.7%, is occupied by a further two types, namely, Conspicuous Consumer and Survivors. The description of the two key segments are provided below.

Self Explorers: Confident, caring, concerned, comfortable and cosmopolitan in outlook, interested in ideas and people not things or position, highly individual, with a strong sense of self and a need for self-expression.

Belongers: Modest, sensible and balanced on everything. Tradition, caution, fair play and duty to home and family govern their lives. They want a world without surprise and sensationalism.

(Source: Synergy Consulting and CCN Marketing PSYCHE)

These two descriptions of the respondents in terms of these value based segments are intuitively compatible with an image of people who are interested in and purchase crafts. The third most common PSYCHE type among the sample Conspicuous Consumers (dream of success and the good things in life that money can buy. Fashion conscious, generous and sociable. Seeking recognition for themselves and their families as well as the good opinions of others) is a reasonable addition given that the MOSAIC profile identifies a high proportion of professionals and individuals with high levels of disposable income among the sample.

As with many psychographic profiling products the theoretical basis of the PSYCHE product might be questioned. For example, personal values are used as the basis for the PSYCHE categories, yet influence of individuals' personal values varies depending on the consumption context. For instance, an individual may be a conspicuous consumer of sports equipment and clothing, but not of home furnishings. Moreover, the categories are created using cluster analysis, a technique which is

subject to the risk of capitalising on associations between variables that emerge by chance and for which it is generally difficult to achieve reliable solutions (Aldenderfer and Blashfield, 1984). Therefore, care should be taken when interpreting the marketing implications of this type of psychographic profiling.

5.4 Characteristics of the Shopping Situation

Data were collected on two factors relating to the shopping situation: whether or not the respondent was shopping alone, and whether the visit to the craft fair took place during the summer or in the run up to Christmas. Data on the latter of these two variables were derived from records of the number of usable questionnaires attained at each craft fair (see Table 5.4). Respondents for the study were recruited at eight different craft fairs. A distinction was made between respondents recruited at the craft fair which took place during the summer (30th August to 1st September) and those held in the run up to Christmas (between 11th November and 17th December). The details of the two characteristics of the respondents' shopping situations are recorded in the following table.

Table 5.4: Profile of Respondents: Personal Characteristics

	N	% of total
Accompanied Shopping		
Yes	271	68.1
No	127	31.9
Season of Shopping		
non-Christmas	97	24.4
Christmas	301	75.6

The figures show that there are approximately twice as many members of the sample who were shopping with one or more other person(s). This is an indication that the craft fair shopping is generally a social activity.

The figures on the season in which the shopping trip took place show that a much higher proportion of the sample were interviewed during the Christmas shopping period than during the summer. As noted in the methodology, Section 4.14.4, this bias towards the Christmas shopping period was a consequence of craft fair organisers' schedule of events, it was not a desirable feature of the research design. Nevertheless, the latter group is sufficiently large to enable comparative analysis using this variable.

This section summarises respondent profiles, which were drawn up on the basis of data collected on personal characteristics including age, sex, the frequency of visits to craft fairs and geodemographics. In addition it reports information on the nature of shopping situation. To provide further information on the nature of the sample, possible interrelationships amongst the background variables were explored.

5.5 Interrelationships Between Background Variables Used to Profile Sample

In order to test whether interrelationships exist between any of the background variables a series of cross-tabulations and Chi² tests were performed. Table 5.5 indicates which pairs of background variables were shown to be significantly related.

Table 5.5: Significant Interrelationships Between Background Variables

	Age	Sex	Freq. of visits to fairs	Accomp. shopping	non-Xmas vs. Xmas shopping
Age					
Sex					
Freq. of visits to fairs		*			
Accompanied shopping		*	*		
non-Xmas vs. Xmas shopping	*				

* indicates significance observed at the 0.05 level

The cells in Table 5.5 containing a star indicate the pairs of background variables that were revealed to be significantly interrelated. The level of significance for each of these relationships was at the 0.05 level, none were significant at the 0.01 level. The statistics, therefore, indicate the general direction of the relationships, but none of the relationships are particularly strong.

Four pairs of variables appear to be related to some degree. The cross-tabulation and Chi² statistic for each of these pairs is included in Appendix 5.1. The first pair of variables found to be related was age and whether people were recruited in the non-Christmas or Christmas shopping period ($p=0.015$). Notably, respondents in the youngest age group (18-25 years) were found to be over-represented in the sample obtained during the summer, whereas all the other age groups were slightly under-represented in this part of the sample. This was balanced by an under-representation of the 18-25 year old group in the sample obtained during the Christmas shopping period, contrasting with a slight over-representation of the other age groups. There is no obvious explanation for this trend, except that students were still on their summer break when the data were gathered during the summer and this may be the reason for the greater proportion of younger people in that part of the sample.

The second significant relationship was between the sex of respondents and the frequency of visits to craft fairs ($p=0.019$). The cross-tabulation showed that female respondents were more frequent visitors to craft fairs. Notably, male respondents were heavily over-represented amongst the respondents who reported that they had "hardly ever/never before" visited a craft fair. Sex was also related to whether or not the respondent was accompanied on the shopping trip ($p=0.029$), in that male respondents were slightly more likely to be accompanied than females. The author thought that these results may reflect that males who are less frequency visitors to craft fairs go along to shop there with a female friend or partner who is more

accustomed to shopping that setting. Further analysis revealed, however, that the infrequent male visitors were no more likely to be accompanied than other members of the sample.

Finally, the average frequency of visits to craft fairs was shown to be significantly related to whether or not respondents were accompanied on their shopping trip were also shown to be interrelated ($p=0.022$). Scrutiny of the cross-tabulation in Appendix 5.1 suggested, however, that this is not a linear relationship. Individuals who visit craft fairs most *4 or more times per year* and those who visit *hardly ever/never before* were more likely to be accompanied by others, whereas those who visit *2 or 3 times per year* are more likely visit alone. There is no particularly clear logic for this pattern of results, particularly for the difference between the *4 or more times per year* and the *2 or 3 times per year* group. The Chi^2 statistic may, therefore, appears to be a misleading indication that a relationship exists between these two background variables.

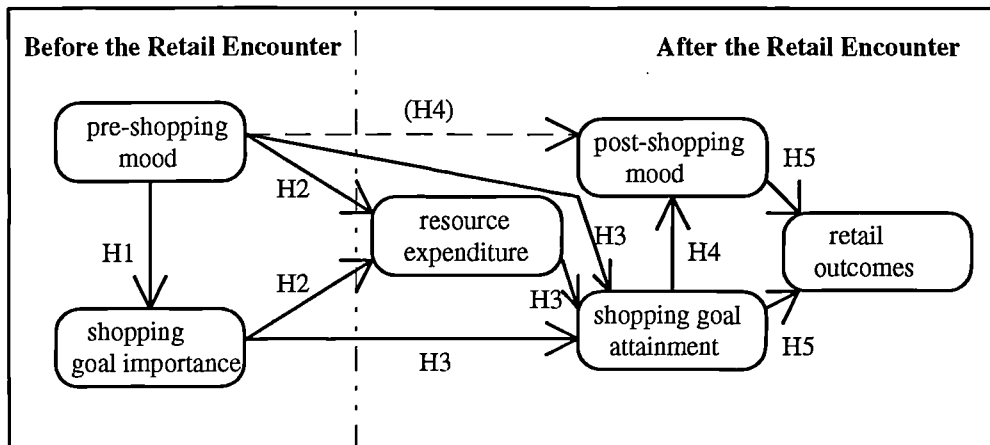
Bivariate correlations reflected the weakness in these relationships. They revealed that the only significant linear relationship between background variables was between sex and whether a person was accompanied on the shopping trip and that was only significant at the 0.05 level.

This concludes the analysis of the background variables used to profile respondents. Before moving on to the analyses performed to test the hypotheses, descriptive statistics of the data gathered for each set of variables are provided: goal importance, goal attainment, mood before and after the retail encounter, resources expenditure and retail outcomes.

5.6 Motivational Characteristics of Respondents

The sets of variables for which descriptive statistics are presented in this section are illustrated in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1: Motivational Variables for Which Descriptive Statistics are Provided



The report of the descriptive statistics for the motivational variables is split into three parts. First, the two sets of data relating to shopping goals - goal importance and goal attainment - are summarised. Secondly, summaries of the two sets of data pertaining to individuals' mood states - pre-shopping mood and post-shopping mood - are presented. Thirdly, the sets of data relating to resource expenditure during the shopping activity and retail outcomes are summarised.

5.6.1 Shopping Goal Importance and Attainment

The first sets of variables that are summarised are those representing individuals' shopping goals, that is, both the importance attributed to goals prior to the shopping activities and the attainment of goals following the retail encounter.

5.6.1.1 Shopping Goal Importance upon Arrival at the Craft Fair

The shopping goal scale developed in the preliminary phase of research reported in Chapter 4 provided a measurement scale consisting of fourteen shopping goals, representing four underlying dimensions of craft fair shopping motives. The mean

scores, attained from the 7-point rating scale, for each shopping goal are detailed in Table 5.6 below:

Table 5.6: Descriptive Statistics for Shopping Goal Importance

Shopping Goal	mean	s.d.
to look at things that are creative/unique	5.65	1.20
to look for things that I can't buy elsewhere	5.56	1.38
to look for presents which have a personal touch	5.51	1.39
to look for a suitable gift(s)	5.32	1.59
to hunt for suitable/desirable goods	5.14	1.52
to have fun/enjoy myself	5.03	1.29
to spend time in a pleasant setting	4.39	1.51
to feed my interest in crafts	4.37	1.73
to find something desirable to buy for myself	4.37	1.73
to see/be inspired by people who design and make crafts	4.17	1.79
to be entertained/distracted for a while	4.13	1.57
to indulge myself	4.04	1.72
to develop my own taste	4.02	1.73
to spend time in a cultural setting	2.89	1.64

The results show that those goals which record the highest mean score for their importance as a motive for visiting the craft fair are: *to look at things that are creative/unique, to look for things that I can't buy elsewhere, to look for presents which have a personal touch, to look for a suitable gift(s), to hunt for suitable/desirable goods* and *to have fun/enjoy myself* - all having a mean score exceeding 5.0. The scores for each of these items are also shown to have more limited standard deviations, ranging from 1.20 to 1.59, than the other items, for which the standard deviations range from 1.51 to 1.79. This is partly due to end effects, that is, because the average was closer to the top end of the scale, there is a limit to how much higher than the average respondents can rate the importance of these goals. Among these more important shopping motives are items which relate to three of the four dimensions of shopping motivation identified at the scale development stage. That is, items relating to gift search, hedonic and epistemic goals are among the most important shopping motives while those relating to self-gift search/self-indulgence are among the lesser important items.

To look at things that are creative/unique is the item with the highest mean rating and the lowest standard deviation, emphasises that for a high proportion of visitors to craft fairs important benefits are derived from the process of viewing the pieces on display (Kean *et al.*, 1996). This suggests that a key attraction of the craft fair retail format is its offer of facilities akin to an exhibition or a museum.

The high score for *to look for a suitable gift(s)* clearly indicates that searching for gifts was a major goal for visitors to the craft fairs. This is not an unlikely outcome given the type of merchandise that is sold at craft fairs and that a majority of the data were collected in the run up to Christmas. The high mean scores for the two items which qualify people's motivations for buying gifts at a craft fair (*to look for things that I can't buy elsewhere* and *to look for presents which have a personal touch*) emphasise that consumers patronise this type of retail establishment not simply because they can buy gifts there, but because they can buy gifts with "added value" (Davig and Leonard, 1988) which contributes to what the giver wants to communicate via the gift (Fischer and Arnould, 1990).

The mean rating of 5.03 and moderate standard deviation for the goal *to have fun/enjoy myself* indicates that people do not simply spend time shopping at craft fairs to satisfy their purchase requirements but also, as emphasised by Holbrook and Hirschman (1982), because they seek an entertaining experience. This implies that one of the concerns of craft fair organisers should be to create an environment which is congenial to satisfaction of this type of shopper motivation.

The remaining items used to measure craft fair shopping motivation revealed a mean importance rating of between 4 and 5, apart from *to spend time in a cultural setting* for which the mean score was 2.89. The distribution of responses for this variable showed that the low mean score was due the fact that nearly half the sample (48%) rated this type of goal 1 (*not at all important*) or 2 on the 7-point scale used to measure goal importance, while very few (7%) rated it 6 or 7 (*extremely*). It appears,

therefore, that although the nature of the crafts sold at fairs that were a source of interest/pleasure to the shoppers at these craft fairs, they were much less concerned about the cultural credentials of the setting.

The mean scores for the items in the shopping goal scale reveal information about the relative importance of each of the shopping goals. However, as suggested in Chapter 4, items measured by the scale are less stable indicators of the phenomena of interest than the underlying dimensions that they represent. Following the rationale that multiple responses represent *true* responses more accurately than do responses on a single variable (DeVellis, 1991) it was, therefore, desirable to consider the underlying dimensions of shopping motivation. This was achieved by performing a factor analysis on the data.

5.6.1.2 The Underlying Dimensions of Shopping Goals

The first concern is whether the same four factors emerge as were identified in the preliminary stage of the research (Part I, Stage 2 of the methodology reported in Chapter 4). These factors may have changed either because of the change of sample or because the phenomena of interest has changed and that the scale is accurately tracking that change. For example, the scale was developed at a craft fair during the summer, whereas a large proportion of the data for the main stage of the study were collected at craft fairs held in the run up to Christmas. It is not unlikely, therefore, that data collected during the main stage of the research will portray a slightly different picture of shopping motives than the data collected on the same phenomena in the scale development stage of the research. Given the potential for changes in shopping motivation an exploratory factor analysis was carried out on the data.

5.6.1.3 The Factor Solution

5.6.1.3.1 The Number of Factors to be Rotated

A discussion of the selection of factors for rotation is presented in Chapter 4. In this main phase of the research four factors emerged with eigenvalues greater than 1. Their eigenvalues were 4.50, 2.52, 1.30 and 1.01 respectively. It was decided that all of these factors should be rotated. Although it was questionable whether Factor 4 should have been rotated, because the eigenvalue only marginally exceeded 1. The four factor solution was considered to be preferable to a three factor solution however: first, because the preliminary research provided some evidence that there are four dimension of craft fair shopping motivation; and, secondly, the four factors, together, explain 66.7% of the variance in the data, whereas if a three factor solution is chosen only 59.5% is explained, falling just below the threshold of the recommended 60% explained variance for a satisfactory solution (Malhotra, 1993). The Scree plot showed the most distinct *elbow* at Factor 3, but also illustrated that the choice of a four factor solution was acceptable.

5.6.1.3.2 Type of Rotation

As explained in Chapter 4, an oblique rotation is recommended when the dimensions of the phenomena of interest are hypothesised to be interrelated. In the case of craft fair shopping motivation the existence of interrelationships between the various dimensions is illustrated by the correlations between factors that emerged in the scale development stage of the research.

5.6.1.3.3 Adequacy of the Rotation

A simple, unambiguous factor structure is one in which each variable is highly correlated with one factor and uncorrelated with all other factors. The criteria used here to identify a relationship between a variable and a factor were the same as specified in Chapter 4, that is, a variable was associated with a factor if it revealed a loading greater than 0.55 on that particular factor and lower than 0.32 on all other

factors. In addition the rotated solution includes a listing of the communalities, which represent the amount of variance accounted for by the factor solution for each variable. Kline (1994) advises that an acceptable level of explanation for each variable is 0.50. If any variable that either fails to load on a single factor or is not sufficiently well explained by the rotated factor solution, Hair *et al.*, (1995) suggest two alternative course of action. The variables in question can be ignored in the interpretation of the solution, which is a viable option if the purpose of the factor analysis is simply one of data reduction. However, if the factor solution is to be used as input in further forms of analysis a preferable option is to consider deleting of the items and re-running the factor analysis. If an item is not salient to meeting the objectives of the study and its communality is low it is reasonable to eliminate it and derive a new factor solution. In this case one shopping goal scale item *to spend time in a cultural setting* had a communality lower than 0.5 and also failed to meet the criteria for loading on a single factor. Therefore, this item was deleted and the factor analysis re-run.

5.6.1.3.4 Factor Analysis Revisited

When the factor analysis was performed excluding *to spend time in a cultural setting*, four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were extracted from the initial factor solution. Their eigenvalues were 4.34, 2.37, 1.29 and 1.00 respectively. On the basis of the eigenvalues, the scree plot, the preceding analyses of the dimensionality of craft fair shopping motivation and the percentage of variance explained (which totalled 69.2% for the four factors) it was decided that all of these factors should be rotated.

A Direct Oblimin rotation factor analysis was performed on the remaining 13 items. Either three or four items loaded on each of the four factors, and none of the items had a significant loading on any other factor. Therefore the rotation of the factors had produced a solution with simple structure, which offers the advantage of being relatively easy to interpret.

5.6.1.3.5 Interpretation of the Factors

The pattern matrix, which is shown in Table 5.7 below, was analysed for the purpose of interpretation.

Table 5.7: Pattern Matrix

	factor loading
Factor 1: Hedonic Goals	
to be entertained/distracted for a while	0.899
to have fun/enjoy myself	0.735
to spend time in a pleasant setting	0.680
Factor 2: Gift Seeking Goals	
to look for presents which have a personal touch	0.903
to look for a suitable gift(s)	0.888
to hunt for suitable/desirable goods	0.705
to look for things that I can't buy elsewhere	0.649
Factor 3: Epistemic Goals	
to feed my interest in crafts	-0.891
to see/be inspired by the people who design and make crafts	-0.772
to look at things that are creative/unique	-0.716
Factor 4: Self-Gift Seeking Goals	
to find something desirable to buy for myself	-0.866
to indulge myself	-0.692
to develop my own taste	-0.561

The order in which the items are listed in Table 5.7 reflects the size of their respective loadings on the factor. Despite the potential for change noted at the beginning of this section the way in which the items load on the factors is very similar to the pattern which emerged in the scale development stage of the research reported in Chapter 4. Because an exploratory factor analysis was performed on the data collected in this stage of the research it is only possible to consider the comparisons between the factor solution derived in the scale development stage of the research in qualitative terms. It is inappropriate to interpret details as specific as the comparability of the factor loadings. However, the pattern of loadings provides reasonable evidence that the comparable dimensions of craft fair shopping motivation emerge among different

groups and on different occasions. Accordingly the factors are labelled as they were in the earlier stage of research.

The only item which loads on a different factor in the present solution is *to develop my own taste*. This item loaded on the factor representing *epistemic goals* in the previous stage of the research, whereas in the present solution it loads on the factor representing *self-gift seeking goals*. In both solutions this item had a relatively low loading (0.55 on *epistemic goals* in the former solution and 0.56 on *self-gift seeking goals* in the latter). Responses to this item appears to be caused by both the epistemic and self-gift buying dimensions of craft fair shopping motivation and it is not a stable indicator of either one or the other. Nevertheless it was retained in the analysis.

Another difference between the factor solution obtained in the scale development stage of the research the present solution for the main stage of the research is the order of the factors.

Scale development stage	Main stage
Factor 1: Gift Seeking Goals	Factor 1: Hedonic Goals
Factor 2: Hedonic Goals	Factor 2: Gift Seeking Goals
Factor 3: Self-gift Seeking Goals	Factor 3: Epistemic Goals
Factor 4: Epistemic Goals	Factor 4: Self-Gift Seeking Goals

It was noted in Chapter 4 that when factors have been rotated by an oblique method, because of overlapping variance, it is not possible to determine precisely how much variance is accounted for by each one. Following rotation it is only possible to estimate the relative importance of each factor. In light of this it is difficult to draw conclusions about the extent to which the relative order of the factors has changed between one stage and the next.

5.6.1.3.6 Reliability of the Scale: Internal Consistency

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to measure the internal consistency of the scale. The alpha coefficients for each subset of items, representing each of the four

factors, are detailed in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8: Scale Reliability Statistics

Dimensions of Craft Fair Shopping Motivation	alpha coefficient
Factor 1: Hedonic Goals	0.75
Factor 2: Gift Seeking Goals	0.83
Factor 3: Epistemic Goals	0.76
Factor 4: Self-gift Seeking Goals	0.71

Variability in data is due to variability among respondents in terms of the phenomena measured by the scale and error. Calculation of the coefficient alpha, based on matrix algebra, involves separating the total variance in the data between *true* variance and error variance. The alpha statistic represents the proportion of total variance which is *true* or common variance, that is, alpha equals 1 - error variance.

The alpha coefficients presented above are all between 0.71 and 0.83, which suggests that an acceptable level of *true* variance, compared to error variance, is represented by the items representing each dimension of shopping motivation in the scale (Malhotra, 1996; Hair *et al.*, 1995). Given that the contributions of each item to their respective factors has proved to be relatively high, both in the goal scale development stage of the research and in this main phase, there is reasonable evidence that the selected items are reliable indicators of the respective dimensions of craft fair shopping motivation.

5.6.1.3.7 The Relationship Between the Factors

Table 5.9 shows the pair-wise correlations between the four factors.

Table 5.9: The Factor Correlation Matrix

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Factor 1: Hedonic Goals	1.000			
Factor 2: Gift Seeking Goals	0.044	1.000		
Factor 3: Epistemic Goals	-0.327	-0.128	1.000	
Factor 4: Self-gift Seeking Goals	-0.330	-0.242	0.309	1.000

Tabachnick and Fidell (1989) assert that correlations between factors exceeding 0.30 are worth consideration as this level of correlation indicates overlapping variance of at least 10%. Here, the pairs of factors with the highest correlations are Factors 1 and 4 (*hedonic goals* and *self-gift seeking goals*) and Factors 1 and 3 (*hedonic goals* and *epistemic goals*). Although both of these correlations appear to be negative, this is because the scale items associated with Factors 3 and 4 (*epistemic goals* and *self-gift seeking goals*) are negatively correlated with the factor, whereas those items associated with Factor 1 are positively correlated. Therefore, the factor correlation matrix, which is computed using factor scores, reflects the differences of positive and negative factor loadings. In addition, the correlation between Factors 3 and 4 (*epistemic goals* and *self-gift seeking goals*) is relatively high at 0.309.

The pattern of intercorrelations between the factors found here is, in many respects, comparable to those revealed in the scale development stage of the research. For example, in both solutions *gift seeking* and *self-gift seeking goals* were correlated, as were *epistemic* and *hedonic goals*, whereas *gift seeking* and *hedonic goals* were uncorrelated. By contrast, differences did emerge between the two stages of research in that *gift seeking* and *epistemic goals* were only found to be correlated in the scale development stage, while correlations between *self-gift seeking* and *hedonic goals* only emerged in the main stage of the research.

By way of interpretation, therefore, the underlying dimensions of craft fair shopping motivation which seem to be consistently related are the two factors that refer to making a purchase of some nature and the two factors that refer to psycho-social benefits that are derived from visiting a craft fair. The two dimensions of shopping motivation which seem to be consistently unrelated are the two that refer to the hedonic benefits of craft fair shopping and the task of purchasing gifts for others.

The above factor analysis validates the proposition that there are four dimensions of craft fair shopping motivation. On the basis of this analysis it is possible to produce descriptive statistics on the distribution of responses for each dimension of shopping motivation. These are reported below.

5.6.1.4 Descriptive Statistics of the Four Dimensions of Shopping Goal Importance

Summated scales were used to establish the distribution of responses for each dimension of shopping motivation. An alternative to summated scales are factor scores, however, the former way of representing the factor structure in the subsequent analyses was chosen for two reasons: one issue concerns the accuracy with which each estimates the underlying factor; the second concern is comparability.

With regard to the former issue the disadvantage of factor scores is that they are based on correlations of all the items with the factor (not just the high loading ones). Because many of these correlations are likely to be much less than 1.0 the factor scores are only approximations of the factors and, as indicators of the underlying factors they are error-prone (Hair *et al.*, 1995). By contrast the summated scale only includes items which load high on a factor and excludes those which bear little influence on a factor.

As far as the latter issue is concerned, comparability becomes problematic if factor scores are used, because when a factor analysis is performed on another sample the weights used to calculate factor scores will almost certainly change. This problem does not arise for summated scores which are easily replicated on subsequent samples because they are calculated simply by taking the average of items which have a high loading on a factor (in this case, greater than 0.55). The requirements for comparability in this study are due to the fact that the shopping goals scale was used to measure both the importance attributed to shopping goals and perceptions of

attainment of those goals. The second use of the shopping goals measurement scale is conceptually different and even if the same four dimensions emerged in a factor analysis the loadings of the individual items on each factor would undoubtedly change. In order to be able to analyse the relationships between goal importance and attainment summated scales were a preferred means of representing responses for each dimension of shopping motivation.

Additional justification for this decision is provided by Hair *et al.* (1995) who propose that if the scale is well constructed, valid and reliable the summated scale is probably the best alternative. Since the research was undertaken to develop the shopping motive measurement scale and its repeated testing in the main stage of the research provided evidence of its validity and reliability, it was considered that summated scales were the preferable form of composite measurement in this context.

The descriptive statistics on the distribution of responses, calculated using summated scales, are given in the following table.

Table 5.10: Descriptive Statistics for the Dimensions of Shopping Goal

Importance

	mean	s.d.
Gift Seeking Goals	5.38	1.20
Epistemic Goals	4.73	1.31
Hedonic Goals	4.52	1.19
Self-gift Seeking Goals	4.14	1.38

The results reflect those obtained by the computation of the mean and standard deviation for the individual items: the gift seeking goals dimension is the predominant motivation for visiting the craft fairs (mean = 5.38), followed by epistemic goals (mean = 4.73) and hedonic goals (mean = 4.52). Self-gift seeking goals (mean = 4.13) are least important.

These figures imply that individuals' motives for visiting a craft fair are unlikely to be unidimensional, rather they will seek a variety of benefits. The more functional motives of seeking gifts to fulfil one's gift giving obligations are, nevertheless, identified as the main motivation for a high proportion of the sample, while the motives relating to self-gratification of some kind are suggested to be of lesser importance in many cases.

This concludes the summary of the set of data on shopping goal importance. The other set of shopping motive data that were summarised prior to testing the hypotheses was that incorporating the respondents' ratings of their attainment of shopping goals following the retail encounter.

5.6.2 Shopping Goal Attainment Following the Retail Encounter

Following the retail encounter respondents rated the extent to which they felt that they had attained their shopping goals. The same measurements scale was used as was employed to measure goal importance, the only difference being that items were transformed into the past tense.

The mean and standard deviation for each item is recorded in Table 5.11. The order of the items in the table reflects the hierarchy of the mean goal attainment ratings by respondents. Those at the top of the table, *seen things that are creative/unique, had fun/enjoyed myself, been entertained/distracted for a while, spent time in a pleasant setting, fed my interest in crafts* have relatively high mean scores and low standard deviations and are approximately normally distributed. All of these items relate epistemic or hedonic goals. The fact that a good proportion of the sample judged that the craft fair encounter had served to satisfy these goals is not surprising. It was noted in Chapter 2 that the standards that people hope to attain for goals relating to general amusement and distraction tend to be fluid and develop in the course of the

activity. The lack of preconceived standards means that people are generally satisfied as long as they do not come across anything particularly adverse while engaging in the activity (Csikzentmihalyi, 1975).

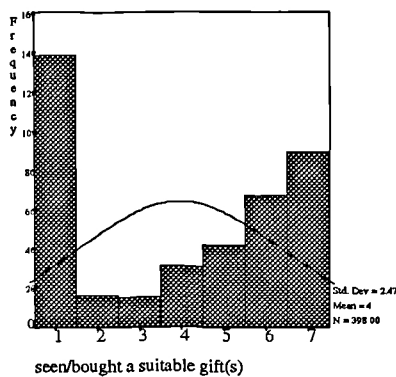
Table 5.11: Summary Statistics for Shopping Goal Attainment

Shopping Goals	mean	s.d.
seen things that are creative/unique	5.36	1.32
had fun/enjoyed myself	4.84	1.38
been entertained/distracted for a while	4.77	1.45
spent time in a pleasant setting	4.61	1.38
fed my interest in crafts	4.40	1.58
hunted down suitable/desirable goods	4.18	2.08
seen/bought things that I can't buy elsewhere	4.09	2.45
seen/been inspired by people who designs and makes crafts	3.99	1.73
seen/bought a suitable gift(s)	3.95	2.47
spent time in a cultural setting	3.89	1.56
seen/bought things for presents that have a personal touch	3.60	2.43
seen/bought something desirable to buy for myself	3.38	2.37
developed my own taste	3.36	1.70
indulged myself	3.33	2.04

The other group of variables that are notable for their distribution are those with high standard deviations: *seen/bought a suitable gift(s)*, *seen/bought things that I can't buy elsewhere*, *seen/bought things for presents that have a personal touch*, *seen/bought something desirable to buy for myself*, *hunted down suitable/desirable goods*, *indulged myself*. All of these variables are purchase-related goals. The histograms showing the distribution of responses provided greater insight into their distribution. Broadly speaking the distribution of these items tended towards a dichotomy. More precisely, on the one hand, there tended to be a number of respondents who indicated that they had attained these purchase related goals *not at all*. Presumably, their purchase related goals had been thwarted, either because they had not bought or even seen any goods at the craft fair that were suitable for their purposes. On the other hand, there were a number of respondents who indicated that they had attained their goals *very much so*, presumably having found just what they were looking for. The

remainder of the responses were distributed across the other 5 categories in the 7-point scale, generally showing a trend towards the upper response categories indicating that these respondents had identified goods that were more or less suitable for their purposes.

Figure 5.2: Histogram of Typical Purchase-Related Goal Attainment



(the graph shows responses on a seven point scale which respondents used to indicate the degree to which they felt that they had achieved the shopping goal, where 1=not at all, 7=very much so. The curved line on the graph is the normal curve)

It is explained above that the individual items used to measure shopping goal attainment were combined into broader dimensions by means of summated scales. The combinations of items in the summated scales is based on the links between individual items and the four dimensions of shopping motivation identified in the analysis of the goal importance data. The summary statistics on the distribution of responses on each dimension are given in the following table.

Table 5.12: Summary Statistics for the Dimensions of Shopping Goal Attainment

	mean	s.d.
Hedonic Goals	4.74	1.21
Epistemic Goals	4.58	1.29
Gift Seeking Goals	3.96	2.12
Self-gift Seeking Goals	3.36	1.70

Not surprisingly, these figures reveal the same pattern as do the summary statistics for the individual scale items: shopping goals for which standards for achievement are unclear before the event are judged better in terms of attainment than are those for which there are clearer performance standards.

5.6.3 Pre-shopping and Post-shopping Mood States

This section reports the descriptive statistics for the sets of data that pertain to respondents' mood states, considering both pre- and post-shopping mood. As noted in Chapter 4, the investigation of the influence of mood on shopping motivation in this thesis focuses on the dimension of the circumplex model anchored at one end by activated pleasant affect (high PA) and at the other by unactivated unpleasant affect (low PA). The scale used to measure mood in this main stage of the research was developed in Part II of Chapter 4. This preliminary work served to identify four items that were demonstrated to reliably represent this dimension of the circumplex model of affect.

At the scale development stage of the research the alpha coefficient indicated a relatively high level of reliability for the scale. It was desirable, however, to validate its reliability for the *before* and *after* measures of mood taken during data collection for the main stage of the research.

Internal validity was, therefore, assessed for both the set of mood data. Cronbach's alpha for the set of mood data recorded *before* the retail encounter was 0.76, while for the *after* set of data it was slightly higher at 0.84. This level of scale reliability is consistent with that attained at the scale development stage of the research.

Having validated the internal consistency of the mood scale, the next step was to compute the distribution of the scores reported by respondents. The means and standard deviations for each item are reported in Table 5.13 along with the composite

score for mood, for which the average of the summated score was used. The advantages of using summated scales were outlined earlier in this chapter.

Table 5.13: Descriptive Statistics for Pre- and Post-shopping Mood Scores

	mean	s.d.
pre-shopping mood		
excited	3.28	1.39
engaged	3.61	1.37
lively	3.73	1.32
vigorous	3.27	1.41
<i>av. summated score</i>	<i>3.47</i>	<i>1.05</i>
post-shopping mood		
excited	3.54	1.44
engaged	3.96	1.36
lively	3.37	1.32
vigorous	3.43	1.50
<i>av. summated score</i>	<i>3.67</i>	<i>1.18</i>

As expected, there are no substantial differences among the items within each set of data in terms of their distribution. All have mean scores between 3 and 4, that is, just below the mid-point of the 7-point scale. There is a moderate standard deviation for each of the items.

5.6.4 Resource Expenditure and Retail Outcomes

The final part of this chapter summarises the data on resource expenditure during in-store activities and retail outcomes. To measure resource expenditure and retail outcomes adaptations of existing scales were used. This section presents the descriptive statistics for the seven variables relating to resource expenditure and the three variables associated with retail outcomes. As no preliminary work was carried out on the use of these constructs in the craft fair context, analysis of the relationships amongst the variables representing each construct is reported in this section.

5.6.4.1 Resource Expenditure

The mean and standard deviations for the seven variables relating to resource

expenditure during in-store activities are presented below in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14: Descriptive Statistics for Resource Expenditure Variables

	mean	s.d.
I did <i>not</i> look around thoroughly (reverse scored)	5.49	1.38
I searched for something to buy here	4.94	1.75
This is a place that I wanted to explore	4.71	1.53
I did <i>not</i> feel like spending a lot of time here (reverse scored)	4.10	1.56
I felt like talking to exhibitors	4.06	1.65
I felt friendly towards/felt like talking to other visitors who happened to be near me	3.70	1.66
I spent more money than I intended	2.95	2.03

Most of the mean scores for the expenditure of time and effort in the retail setting are between 4 and 5, just above the median score on the 7-point scale. The variable that is most distinct from the others *I spent more money than I intended*, has both a relatively low mean and high standard deviation. The reason for this may be because it is directly linked to the purchase of goods and, although it may be appropriate to indicate the degree of unplanned spending, it is arguably a dichotomous variable. The histogram of the frequency distribution for this variable revealed a pattern similar to that revealed for the attainment of purchase related goals (as described in Section 5.6.2, Figure 5.2).

To explore the relationships amongst the variables, a principle components factor analysis (PCA) was carried out. In the solution extracted there were two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1: Factor 1 had an eigenvalue of 3.29 and explained 47.0% of the variance, while Factor 2 had an eigenvalue of 1.04 and accounted for 15.0% of the explained variance. Both factors were retained and rotated to obtain a clearer picture of the relationships amongst the variables. An oblique rotation (Direct Oblimin) of the solution was performed. Interpretation of the rotated solution was based on the pattern matrix detailed in Table 5.15 below.

Table 5.15: Pattern Matrix for Resource Expenditure Variables

	Factor 1	Factor 2
I did <i>not</i> look around thoroughly (reverse scored)	0.168	0.701
I searched for something to buy here	0.008	0.790
This is a place that I wanted to explore	0.661	0.301
I did <i>not</i> feel like spending a lot of time here (reverse scored)	0.777	0.107
I felt like talking to exhibitors	0.811	0.096
I felt friendly towards/felt like talking to other visitors who happened to be near me	0.730	0.182
I spent more money than I intended	0.711	-0.351

5.6.4.1.1 Interpretation of the Factor Solution

The interpretation of the solution was based on the same criteria as have been previously specified in this thesis: a variable was considered to be associated with a particular factor if it revealed a loading greater than 0.55 on that particular factor and lower than 0.32 on all other factor. The figures in the table in bold type highlight the significant loading of variables on the two factors.

The variables that load on Factor 1 appear to reflect an individual's willingness to engage with the social and physical environment. This dimension of in-store behaviour is labelled *engage* where it is used in the hypothesis testing later in this chapter. The variables that load on Factor 2 relate to whether a person had *looked around thoroughly* and *searched for something to buy*, and reflect more channelled, purposive investment effort in the shopping activity. The second dimension of resource expenditure is, therefore, labelled *effort*.

The one variable that did not load clearly on either factor was *I spent more money than I intended*, although it was most closely associated with Factor 1 (*engage*). Calculation of the coefficient alpha, to assess the internal consistency of the items that loaded on Factor 1, revealed that *I spent more money than I intended* detracted from the reliability of the internal consistency, however, rather than contributed to it (the

alpha coefficient was 0.80 when *I spent more money than I intended* was included in the scale, and it rose to 0.85 when this variable was excluded). Therefore, it was decided to consider this variable separately in the hypothesis testing stage of the analysis. The variables used to represent Factors 1 and 2 in the hypothesis testing consisted of the average summated scores for those variables that loaded on each factor in the preceding analysis. With regard to monetary expenditure, the scores for the individual item *I spent more money than I intended* were used. The label *money* was used for this latter variable.

5.6.4.1.2 The Relationships Between the Factors

An oblique rotation factor analysis was performed on this set of data because there was reason to believe that the factors would be related. The output of the analysis revealed a correlation of 0.258 between Factors 1 and 2. This is a relatively strong relationship, which is reasonable given that all of the variables were originally identified (Mehrabian and Russell, 1974) as indicators of approach-avoidance behaviour.

5.6.4.1.3 Descriptive Statistics for Dimensions of Resource Expenditure

The descriptive statistics for the three aspects of resource expenditure identified from the factor analysis are provided in the table below.

Table 5.16 Descriptive Statistics for Resource Expenditure

	mean	s.d.
willingness to <i>engage</i> with the social and physical shopping environment	4.14	1.32
purposive investment of <i>effort</i> in the shopping activity	5.22	1.28
I spent more <i>money</i> than I intended	2.95	2.03

Of the three aspects of in-store behaviour, the mean score for the degree of *effort* invested in shopping activities was revealed to be highest at 5.22, while the mean score for willingness to engage with the social and physical shopping environment was

more moderate. The comparatively low score of the *money* aspect of resource expenditure, as suggested above, may be partly due to the validity of the measure and partly because it is heavily dependent on a purchase being made.

The next section moves on to consider the variables that have been suggested to indicate the retail outcomes of preference and choice.

5.6.4.2 Retail Outcomes

Retail outcomes was suggested earlier to relate to an individual's affect towards the retail outlet and his or her intentions to return some time in the future. The initial analysis of the retail outcomes simply involved calculating the mean and standard deviations for the three variables representing this construct.

Table 5.17: Descriptive Statistics for Retail Outcome Variables

	mean	s.d.
I would <i>not</i> want to return to this craft fair (reverse scored)	5.11	1.67
I enjoyed shopping at this craft fair	4.94	1.53
Of the craft fairs that I have visited this is one of the most preferable	4.09	1.58

The distribution of the responses to these questions were relatively similar, all three of the mean scores were (almost) within one scale point of each other and all had moderate standard deviations.

The relationships between the variables were explored by computing bivariate correlations and producing associated scatter plots. These correlations are presented in Table 5.18.

Table 5.18: Relationships Among Retail Outcome Variables

	preferred craft fair	intention to return	enjoyed shopping
preferred craft fair	1.000		
intention to return	0.542	1.000	
enjoyed shopping	0.569	0.612	1.000

The bivariate correlation matrix reveals substantial correlations between each pair of variables, all of which were significant at the $p=0.001$ level. The scatter plots (see Appendix 5.2) illustrate that there are very few respondents whose responses for one of these variables were not commensurate with their responses on the other two. Further support for the notion that the three variables represent one construct was provided by calculating the coefficient alpha to assess the internal consistency of the scale items. This statistic was 0.80. Elimination of any of the variables would have reduced this statistic.

To represent retail outcomes, average summated scores combining these three variables were computed. There were 9 respondents who had never before frequented a craft fair and for whom the statement of *the craft fairs that I have visited this is one of the most preferable* was not meaningful. The summated scores for these respondents were, therefore, calculated on the basis of the two other variables representing retail outcomes. The summary statistics for retail outcomes are: mean = 4.72, s.d. = 1.35.

5.7 Summary

Part I of this chapter has presented descriptive statistics for the background variables used to profile respondents and the motivational variables that are central to the research hypotheses tested in Parts II to VI.

Key findings from the analysis of the profiling variables were that sample of craft fair visitors included a reasonable spread of individuals from different age groups, but that proportion of men was by far outweighed by the proportion of women. There was also a clear dominance of individuals who were relatively frequent craft fair shoppers. Finally, approximately two thirds of the sample were shopping with one or more other person(s).

Section 5.6 focused on the motivational variables, providing descriptive statistics and, where necessary, validating the measurement instruments employed. This analysis was presented in three parts: shopping goal importance and attainment; mood before and after the retail encounter; and resource expenditure and retail outcomes.

The data on goal importance were treated first, considering the distribution of responses and the factor structure of the scale. The factor structure found in this main stage of the research was very similar to that uncovered at the scale development stage. Subsequently, the data on goal attainment were considered. The distribution of responses was presented and discussed, as were the descriptive statistics for the composite scores for each dimension of craft fair shopping motivation.

Secondly, the two sets of data pertaining to mood state were considered. The internal consistency of the scale items was assessed, providing validity for the reliability of the scale, before moving on to consider the distribution of responses which were clearly normally distributed.

Finally, the data collected on resource expenditure were assessed, with regard for both the distribution of responses and the relationships between the variables selected to represent this construct. Only one of the variables revealed a non-normal distribution, namely, that which referred to money spent at the craft fair. Analysis of the relationships among the variables revealed that the variable referring to monetary

expenditure was not clearly associated with the other variables and it was decided to treat it separately in subsequently analyses. The remaining variables were revealed to represent two underlying dimensions, the first relating to a willingness to engage with the social and physical environment and the second reflecting purposive investment of effort into the shopping activity. Finally the descriptive statistics and relationships among the three retail outcomes were presented, illustrating that these variables represent the same construct.

This concludes the first stage of the analysis in which the nature of the responses within each set of variables was considered. The rest of this chapter, Parts II to VI, is devoted to the testing the research hypotheses outlined in Chapter 4. The order in which the hypothesis testing is presented is as follows:

Part II H_{01} : There is no evidence to suggest that consumers' mood states influence the establishment of shopping goals.

Part III H_{02} : There is no evidence to suggest that goals or mood influence resource expenditure during shopping activities.

Part IV H_{03} : There is no evidence that a relationship exists between mood and goals identified as important upon arrival at a retail outlet and attainment of those goals.

Part V H_{04} : There is no evidence of a relationship between the attainment of important goals and mood change between entering and leaving the retail setting

Part VI H_{05} : There is no evidence that retail outcomes are influenced by the attainment of important goals and post-shopping mood

PART II: Testing Hypothesis 1

5.8 Introduction

This second part of the chapter reports the analyses performed to test the first research hypothesis. This hypothesis regarded the relationship between an individual's mood upon arrival at a retail outlet and the importance attributed to shopping goals in that context. It was explained in the methodology chapter that goal importance provided a summary measure of the degree to which an individual had established commitment to particular goals. The hypothesised relationship between mood and shopping goal importance was based on the literature in Chapter 2 that identifies mood as a motivational component in the process by which goal commitment is established. Further, the hypothesis drew on the review of the mood literature in Chapter 3, which provided additional detail of mood's motivational capacity. Specifically, it was argued that evaluative judgements are biased in a mood congruent direction, colouring an individual's view of the likelihood of attaining desired ends. Thus mood encourages or discourages a person to invest in goal-directed behaviour. The first hypothesis was, therefore:

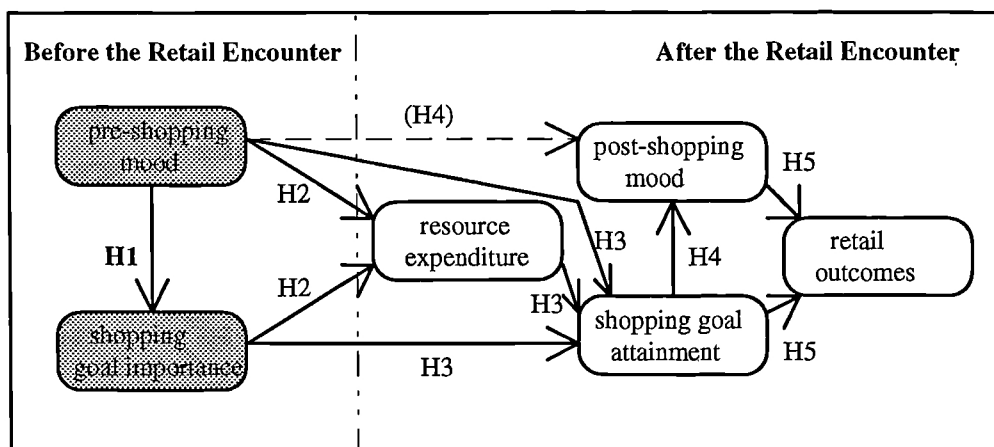
H₁: Consumers' mood states influence the establishment of shopping goals such that people in activated pleasant mood states are more likely to have important shopping goals upon arrival at a retail setting than those in unactivated unpleasant states.

The null hypothesis for H₁ is:

H₀₁: There is no evidence to suggest that consumers' pre-shopping mood states influence the importance that consumers attribute to shopping goals.

Figure 5.3 illustrates the relationships of interest in this hypothesis

Figure 5.3: Relationships Tested in Hypothesis 1



5.9 Analysis to Test Hypothesis 1

Various multivariate analytical techniques could have been used to test the relationships of interest in the research hypotheses. In the process of getting to know the data, a variety of techniques were applied including optimal scaling (PRINCALS) (SPSS Categories, 1990), factorial ANOVAs (Iversen and Horpoth, 1987), and multiple regression (Schroeder *et al.*, 1986). All of these techniques provide useful and slightly different information. However, one problem with the other two forms of analysis is that they require that ordinal variables be categorised (ANOVAs require independent variables to be in categorical form, whereas both independent and dependent variables need to be categorical for PRINCALS), in the process of which information is unavoidably lost. A second disadvantage of these techniques is that, although they identify influential variables, they do not provide specific information on the nature and size of that influence.

Multiple regression provides an alternative form of analysis that overcomes both of these problems (for a general description of multiple regression see Appendix 5.3^a) and it was, therefore, decided that multiple regression was most appropriate for testing the hypotheses in this research. In order to attain good quality results, however, consideration should be given to the assumptions of multiple linear

regression. An outline of the assumptions, problems encountered when they are violated and the relevance of each assumption to the present research is detailed in Appendix 5.4.

In testing Hypothesis 1, to assess the influences on individuals' levels of commitment to goals a separate regression analysis was run for each type of shopping goal. In addition to drawing on previous literature as a basis for specifying the regression models, a series of full and partial correlation analyses were produced to evaluate the appropriateness of each background variable and *pre-shopping mood* for inclusion in each regression model.

In applying multivariate statistical techniques it is preferable to use as small a number of variables as possible to avoid unnecessary reductions in the degrees of freedom (Schroeder *et al.*, 1986). So, in choosing the number of independent variable to include in multivariate analyses, there is a trade-off between maximising the explanatory capacity of the solution and the maximising the power of the statistics (increasing the probability of correctly rejecting the null hypothesis when it should be rejected). Moreover, there is a risk of violating the assumptions of multiple regression if irrelevant variables are included in the model. Therefore, the results of the bivariate and partial correlations reported in Table 5.19 were used as a basis for deciding which background variables to include in the regression analyses for each type of shopping goal. Background variables that were significantly related to a particular type of shopping goal were included in the respective regression analysis. Where there was no evidence of a significant relationship, the background variable was considered to be irrelevant and was excluded from the analysis.

Table 5.19: Correlations Between Dependent and Independent Variables for Hypothesis 1

	<i>Shopping Goal Importance</i>							
	Gift Seeking		Epistemic		Hedonic		Self-gift Seekg	
	r	pr	r	pr	r	pr	r	pr
Pre-shopg Mood	0.176**	0.176**	0.268**	0.283**	0.276**	0.276**	0.246**	0.230**
<i>Backg'd Vars.</i>								
Age	0.009	-0.020	0.152**	0.171**	-0.033	0.011	-0.001	0.012
Sex	0.218**	0.232**	0.178**	0.162**	0.121*	0.111*	0.189**	0.184**
Freq.	0.086	0.050	0.218**	0.157**	0.113*	0.070	0.169**	0.126**
Accomp.	-0.081	-0.084	-0.101*	-0.109*	0.047	0.036	0.038	0.038
Xmas	0.265**	0.286**	-0.042	-0.066	-0.204**	-0.217**	-0.029	-0.027

* significant at the 0.05 level

** significant at the 0.01 level

The partial correlations in Table 5.19 show that individuals' levels of commitment to each type of shopping goal were significantly correlated with *pre-shopping mood* and at least two of the background variables. *Sex* was significantly related to each type of shopping goal. In addition, whether or not a person was shopping the in pre-*Christmas* period (as opposed to earlier in the year) is positively related to *gift seeking goal importance* and negatively related to *hedonic goal importance*. The *frequency* with which individuals visit craft fairs was related to *epistemic* and *self-gift seeking goal importance*. Finally, an individual's *age* and whether or not the person was *accompanied* on their shopping trip were related to *epistemic goal importance* such that older people and people shopping alone were likely to express a greater level of commitment to epistemic goals.

5.9.1 The Regression Solution

As suggested earlier, it was assumed in this research that background variables exert their influence on shopping behaviour via their effect on a person's commitment to particular shopping goals. In assessing the influence of mood on a person's commitment to shopping goals, it was desirable to account for the influence of the background variables first and, subsequently, to examine the additional contribution of mood in explaining a person's commitment to shopping goals prior to the retail

encounter. Therefore, when the regression analyses were run, the variables were entered in blocks. The background variables associated with the relevant type of shopping goal were entered in the first block and *pre-shopping mood* was entered in the second block. This approach produces two regression models. The first model reveals how well the background variables explain goal importance. The second model shows whether the explanation of goal importance is improved by adding mood into the equation. Sections 5.9.1.1 to 5.9.1.5 provide a report of the results and discussion of the results is developed in Section 5.9.2.

5.9.1.1 Regression for Gift Seeking Goal Importance

The first analysis was concerned with *gift seeking goal importance* as the dependent variable. The background variables included in this analysis were the respondent's *sex* and whether they were included in the *Christmas* or non-Christmas shopping sample. Table 5.20 displays the results of the regression including: multiple R, R^2 , and adjusted R^2 for the two stages of the analysis, as well as the F statistic which reveals whether the multiple R is significantly different from zero. The second half of the table displays the unstandardised regression coefficient (B), the standard error and 95% confidence interval for the regression coefficient (B), the standardised regression coefficient (β) and the T-statistics.

Table 5.20: Regression Analysis of Gift Seeking Goal Importance (dependent variable) with Sex, Xmas and Pre-shopping Mood (independent variables)

	Mult. R	R^2	Adj. R^2	St. Error	change in adj. R^2	Regression SS Residual SS	F statistics
<i>Model 1</i> ^a	0.354	0.126	0.121	1.122		71.360 497.074	F(2,395)=28.35 p=0.000
<i>Model 2</i> ^b	0.391	0.153	0.146	1.106	0.027	86.890 481.544	F(3,394)=23.70 p=0.000

^a Model 1 - independent variables: (Constant), Sex, Xmas

^b Model 2 - independent variables: (Constant), Sex, Xmas, Pre-shopping Mood

Variables	B	std. error of B	95% confidence interval for B		β	T	signif T
<i>Model 2</i>							
Sex	0.718	0.142	0.439	1.005	0.235	3.056	0.000
Xmas	0.762	0.129	0.507	1.037	0.274	5.887	0.000
Pre-shop ^g Mood	0.189	0.053	0.085	0.293	0.165	3.565	0.000
(Constant)	3.570	0.244	3.090	4.050		14.622	0.000

The first model revealed that the two background variables - *Sex* and *Xmas* - together, explained 12% of the variance in the *gift seeking goal importance* scores. The second model revealed that *pre-shopping mood* explained an additional 2.5% of the variance in the data. The relatively limited importance of *pre-shopping mood*, indicated by the change in the adjusted R² between Model 1 and 2, is supported by information provided by the standardised coefficients (β). These figures indicate that the most important independent variables included in Model 2 were *Xmas* and *sex* and that *pre-shopping mood* was the least important of the three predictors.

Pre-shopping mood, therefore, does have an effect here, such that individuals in activated pleasant states are more likely to express greater commitment to *gift seeking shopping goals*. However, its importance as an explanatory variable is surpassed, not surprisingly, by the situational factor of the proximity of *Christmas* and the personal characteristic of *sex*, women tending to be more committed to *gift seeking goals* than men. The unique contributions of these two background variables to the explanation of variance in the *gift seeking goal importance* data were 7.5% and 5.5% respectively.

Interpretation of the regression coefficients (B) for these variables should account for the fact that dummy variables were used to represent both *Sex* and *Xmas*. Where dummy variables are included in the analysis the regression coefficient for those variables represent deviations from the comparison group (the group that was coded zero) on the dependent variable. That is, the difference in group means from the comparison group (Hair *et al.*, 1995). In this research, the zero code for *Xmas* was

assigned to non-Christmas shoppers and for *sex* it was assigned to males. Therefore, the regression coefficients indicate that the mean *gift seeking goal importance* score for Christmas shoppers was 0.76 greater than for non-Christmas shoppers, and was 0.72 greater for females than for males. For every one point increase in *pre-shopping mood*, goal importance scores increased by 0.19, which means that a move from the bottom to the top of the mood scale (1 to 7 on the rating scale) would result in a 1.14 increase in the *goal importance* score.

Having estimated the model for *gift seeking goal importance*, plots were produced to test for heteroscedasticity, but there was no marked evidence of it for this analysis. Similar plots were produced for the regressions run on the three other types shopping goals reported below, revealing that heteroscedasticity was not a problem in any case.

5.9.1.2 Regression for Epistemic Goal Importance

In the second regression analysis *epistemic goal importance* was the dependent variable. The background variables included in this analysis were the *age* and *sex* of respondents, the *frequency* with which they visit craft fairs and whether or not they were *accompanied* by (an)other person(s) on their shopping trip. The results illustrated that multiple R for both regression models was significantly different from zero. Table 5.21 display the various statistics for the model.

Table 5.21: Regression Analysis of Epistemic Goal Importance (dependent variable) with Age, Sex, Freq., Accomp and Pre-shopping Mood (independent variables)

	Mult. R	R ²	Adj. R ²	St. Error	change in adj. R ²	Regression SS Residual SS	F statistics
<i>Model 1</i> ^a	0.310	0.096	0.087	1.251		65.162 615.072	F(4,393)=10.41 p=0.000
<i>Model 2</i> ^b	0.408	0.167	0.156	1.203	0.069	113.306 566.927	F(5,392)=15.67 p=0.000

^a Model 1 - independent variables: (Constant), Age, Sex, Freq, Accomp

^b Model 2 - independent variables: (Constant), Age, Sex, Freq, Accomp and Pre-shopping Mood

Variables	B	std. error	95% confidence interval for B		β	T	signif T
<i>Model 2</i>							
Age	0.191	0.058	0.077	0.305	0.153	3.288	0.001
Sex	0.519	0.156	0.213	0.825	0.155	3.330	0.001
Freq.	0.203	0.064	0.077	0.328	0.150	3.177	0.002
Accomp.	-0.286	0.131	-0.543	-0.028	-0.102	-2.179	0.030
Pre-shop ^g Mood	0.338	0.059	0.223	0.453	0.271	5.770	0.000
(Constant)	2.244	0.334	1.588	2.901		6.725	0.000

The adjusted R² for Model 1 indicated that the background variables contributed 9% to the explanation of *epistemic goal importance* between them. The semi-partial correlations revealed that there was some overlap in the influence of the background variables, but that each makes a unique contribution as follows: 2% *age*, 2% *freq.*, 2% *sex*, and 1% *accomp.* All of these are relatively small contributions. With the addition of *pre-shopping mood* in Model 2 a further 7% of the variance in the data was explained. It appears, therefore, that mood is more important than the background variables considered in this research as a predictor of *epistemic goal importance*.

Model 2 revealed that *pre-shopping mood* was the only variable for which the estimated coefficient was significant at the 0.000 level. Its relative importance is reflected by the standardised coefficient (β), which shows that mood's influence was substantially greater than for the other predictor variables in the model. The model also indicated that the explanatory capacity of *age*, *sex* and *freq.* was more or less comparable in that their coefficients were between 0.150 and 0.155. *Accomp.* was only significant at the 0.030 level, however, which supports the evidence noted above that whether an individual visits a craft fair alone or with (an)other person(s) is a relatively weak predictor of a person's level commitment to epistemic goals.

Interpretation of the unstandardised coefficients in Table 5.21 suggests that for the average female *epistemic goal importance* score was 0.52 higher than that for the average male. Individuals in the *over 45 years* age group, on average, reported an *epistemic goal importance* score 0.57 higher than respondents in the *18-25 years* age group. A similar difference in *epistemic goal importance* scores (0.60) was revealed between respondents in the top (*4 or more times per year*) and bottom (*hardly ever/never before*) categories used to measure frequency of visits to craft fairs. With regard to *pre-shopping mood*, the regression coefficient (B) implies that for every one point increase in the mood score there is a 0.32 increase in goal importance.

According to the estimates in regression model, therefore, individuals who reported a score at the top or bottom of the 7-point mood scale differed in the importance that they attributed to epistemic shopping goals by nearly 2 points ($6 \times 0.322 = 1.9$).

In sum, the results of the regression analysis performed with *epistemic goal importance* as the dependent variable indicate that although personal characteristics of the respondent have some predictive capacity, it is relatively small. It is perhaps most surprising that the *frequency* with which individuals visit craft fairs does not bear a stronger influence on a shoppers' commitment to epistemic goals, as a high frequency of visits might reasonably be expected to indicate that a person had a level of interest in crafts and the craft fair retail setting. The influence of *pre-shopping mood* on a person's commitment to epistemic shopping goals, by contrast, accounts for 7% of the variance in the dependent variable. Its effects are noticeable, but not particularly strong. This is what one might expect because everyday mood states, even though they may moderate enthusiasm for undertaking everyday activities, tend not to have an overpowering effect on people's behaviour, unless experienced in the extreme.

5.9.1.3 Regression for Hedonic Goal Importance

In the analysis focusing on factors influencing individuals' level of commitment to hedonic shopping goals, the background variables included were the respondent's *sex*

and whether the person was recruited to the sample during the *Christmas* or non-Christmas shopping period. As for the other types of goals, consideration was given to the effects of *pre-shopping mood* over and above the background variables.

Table 5.22: Regression Analysis of Hedonic Goal Importance (dependent variable) with Sex, Xmas and Pre-shopping Mood (independent variables)

	Mult. R	R ²	Adj. R ²	St. Error	change in adj. R ²	Regression SS Residual SS	F statistics
<i>Model 1</i> ^a	0.252	0.064	0.057	1.157		35.881 527.718	F(2,395)=8.93 p=0.000
<i>Model 2</i> ^b	0.371	0.138	0.129	1.112	0.073	77.683 485.917	F(3,394)=15.71 p = 0.000

^a Model 1 - independent variables: (Constant), Sex and Xmas

^b Model 2 - independent variables: (Constant), Sex, Xmas and Pre-shopping Mood

Variables	B	std. error of B	95% confidence interval for B		β	T	signif T
<i>Model 2</i>							
Sex	0.306	0.143	0.024	0.588	0.101	2.133	0.034
Xmas	-0.573	0.130	-0.829	-0.317	-0.207	-4.401	0.000
Pre-shop ^g Mood	0.312	0.054	0.207	0.418	0.275	5.814	0.000
(Constant)	3.377	0.281	2.824	3.930		12.007	0.000

The first model shows that the two background variables explained 6% of the variability in *hedonic goal importance* between them. Calculation of the semi-partial correlations indicated that 4% of this variance was uniquely attributable to *Xmas*, while less than 1% was uniquely due to *sex*. The introduction of *pre-shopping mood* in Model 2 increased the explained variance in the dependent variable to 13%, that is, it explained an additional 7% of the variance in the data. *Pre-shopping mood*, therefore, appeared to be of similar importance in explaining individuals' commitment to hedonic goals as it was in explaining commitment to epistemic goals.

In the regression equation for *hedonic goal importance* the effects of *pre-shopping mood* and *Xmas* were clearly significant. The standardised coefficients (β) portrayed that individuals in activated pleasant states were more likely to express a greater level

of commitment to hedonic shopping goals. On the other hand, individuals shopping in the run up to Christmas were less concerned with hedonic goals than non-Christmas shoppers.

The estimated coefficients in the regression model provide information on the size of the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variables. The coefficient for *Xmas* suggests that, on average, Christmas shoppers score 0.55 less for *hedonic goal importance* than non-Christmas shoppers. With regard to the effects of *pre-shopping mood*, the results suggest that for every point that mood increases *hedonic goal importance* increases 0.32, that is, a move up from the bottom to the top of the mood scale (1 to 7) would produce a difference of nearly 2 points ($6 \times 0.322 = 1.9$) on the *hedonic goal importance* scale.

5.9.1.4 Regression for Self-gift Seeking Goal Importance

In exploring the influences on shoppers' commitment to self-gift seeking goals the background variables entered into the regression included the respondents' *sex* and average *frequency* of visiting craft fairs. *Pre-shopping mood* was entered in the second block to enable its additional contribution to be assessed.

Table 5.23: Regression Analysis of Self-gift Seeking Goal Importance (dependent variable) with Sex, Freq. and Pre-shopping Mood (independent variables)

	Mult. R	R ²	Adj. R ²	St. Error	change in adj. R ²	Regression SS Residual SS	F statistics
<i>Model 1</i> ^a	0.242	0.059	0.054	1.340		44.212 709.307	F(2,395)=12.31 p=0.000
<i>Model 2</i> ^b	0.332	0.110	0.103	1.304	0.051	83.152 670.367	F(3,394)=16.29 p=0.000

^a Model 1 - independent variables: (Constant), Sex and Freq

^b Model 2 - independent variables: (Constant), Sex, Freq and Pre-shopping Mood

Variables	B	std. error of B	95% confidence interval for B		β	T	signif. T
<i>Model 2</i>							
Sex	0.620	0.168	0.290	0.950	0.176	3.693	0.000
Freq.	0.175	0.069	0.310	0.041	0.123	2.557	0.011
Pre-shop ^g Mood	0.301	0.063	0.177	0.425	0.229	4.784	0.000
(Constant)	2.959	0.321	2.328	3.590		9.221	0.000

The first model, including the two background variables, *sex* and *freq.*, explained 5% of the variance in the data for *self-gift seeking goal importance*. The semi-partial correlations revealed that the unique contribution of *sex* was 3%, while *freq.* made a contribution of little more than 1%. The variability in *self-gift seeking goal importance* explained by the model increased to 10% with the addition of *pre-shopping mood* in Model 2. Mood was, therefore, the most important independent variable, explaining 5% of the variance. The relative importance of the independent variables in this model was reflected in the standardised regression coefficients, which showed *pre-shopping mood* to be the more important predictor variable followed by *Sex* and, finally, *frequency* of shopping at craft fairs.

The regression coefficient (B) for *sex* indicates that the average score for females on *self-gift goal importance* is 0.62 greater than for males. The estimated coefficient for *pre-shopping mood* indicates that there is a 0.30 increase in the dependent variable for every point increase in mood, meaning that an increase of 1.8 in *self-gift goal importance* corresponds with an increase from the bottom to the top of the mood scale (6 x 0.301). In sum, individuals in activated pleasant states and females attribute greater importance to self-gift shopping goals.

5.9.1.5 Summary of Results of Tests for Hypothesis 1

Regression analyses were carried out to test Hypothesis 1 for each type of shopping goal. To summarise the findings of these analyses, the standardised regression

coefficients (β) for each independent variable found to have a significant influence on a particular type of shopping goal are detailed below.

gift seeking goal importance = 0.27 (*Xmas*) + 0.24 (*Sex*) + 0.17 (*pre-shopping mood*)

variance explained by *pre-shopping mood* = 3%

epistemic goal importance = 0.27 (*pre-shopping mood*) + 0.16 (*Sex*) + 0.15 (*Age*) + 0.15 (*Freq.*) - 0.10 (*Accomp.*)

variance explained by *pre-shopping mood* = 7%

hedonic goal importance = 0.28 (*pre-shopping mood*) - 0.21 (*Xmas*) + 0.10 (*Sex*)

variance explained by *pre-shopping mood* = 7%

self-gift seeking goal importance = 0.23 (*pre-shopping mood*) + 0.18 (*Sex*) + 0.12 (*Freq.*)

variance explained by *pre-shopping mood* = 5%

5.9.2 Discussion of Results of Tests for Hypothesis 1

The primary relationship of interest in Hypothesis 1 was the effect of *pre-shopping mood* on individuals' level of commitment to shopping goals when they arrived at the retail outlet. The findings with regard to these effects are discussed in the following pages. Beforehand, consideration is given to the background variables found to affect the degree to which individuals were committed to various shopping goals when they arrived at the craft fairs.

Background variables bore greatest influence on people's gift seeking goals, explaining 12% of the variance in the data. In addition, they explained nearly 9% of the variance in the data for epistemic goals, 6% for hedonic goals and 5% for self-gift seeking goals.

The background variables that influenced committed to gift seeking goals were whether or not people were shopping in the run up to *Christmas* and their *sex*. That

is, people who participated in the research in the pre-Christmas period and females were more likely to express a greater level of commitment to gift seeking goals. The finding that people shopping just prior to Christmas were more committed to finding gifts is not surprising given that Christmas shopping often involves finding several gifts and, as is the case for most other gift purchases, is bound by deadlines. For example, a person may have to buy gifts in time to send by post, before a Christmas party with relatives or friends or simply before the last shop closes on Christmas eve. In addition, because many people are busy attending and hosting social events prior to and during the Christmas period, an individual may also be constrained by the time that he or she has available for shopping. For instance, people often take a day off work to do the Christmas shopping either because they have no other time free to do it or because they want to avoid the crowds. These various circumstantial pressures combine to make people more determined to find gifts in the time allocated to this task.

The greater commitment of women to gift seeking goals is reflective of issues reported in the gift buying literature. For example, Fischer and Arnould (1990) report that although "modern men" are more likely to share the burden of Christmas shopping it is generally considered to be "women's work". The finding also compares to research by Dawson *et al.* (1990). They also studied shopping motives in a craft fair setting and reported that product-related motives were greater for female than male respondents.

The influence of the background variables on epistemic goals was not heavily attributable to any one source, rather a person's *age*, *sex*, average *frequency* of visiting craft fairs and whether the individual was *accompanied* on the shopping all had a small effect.

Two background variables - whether or not people were shopping in the run up to *Christmas* and their *sex* - were found to influence a person's level of commitment to hedonic goals when he or she arrived at the craft fair. A person's *sex* had a very limited effect on hedonic goals. The effect of whether or not the person was shopping in the period prior to *Christmas* was also relatively small but it was marked by the fact that it was a negative effect. That is, people shopping prior to *Christmas* suggested that hedonic goals were less important to them than did people shopping during the summer. This outcome may be due to people's preoccupation with gift buying tasks in the period prior to Christmas. Generally people know what they have to do to achieve certain goals. Forms of behaviour in which individuals need to engage to find Christmas presents may well be different from and incompatible with those in which they would engage if seeking experiential benefits from shopping.

Finally, the background variables found to influence self-gift seeking goals were a person's *sex* and the *frequency* with which the individual visited craft fairs. The role of a person's *sex* was such that females expressed a greater level of commitment to gift seeking goals than males. This reflects a general view that women are more prone to engage in self-gift buying than men (Woodruffe, 1996; Mick, DeMoss and Faber, 1994). On the other hand, the fact that a greater proportion of women were found to be pursuing gift seeking goals perhaps reflects the nature of the retail outlet chosen for this study. The importance of gift seeking goals to men might well rise if research was carried out at retail outlets stocking things such as gadgets, electrical goods or sports equipment. The effect of the frequency of visiting craft fairs on self-gift seeking goals was small, but its significance may be because people who visit craft fairs more often do so because they particularly like the goods sold.

With regard to the effects of *pre-shopping mood*, the results provided general support for the hypothesis and were consistent with the findings of previous studies that claim that commitment to goal pursuit is likely to be greater for individuals in positive mood

states (Hom and Arbuckle, 1988). Although significant, the effects of mood on commitment to each type of shopping goal were relatively small, ranging from 3% to 7%. This is reasonable, however, as one would only expect mood to have a modest effect on a person's shopping motivation. In particular, because this research was conducted in the retail setting, the sample was composed of individuals who were sufficiently motivated to attend the craft fair.

One outcome of the analyses that is worth noting is the apparent differences among different types of shopping goals. *Pre-shopping mood* had the greatest influence (7%) on the level of commitment that respondents expressed for *hedonic* and *epistemic goals*. The effects of *pre-shopping mood* on commitment to *self-gift seeking goals* was slightly less at 5%, while its effects were least important as a determinant of individuals' commitment to *gift seeking goals*, for which it only explained 3% of the variance in the data.

Further interpretations of the findings reported above can be developed with regard to the theoretical propositions advanced in Chapter 3. The discussion of how mood might influence each stage of goal-directed behaviour highlighted three ways in which mood might influence the pre-actional stages of goal pursuit that were of interest in Hypothesis 1. It was suggested that the desire to maintain positive mood or repair negative mood heightens the importance of action specific goals that are believed to serve mood management purposes; that mood influences a person's creativity in developing action strategies for pursuing certain goals, thus making the person more or less optimistic about the likelihood that those goals can be achieved in a particular context; and, finally, it was proposed that the self-regulatory function of mood biases a person's judgement of whether or not certain goals can be achieved under certain circumstances.

It is perhaps not surprising that *pre-shopping mood* had least effect on *gift seeking goal importance* because this type of goals is normally imposed by external factors (i.e. the social obligation of gift exchange) and has a deadline by which it must be achieved. Although there may be some leeway, a person often has to apply him or herself to the gift seeking task, whether "in the mood" or not.

Nevertheless, on the basis of existing mood research, one would expect *pre-shopping mood* to have some effect on a person's commitment to *gift seeking goals*. The literature on mood-congruent memory and recall would suggest that individuals in positive moods would see more ways in which they could satisfy the criteria associated with their gift buying task. This effects would be enhanced by the self-regulatory function of mood which operates by influencing a person's perceptions of the likelihood of finding appropriate gifts (by biasing evaluative processes in a mood-congruent direction) and signalling the availability of personal resources to pursue the goals. The result of these processes is that people in activated pleasant states are more optimistic about finding suitable gifts.

The other way in which mood might influence commitment to gift seeking goals (or comparable functional shopping goals in other settings) relates to the effects of mood management motives. In Chapter 3, it was suggested that individuals scrutinise the hedonic consequences of activities in order to assess the implications for their mood if they choose to undertake the activity. With regard to goals that serve mood management motives, they may be attractive to people in positive and negative moods. It was argued, however, that because individuals in activated pleasant states are more optimistic in their assessments of the consequences of various courses of action and of their own ability to successfully engage in the relevant activities, they are more likely than people in negative moods to become strongly committed to such goals.

A question that has not been addressed in the literature concerns the effects of mood management motives with regard to goals imposed by external pressures. That is, what is the effect of mood on commitment to a goal when an individual is pressurised to undertake a task that he or she would not otherwise choose to do? Arguably, a person in an activated pleasant state (high PA), who has the personal resources available to undertake the task and is optimistic about being able to complete it satisfactorily, is likely to see the consequences less negatively than an individual in an unactivated unpleasant state (low PA) who is more pessimistic about being able to complete the task successfully. This argument would be supported by the findings of the present research. On the other hand, a person in a positive mood has more to lose by doing something that he or she does not want to do than a person already in a negative mood. Either of these arguments may affect the degree to which people in positive and negative moods become committed to goals. The mood management research needs to be extended to provide insights into the comparison between positive and negative mood with regard to individuals' motivations to engage in obligatory activities.

It is also worth noting at this point that mood's influence on functional shopping goals may not be so limited in other shopping contexts where failure to achieve the task has less serious consequences. In this case, failing to achieve *gift seeking goals* has potentially important implications for a person's relationship with significant others in the short and long term and it is not surprising that the effects of mood pale by comparison. In situations where one is shopping for oneself or a purchase can be postponed, perhaps indefinitely, mood may well exert a greater influence on commitment to goals.

The similarity of the effect of *pre-shopping mood* on *hedonic* and *epistemic goal importance* is reasonable given that these two types of goals share a number of characteristics, namely, that: the criteria for achievement tend to be vague or, at least,

flexible and achievement delivers entirely personal, psychological rewards. One might also argue that the consequences are largely short term but this is more true of hedonic goals than of epistemic goals where knowledge gained stays with the person. The mood management literature would suggest that the hedonic rewards of pursuing these types of goals are equally motivating for individuals attempting to maintain positive mood (Wegener and Petty, 1994) or repair negative mood states (Cialdini *et al.*, 1981). The other streams of mood research would suggest, however, that individuals in activated pleasant states (high PA) would become more committed to these types of goals because they see more alternative action strategies for goal pursuit and are more optimistic about achieving their goals (Kahn and Isen, 1993; Isen, 1990). On balance, therefore, the results of this study are compatible with the existing mood literature in that individuals in activated pleasant states (high PA) were found to express a higher level of commitment to these goals.

The results suggest that effect of *pre-shopping mood* on *self-gift seeking goal importance* was not quite as high as for *hedonic* and *epistemic goals* (5% as opposed to 7% of the variance was explained by mood). Although one should be cautious in focusing on such a small difference in a single sample, if the difference is reliable it may be because self-gifts are seen as an important means of repairing negative mood (Mick, DeMoss and Faber, 1990) as opposed to shopping for its own sake.

Nevertheless, the arguments presented to explain the effects of *pre-shopping mood* on individuals' commitment to *hedonic* and *epistemic goals* also holds for *self-gift seeking goals*.

5.9.8 Summary

In sum *pre-shopping mood* emerged as a significant independent variable in each regression equation conducted to test Hypothesis 1, contributing between 3 and 7% to the explanation of the importance attributed to the four types of shopping goals. It is therefore possible to reject the null hypothesis that there is no evidence to suggest

that consumers' mood states influence the establishment of shopping goals. By the same measure, the alternative hypothesis is accepted in that there is evidence to suggest that consumers' mood states influence the establishment of shopping goals such that people in activated pleasant states are more likely to express a high level of commitment to shopping goals upon arrival at a retail setting.

The main caveat to these findings was that mood's effect on commitment to shopping goals varied depending on the nature of the goal. Mood made the greatest contribution to *hedonic and epistemic goal importance* and the least contribution to *gift seeking goal importance*. That is, the impact of *pre-shopping mood* was greatest where there are no external pressures for an individual to undertake the activity, rather when the person has chosen to pursue a goal of his or her own volition.

Part I of the analysis has dealt with the hypothesis that focused on variables measured upon arrival at the craft fair, that is, an individual's motivational state prior to the retail encounter. The remaining hypotheses are concerned with the effects of shoppers' prior motivational states on motivation during the shopping episode. The first of these focuses specifically on the relationships between the importance attributed to shopping goals upon arrival at the craft fair and their resource expenditure during shopping activities at the craft fair.

PART III: Testing Hypothesis 2

5.10 Introduction

Part III of this chapter presents the analysis used to test the second research hypothesis and the results of that analysis. Hypothesis 2 was based on the literature that suggests that resource expenditure during shopping activities depends on the goals that an individual has established on a particular occasion. It was argued that individuals for whom a shopping episode is characterised by a strong commitment to goals a person will put more into the pursuit of those goals during a shopping encounter. It also drew on the mood literature arguing that mood would also be positive related to resource expenditure during shopping activities. The hypothesis proposing these relationships was as follows:

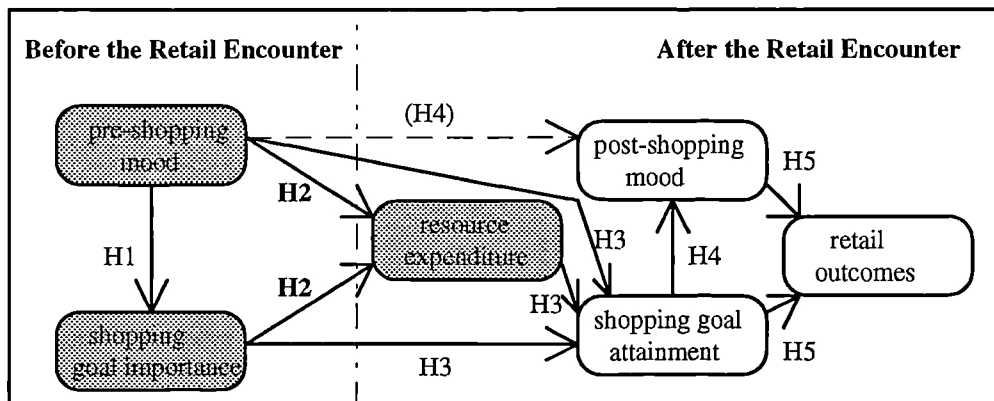
H₂: Subjects with important shopping goals will invest more resources in their shopping activities than people without important shopping goals. An individual's pre-shopping mood will have a positive effect on resource expenditure, either directly or as a moderator of the effects of goal importance.

The null hypothesis tested to assess these proposed relationships was as follows:

H₀₂: There is no evidence to suggest that goals or mood influence resource expenditure during shopping activities

Figure 5.4 shows the relationships that are the focus of attention in Hypothesis 2.

Figure 5.4: Relationships Tested in Hypothesis 2



5.11 Analysis to Test Hypothesis 2

In testing Hypothesis 2, separate multiple regression analyses were performed for the three variables used to represent the dimension of resource expenditure during the shopping episode: purposeful investment of effort into the activity (*effort*); willingness to engage with the social and physical environment (*engage*); and spending more money than intended (*money*)¹. Each of these, taken as a dependent variable, was tested against the same five independent variables: goal importance for each of the four types of shopping goals and pre-shopping mood.

The five independent variables have already been shown to be correlated in Part II. It was, therefore, desirable to examine these intercorrelations before proceeding to the analysis of the relationships between the dependent and independent variables, to ensure that the latter were not a consequence of the former and thus guard against specification error in constructing the regression model. This analysis also allowed the risk of multicollinearity in the regression models to be assessed. Table 5.24 below displays the bivariate correlations among the independent variables.

Table 5.24: Correlations Among Independent Variables for Hypothesis 2

	Pre-shop^g Mood	Gift Seeking	Epistemic	Hedonic	Self-gift Seeking
Pre-shop^g Mood	1.000				
Gift Seeking	0.176**	1.000			
Epistemic	0.268**	0.185**	1.000		
Hedonic	0.276**	0.124**	0.431**	1.000	
Self-gift Seeking	0.246**	0.317**	0.432**	0.494**	1.000

* correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

** correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

There were some substantial correlations among the five independent variables.

Therefore, in order to ensure that when the relationships between the dependent and the dependent variables were examined, full and partial correlations (controlling for

¹ standardised scores were used to represent the *money* variable as this variable was revealed to have a non-normal distribution in Part I of this chapter.

the other four independent variables) were produced. These are displayed in Table 5.25.

Table 5.25: Full and Partial Correlations Between Goal Importance and Pre-shopping Mood Variables and Resource Expenditure

	effort		engage		money	
	full (r)	partial (pr)	full (r)	partial (pr)	full (r)	partial (pr)
Pre-shop^g Mood	0.107*	0.029	0.169**	0.068	0.038	-0.018
Gift Seeking	0.336**	0.301**	0.107*	0.039	0.132**	0.109*
Epistemic	0.160**	0.090	0.287**	0.177**	0.078	0.004
Hedonic	0.077	-0.011	0.253**	0.122**	0.134**	0.096*
Self-gift Seek^g	0.144**	0.001	0.192**	0.007	0.107*	0.013

The full correlations displayed in Table 5.25 indicated that several variables representing shoppers' prior motivational states (the goal importance and pre-shopping mood scores) were associated with each dimension of resource expenditure (to be assessed as the dependent variables). However, the partial correlations illustrated that this was often due to intercorrelations between the four types of shopping goals and mood. This information was used in the specification of the regression analyses performed to test Hypothesis 2, such that independent variables were only included in an equation if their partial correlation with a dimension of resource expenditure (as detailed in Table 5.25) was significant.

5.11.1 Purposeful Investment of *Effort* into the Shopping Activity

The first part of the analysis for Hypothesis 2 focuses on the dimension of resource expenditure that relates to the purposeful investment of *effort* into the shopping activity. The correlations in Table 5.25 reveal that *gift seeking goal importance* is the only independent variable that is significantly correlated with *effort* when the analysis controls for the other independent variables ($pr = 0.3$). This result suggests that the importance attributed to *gift seeking goals* explains approximately 9% of the variability in the *effort* data.

On substantive grounds, the relationship between *gift seeking goals* and *effort* comes as no surprise, although one might have expected it to be stronger. The relationship between *gift seeking goals* and *effort* invested in the shopping encounter can be linked to the suggestion that finding an appropriate gift is a goal with relatively clear criteria which, to be adequately met, require that the individual engages in behaviour that has proven to be effective in such endeavours. Substantial evidence is provided in the gift buying literature that suggests that individuals associate particular patterns of behaviour with finding gifts that are suitable for recipients of various types. For example, Otnes *et al.* (1993) highlight that while some individuals are considered easy to buy for, which makes shopping relatively simple, in other instances the relationship between the gift giver and receiver leads to gift buying strategies that are imbued with personal effort. For example, these labour intensive strategies are sometimes used when there is a desire to find a "meaningful" present or when the recipient is difficult to buy for and the giver has latched on to a gift idea that they are reluctant to relinquish even though they encounter obstacles in realising the idea. Furthermore, Christmas shopping is often a demanding task simply because of the volume of gifts that some people buy, feeling that numerous stocking fillers are needed, in addition to a main present, to make a "good Christmas". Fischer and Arnould's (1990) finding that some women consider gift buying to be a form of work that has to be carried out efficiently and effectively is reflective of the large number of gifts for which women are responsible.

One reason why the relationship between *gift seeking goals* and *effort* is not stronger might be that, although individuals have action plans outlining behaviour necessary to pursue goals in a chosen context, those plans are only enacted (as a form of approach behaviour) if when the person enters into the context he or she evaluates it to be conducive to relevant goals. It may be that although some individuals anticipated that they would be able to find appropriate gifts at the craft fair, their prior judgements were less accurate than is usual because of the unstandardised nature of this type of

retail outlet. Therefore, once inside the craft fair, some individuals did not engage in approach behaviour, searching for things to buy, because they thought that achievement of their *gift seeking goals* was unlikely in this context.

Pre-shopping mood does not appear to have a direct effect on *effort*, in that people's propensity to searched around the craft fair for something to buy was similar regardless of how they were feeling when they arrived. It was desirable, however, to explore whether mood moderated the relationship between *gift seeking goal importance* and *effort*. To analyse the potential mediating effects of *pre-shopping mood* it was intended to carry out a multiple regression incorporating *gift seeking goal importance*, *pre-shopping mood* and an interaction term (*gift seeking goal importance x pre-shopping mood*) as independent variables and *effort* as the dependent variable. It is noted in Appendix 5.3^e that the inclusion of interaction terms can cause problems because of multicollinearity between the interaction term and its component parts. In this case multicollinearity was problematic: for *gift seeking goal importance* and the interaction term $r = 0.651$, and for *pre-shopping mood* and the interaction term $r = 0.844$. Attempts were made to reduce or eradicate the problem by standardising the variables (prior to formation of the interaction term) as suggested by Cronbach (1987). However, because the two independent variables were themselves correlated, standardisation did not resolve the problem.

An alternative solution was to split the sample, grouping individuals in terms of low, medium and high *pre-shopping mood* scores, and to examine whether the correlations between *gift seeking goal importance* and *effort* differed for each of those groups. The groups were formed such that respondents with *pre-shopping mood* scores within one standard deviation of the mean were included in the *medium* category, while the *low* and *high* groups were composed of individuals who scored below or above those limits, respectively. The correlations for each mood group were as follows: low $r = 0.317$, medium $r = 0.327$, and high $r = 0.313$. There is not sufficient difference among

these results to detect a discernible pattern. It was therefore concluded that mood upon arrival at the retail setting did not serve to moderate the relationship between the *gift seeking goal importance* and the *effort* invested in the shopping activity.

On one hand, this finding conflicts with principles advanced in the mood literature which suggest that people in activated pleasant states would be more positive in their evaluations of the shopping context, more optimistic about achieving *gift seeking goals* there and, therefore, more likely to proceed with putting *effort* into pursuing those goals (Carver and Scheier, 1990). On the other hand, this outcome is not particularly surprising given that it has already been shown that *pre-shopping mood* had little influence on *gift seeking goal importance*. It would also appear to support the argument offered to explain the weak relationship between *pre-shopping mood* and *gift seeking goal importance* which suggested that the social obligation of gift giving and the time limits involved mean that there is pressure on people to engage, and succeed, in this task even if they "don't feel like it".

5.11.2 Willingness to *Engage* with the Social and Physical Environment

This section moves on to analyse the second dimension of resource expenditure: willingness to *engage* with the social and physical environment. The correlations in Table 5.25 reveal that there is only a limited degree of association between any of the independent variables and *engage* when the analysis controls for the other independent variables. There is evidence, however, of significant relationships with *epistemic goal importance* ($pr = 0.177$) and *hedonic goal importance* ($pr = 0.122$). To explore the nature and size of the influence of these two independent variables on *engage* a multiple regression analysis was performed. The results are provided in Table 5.26.

Table 5.26: Standard Regression Analysis of Engage (dependent variable) with Epistemic and Hedonic Goal Importance (independent variables)

Mult. R	R ²	Adj. R ²	St. Error	F statistics
0.321	0.103	0.986	1.255	F(2,395)=22.703 p=0.000

independent variables: (Constant), Epistemic and Hedonic goal importance

Variables	B	std. error of B	95% confidence interval for B		Beta	T	signif T
epistemic goal impc	0.221	0.053	0.116	0.326	0.219	4.145	0.000
hedonic goal impc	0.176	0.059	0.061	0.291	0.159	3.006	0.003
(Constant)	2.297	0.283	1.741	2.853		8.116	0.000

The results suggest that these two variables, between them, explain 10% of the variability in the *engage* score. In order to calculate the unique contributions of these two variables to the explanation of *engage* semi-partial correlations were computed. For *epistemic goal importance* $sr = 0.202$, indicating that it explained over 4% of the variability in *engage*, and for *hedonic goal importance* $sr = 0.141$, implying that it was uniquely responsible for 2% of the variance. The additional 4% of the variance explained was, therefore, shared variance.

The effects of both independent variables were significant at the 0.01 level. With regard to the size of the effect of the independent variables, the regression coefficient (B) for *epistemic goals* indicates that for an increase of 1 in the *epistemic goal importance* score there is an average increase of 0.22 in the *engage* score. For *hedonic goals* this figure is 0.18. Although these are statistically significant, the effects of these variables are not particularly strong.

Considering these results with regard to the literature on goal-directed behaviour, the influence of *epistemic goal importance* on respondents' willingness to *engage* with the environment suggests that people recognise that interaction with physical and social elements of the retail environment is required in the course of shopping activities in

order to derive epistemic benefits from the activity. This is similarly the case with *hedonic goals*. The notion that individuals are aware of the consequences of behaviour features in goal-based perspectives on motivation which claim that individuals plan activities that will help them to achieve goals in a particular context (Miller, Pribram and Galanter, 1960). With regard to why *epistemic* and *hedonic goals* did not explain more of the variance in *engage*, similar arguments can be advanced as were considered in the preceding section. That is, some individuals may not have proceeded with goal-directed approach behaviour once in the craft fair because their assessments at that point suggested that the setting was inappropriate for pursuing non-functional goals. Alternatively, individuals who had not anticipated pursuing recreational-type goals at the craft fair may have decided to pursue those ends if, once inside, they discovered that the craft fair was conducive to such pursuits.

Exploring these possible explanations raises a key problem of investigating goal-directed behaviour, that is, that individuals' action specific goals are relatively dynamic. Therefore, investigation of their motivational effect on behaviour would benefit from contributions from research adopting methodologies that enabled behaviour to be tracked more closely throughout the behavioural episode.

In addition, despite insights that can be gained by adopting the view that goal-directed behaviour is planned, the idea that some behaviour is simply a response to stimuli in the retail environment should not be ignored, particularly given that the research found that individuals' goals accounted for only 10% of the variability in individuals' willingness to *engage* with the retail environment. Moreover, other authors have recognised that a full explanation of behaviour within retail settings would account for a cognitive and behavioural component (McGoldrick and Pieros, 1996). It would be useful for future research to go beyond acknowledgement of both cognitive and environmental influences on behaviour in a retail environment and to test their respective and combined effects.

Having considered the effects of shopping goals on an individual's propensity to *engage* with the retail environment, it was also desirable to examine the possibility that the effects of *epistemic* and *hedonic goals* might be moderated by an individual's mood state prior to the retail encounter. The option of investigating this possibility by means of a multiple regression including interaction terms was rule out due to the problem of multicollinearity raised above in Section 5.11.1. Therefore, the relationships between *epistemic goal importance* and *engage* and *hedonic goal importance* and *engage* were treated separately by means of comparing bivariate correlations across three mood groups: low, medium and high.

The correlations between *epistemic goal importance* and *engage* for each mood group were: low $r = 0.280$, medium $r = 0.254$ and high $r = 0.276$. There is no clear pattern here to suggest that mood moderates the effects of *epistemic goal importance* on an individual's willingness to *engage* with the social and physical shopping environment.

The correlations between *hedonic goal importance* and *engage* for each mood group were as follows: low $r = 0.079$ ($p=0.54$), medium $r = 0.259$ ($p=0.05$) and high $r = 0.258$ ($p=0.00$). This suggests that mood may mediate the effects of *hedonic goals* on *engage*. On one hand, for those individuals who recorded a medium or high score for activated pleasant affect when they arrived at the craft fair, a relationship exists between the importance that they attribute to *hedonic goals* and their willingness to *engage* with the social and physical shopping environment. On the other hand, for those with a low mood score this relationship is absent. A scatter plot illustrated that among the low mood group, around two third of respondents with important *hedonic goals* rated the extent to which they *engaged* with the social and physical shopping environment below the mean score for all respondents. This appears to provide some evidence for the theoretical proposition that individuals reporting a low score for

activated pleasant affect have less resources available to undertake goal-directed activities and that people in negative moods are less likely to remain in and engage with the environment because their mood state acts as a source of information that the activity is not serving their goals (Hirt *et al.*, 1996).

5.11.3 Spent More Money than Intended - Money

The final dependent variable examined to represent resource expenditure related to individuals' monetary expenditure at the craft fair. The full and partial correlations recorded in Table 5.25 imply that there is little association between any of the independent variables and the dependent variable representing monetary expenditure. The two independent variables that were identified to have some relation to spending more money than intended they are *gift seeking goal importance* ($r = 0.132$, $pr = 0.109$) and *hedonic goal importance* ($r = 0.134$, $pr = 0.096$). The semi-partial correlations were calculated in order to establish the unique contribution of each of these to the variability in spending more money than intended. For *gift seeking goal importance* $sr = 0.118$ and for *hedonic goal importance* $sr = 0.122$, implying that they explained 1.4% and 1.5% respectively. The low levels of correlation that were detected between these variables were insufficient to merit further analysis.

The lack of association between individuals' shopping goals and monetary expenditure may be due to the wording of the attitude statement representing this aspect of resource expenditure: "I spent more money than I intended". Given that a large proportion of the sample intended to look for gifts at the craft fair it is likely that they went there prepared to spend some money while they were there. In some instances individuals are reasonably clear about the amount of money that they intend to spend on a certain person's gift. However, when people have several gifts to buy, as tends to be the case at Christmas, they often do not have a specific sum of money in mind which may have made it difficult to respond to this question.

This problem raises questions about how monetary expenditure should be measured as a dimension of resource expenditure (approach-avoidance behaviour) within a retail environment. The measurement used here followed that used by Donovan and Rossiter (1982). Other recent investigations of approach-avoidance behaviour within retail environments have preferred to record the actual amount of money spent during a visit to a store (Hesse *et al.*, 1997). Measuring how much was spent does not, however, provide any insight into whether monetary expenditure was in line with preconceived plans to purchase a particular item (expensive or inexpensive) unless this information is requested when the consumer arrives at the retail outlet.

5.11.4 Summary

In sum, the analyses conducted to test Hypothesis 2 have detected relationships between the different types of shopping goals and different types of resource expenditure, although none are particularly strong. First, *gift seeking goal importance* was associated with the degree of purposeful *effort* invested in the shopping activity to the extent that it explained 9% of the variability in the data. Secondly, the importance attributed to *epistemic* and *hedonic goals* was related to an individual's willingness to *engage* with the social and physical shopping environment. Between them, these two independent variables explained 10% of the variability in the independent variable. Finally, with regard to the propensity to spend more *money* than intended at the craft fair, none of the goal importance variables had a marked influence, although the influence of *gift seeking* and *hedonic goal importance* did emerge to be statistically significant. As far as the influence of *pre-shopping mood* is concerned, it did not directly effect any of the resource expenditure variables. It did not act as a moderator of the relationships between goal importance and resource expenditure either, except in one case: it did moderate the influence of *hedonic goal importance* on an individual's willingness to *engage* with the social and physical retail environment, such that individuals in unactivated unpleasant states tended not engage with the environment even if they had hedonic shopping goals. This may suggest that

people see shopping as a means of repairing their mood state but do not have the resources to put into the activity or, perhaps, they give up because their mood tells them that they are not progressing towards their hedonic goals as planned. In conclusion, the null hypothesis, that there is no evidence to suggest that goals or mood influence resource expenditure during shopping activities can be rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis. Nevertheless, there is a lot of variance in the in-store resource expenditure data that is not explained by the variables representing an individual's motivational state prior to the retail encounter.

PART IV: Testing Hypothesis 3

5.12 Introduction

This part of the chapter moves on to consider factors that determine whether or not individuals achieved their shopping goals. Individuals' motivational states - their commitment to shopping goals and their mood state - prior to the retail encounter were hypothesised to be key determinants of goal attainment. In addition, it was proposed that individuals' resource expenditure during the shopping episode would also effect goal attainment. Hypothesis 3, therefore, took the form:

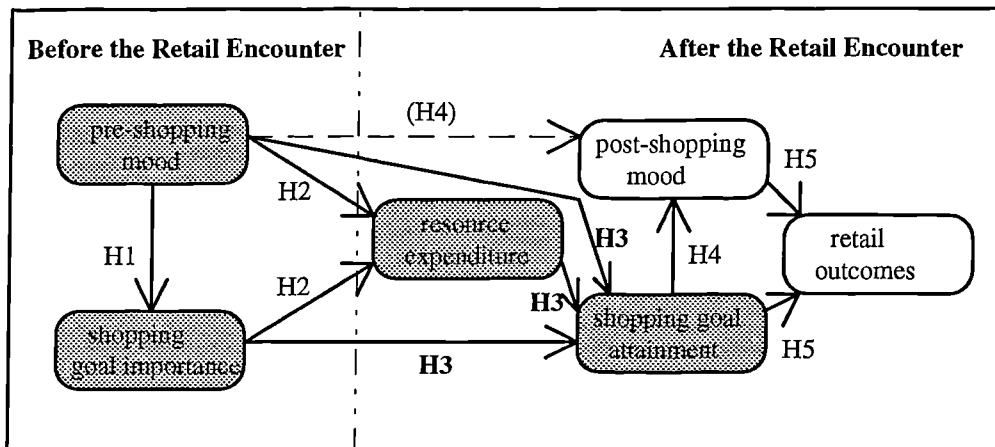
H₃: There is a positive association between goals that are identified as important in anticipation of a retail encounter and those that are attained during the encounter. Pre-shopping mood is expected to influence goal attainment either directly or via an interact with goal importance. In addition, resource expenditure during shopping activities is expected to contribute to the determination of goal attainment.

The null hypothesis is, therefore:

H₀₃: There is no evidence that a relationship exists between pre-shopping mood, shopping goals identified as important upon arrival at a retail outlet, resource expenditure during the retail encounter and attainment of shopping goals

The relationships of interest in Hypothesis 3 are portrayed in Figure 5.5.

Figure 5.5: Relationships Tested in Hypothesis 3



5.13 Analysis to Test Hypothesis 3

The following analyses test whether goal importance, pre-shopping mood and resource expenditure influenced attainment of each type of shopping goal. Of the three variables that represent resource expenditure - *effort*, *engage* and *money* - the latter is only considered a determinant of *hedonic goal attainment*. *Money* was not included as a determinant of *gift seeking* or *self-gift seeking goal attainment* as, rationally, it is a consequence rather than a cause of attaining these types of goals. Nor was it included as a determinant of *epistemic goal attainment*, because it was not considered to be a logical antecedent. By contrast, it was believed to be an antecedent of *hedonic goal attainment*. This belief was based on the suggestion in the self-gifts literature (e.g. Mick and DeMoss, 1990) that enjoyment of buying process, part of which is spending money, is a major source of pleasure in shopping activities.

The relationships of interest in Hypothesis 3 are explored in the following pages by a series of correlational analyses, as have been employed in testing the preceding hypotheses. For this analysis the dependent variables relating to the attainment of gift seeking and self-gift seeking goals are standardised. The reason for this was that the responses were not normally distributed (see Section 5.6.2). This approach to data transformation is widely recommended as a remedy for non-normality (e.g. Hair *et al.*, 1995; Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989), although with the caution that it can cause problems of interpretability. This is not a problem here because of the nature of the measurements.

As a first stage of analysis full and partial correlations between the independent and the dependent variables were examined to gain insights into which independent variables were relevant predictors of goal attainment for each type of goal. These are displayed in Table 5.27 below.

Table 5.27: Correlations between Dependent and Independent Variables for Hypothesis 3

	<i>Shopping Goal Attainment</i>							
	Gift Seeking		Epistemic		Hedonic		Self-gift Seek ^g	
	r	pr	r	pr	r	pr	r	pr
Pre-shop^g Mood	0.029	-0.043	0.151**	-0.015	0.181**	0.040	0.105*	-0.017
<i>Goal Imp^c</i>								
Gift Seeking	0.227**	0.210**	-0.017	-0.148**	-0.027	-0.146**	0.031	-0.072
Epistemic	0.003	-0.135**	0.471**	0.349**	0.227**	-0.070	0.212**	-0.001
Hedonic	0.063	0.021	0.336**	0.128**	0.489**	0.406**	0.243**	0.032
Self-gift Seek^g	0.050	-0.039	0.214**	-0.027	0.226**	-0.006	0.308**	0.224* *
<i>Resource Exp.</i>								
Effort	0.260**	0.043	0.192**	-0.018	0.188**	-0.022	0.122*	-0.068
Engage	0.405**	0.375**	0.493**	0.382**	0.525**	0.418**	0.432**	0.383* *
Money	—	—	—	—	0.217**	0.024	—	—

NB. for reasons outlined above, *money* was only accounted for in the calculation of the partial correlations of the independent variables with *hedonic goal attainment*.

* significant at the 0.05 level

** significant at the 0.01 level

The partial correlations in Table 5.27 indicate that attainment of each type of goal is related to whether or not an individual was committed to that goal prior to the retail encounter and the extent to which the person was willing to *engage* with the social and physical retail environment during the shopping episode. In addition, there is evidence that attainment of a certain type of shopping goal is helped or hindered by an individual's commitment to other complementary or competitive goals, for example, attainment of gift seeking goals appears to be inhibited when the person also has a strong commitment to epistemic goals. The relative influence of goal importance and resource expenditure variables in the explanation of goal attainment are explored further in the following pages. This information is provided by a series of regression analyses, conducted to assess the influences on goal attainment for each type of shopping goal.

5.13.1 Gift Seeking Goal Attainment

It is clear from the correlations that the three independent variables that influence *gift*

seeking goal attainment are *gift seeking goal importance*, *epistemic goal importance* and *engage*, all of which have significant full and partial correlations. It is notable that, of the three independent variables, that with the greatest correlation with attaining gift seeking goals was an individual's willingness to *engage* with the social and physical environment. Given that individuals committed to gift seeking goals were found in Section 5.11.1 to be more likely to put effort into purposefully searching for goods at the craft fair, one might expect the other resource expenditure variable, *effort*, to also be relevant to this analysis. However, because this variable is correlated with *gift seeking goal importance* it does not have a significant, unique effect on whether or not individuals are successful in achieving their gift seeking goals.

To explore the effects of those independent variables that appeared to have a direct effect on *gift seeking goal attainment*, a multiple regression analysis was conducted to further explore the nature and size of their influence. Table 5.28 displays the results of the regression.

Table 5.28: Standard Regression Analysis of Gift Seeking Goal Attainment (dependent variable) with Gift Seeking Goal Importance, Epistemic Goal Importance and Engage (independent variables)

Mult. R	R ²	Adj. R ²	St. Error	F statistics
0.470	0.221	0.215	0.886	F(3,394)=37.221 p=0.000

independent variables: (Constant), Gift Seeking goal importance, Epistemic goal importance and engage.

Variables	B	std. error	95% conf. interval for B		Beta	T	signif T
Gift Seeking Imp ^c	0.176	0.038	0.101	0.250	0.210	4.644	0.000
Epistemic Imp ^c	-0.122	0.036	-0.192	-0.051	-0.159	-3.381	0.001
Engage	0.324	0.035	0.255	0.393	0.428	9.208	0.000
(Constant)	-1.713	0.256	-2.216	-1.210		-6.693	0.000

Between them, the three independent variables explain nearly 22% of the variance in the data. All three of the independent variables entered into the regression had a significant effect of *gift seeking goal attainment*. Semi-partial correlations, computed to establish the unique contributions of each variable, revealed that the unique contribution of *engage* was 17%, for *gift seeking goal importance* it was 4% and the unique contribution of *epistemic goal importance* was 2%. This information is supported by the standardised coefficients (β) for the regression equation which indicate that *engage* is by far the most important determinant variable, followed by *gift seeking goal importance* and finally, *epistemic goal importance*.

The negative effect of *epistemic goal importance* indicates that when individuals are committed to epistemic goals, these compete against gift seeking goals during shopping activities because behaviour that serves one types of goal does not necessarily serve the other. In other words, although people may express a commitment to gift seeking goals, their epistemic goals distract them from the task.

One issue that this raises regards the categorisation of shopping goals. In much research into shopping motives (Babin, Darden and Griffin, 1994; Westbrook and Black, 1985) only two types of goals are distinguished: product-related (functional) goals and hedonic (non-functional) goals. In the present research, however, the author decided to distinguish between four types of shopping goals because, although this meant a sacrifice in terms of parsimony, this approach accounted for more of the variability in the data. The finding reported above, that epistemic goals detract a person from pursuing gift-seeking goals, provides support for this approach especially given that, elsewhere (Dawson *et al.*, 1990), items comparable to those representing epistemic goals in my research have been included in the scale used to measure product-related goals¹.

¹In the study conducted by Dawson *et al.* (1990), product-related motives included: *find a variety of new products* and *find unique crafts or foods*, which are similar to those items that represent the

In addition to the foregoing analysis it was also desirable to examine whether *pre-shopping mood* had a moderating effect on the influence of *gift seeking goal importance* on attainment of that type of shopping goal. This could not be explored by means of interaction effects in a regression equation, due to the problems of correlation discussed in Section 5.11.1. Therefore, it was examined by contrasting the relationship between *gift seeking importance* and *attainment* for low, medium and high mood groups.

The correlations between *gift seeking importance* and *attainment* for each mood group were: low $r = 0.374$ ($p=0.002$), medium $r = 0.179$ ($p=0.003$), and high $r = 0.208$ ($p=0.110$). There is a markedly greater correlation between *gift seeking goal importance* and *attainment* for the low mood group than for the medium and high groups. In order to interpret this result it is useful to recall the results of the analyses used to test Hypothesis 1. The outcome of these analyses suggested that individuals with lower scores on the mood scale rated gift seeking goals as less important than individuals in activated pleasant states. The average mean scores of the three mood groups for *gift seeking goal importance* are: low = 4.98 (s.d. = 1.46), medium = 5.38 (s.d. = 1.14) and high = 5.82 (s.d. = 1.01). Considering the correlations between *gift seeking goal importance* and *attainment*, it is no surprise that the correlations are stronger for individuals in the low mood group given that these individuals attributed less importance to the goal in the first place, and that their failure to attain the goal is in line with their relatively weak intentions to pursue it in the first place. Therefore, it appears that the cause of the differences in correlation levels detected here stem from mood's effect on an individual's motivational state prior to the retail encounter (i.e. individuals reporting a low score for goal importance).

epistemic dimension of shopping motivation in my research: *to feed my interest in crafts, to see/be inspired by people who design and make crafts, to look at creative things/see new designs.*

A more appropriate approach to testing for the moderating effects of mood was to examine whether individuals who indicated a similar level of commitment to *gift seeking goals* were more or less successful in achieving those goals depending on their *pre-shopping mood state*. This could be achieved by first splitting the data into groups in terms of *gift seeking goal importance* scores and, subsequently, creating sub-groups based on mood scores. By considering the correlations between goal importance and attainment in each sub-groups it would be possible to examine *gift seeking goal attainment* for individuals who attributed different levels of importance to those goals, taking into account mood state. This approach is problematic if the low, medium and high mood categories are used because the sub-groups created are relatively small, and the power of the statistics is reduced. To combat this problem four sub-groups were created based on high and low *gift seeking goal importance* scores and high and low mood scores, such that the high and low groups corresponded with those scores that were greater and lower than the mean score, respectively, for each variable. The correlations between goal importance and attainment for each of these sub-groups are illustrated below.

Table 5.29: Association Between Gift Seeking Goal Importance and Attainment Accounting for the Moderating Effects of Mood State

	low goal importance	high goal importance
low mood	0.118	0.158
high mood	0.241*	0.005

There is little evidence of either a linear or non-linear relationship revealed by these figures. The only sub-group for which a significant correlation emerged between *gift seeking goal importance* and *attainment* was the low goal importance, high mood state group which does not any insights that are meaningful in terms of the theoretical underpinning of this research. On the basis of the foregoing analyses, an individual's mood state prior to the retail encounter was only considered to have an effect on *gift*

seeking goal attainment via its effects on an individual's commitment to gift seeking goals upon arrival at the retail outlet.

In sum, the results of the above analyses suggest that the variable with the greatest influence on *gift seeking goal attainment* was an individual's willingness to *engage* with the social and physical shopping environment. A person's commitment to *gift seeking goals* prior to the retail encounter also had a positive, although relatively less important, relationship with *gift seeking goal attainment*. *Epistemic goal importance* had a minor effect, marked by the fact that it was a negative effect. Pre-shopping mood only has an effect on the attainment of *gift seeking goals* through its influence on shoppers' motivational state upon their arrival in the retail setting. Further discussion of these results is developed in Section 5.13.6.

5.13.2 Epistemic Goal Attainment

Table 5.27 indicates a number of independent variables that reveal significant levels of correlation with *epistemic goal attainment*. The greatest correlation is with *engage* ($pr = 0.382$), followed by *epistemic goal importance* ($pr = 0.349$), *hedonic goal importance* ($pr = 0.128$), and *gift seeking goal importance* ($pr = -0.148$). A standard regression analysis was carried out to provide more detail on these relationships, the results of which are shown in Table 5.30.

Table 5.30: Standard Regression Analysis of Epistemic Goal Attainment (dependent variable) with Engage, Epistemic, Hedonic and Gift Seeking Goal Importance (independent variables)

Mult. R	R ²	Adj. R ²	St. Error	F statistics
0.622	0.387	0.381	0.787	F(4,393)= p=0.000

independent variables: (Constant), Engage, Epistemic goal importance, Hedonic goal importance and Gift Seeking goal importance.

Variables	B	std. error of B	95% confidence interval for B		Beta	T	signif T
Engage	0.289	0.041	0.292	0.452	0.382	9.142	0.000
Epistemic Imp ^c	0.259	0.044	0.246	0.421	0.338	7.500	0.000
Hedonic Imp ^c	0.090	0.047	0.025	0.213	0.110	2.487	0.013
Gift Seeking Imp ^c	-0.112	0.043	-0.229	-0.059	-0.134	-3.321	0.001
(Constant)	-2.234	0.310	1.093	2.313		-9.277	0.000

A substantial amount of the variance in *epistemic goal attainment* (38%) was explained by this combination of independent variables. The semi-partial correlations revealed the unique contributions of the four independent variables to be as follows: engage = 13%, *epistemic goal importance* = 9%, *hedonic goal importance* = 1% and *gift seeking goal importance* = 2%. The remaining 13% of the explained variance was shared. These results suggest that *engage* and *epistemic goal importance* are particularly important determinants of *epistemic goal attainment*. In fact, a second regression analysis revealed that these two independent variables alone could account for 36% of the variability in the data. The relative importance of *engage* and *epistemic goal importance* is supported by the standardised coefficients (β), which illustrate the order of importance among the independent variables to be as is suggested by the sizes of the semi-partial correlations.

Beside the importance of *engage* and *epistemic goal importance* in explaining whether or not individuals achieve their epistemic goals, one result worth highlighting is the negative effect of *gift seeking goal importance*. This result supports the argument advanced in the previous section that gift seeking and epistemic goals compete against one another and individuals who express an intention to pursue both types of goals are likely to be less effective in attaining one, the other or both of these objectives.

Although pre-shopping mood did not have a direct effect on epistemic goal attainment, it was desirable to assess whether it interacted with *epistemic goal*

importance as a determinant of *epistemic goal attainment*. Because of the nature of the data (as explained in Section 5.13.1), this was achieved by creating four sub-groups, representing high and low *epistemic goal importance* and high and low mood, and calculating the correlations between *epistemic goal importance* and *attainment* for each of the four sub-groups. The results of these calculations are revealed in Table 5.31.

Table 5.31: Association Between Epistemic Goal Importance and Attainment Accounting for the Moderating Effects of Mood State

	low goal importance	high goal importance
low mood	0.315**	0.207
high mood	0.150	0.324**

There is a discernible pattern in these figures indicating an interaction between mood and *epistemic goal importance*. The low correlation for the *high mood/low goal importance* sub-group and the high correlation for the *high mood/high goal importance* sub-group indicates that individuals in the high mood groups were more likely (than their counterparts in the low mood group) to attain epistemic goals, regardless of initial attributions of importance to that type of shopping goal.

Explanation of *epistemic goal attainment* is, therefore, largely down to the degree to which individuals are willing to *engage* with the social and physical shopping environment and their intentions, prior to entering the retail outlet, to pursue epistemic goals. However, the effects of the latter variable are moderated by an individual's mood state upon arrival at the craft fair.

5.13.3 Hedonic Goal Attainment

Regarding *hedonic goal attainment*, it appears upon initial inspection of the correlations in Table 5.27, that *engage* ($pr = 0.469$) and *hedonic goal importance* (pr

= 0.412) are the most influential dependent variables and that *gift seeking goal importance* ($\beta = -0.108$) has a negative effect, but one of less consequence.

As for the other types of goal attainment a multiple regression was used as a means of examining these relationships further. Table 5.32 details the results of the analysis.

Table 5.32: Standard Regression Analysis of Hedonic Goal Attainment (dependent variable) with Engage, Hedonic and Gift Seeking Goal Importance (independent variables)

Mult. R	R ²	Adj. R ²	St. Error	F statistics
0.652	0.425	0.421	0.921	F(3,394)=97.187 p=0.000

independent variables: (Constant), Engage, Hedonic goal importance and Gift Seeking goal importance.

Variables	B	std. error of B	95% confidence interval for B		Beta	T	signif T
Engage	0.401	0.036	0.330	0.473	0.438	11.070	0.000
Hedonic Imp ^c	0.399	0.040	0.320	0.478	0.393	9.901	0.000
Gift Seeking Imp ^c	-0.124	0.039	-0.201	-0.047	-0.122	-3.169	0.016
(Constant)	1.944	0.276	1.402	2.486		7.050	0.000

The three independent variables included in the regression model for *hedonic goal attainment* explained 42% of the variance in the data. Computation of the semi-partial correlations revealed that, as for the other types of shopping goal, *engage* made the greatest unique contribution, explaining 18% of the variance. In addition, an individual's initial commitment to *hedonic goals* explained 14% of the variance. *Gift seeking goal importance* was the least important independent variable, making a unique contribution of only 1% to the explanation of individuals' judgements of their achievement of hedonic goals. A further 9% of the explained variance was shared among the independent variables. This order of importance amongst the independent variables is supported by the standardised coefficients (β).

One point that can be noted from the results of the regression analysis is that *gift seeking goal importance* had a negative influence on *hedonic goal attainment*. This indicates that, where people are committed to gift seeking goals they are less likely to succeed in their attempts to pursue hedonic goals. Although the negative influence of *gift seeking goal importance* was relatively small, it reflects a similar pattern as was observed in the analyses presented in Section 5.13.1 and 5.13.2, that is, that goals are sometimes in competition with one another and a compromise often has to be made. In some instances individuals prioritise goals prior to the relevant behavioural episode, however, in other cases, only as events unfold will a person be forced to clarify which goals are to take priority.

Regarding the interaction effects of *pre-shopping mood* in explaining *hedonic goal attainment*, it is necessary to consider mood's moderating effects on *hedonic goal importance*. Subgroups were created, as reported previously in this section, and correlations between *hedonic goal importance* and *attainment* calculated for each subgroup. The results are displayed in Table 5.33.

Table 5.33: Association Between Hedonic Goal Importance and Attainment Accounting for the Moderating Effects of Pre-shopping Mood

	low goal importance	high goal importance
low mood	0.381**	0.274*
high mood	0.324**	0.315**

The pattern revealed bears some similarity to that which was observed in the case of *epistemic goals* in that individuals in the *high mood* group, who expressed a commitment to *hedonic goals* prior to the retail encounter, were more likely to attain those goals than their counterparts in the *low mood* group. However, in this case, the correlation between *hedonic goal importance* and *attainment* for the *low hedonic*

goal importance/high mood sub-group is relatively strong, indicating that individuals who did not plan to pursue hedonic ends stuck to those plans.

With regard to *hedonic goal attainment*, therefore, it seems that an individual's willingness to *engage* with the social and physical shopping environment bears the greatest influence on whether or not an individual achieves his or her hedonic goals. In addition, the person's intentions to pursue hedonic goals during their shopping activities are a key determinant of actually achieving that end. This effect is moderated by mood such that individuals in activated pleasant states are more likely to attain hedonic goals despite the importance that they attributed to them prior to the retail encounter. *Hedonic goal attainment* tends to be more likely to be attained where people's shopping activities are not dictated by the need to find gifts.

5.13.4 Self-gift Seeking Goal Attainment

The final dependent variable to be analysed in testing Hypothesis 3 is *self-gift seeking goal attainment*. The independent variables that have an influence of some consequence on *self-gift seeking goal attainment* appear to be restricted to *engage* ($pr = 0.424$) and *self-gift seeking goal importance* ($pr = 0.209$). The other variables that were found to be significantly correlated with *self-gift seeking goal attainment* were only related due to their correlation with other independent variables. The regression analysis presented below, therefore, includes just two independent variables. The results the analysis are displayed in Table 5.34.

Table 5.34: Standard Regression Analysis of Self-gift Seeking Goal Attainment (dependent variable) with Engage, Self-gift Seeking Goal Importance (independent variables)

Mult. R	R ²	Adj. R ²	St. Error	F statistics
0.489	0.240	0.236	0.874	F(2,395)=62.210 p=0.000

independent variables: (Constant), Engage and Self-gift Seeking goal importance.

Variables	B	std. error of B	95% confidence interval for B		Beta	T	signif T
Engage	0.293	0.034	0.227	0.360	0.388	8.671	0.000
Self-gift Seek ^g Imp ^c	0.170	0.032	0.106	0.233	0.234	5.225	0.000
(Constant)	-1.916	0.180	-2.26987	-1.562		-10.649	0.000

The regression analysis indicated that this model explains nearly 24% of the variance in the *self-gift seeking goal attainment* data. Semi-partial correlations revealed that the unique contribution of *engage* to the explanation of the variance in the data was 14%, while a further 5% was contributed by *self-gift seeking goal importance*. The remaining 4% of the explained variance was shared. The β s also indicate that *engage* is the more important predictor variable.

As for the preceding analyses, to examine whether mood state had a moderating effect on the influence of *self-gift seeking goal importance* on an individual's attainment of self-gift seeking goals the respondents were split into four sub-groups. The correlations between *self-gift seeking goal importance* and *attainment* for each sub-group are displayed in Table 5.35.

Table 5.35: Association Between Self-gift Goal Importance and Attainment Accounting for the Moderating Effects of Mood State

	low goal importance	high goal importance
low mood	0.126	0.227*
high mood	0.477**	0.158

The results of this analysis imply that amongst the individuals who suggested that they were committed to self-gift seeking goals, those in the low mood group (incorporating people in unactivated unpleasant states) were more likely to achieve their goals than their counterparts in the high mood group (including people in activated pleasant states). This may be explained by reference to the literature which suggests that individuals in negative mood states use self-gifts as a means of mood

repair (Elliot, 1994) and are therefore motivated to pursue these goals. On the other hand, there are various theoretical proposition which suggest that a relatively strong correlation should be observed for the sub-group of individuals in positive moods who expressed their committed to self-gift seeking goals prior to the retail encounter. Yet, the results in Table 5.35 indicate that this correlation is relatively low and is not significant at the 0.05 level.

With regard to those who rated self-gift seeking goals as important, further understanding of why the correlations between importance and attainment were greater for those in the low mood group than for those in the high mood group was sought by reference to scatter plots. The plots revealed that those in the low mood groups who rated self-gifts to be very important were likely to rate attainment of the goal similarly high, whereas those for whom goal importance just exceeded the average score were more likely to record lower goal attainment. This pattern produced a high correlation between goal importance and attainment within this group. By contrast, individuals in the high mood group who rated self-gift goals as important were equally likely to record a high score for goal attainment whether their goal importance rating was towards the middle or the top end of the scale. With regard to those individuals who were not committed to self-gift seeking goals, this pattern was reversed: individuals in the low mood group rated goal attainment low whether their goal importance score was towards the bottom or middle of the scale, whereas for individuals in the high mood group ratings for goal attainment were more reflective of whether a low or medium score had been attributed to self-gift seeking prior to the retail encounter.

To summarise, the analysis of the factors that explain *self-gift seeking goal attainment* revealed a similar result as for the other types of shopping goal: the more important of the explanatory variables was an individual's willingness to *engage* with the social and physical retail environment; but an individual's commitment to *self-gift seeking*

goals prior to shopping was also a relevant determinant of the person's success in achieving those goals. There was some evidence that *pre-shopping mood* mediated the effects of *self-gift seeking goal importance* on *goal attainment* such that individuals in activate pleasant states (the high mood group) were generally more positive in their assessments their *gift seeking goal attainment*.

5.13.5 Summary of Results of Tests for Hypothesis 3

The relationships identified in the analyses performed to test Hypothesis 3 are summarised by the standardised regression coefficients below.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{gift seeking goal attainment} &= 0.43 (\text{engage}) + 0.21 (\text{gift seeking imp}^c) \\ &- 0.16 (\text{epistemic imp}^c) \end{aligned}$$

total variance explained = 22%

$$\begin{aligned} \text{epistemic goal attainment} &= 0.38 (\text{engage}) + 0.34 (\text{epistemic imp}^c) \\ &- 0.13 (\text{gift seeking imp}^c) + 0.11 (\text{hedonic imp}^c) \end{aligned}$$

total variance explained = 38%

$$\begin{aligned} \text{hedonic goal attainment} &= 0.44 (\text{engage}) + 0.39 (\text{hedonic imp}^c) - 0.12 (\text{gift seeking} \\ &\text{imp}^c) \end{aligned}$$

total variance explained = 42%

$$\begin{aligned} \text{self-gift seeking goal attainment} &= 0.39 (\text{engage}) + 0.23 (\text{self-gift imp}^c) \end{aligned}$$

total variance explained = 24%

The standardised coefficients indicate that, in each case, variables that made a significant contribution in explaining an individual's attainment of shopping goals included the person's willingness to *engage* with the retail environment and his or her commitment to goals prior to the retail encounter. The effect of pre-shopping mood operates partly via its influence on goal importance, that is, people in activated pleasant states expressed a higher level of commitment to shopping goals and thus were more likely to achieve those goals. In addition, there was some evidence that, amongst individuals who expressed a similar level of commitment to goals, those in

activated pleasant state were likely to be more positive in their assessments of whether those goals had been achieved. Various evidence of this effect was revealed for *epistemic*, *hedonic* and *self-gift seeking goals* but mood did not appear moderate the effects of goal importance in attainment where *gift-seeking goals* were concerned.

Given these results, the null hypothesis regarding the effects of goal importance and resource expenditure on goal attainment can be rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis that suggests that a relationship does exist between these variables. The null hypothesis regarding the effects of pre-shopping mood on goal attainment might also be rejected, but with the caution that only limited evidence of this relationship was provided and that further research is required to be confident that pre-shopping mood does mediate the relationship between goal importance and attainment.

5.13.6 Discussion of Results of Tests for Hypothesis 3

The analyses reported above treated attainment of each type of shopping goal separately. The degree to which each of the dependent variables could be explained by the predictor variables included in this research ranged from 22 to 42%. Amongst the four types of shopping goals, the highest levels of explained variance were observed for *hedonic* (adjusted $R^2 = 42\%$) and *epistemic goal attainment* (adjusted $R^2 = 38\%$). It comes as no surprise that the two types of goals for which assessments of attainment are wholly subjective are easiest to predict from intentions of goal pursuit expressed before the retail encounter. It was proposed earlier that goals relating to hedonic and epistemic benefits are more likely to be judged to have been attained, simply because individuals' criteria for achievement of such goals are vague. An alternative explanation can be drawn from theories of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957). One of the conditions under which dissonance arises is when expectations are disconfirmed. It was explained in Chapter 2 that the goals that an individual commits him or herself to in a particular context are established with the belief that the context is likely to facilitate attainment of those goals (Miller, Pribram

and Galanter, 1960). A person who experiences cognitive dissonance due to the inconsistency between prior beliefs about the possibility of attaining goals in a particular setting and assessments of benefits that were derived from the experience might modify those assessments by way of a dissonance reducing strategy. It is more feasible to bias one's assessments in this way, however, when the standards against which the judgement is made are vague.

It also emerged in the results that *gift seeking goal importance* was negatively related to *hedonic* and *epistemic goal attainment*. The implication of this result is that individuals for whom the objective of finding gifts was an imperative were less able to pursue and fulfil their goals relating to enjoyment of the shopping experience. This result provides some support for the gift giving research which argues that gift shopping is, in many instances, work-oriented rather than simply a pleasurable activity (Babin, Darden and Griffin, 1994; Otnes *et al.*, 1993; Fischer and Arnould, 1990). This finding is also reflective of the principles of goal-directed behaviour which suggest that individuals prioritise amongst goals that they wish to pursue in a particular situation, devoting more attention to those that are more pressing (see Section 2.5.1.2). The fact that individuals expressed a commitment to both functional and non-functional goals when, in practice, these proved to not to be complementary, also indicates that plans for goal pursuit are often vague and ill thought out, as suggested by Oatley (1988).

As noted, the explained variance for attainment of purchase-related goals was lower than for *hedonic* and *epistemic goal attainment*. Given the less predictable nature of goal attainment when a purchase is involved, however, reasonable levels of explained variance were observed for *gift seeking* (adjusted $R^2 = 22\%$) and *self-gift seeking goal attainment* (adjusted $R^2 = 24\%$). The greater amount of variance explained for self-gift seeking may reflect the relative ease or difficulty of finding appropriate self-gifts and gifts. On the one hand, items suitable for self-gifts are easier to purchase,

not only because people are relatively clear about what they like, but also because in self-gift buying it is often the purchasing process that is important rather than the purchase itself (Langrehr, 1991). On the other hand, where gifts for others are concerned, the characteristics of the giver, receiver and perceptions of the relationship between the two can make it very difficult to find an appropriate present (Otnes et al., 1993; Belk and Coon, 1993). Nevertheless, there is only a 2% difference between the efficiency of the models for these two variables and this small difference may not be reliable.

One of the most striking results to emerge from the analyses conducted to test Hypothesis 3 was the outcome that an individual's willingness to *engage* with the social and physical retail environment was the more important predictor of *goal attainment* - for each type of goal (correlations between *engage* and the *goal attainment* variables were all between 0.41 and 0.53, its unique contribution to explained variance ranged from 13 to 18%). Goal theorists suggest that individuals choose to enter contexts that they believe will enable them to enact action plans by which they can advance towards certain goals. Such evaluations of situational contexts take place in the preactional phases of goal-directed behaviour and lead to the formation of goals. Once a person enters into the context, those evaluations are revised. At this point, if the individual still considers the context to be conducive to achieving the relevant goals he or she engages in approach behaviour (Pervin, 1989). On the basis of these principles, it is reasonably to suggest that the reason why a person's willingness to *engage* with the retail environment was consistently related to goal attainment is because those people who exhibited this type of approach behaviour were those who judged the craft fair context to be conducive to their goals.

One further issue that merits consideration is why the amount of *effort* that individuals invested during their shopping activities did not make a significant unique contribution to the explanation of goal attainment. This perhaps reflects an issue that individuals

who proceeded to *engage* with the retail environment were those who, upon entering the setting, evaluated the craft fair and the merchandise favourably. It is reasonable to assume that these individuals were more likely to satisfy product-related, as well as recreation-related goals in such a context than people who are searching for things to purchase but who are not in the "right" place to find appropriate items.

With regard to Hypothesis 3, therefore, the points of discussion relate to the explanations for the relatively high level of explained variance for *hedonic* and *epistemic goal attainment* and the importance of an individual's willingness to *engage* with the social and physical retail environment as a determinant of attainment of all types of shopping goals. The discussion of the former point centred around the issue of the vagueness of expectations relating to hedonic and epistemic goals and possible judgmental bias influenced by a desire to limit cognitive dissonance. As regards the latter point, it was suggested that individuals who proceed with action plans designed to achieve certain goals are those whose evaluations of the craft fair, once inside the outlet, indicated that relevant goals could be achieved in this retail context. The discussion explored the view that an individual's desire to *engage* with the retail environment was indicative of the person's liking for the context and the merchandise. Following this line of argument, it was proposed that the link between *engage* and attainment of product-related goals may be due to people being more likely to find goods that they deemed to be suitable in a shopping context that appealed to them.

PART V: Testing Hypothesis 4

5.14 Introduction

Hypothesis 4 concerned the relationship between an individual's attainment of shopping goals and the change in a person's mood state between arriving at and leaving the craft fair. The argument supporting this hypothesis was based on the notion that positive affect is experienced where individuals feel that progress is being made towards attainment of important goals (Emmons and Diener, 1986). Moreover, goal attainment provides positive input into evaluations of self-efficacy and, self-efficacy being one of the resources that contributes to mood, there is a further indication that mood improves with success in the pursuit of goals. Hypothesis 4 claimed that:

H₄: There is a positive relationship between the attainment of important goals and the change in mood state following the retail encounter.

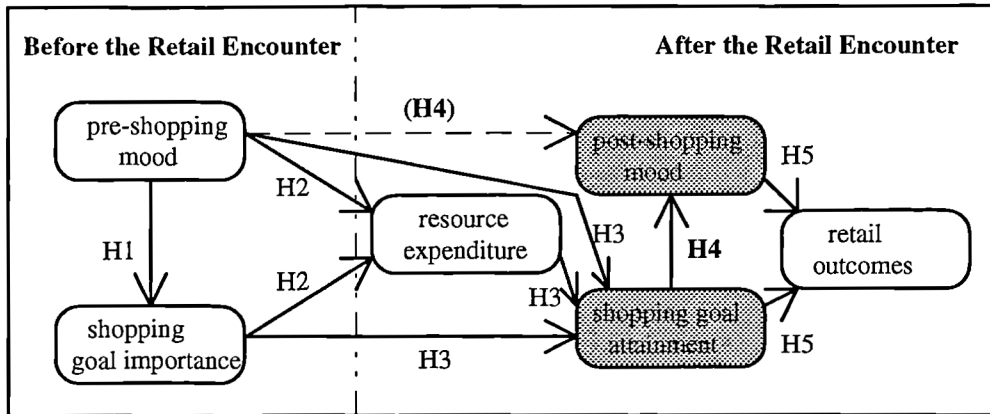
The corresponding null hypothesis was:

H₀₄: There is no evidence of a relationship between the attainment of important goals and the change in mood state between entering and leaving the craft fair.

It is highlighted in the hypothesis that the focus here is on the relationship between *goal attainment* and *mood change*, rather than simply the effects of *goal attainment* on *post-shopping mood*. It was desirable to focus on *mood change* in this analysis because if an individual's mood state prior to the retail encounter is not taken into account, the implication is that all mood effects are due to *goal attainment*. In reality, however, individuals' mood states are only likely to be affected by shopping to a limited degree and other happenings in their daily life are likely to be responsible for their base mood state. The relationships of interest in this hypothesis are illustrated in Figure 5.6. The solid line indicates the anticipated relationship between *goal*

attainment and post-shopping mood but the broken line indicates that it is the *change* from pre-shopping to post-shopping mood that is actually the focus of interest here.

Figure 5.6: Relationships Tested in Hypothesis 4

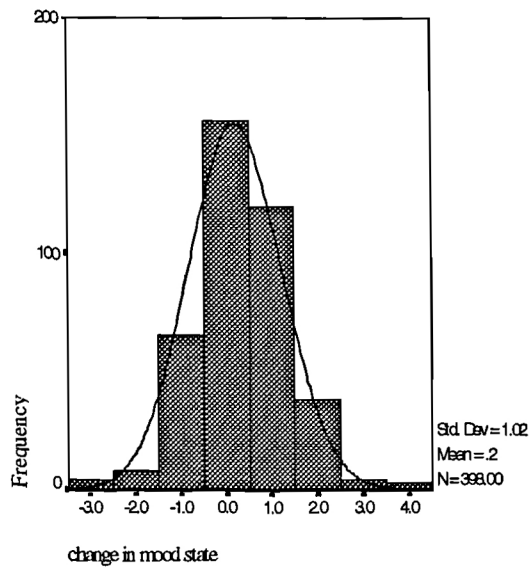


5.15 Analysis to Test Hypothesis 4

In order to be able to analyse the effects of goal attainment on mood change it was first necessary to calculate the difference between respondents' *pre-shopping mood* and *post-shopping mood*. This was achieved by subtracting the former from the latter. A histogram illustrating the distribution of the *mood change* scores is provided in Figure 5.7. The mean of the *mood change* scores was close to zero at 0.20 and the standard deviation was 1.02.

Figure 5.7 illustrates that the scores for *mood change* were approximately normally distributed, although there was a slight negative skew, indicating a slightly greater likelihood that a person's mood state would improve rather than deteriorate after shopping at the craft fair. Further calculations revealed that 209 individuals had experienced a positive shift in mood state, 141 experienced a negative shift in mood and 48 respondent reported their mood state to be comparable before and after shopping.

Figure 5.7: Distribution of the Mood Change Scores



To assess the relationship between *goal attainment* and *mood change* a multiple regression was carried out. Beforehand, however, full and partial correlations between mood change and each type of shopping goal were computed in order to avoid misspecification of the regression model¹. These correlations are detailed in Table 5.36.

Table 5.36: Correlations between Mood Change and Shopping Goal Attainment

	Mood Change	
	(r)	(pr)
Gift Seeking Attain ^t	0.313**	0.153**
Epistemic Attain ^t	0.442**	0.239**
Hedonic Attain ^t	0.391**	0.125**
Self-gift Seeking Attain ^t	0.344**	0.073

The full and partial correlations between the variables representing *attainment* of the four types of shopping goals and *mood change* are all significant, apart from the partial correlation between *self-gift seeking goal attainment* and *mood change*. This indicates that *self-gift seeking goal attainment* is only correlated with mood change

¹NB. standardised scores were used for goal attainment because, as previously indicated, some were not normally distributed.

because of its relationship with the other types of goal attainment and, therefore, would not be relevant as a predictor variable in the regression model. So, the multiple regression analysis performed to test the effects of goal attainment on mood change included *gift seeking*, *epistemic* and *hedonic goal attainment* as independent variables. The output of this analysis is displayed in Table 5.37.

Table 5.37: Standard Regression Analysis of Mood Change (dependent variable) with Gift Seeking, Epistemic and Hedonic Goal Attainment (independent variables)

Mult. R	R ²	Adj. R ²	std. error	F statistics
0.501	0.251	0.245	0.888	F(3,394)=43.95 p=0.000

independent variables: (Constant), Gift Seeking, Epistemic and Hedonic Goal Attainment.

Variables	B	std. error	95% confidence interval for B		β	T	signif. T
Gift Seekg Attain ^t	0.192	0.047	0.100	0.284	0.189	4.102	0.000
Epistemic Attain ^t	0.295	0.057	0.183	0.407	0.289	5.174	0.000
Hedonic Attain ^t	0.167	0.057	0.056	0.297	0.164	2.943	0.003
(Constant)	0.199	0.045	0.112	0.287		4.474	0.000

The results of the regression analysis revealed that 25% of the variance in mood change scores was accounted for by the goal attainment variables. Of that 25%, 5% was uniquely contributed by *epistemic goal attainment*, 3% by *gift seeking goal attainment* and 1.5% by *hedonic goal attainment*. The remaining 15% of the explained variance was shared between the three independent variables. Further evidence of the relative importance of the three variables is provided by the beta coefficients (β) which show *epistemic goal attainment* to be the more important variable followed by *gift seeking* and *hedonic goal attainment*. The influence of each independent variable was shown to be significant at the 0.01 level.

This analysis, therefore, provides evidence that attainment of shopping goals does influence post-shopping mood and, therefore, suggests that the null hypothesis can be rejected.

5.15.1 Discussion of Results of Tests for Hypothesis 4

Before discussing the results of the regression analysis it is worth noting the outcome that *self-gift seeking goal attainment* did not make a marked contribution to the explanation of mood change. This is surprising given substantial evidence in the consumer behaviour literature that individuals use self-gifts as a means of maintaining or repairing their mood state. One explanation for this relates to sampling. The research that focuses on mood management and self-gifts is confined to a sample of individuals who engage in this type of activity or, at least, the research asks respondents to refer to an occasion when they have engaged in self-gift buying behaviour (Woodruffe, 1996; Mick, DeMoss and Faber, 1992). The lack of evidence of the effects of self-gift seeking goals on mood change may indicate that buying self-gifts for the purpose of mood management is not particularly prevalent. Another explanation may be that, in terms of mood enhancement, the purchase of something for oneself has little benefit over above an enjoyable shopping experience that delivers epistemic and hedonic benefits. If so, Langrehr's (1991) suggestion that people buy so they can shop, rather than shop so they can buy would seem to be well founded.

With regard to the results of the regression analysis, one notable outcome is the comparative importance of *epistemic goal attainment* and *hedonic goal attainment* in the explanation of mood change. Although a substantial amount of the contribution to explained variance made by these two variables is shared, *epistemic goal attainment* is indicated to be the more important. In considering this result it is useful to refer back to the discussion of non-functional shopping goals in Chapter 2. In that discussion, it was emphasised that a key benefit of shopping is that retailers provide a unique opportunity for individuals searching for "aesthetic stimulation" by enabling them to enjoy close encounters with the object of interest (Falk, 1997). That is, their experience is interactive because they are not only able to see the goods on sale, but also to touch the goods, hear them and try them. Moreover, they are able to talk about them with salespeople.

In my research the items representing epistemic goals (*to see/be inspired by people who make crafts, see things that are creative/unique*) are more reflective of this type of interaction with elements of the retail environment than are the items that represent hedonic goals (*spend time in a pleasant setting and have fun/enjoy myself*).

Therefore, the finding that *epistemic goal attainment* was more important than *hedonic goal attainment* may indicate that a shift in individuals' mood states to a more activated, pleasurable state is dependent on pursuing goals which involve active interaction with the shopping environment. Where an individual's role in the pursuit of goals is more passive, attainment of that goal may be found to be a similarly important determinant of mood change if the measurement tool reflects only the pleasurable valence of mood states as opposed to both the degree of pleasure and level of activation. The distinction between goals that are pursued via active versus passive behaviour is worth bearing in mind when considering appropriate classifications of shopping goals.

With reference to the influence of *gift seeking goal attainment*, the results provide some support for the proposition that finding gifts produces positive feelings associated with the reward of a job well done (Fischer and Arnould, 1990). The functional perspective of mood would also support this position because proponents of this perspective emphasise that mood state fluctuates with evaluations of how the availability of personal resources compares with demands of future activities (Morris, forthcoming). Given that there should be fewer demands facing those individuals who have found gifts than those who have not, one would expect change in mood state to vary in accordance with *gift seeking goal attainment*. More broadly, this view of mood indicates that activities that an individual is moving on to after shopping would be a major factor and future research might explore this.

One limitation of this part of the analysis, which may have had some influence on the results, is that the analysis of relationship between goal attainment and mood change

reported above does not take into account individuals' commitment to goals. On one hand, achievement of a particular goal may be a positive thing, whether or not the goal was specified as important prior to the retail encounter. On the other hand failure to achieve a goal may have negative implications but only if it was important for the person concerned. For example, if an individual did not intend to look for gifts at the craft fair, one would not expect a low score for goal attainment to have any effect on mood. Some exploration of the consequences of excluding this information from the analysis were explored by considering scatter plots. Relationships between goal attainment for one type of goal and mood change were plotted and the cases were labelled with the corresponding goal importance score. This revealed a small number of outliers whose position could be explained by the reasoning given above. In particular, the few individuals whose mood state shifted upwards rather than downward with failure to achieve a goal were generally found not to have specified that goal to be important. Presumably, the upward shift was due to attainment of other important goals. This problem might be better addressed in future research, however, by including an additional variable which indicates whether or not a person was delighted or disappointed by their level of goal attainment.

To conclude, attainment of goals does influence change in shoppers' mood states between entering and leaving the retail outlet. There was substantial overlap in the contribution of the independent variables to the explanation of mood change but attainment of epistemic and gift seeking goals were the more important independent variables.

PART VI: Analysis for Hypothesis 5

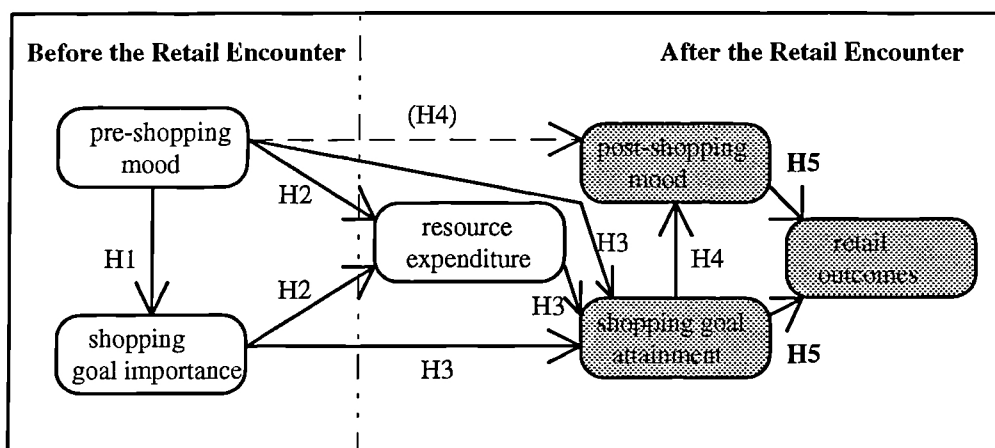
5.16 Introduction

The final hypothesis of this research concerned the effects of individuals' goal pursuit and mood on retail outcomes relating to consumers' enjoyment of the shopping, preference for and intentions to return to the retail outlet. Hypothesis 5 proposed that retail outcomes are influenced by the attainment of goals such that individuals who are successful in the pursuit of their goals are likely to evaluate their shopping experience and the retail encounter more favourably. With regard to the effects of mood it was hypothesised that retail outcomes would be influenced by a person's post-shopping mood state. This measure of mood was employed because it was considered to account for both a person's general mood state and mood changes that had occurred due to the shopping experience. The null hypothesis used as a basis for testing these relationships was as follows:

H₀₅: There is no evidence that retail outcomes are influenced by the attainment of shopping goals and post-shopping mood.

Figure 5.8 illustrates the relationships of interest in Hypothesis 5.

Figure 5.8: Relationships Tested in Hypothesis 5



5.17 Analysis to Test Hypothesis 5

To test the relationships specified in Hypothesis 5 a multiple regression analysis was used. In order to test the relevance of the various independent variables, and their appropriateness for inclusion in the model, full and partial correlations between the independent and the dependent variables were computed¹. These are displayed in Table 5.38.

Table 5.38: Full and Partial Correlations Between Goal Attainment, Post-shopping Mood and Retail Outcomes

	Retail Outcomes	
	(r)	(pr)
Gift Seeking Attain ^t	0.475**	0.320**
Epistemic Attain ^t	0.526**	0.186**
Hedonic Attain ^t	0.588**	0.356**
Self-gift Seeking Attain ^t	0.447**	0.012
Post-shopping Mood	0.474**	0.135**

** significant at the 0.01 level

There are significant full and partial correlations between *retail outcomes* and *post-shopping mood* and *gift seeking*, *epistemic* and *hedonic goal attainment*. The only independent variable which was not shown to have a significant partial correlation with *retail outcomes* is *self-gift seeking goal attainment*. The regression analysis was therefore performed using the four relevant independent variables. The output of the regression analysis is provided in Table 5.39.

Table 5.39 Standard Regression Analysis of Retail Outcomes (dependent variable) with Gift Seeking, Epistemic and Hedonic Goal Attainment and Post-Shopping Mood (independent variables)

Mult. R	R ²	Adj. R ²	std. error	F statistics
0.701	0.491	0.486	0.965	F(4,393)=94080 p=0.000

independent variables: (Constant), Gift Seeking, Epistemic and Hedonic Goal Attainment, Post-shopping Mood.

¹NB As for the tests of Hypothesis 4, standardised scores were used for goal attainment because scores for gift seeking and self-gift seeking goal attainment were not normally distributed.

Variables	B	std. error of B	95% confidence interval for B		Beta	T	signif. T
Gift Seek ^g Attain ^t	0.402	0.052	0.300	0.503	0.298	7.795	0.000
Epistemic Attain ^t	0.225	0.065	0.098	0.353	0.167	3.479	0.001
Hedonic Attain ^t	0.459	0.064	0.334	0.585	0.341	7.190	0.000
Post-shopping Mood	0.145	0.051	0.046	0.245	0.127	2.866	0.004
(Constant)	4.190	0.192	3.812	4.569		21.780	0.000

The results show that 49% of the variance in the *retail outcomes* score was explained by the independent variables in the analysis. Computation of the semi-partial correlations indicated that of this explained variance, 8% was uniquely accounted for by *gift seeking goal attainment*, 7% by *hedonic goal attainment*, 1.5% by *epistemic goal attainment* and 1% by *post-shopping mood*. The remaining 31% of the variance was shared between the independent variables. Although all of the independent variables were shown to have a significant effect on *retail outcomes*, further analysis showed that 45% of the explained variance could be accounted for by *gift seeking* and *hedonic goal attainment* alone. This suggests that the other two variables, although relevant to the explanation of *retail outcomes*, are somewhat superfluous predictor variables when *gift seeking* and *hedonic goal attainment* are also taken into account.

The results of the regression analysis indicate that shopping *goal attainment* and *post-shopping mood* influence retail outcomes such that individuals who achieve desired goals are more likely to evaluate the shopping experience and the retail outlet more positively. Therefore, the null hypothesis can be rejected.

5.17.1 Discussion of the Results of Tests for Hypothesis 5

On a general level, the outcome that individuals who attained shopping goals evaluated the shopping experience and the retail outlet more favourably was in line with the literature on goal-directed behaviour. Ford (1992) emphasises that goal attainment provides cognitive and affective feedback about the on how well the context served as a means for goal pursuit. Contexts which have facilitated progression towards goals in present circumstances are likely to be positively

evaluated on the basis that they are likely to serve a similarly instrumental role in the future (Heckhausen, 1991). With specific reference to the retail context, Dawson *et al.* (1990) suggested that when goals are not fulfilled the consumer may feel some resentment towards the retail institution.

Perhaps the most notable finding of the analysis is that attainment of hedonic and gift seeking goals had a similar and substantial effects on *retail outcomes*. The importance of *hedonic goal attainment* reflects Pervin's (1977) proposition that individuals distinguish amongst means for goal pursuit on the basis that some are more pleasant than others and that future decisions to select particular means for pursuing a goal are strongly influenced by past experiences of similar situations. Given that the measures used to assess hedonic goals reflected the intrinsic pleasures of spending time in the retail outlet, it is not surprising that this was identified as a key influence on judgements of enjoyment of the shopping activity, preference for and intentions to return to the retail outlet. The similar level of importance found for *gift seeking goal attainment* is a reminder that despite the importance of "fantasy, feelings and fun" (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982) in consumption-related activities and the recent emphasis on the recreational shopper (Groeppe and Bloch, 1990), where individuals have more functional shopping goals these play an important role in shopping motivation.

The limited importance of *epistemic goal attainment* and *post-shopping mood* does not indicate that they do not influence *retail outcomes*, but that they are not key to the explanation of retail outcomes when *hedonic* and *gift seeking goal attainment* are also included in the analysis. A relationship between *post-shopping mood* and *retail outcomes* would be expected given that the substantial amount of evidence provided by associationist school of mood research which suggests that mood state influences individuals' judgements in a mood-congruent direction (Gardner, 1985; Isen, 1982). Moreover, research has demonstrated that mood serves as a source of information for

making assessments of happiness and satisfaction (Schwartz and Clore, 1983), which would feed into the evaluative judgements of preference and future choice that represent *retail outcomes* in this research. With specific regard to the retail context, Dawson *et al.* (1990) found that an individual's emotional state measured during the shopping episode was related to retail outcomes.

Despite the links between the general findings of this analysis and the existing literature, the analysis conducted to test Hypothesis 5 suffered from the same problem as was highlighted for Hypothesis 4. That is, the analysis considers the effects of goal attainment regardless of the level of importance attributed to goals prior to the retail encounter (see Section 5.15.1).

5.17.2 Summary

In sum, goal attainment and post-shopping mood, together, explained 49% of the variance in the data for retail outcomes (in terms of enjoyment, preference and intentions to return to the craft fair). The independent variables that emerged as, relatively, most important were *hedonic* and *gift seeking goal attainment*, serving to highlight that a balance is required between meeting individuals' functional and non-functional goals.

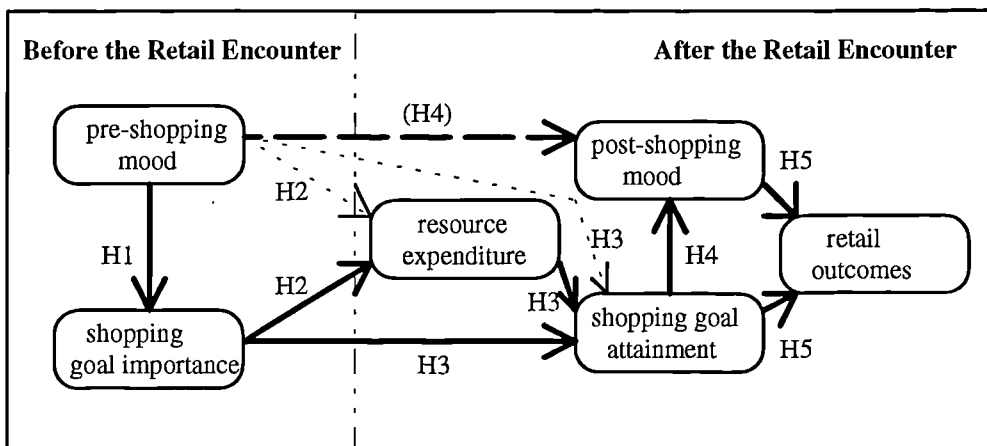
5.18 Chapter Summary

Chapter 6 incorporates five main sections, one devoted to summarising each set of variables collected for the research and the remainder devoted, one each, to testing the five research hypotheses. This chapter has reported the findings of the analyses and developed a discussion of those findings. Summaries of these appear at the end of each part of the chapter but a brief overview of the results is provided below.

Figure 5.9 summarises the relationships that were found in the analyses used to test each hypothesis. The arrows in bold print illustrate where direct relationships

between independent and dependent variables were found to be significant. Although in many cases the relationships detected were only between some dimensions of a particular variable (e.g. one type of shopping goal and one dimension of resource expenditure), this level of detail is not included in the Figure 5.9. The arrows represented by dotted lines indicate relationships that were uncovered between pre-shopping mood and resource expenditure and goal attainment. In these cases, however, pre-shopping mood was not found to make a significant, unique contribution to the explanation of the relevant variables.

Figure 5.9: Summary of Relationships Identified by Analyses



In the analysis conducted for Hypothesis 1, people's moods as they went into the craft fair were found to have a significant influence on their level of commitment to pursue various types of shopping goals while at the craft fair. This finding is generally in agreement with the principles advanced in the goal-directed behaviour (Ford, 1992) and mood literature (Batson *et al.*, 1992) and it was suggested in Chapter 5 that mood has this effect because it makes people in activated pleasant mood states are generally more optimistic of the chances of achieving their goals. In addition, a number of background variables were found to influence a person's level of commitment to goals. Commitment to goals pertaining to gift buying was found to be highest amongst individuals in the sample recruited in the run up to Christmas and

females. These factors were more important than mood as determinants of commitment to gift seeking goals. Background variables found to influence epistemic, hedonic and self-gift seeking goals, but for each of these types of shopping goals the effects of mood on a person's level of commitment were greater than the effects of background variables. It was suggested in the discussion of these results that the effects of mood are diminished where external factors influence the saliency of a particular goal. In this case, outside pressures to fulfil gift giving obligations mean that a person has to try to find an appropriate gift item.

Hypothesis 2 focused on how an individual's motivational state prior to entering the craft fair affected shopping behaviour during the retail encounter, that is, it assessed the effects of goal importance and mood on resource expenditure. On a general level the analyses revealed a positive relationship between goal importance and resource expenditure. Although mood was related to resource expenditure it did not emerge as a significant explanatory variable. More specifically, it was found that an individual's commitment to gift seeking goals had a significant effect on how much effort was invested in looking around the craft fair and searched for something to buy.

Commitment to epistemic and hedonic goals affected individual's propensity to engage with the social and physical retail environment. Finally, gift seeking and hedonic goals were found influence whether an individual spent more money than intended, but the effect of these variables was relatively small. Overall, these findings correspond with the principles of goal-directed behaviour which suggest that previous experience tells people what patterns of behaviour are required to achieve certain goals and so when they enter into the relevant context, as long as the context is judged to be conducive to their goals, those patterns of behaviour unfold. It makes sense that if people need to find gifts they will put more effort into looking around a shop than individuals who do not have to buy a gift on that occasion.

Hypothesis 3 focused on the factors affecting whether or not a person achieved various shopping goals while at the craft fair. In testing this hypothesis it was found that the most important influences on goal attainment were that the person wanted to achieve that goal in the first place and that they have been happy to spend time at the craft fair, to explore it and to interact with staff and other visitors while shopping. The link between a person's level of commitment to goals and attainment of those goals provides support for the view that, because people are informed by past experience, their assessments of whether or not goals can be achieved under certain circumstances are reasonably accurate (Pervin, 1989). It was argued that an individual's willingness to engage with the social and physical retail environment was found to be important for two reasons. First, it provided an indication that an individual's behaviour in-store was appropriate for achieving different types of goals. Given that the amount of effort that a person invested in shopping did not emerge as a significant predictor of goal attainment, however, it was suggested that an individual's willingness to engage with the environment was also found to be an important predictor of goal attainment because it reflected a positive disposition towards the craft fair.

Hypotheses 4 and 5 moved on to look at the outcomes of goal pursuit at the craft fair. Hypothesis 4 revealed that people who attained goals at the craft fair were likely to experience a positive shift in their mood state, whereas mood state deteriorated amongst those who were unsuccessful. Goal attainment also influenced the people's response to their shopping experience in terms of their assessments of how much they had enjoyed shopping at the craft fair, whether or not they preferred the fair to others that they had visited and their intentions to return. Post-shopping mood also had a positive effect on these variables representing retail outcomes. This corresponds with Heckhausen's (1991) observation that contexts which have facilitated progression towards goals in present circumstances are likely to be positively evaluated on the basis that they are likely to serve a similarly instrumental role in the future and similar

propositions that have been advanced with particular reference to the retail contexts (Dawson *et al.*, 1990).

This concludes the results chapter. The final chapter, Chapter 6 develops a more general discussion of the results, their implications for future research and their practical implications.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS

6.0 Introduction

The main aim of the research was to build on the understanding of internal factors that influence shopping motivation and behaviour and to examine the ultimate consequences of the motivational processes for retail outcomes in terms of consumer preference for and future intentions to patronise a retail outlet. The motivational components that were the primary focus of the research were individuals' goals and mood states.

The conceptual basis for the research was provided by theories of goal-directed behaviour, which assume that people are purposive in their behaviour and that there is a synergistic relationship between cognition and motivation (Ratneshwar, 1995; Pervin, 1989). Two complementary perspectives on the motivational role of mood are linked into this conceptualisation: one that emphasises the role of associative cognitive networks and proposes that mood serves to regulate goal-directed behaviour by altering goal-relevant thought and perception (Gardner, 1985; Isen, 1984); the other that postulates that mood is a biopsychological phenomenon that registers the availability of personal resources given near-term demands and alters goal-relevant thought, perception, and motivation in accordance with this (Morris, forthcoming; Batson *et al.*, 1992; Thayer, 1989).

Five research hypotheses were tested to investigate motivation during the shopping process, the null form of which were:

H₀₁: There is no evidence to suggest that consumers' mood states influence the establishment of shopping goals.

H₀₂: There is no evidence to suggest that goals or mood influence resource expenditure during shopping activities.

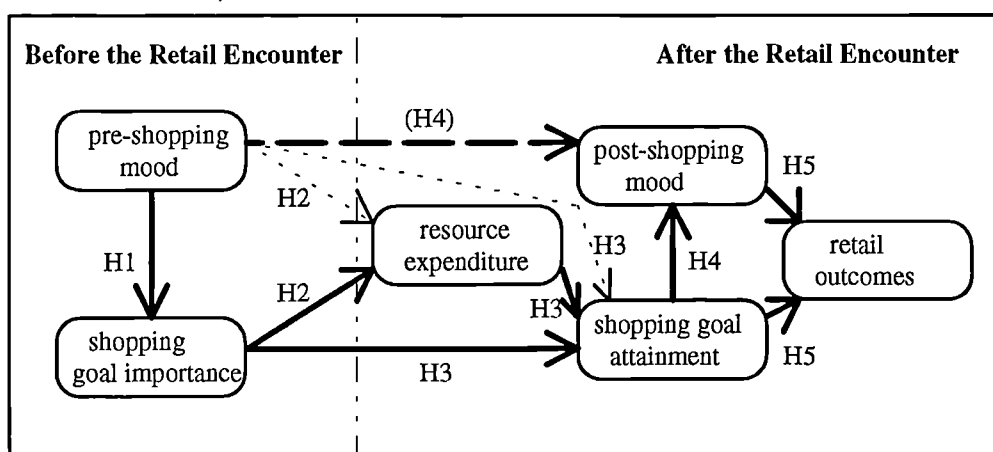
H₀₃: There is no evidence that a relationship exists between mood and goals identified as important upon arrival at a retail outlet and attainment of those goals.

H₀₄: There is no evidence of a relationship between the attainment of important goals and mood change between entering and leaving the retail setting

H₀₅: There is no evidence that retail outcomes are influenced by the attainment of important goals and post-shopping mood

The purpose of this final chapter is to highlight the main conclusions from the research. Diagram 6.1 provides a general summary of the relationships identified in the research. This was presented at the end of the previous chapter, but is reproduced here for ease of reference. The arrows in bold print illustrate significant direct relationships between independent and dependent variables, although the relationships detected were only between certain dimensions of a particular variable in most instances (e.g. one type of shopping goal and one dimension of resource expenditure). The arrows represented by the thin dotted lines indicate where pre-shopping mood was found to moderate the influence of commitment to goals on resource expenditure and goal attainment. More details of these general findings are highlighted in the following discussion.

Figure 6.1: Summary of Relationships Identified by Analyses



The discussion revolves around the theoretical and practical implications of the research findings and opportunities for further research in this area. The chapter is

organised into four main sections: the first two sections are devoted to discussion of the theoretical and practical implications of the study, the third section considers the limitations of the research and the final section advances suggestions for further research.

6.1 Theoretical Implications of the Research

In considering the theoretical implications of the research the discussion is organised around the three main stages of goal-directed behaviour: the pre-actional phases, the actional phase and the post-actional phase.

6.1.1 Establishing Goals: The Pre-actional Phases of Goal-directed Behaviour

The first research hypothesis focuses on the development of commitment to goals during the pre-actional phases of shopping behaviour. The primary relationship of interest was the effect of a person's mood state on his or her commitment to goals prior to entering a retail outlet. This followed proposition from both goal theorists (Ford, 1992) and mood theorists (Morris, 1989; Isen, 1987). As indicated in Figure 6.1, pre-shopping mood was found to have a significant effect on commitment to goals. The influence of background variables (relating to stable personal characteristics and the nature of the shopping situation) on goals was also explored in order to develop an understanding of how these factors affect a person's motivational state prior to a retail encounter.

6.1.1.1 The Influence of Background Variables on Commitment to Shopping Goals

The results of analyses used to test Hypothesis 1 illustrated that the level of commitment that individuals expressed for each type of shopping goal was significantly influenced by at least two background variables. A particularly substantial effect was observed for respondents' sex and whether or not they were shopping in the run up to Christmas. The effect of a person's sex on his or her commitment to various type of

shopping goals indicates that there were some stable, enduring influences on shopping motivation as argued by Bergadaa, Faure and Perrin (1995). In particular, the evidence supports Lunt and Livingstone's (1992) qualitative research which found that women are more predisposed to shopping activities. On the other hand, the effects of situational factors on individuals' shopping goals, particularly those pertaining individuals' mood states and whether or not individuals were shopping in the period prior to Christmas, indicate that shopping motivation varies depending on the nature and circumstances of shopping trip.

Other personal factors (e.g. age and average frequency of shopping at craft fairs) and situational factors (e.g. whether a person was shopping alone or accompanied by (an)other person(s)) were also found to have significant influences on one or more type of shopping goals. On the basis of this evidence it was argued in Chapter 5 that both enduring and situational influences have an effect on shopping motivation, as has been suggested by other authors (Westbrook and Black, 1985). Identification of personal and situational factors that influence shopping motivation was not, however, a primary objective of this research. Although some evidence of these effects has been provided here there is scope for more extensive and in-depth investigations of the relative influence of stable personal characteristics and situational factors on shopping motivation. In order to obtain a reliable view of these influences, the design of such research should involve interviewing people in the shopping context, rather than relying on retrospections of shopping in general as has been typical of some previous research focusing on enduring influences on shopping orientation (e.g. Mooradian and Olver, 1996).

6.1.1.2 The Influence of Mood on Commitment to Shopping Goals

Mood is conceptualised to affect commitment to goals in the literature on goal-directed behaviour (Bagozzi, 1993; Ford, 1992), mood (Morris, forthcoming; Isen, 1987) and control theory (Carver and Scheier, 1982). The finding of this research,

that pre-shopping mood was related to individuals' level of commitment to shopping goals, is in line with these arguments, which advance the notion that individuals in activated pleasant states are more likely to engage in goal-directed activities because they are more optimistic about the outcomes of engaging in that behaviour (Carver and Scheier, 1982). Explanations of why this effect is observed relate to both the associationist and functionalist perspective of mood. An individual's optimism that certain goals are attainable in a current setting may be partly due to mood's effects on memory-based tasks and evaluative tasks. It was suggested in Chapter 3 that individuals in positively valenced mood states tend to think of more, and more creative, strategies for goals pursuit with the result that goal attainment under certain circumstances seems more probable (Markus and Nurius, 1986). Mood-congruent bias in evaluations also influences an individual's assessment of the likelihood that they will attain goals in a particular situation (Isen, 1990). In addition, the functionalist perspective proposes that individuals in activated pleasant states have more resources available to them to engage in activities and that this factor also makes them optimistic about goal pursuit (Morris, 1989). The explanations offered by the associationist and functionalist schools of thought are complementary rather than competitive. For example, when a person is in an unactivated unpleasant state, and his or her internal resources are depleted, mood-congruent recall serves to discourage involvement in goal-directed behaviour which would require more resources than are currently available (Morris, 1992). The pessimistic view, which leads people to set low expectations, is a sort of defensive strategy by which individuals cushion themselves against unsatisfactory outcomes (Showers and Cantor, 1985).

Although there was a general positive association between mood state and commitment to goals, some caveats can be highlighted following the present study. In particular, the research found that the effect of mood on an individual's commitment to a goal varied depending on the type of shopping goal. Amongst the four types of goals, the weakest influence of mood was observed for gift seeking goals. In Chapter

5, this was explained on the basis that satisfactory attainment of gift seeking goals often involves finding a gift that meets quite specific criteria and finding it by a set deadline. Therefore, it appears that where a task is obligatory rather than optional, a consumer is obliged to undertake the goal-directed activity regardless of his or her optimism about the likelihood of achieving the goal.

This will apply not only to gift buying, but to product-related goals in other shopping contexts. However, in such cases it would be of interest to examine the nature of the goals that individuals set themselves in more detail. For example, how do individuals in positive and negative moods differ in terms of grocery shopping goals that they set themselves? Do individuals in negative moods have a greater tendency to limit their intended purchases to essentials? Perhaps the effect depends on external pressures on the individuals? If they are obliged to find a week's groceries on one trip to the supermarket, are individuals in negative moods less imaginative in their choice of goods? Do they limit themselves to goods that they buy routinely? Further research is required to test how mood's influence varies according to the nature of shopping goals in various retail contexts.

The first part of the research focused on people's shopping goals prior to entering a retail outlet. First and foremost, this has contributed to the understanding of the effects of mood on shoppers' motivational states as they enter a shopping context. In addition, this part of the research served as a platform for moving on to consider how internal factors driving the shopping trip affect shopping behaviour once inside the retail outlet. The second part of the research is discussed below.

6.1.2 Pursuing Goals: The Actional Phase of Goal-directed Behaviour

The conceptualisation of processes that occur once a person enters into the context in which he or she can pursue relevant goals was based on Heckhausen's (1991) proposition that where people have important goals, they will engage in approach

behaviours that are instrumental the achievement of those goals as long as ongoing feedback on progress towards goals is positive. Although retailing literature has not reported specifically on how in-store behaviour is affected by shopping motives, there is an indication from the research on shopper typologies that the way people approach shopping activities depends on the functional and non-functional benefits that they want to derive from shopping (Darden and Reynolds, 1971; Stone 1954). The mood literature postulates that mood bears an effect on this process because it biases the ongoing evaluations of whether or not a person is progressing towards goal attainment and also acts as a source of information in its own right in that individuals consult their feeling states directly in the course of such evaluations (Schwarz and Clore, 1983).

6.1.2.1 Influences on In-store Behaviour

The effect of a person's shopping goals and mood state prior to the retail encounter on his or her in-store behaviour was examined via analyses performed to test Hypothesis 2. The results showed that an individual's commitment to particular types of shopping goals had a significant influence on particular types of in-store behaviour. Specifically, it was revealed that an individual's commitment to gift seeking goals significantly influenced the amount of effort that individuals put into looking around the craft fair and searching for things to buy. Commitment to epistemic and hedonic goals affected an individual's propensity to interact with people and physical features of the retail environment. Finally, gift seeking and hedonic goals were found to influence a person's monetary expenditure while shopping at the craft fair, although the effect of these variables was relatively small. This finding adds weight to the conjecture advanced by Miller, Pribram and Galanter (1960) that people learn which forms of behaviour are instrumental to achieving particular goals.

The relationship between gift seeking goals and effort invested into looked around thoroughly and searching for something to buy is reflective of the nature of the task of buying gifts for others. Gifts are generally identified as a high involvement purchase

because of their role as symbolic of the relationship between giver and receiver (Sherry, 1983). In a wider retailing context product-related goals are likely to similarly influence the effort invested in shopping activities where high involvement purchases are concerned. Where the purchase is less involving, however, individuals are unlikely to indicate that their in-store activities were characterised by a high degree of search behaviour.

A second aspect of resource expenditure - a consumer's willingness to engage with the social and physical retail environment - was found to be most heavily influenced by an individual's commitment to epistemic and hedonic. It was suggested that consumers for whom these types of goals were important in the craft fair context were individuals with a recreational shopping orientation on this shopping trip. Willingness to engage with the retail environment was measured by items relating to a consumer's desire to spend time in and explore the retail setting and to talk to exhibitors and other shoppers at the craft fair. Given that the elements of the retail marketing mix that have been shown to be most important to recreational shoppers include the retail environment, merchandise assortment (Bellenger and Korgaonkar, 1980) and service factors (Jarratt, 1996) there is evidence to support this association with recreational shoppers (Stephenson and Willet, 1969).

In the context of other types of retailing where epistemic and/or hedonic goals, are important one might find a similar relationship between goal importance and individuals' willingness to engage with the social and physical environment. What may emerge, however, is that the types of behaviour that people enact in order to derive the benefits of interacting with the environment vary according to retail format and individual differences. In this research, when correlations between each of the four variables used to measure an individual's willingness to engage with the retail environment and epistemic and hedonic goal importance were calculated separately, the highest correlations were with those variables representing a desire to spend time in

and explore the setting. This suggests that spending time in and exploring the retail setting were more widely recognised as ways of deriving epistemic and hedonic benefits from the shopping experience. Research carried out in a different retail context, a study of specialist or local retailers for example, might find that interaction with other people in the retail setting is a more important means of deriving epistemic and hedonic value from the experience, possibly indicating a tendency for people to exhibit characteristics of personalising shoppers (Darden and Reynolds, 1971; Stone, 1954) in such contexts.

In Chapter 5 attention was drawn to the fact that individuals' goals only explained a small part (around 10%) of the variance in scores used to represent in-store behaviour. One reason for the limited explanatory power of goals was attributed to their dynamic character. It was suggested that some individuals might relinquish their goals once they enter into the retail environment either because they judge the outlet not to be conducive to the achievement of their goals or because the retail setting presents opportunities that they had not envisaged and different goals become the dominant in directing behaviour.

Secondly, this study does not account for the effects of stimuli in the retail environment on consumers' in-store behaviour. There is a substantial body of literature that has provided evidence of the links between perceptions of the retail environment and in-store behaviour (Donovan *et al.*, 1994; Donovan and Rossiter, 1982) and other authors have recognised that a fuller explanation of in-store behaviour would require that research account for both the internal and external factors that influence shopping motivation (McGoldrick and Pieros, 1996).

A third reason may be due to the limited amount of detail on goals and in-store behaviour that was captured by the rating scales employed to assess these variables. There is a need to explore alternative approaches to collecting high quality data for

studies of this kind, for example, batteries of statements that describe different degrees of search behaviour may be more effective than simply asking respondents to rate the extent to which they searched for something to buy. Ideas of this kind need to be formally evaluated, however.

In addition to proposing a relationship between goals and in-store behaviour, Hypothesis 2 also proposed that mood would have a direct or indirect effect on in-store behaviour. The findings revealed that mood did not have a direct effect on resource expenditure while shopping. There was some evidence, however, that it mediated the effect of goals in that individuals' committed to hedonic goals were less likely to interact with others and with physical elements of the retail environment if they were not in an activated pleasant mood state (high PA).

With regard to the lack of direct effects of mood on behaviour in-store, this was partly due to an overlap with the effects of goals on behaviour. As proposed in Chapter 2, an individual's level of commitment to goals reflects a summation of all the motivational factors identified by Ford (1992): attractiveness of the goal, context beliefs, self-efficacy beliefs, emotional arousal and non-emotional affective state (mood).

Presumably, it is because mood contributes to this overall assessment it was shown to explain part of the variance in individuals' commitment to goals and it is for the same reason that it was not found to have significant effects over and above the effects of shopping goals on resource expenditure in the course of in-store activities.

The notion that mood is a component of a person's motivational state also provides a basis for interpreting the finding that pre-shopping mood moderates the effects of commitment to goals on in-store behaviour relating to an individual's willingness to engage with the social and physical retail environment. This outcome indicates that, in some instances, individuals do not fully account for the effects of mood when assessing their ability to pursue and attain shopping goals. This may occur because their

assessments are overly influenced by the desirability of a goal, for example, they are eager to gain hedonic benefits from shopping or because they have to find a gift for someone. The findings indicate, however, that where people have an inflated idea of what they can achieve under certain circumstances, the effects of mood are observed later in the shopping process.

In sum, this study has demonstrated that when people who have important shopping goals enter into a retail environment, forms of shopping behaviour that are instrumental to achieving the relevant goals is exhibited. There is tenuous evidence that mood mediates these effects, but affirmation of this effect can only be tentatively proposed on the basis of the finding of this research.

6.1.3 Attaining Goals: The Post-actional Phase of Goal-directed Behaviour

Three issues were considered under the heading of the post-actional phases of goal-directed behaviour. First, consideration was given to the factors that influence attainment of shopping goals, secondly, the influence of goal attainment on the change in a person's mood state between entering and leaving the craft fair was assessed and, finally, the effects of goal attainment and post-shopping mood on the outcomes of the retail encounter were evaluated. Although these processes are conceptualised as occurring at the end of the shopping episode, they are continuous process that start during the actional phase of goal-directed behaviour while a person is shopping in a store.

6.1.3.1 Influences on Shopping Goal Attainment

This research sought to take forward the research that has considered type of shopping motives bring consumers to particular retail outlets (Westbrook and Black, 1985; Tauber, 1972) by developing an understanding of whether or not they manage to satisfy their motive during the retail encounter. The factors that were hypothesised to influence goal attainment included individuals' commitment to goals and mood state

prior to shopping and their in-store behaviour. The conceptualisation of the effects of the first two factors was based on the same literature as highlighted at the beginning of section 6.1.2 because the factors that drive goal-directed behaviour in-store are ultimately those that lead to attainment of desired goals. The proposed influence of in-store behaviour is based on its instrumentality in working towards desired goals.

The factors influencing the attainment of goals were assessed in testing Hypothesis 3. The findings confirmed that key influences on goal attainment included individuals' commitment to goals prior to the retail encounter and their in-store behaviour. More specifically, it was an individual's level of interaction with other people in the setting and the physical features of the retail outlet that was the most important determinant of goal attainment for each type of shopping goal, followed by the person's level of commitment to the type of goal in question.

These factors were most effective in explaining individuals' assessments of whether or not they had attained hedonic and epistemic goals (the explained variance in the data for these two variables was 42% and 38%, respectively). The importance of an individual's level of interaction with the social and physical features of the retail environment in this case might have been expected because of the earlier finding that commitment to hedonic and epistemic goals bore a significant influence on this type of behaviour while shopping. In considering the relatively strong links between a person's willingness to engage with the retail environment and his or her attainment of hedonic and epistemic goals it is perhaps worth recalling the proposition that feedback on progress towards goals serves to control effort invested in activities (Heckhausen, 1991; Bandura, 1987). Because, a person's assessments of whether or not they are making progress towards goals is an ongoing process, the relationships uncovered here may be reinforced by the reiterative effects of assessments of progress made towards goals and further time and effort being put into interacting with elements of the retail environment.

The influence of commitment to hedonic and epistemic goals on attainment of those goals can be partly explained by the proposition that people must have things in mind that they want to achieve in order to trigger the forms of behaviour that lead to the attainment of those benefits. In addition, it seems likely that this result is due to the fact that, characteristically, individuals are vague about the criteria for attainment of these types of goals. Where people have identified hedonic and epistemic goals as a major source of motivation for their visit to a retail outlet, evaluative bias can occur in an attempt to reduce cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957) if people's actual experiences do not deliver the value sought through shopping. So, if people have gone to a retail outlet for leisure purposes or to learn about a product category of interest to them, they may tell themselves that the shopping trip served its purpose as long as they have derived a minimum level of satisfaction for the activity. It is much easier to exercise this kind of evaluative bias when one is pursuing goals with vague criteria for attainment.

With regard to gift seeking and self-gift seeking goal attainment, a person's interaction with the retail environment and his or her commitment to these types of goals prior to shopping were found to be important predictor variables, but were less effective than predictors of hedonic and epistemic goals. The author has proposed that, in part, this is due to the more specific criteria for goal attainment associated with goals that involve making a purchase; whereas criteria for the attainment of enjoyment-based tasks are allowed to emerge as a consequence of interactions with the environment (Bergin, 1989; Csikzentmihalyi, 1975), criteria associated with performance of purchase-related tasks are more heavily influenced by external points of comparison. This means that people are less likely to alter their criteria for the type of product they want to buy in the course of the shopping activity. A person might settle for a gift or self-gift that is less than ideal when they do not have the time or can not be bothered to continue to shop, in which case evaluative bias may serve to reduce their cognitive

dissonance about the appropriateness or desirability of the item. In many cases, however, when an appropriate item cannot be found, a person will accept that the goal has not been attained and will continue to shop for it elsewhere.

The importance of a person's level of interaction with other people in the retail setting and physical features of the environment in predicting self-gift seeking goals was reasonable given that the self-gifts literature (Langrehr, 1991) postulates that the benefits associated with self-gifts are partly due to excitement and pleasure experienced as a consequence of the process of shopping. However, given that in testing Hypothesis 2 the type of resource expenditure found to be associated with commitment to gift seeking goals was the level of effort that people invested in searching for something to buy at the craft fair, one might have expected effort invested in looking for something to buy to influence gift seeking goal attainment. The fact that the level of effort invested in shopping did not emerge as an important predictor of gift seeking goal attainment may be partly due to its correlation with gift seeking goal importance. In addition, because the craft fairs were relatively small it is possible that the measurement of the effort invested in looking around was not adequate to distinguish between individuals' search behaviour (there is some evidence of this as the mean score for this dimension of in-store behaviour was 5.22, where the maximum score was 7). Even though most people committed to gift seeking goals expended a lot of effort searching for something to buy, it may be that those who were willing to interact with elements of the environment were more successful in finding gifts because these were people who felt favourable towards the retail offering.

If this conjecture is correct, it is likely to be a more pertinent issue in the craft fair setting where people are unsure of the precise nature of the retail offering before entering the fair and where people are buying gifts, the purchase of which often involves highly subjective criteria. For example, even though a person may have chosen to go to a craft fair because he or she likes crafts and believes that the fair may

have something appropriate to purchase, upon looking around the person may find that the quality of goods is inferior to what was expected or that hardly any of the exhibitors have product categories (glass, ceramics, wood turned items) in which he or she is interested. By contrast, when a person with particular purchase-related goals chooses to visit a normal store, the individual would probably have a relatively clear idea about the store's image and whether or not the goods sold there would suit him or her. In such cases, willingness to engage with the environment may be less important because it is less likely to be a proxy measure of whether the store was judged to carry appropriate goods. Moreover, measurement of effort invested in looking for goods may emerge as a more important determinant of purchase-related goal attainment if similar research was carried out in a larger retail format such as a department store or a shopping centre.

On a more general level, would the effects of commitment to goals and in-store behaviour on goal attainment emerge to be similar in other retail contexts? One would imagine that the relationship between goal importance and attainment for purchase related-goals would be much stronger in retail contexts where the type of purchase was relatively habitual and where the retail offering is well known. Prominent in the present research were gift buying tasks, which tend to be relatively unique in that even when buying a Christmas gift year after year for the same person, the criteria tend to change as the person grows older and their lifestyle changes. Moreover, the retail context of a craft fair is atypical in that one rarely knows precisely what the retail offering will be because they are held on an ad hoc basis. By contrast, if the focus of study was a weekly trip to a supermarket or even a trip to buy DIY goods, toys or clothing from a well known chain or cluster of stores in a particular shopping area, commitment to purchase-related goals is likely to be a better predictor of goal attainment.

It might be argued that purchase-related goals are nearly always achieved in contexts such as supermarket shopping. As was proposed earlier, however, research in this area should perhaps focus more closely on the nature of purchase-related goals because although people may manage to make some grocery purchases they may cut corners. For example, people may compromise on the ideal of finding exciting meals for the entire week's meals by purchasing enough food to manage for a couple of days. Shopping trips for seldom-purchased items such as furniture and computer hardware are also likely to produce a different pattern of relationships between goal importance and attainment. This type of shopping is distinctive partly because people are more concerned about making the "right" choice and partly because they tend not to be entirely familiar with the stock carried at a particular store unless they regularly update their knowledge of the product category by browsing in the store. Sector specific research would be necessary to obtain a clear idea of how closely commitment to purchase-related goals is related to attainment in different types of shopping contexts.

In addition to the findings discussed above it was also found that commitment to gift seeking goals had a negative effect on attainment of epistemic and hedonic goals and that epistemic goals had a negative effect on attainment of gift seeking goals. It was suggested in Chapter 5 that these results indicated that individuals for whom it was important to find gifts (which has been described as a work-oriented rather than simply a pleasurable activity by authors such as Babin, Darden and Griffin, 1994; Otnes *et al.*, 1993; Fischer and Arnould, 1990) were less able to pursue and fulfil their goals relating to enjoyment of the shopping experience. Likewise, people committed to non-functional shopping goals appeared to be less effective in attaining gift seeking goals. These findings reflect the principles of goal-directed behaviour that suggest that individuals prioritise amongst goals that they wish to pursue in a particular situation, devoting more attention to those that are more pressing. The fact that individuals expressed a commitment to both functional and non-functional goals when, in practice,

these proved to not to be complementary, also indicates that plans for goal pursuit are often vague and ill thought out (Oatley, 1988).

Pre-shopping mood was hypothesised to have a direct effect on goal attainment or to have an indirect effect, serving to moderate the effects of goal importance on goal attainment. The argument behind this hypothesised relationship was that those in positive moods would be more optimistic that goals could be achieved (Isen, 1984), would have more personal resources available to undertake goal-directed behaviour (Batson *et al.*, 1992) and their mood would provide positive feedback about their progress towards goals (Carver and Scheier, 1990). Pre-shopping mood was found not to have a direct effect on goal attainment. This was explained on the grounds that because mood state contributes to the assessments involved when a person becomes committed to goals, their influence as a component of a person's motivational state prior to the retail encounter is subsumed under the effects of the level of commitment that a person expresses for a particular type of goal.

There was some evidence that pre-shopping mood served to moderate the relationship between commitment to a particular type of shopping goal and attainment of that type of goal. The evidence was mixed, however, and the reliability limited. The lack of evidence of the direct effects of pre-shopping mood on goal attainment and the limited evidence of its mediating role might be due to the fact that, although the general principles of mood's effects on behaviour outlined in the functionalist and associationist schools of thought suggest that a positive relationship exists between mood and goal attainment, there are many anomalies in the streams of research that contribute to the understanding of how mood effects the tasks involved in shopping (see Chapter 3, Section 3.8.3).

In conclusion, what have we learned about factors influencing goal attainment?

Graham *et al.* (1980) postulated that achievement of goals depends on how important

they are to people in the first place. The present study has verified that their conceptualisation of these relationships holds true in the domain of shopping behaviour and it has added weight to the author's conjecture that it is important for a person to have certain goals in mind when they arrive on the shopping scene in order to derive various benefits from shopping. The present research highlights, however, that in this behavioural context a distinction should be made amongst different types of goals. In the context of shopping at a craft fair, goals that involve making a purchase are less well predicted by a person's level of commitment to those goals prior to the retail encounter. It was highlighted, however, that differences would be observed in the relationship between commitment to and attainment of purchase-related goals in other shopping contexts.

The present research also confirmed, in accordance with Heckhausen (1991), that individuals who exhibit approach behaviour, investing more resources in their shopping behaviour, are more likely to attain goals. In addition, the study has highlighted that different aspects of in-store behaviour can be distinguished and that in this case the dimension relating to shoppers' willingness to engage with other people in the setting and the physical features of the environment was the more effective predictor of attainment of all four types of goals. It was suggested, however, that the relative importance of a person's willingness to interact with elements of the retail environment and functional goals may be less in retail contexts with which consumers are more familiar. By contrast, it was proposed that the effort that individuals invest in searching for appropriate goods might emerge to be relatively more important in larger retail outlets or shopping centres where there would be greater differential amongst individuals with regard to this aspect of in-store behaviour.

There was no evidence of a direct effect of a person's mood state prior to the retail encounter on his or her attainment of goals. Although this effect is postulated by academics focusing on the motivational role of mood state, where mood is considered

in conjunction with goals its unique effects are not significant. Some evidence that pre-shopping mood mediates the effects of goal importance on goal attainment was obtained. This evidence did not reveal consistent patterns, however. It was suggested that the complexity of the relationship of mood with the various processes involved in pursuing and attaining goals, particularly those related to the purchase of products, requires further research.

6.1.3.2 The Influence of Goal Attainment on Change in Mood State

The main interest in mood state in this study was focused on its motivational effects, that is, its role as an independent variables influencing shopping motivation and behaviour. The effect of pre-shopping mood on a person's level of commitment to shopping goals has been discussed above, as has its effects on the attainment of goals. In the next section (6.1.3.3) consideration is given to how a person's mood state following the retail encounter influences retail outcomes in terms of preference and future patronage intentions. Prior to considering these effects, however, the research attempted to gain an understanding of the degree to which individuals' mood states after the retail encounter were due to their success or failure to achieve their shopping goals.

Emmons and Diener (1986) postulated that people experience positive affect when progressing towards desired goals, but that they do not necessarily experience negative affect when their goals are thwarted, possibly because they reformulate their plans in order to protect their mood state. This research confirmed that people who attained goals at the craft fair experienced a positive shift in their mood state. Contrary to Emmons and Diener's (1986) findings, however, the present study revealed that mood state deteriorated amongst those who were unsuccessful. Because the research differentiated between different types of shopping goals, it was also able to illustrate that the effects of goal attainment of mood change depended on the type of goal in question.

Attainment of epistemic and hedonic goals emerged as the variables that accounted for the greatest amount of explained variance in the data. This may be because attainment of these types of goals, especially hedonic goals, is inherently linked with positive affective experience. As far as these types of goals are concerned there are questions about the direction of the relationship: does attainment of the goals lead to a shift in mood or visa versa? The answer is most probably that these variables influence each other on a reiterative basis throughout the retail encounter and there are opportunities for future research concerned with these effects to employ analytical techniques such as non-recursive modelling (Berry, 1984) which facilitates analysis of variables where there is reciprocal interaction.

The attainment of gift seeking goals was a less important predictor variable, but provides some support for the notion that finding gifts produces positive feelings associated with the reward of a job well done (Fischer and Arnould, 1990).

Contrary to the evidence provided in the self-gift marketing literature (Woodruffe, 1996; Mick, DeMoss and Faber, 1992), self-gift seeking goal attainment did not make a marked contribution to the explanation of mood change. This may, however, be due to the fact that research that specifically focuses on self-gift buying behaviour as a means to alleviate or maintain mood state tends to ask people to talk about occasions on which they have employed self-gifts as a mood management strategy. The lack of evidence of the effects of self-gift seeking goals on mood change may indicate that shopping for mood management is not particularly prevalent. Another explanation may be that, in terms of mood enhancement, the purchase of something for oneself has little benefit over above an enjoyable shopping experience that delivers epistemic and hedonic benefits (Langrehr, 1991).

In sum, the research has added weight to Emmons and Diener's (1986) postulation that individuals who make progress towards salient goals experience positive feelings. The relative importance of hedonic and epistemic goal attainment may reflect that emotional experiences during the shopping episode, which contribute attainment of these non-functional goals are important influences on mood change between entering and leaving a retail outlet. If so, this points to the need to consider an integrated approach to the study of shopping behaviour in which factors emphasised in environmental psychology frameworks are considered alongside those emphasised in approaches that assume consumers to be driven by internal factors.

6.1.3.3 Influences on Retail Outcomes

The final and arguably most pertinent part of the research involved assessing the factors that influenced shoppers' responses to their experiences of shopping at the craft fairs. Specifically, the research sought to understand the importance of individuals' success or failure to achieve goals and their post-shopping mood state on their enjoyment of the retail encounter, their preference for and future intentions to patronise the retail establishment. The pertinence of this issue is due to the consequences for repeat patronage and ultimately shopper loyalty to a retail store (Dawson, Bloch and Ridgeway, 1990).

Evidence provided by the research verified the proposed effect of goal attainment and mood on retail outcomes. As in the previous stages of the analysis, differences were highlighted between different types of goals such that some were found to be more influential than others. Attainment of hedonic and gift seeking goals were the more important variables in explaining respondents' responses to the retail encounter and their future patronage intentions with regard to the craft fairs. This indicates that, in this type of shopping context, people are more favourable in their evaluations of the retail outlet if it provides a balance between the hedonic rewards of shopping and satisfying the more functional objectives of finding appropriate products. Although the

research found that post-shopping mood had a significant effect on retail encounters, its unique contribution in explaining the variance in the data on retail outcomes was only 1%.

In order to clarify the managerial implications of this outcome, it would be of interest in future research to assess attributes of the retail establishment that facilitate each type of goal attainment. This link would strengthen both research of the type reported in this thesis and the research on satisfaction with retail stores. As it is, the research that has investigated retail attributes that lead to retail satisfaction (Westbrook, 1981) asks people to indicate their level of satisfaction with particular attributes of stores but does not link their evaluations to current goals. If, in fact, behaviour is goal-directed then retail satisfaction for any individuals is likely to depend on whether or not a retail establishment facilitates what he or she wants to achieve from a shopping trip. In addition, both theory and practice would benefit from longitudinal research that evaluates the cumulative effect of satisfactory retail encounters on retail loyalty.

6.2 Practical Implications of the Research

This research builds on existing literature that provides an understanding of the shopping motives that bring people to a particular store (Buttle, 1992; Buttle and Coates, 1984; Westbrook and Black, 1985; Tauber, 1972). It takes this work forward by considering the effects of shopping motives on how a person behaves while shopping, whether or not they achieve their goals and the ultimate outcomes of consumer preference and future intentions to patronise the store. It also provides additional understanding of the motivational process by examining the role of mood in the shopping process. Given the links between these factors that have been demonstrated by this research, there are useful insights for retailers who seek to facilitate satisfactory shopping experiences for their customers and to encourage shopper loyalty.

The first stages of goal-directed behaviour into which this study provided some insight were the pre-actional phases during which individuals become committed to goals. The relationship between commitment to and attainment of goals demonstrated by this study corresponds with the adage that "if you don't have goals you won't achieve them". It has significance for retailers in that consumers who are vague about why they are shopping are more likely to float in and out of the retail setting without buying anything and without deriving satisfaction from the experience which will encourage future patronage.

There are some difficulties in influencing the goals that individuals have in mind when they arrive at a retail outlet, given that the retailer has little control over consumers before they walk through the door. There is, however, a role for retail communications to emphasise benefits that might be sought during shopping at a particular outlet. This may involve reminding customers of events for which purchases need to be made, promoting a store as a destination for leisure activity - "a day out for all the family", highlighting new stock in certain departments or special events/exhibits that customers might visit for their amusement or interest. To encourage pre-planned visits to stores, the increasing direct marketing opportunities for retailers are a potentially important means of communication. To capitalise on unplanned visits to stores, there are opportunities to use window space for displays and advertising to communicate to consumers what might be achieved from shopping at the store.

Given the evidence that mood influences individuals' levels of commitment to goals at the point in time when they actually visit a store, it is advantageous that consumers arrive at a retail outlet in positive mood states. As highlighted above, the lack of control of the retailer prior to a consumer entering a store makes it difficult to influence the mood state in which consumers arrive on the shopping scene. For ideas on how this can be achieved it is useful to consider the sources of mood and mood change. One perspective that has been emphasised in this research is the view that

mood depends on the availability of personal resources (Thayer, 1989; Morris, 1989). It should be borne in mind that the requirement of personal resources is relative to the circumstances of the consumption activity. Marketers, therefore, need to consider ways in which they can provide physical, social and psychological support for the customer that, when internalised, will contribute to his or her store of personal resources for activity. In addition, they should look at the complete shopping episode, focusing on how they can smooth the way for the customer's goal-directed activities.

One obvious example of how retailers can attempt to influence the mood state in which shoppers arrive on the scene is by the provision of refreshments. When individual stores or shopping centres provide shoppers with facilities to sit down and have a cup of coffee and a cake they provide them with rest and the energy resources needed to go on shopping. Moreover, this form of eating out is often a treat in itself that may boost shoppers' mood states. Making adequate provision for customer parking or locating where there is good access to the store by public transport may also improve the chances of shoppers enjoying a trouble free journey to the outlet and feeling more pleasant and energetic upon arrival.

Once in the store there are various means open to retailers to attempt to influence consumers' mood state and make them feel more able to pursue their goals. For example, sales staff may be trained to recognise that a consumer may need help because they feel too sluggish or down to find an item that meets their needs and to provide support in a way that is sensitive to this factor. Sales staff can play an important social support role for shoppers and, in doing so, can help customers to achieve their goals. One example of how the social support role is filled by retailers can be found in fashion retailing. Some retailers clearly have a *friendly* service policy. For instance, the dressing room attendants ask customers whether the clothes they are trying on are for a special occasion, or they offer their own opinions (sometimes true, sometime not - but usually constructive), provide help with sizes, colours or

suggestions for accessories. Another factor that has been widely recognised to contribute to changes in a person's affective state is the store atmosphere (Kotler, 1972-3). Although this factor may not necessarily make a direct contribution to the personal resources that an individual has available to engage in effective shopping activities, its effects on a person's general feeling state may make him or her more optimistic about achieving shopping goals and serve to a motivational role in that way.

With regard to how retailers can smooth the way for people to pursue their shopping goals, particular attention should be paid to facilitating the types of in-store behaviour that consumers use as strategies for progressing towards their goals. The research showed that, when shoppers needed to find gifts, they invested more effort in looking around the craft fair and searching for suitable goods. To facilitate this activity, retailers should provide easily accessible information about goods or services, which includes making sure that items are clearly marked with prices, sizes or other details and that they are displayed in a way that makes it easy for consumers to find a product that corresponds to their specific needs. Retailers should also make sure that stores are well laid out and well sign-posted. These factors serve to increase feelings of personal control (Bitner, 1992), meaning that there is less pressure on consumers' personal resources in working towards to attainment of their consumption-related goals.

The present study also revealed that when hedonic and epistemic goals are important to consumers, they are more prone to interact with social and physical elements of the retail environment. This also suggests a role for sales staff. Individuals in buoyant moods seeking to satisfy these types of goals may, however, require a different type of interaction with staff than people who need social support to compensate for a depressed mood state.

With regard to ways in which retailers can facilitate a person's interaction with the physical environment it is worth noting Falk's (1997) suggestion that people derive pleasurable experience from shopping by employing visual and other sensory registers, through touching and trying on. This indicates that retailers should pay attention to various means by which they can provide sensory input to consumers while they are in the retail environment, although they should take care in this activity as there is substantial evidence that people have an "optimal level of arousal" (Berlyne, 1960) and they can withdraw from situations in which their senses are over-stimulated. However, different groups of individuals have different optimal levels of arousal and a retailer whose target market incorporates young people between the ages of 16 and 24 years can generally provide a more stimulating environment than those serving the grey market. The optimal level of arousal will also vary depending on the product category sold by the retailer. Given that the research found hedonic and gift seeking goal attainment to be the main influences of retail outcomes, there is evidence that retail establishments where people shop in an attempt to fulfil both of these types of goals should make efforts to facilitate the two aspects of in-store behaviour.

6.3 Limitations of the study

Despite the contribution to the understanding of shopping motivation, this study has its limitations. Primary amongst these is the fact that the research was restricted to individuals shopping at craft fairs. Although this context had certain characteristics that facilitated a study of this nature the generalisability of the results cannot be claimed before further research has been carried out in other retail contexts. A related limitation is due to the fact that, because of the schedule of the craft fair organiser, a large proportion of the sample was recruited in the weeks prior to Christmas. This led to a heavy emphasis on gift buying amongst respondents, which may have overshadowed patterns of shopping motivation more typical of other times of the year.

A second feature of the research which has implications in terms of the limits of its contribution is that it was a quantitative study. This choice was made because it was appropriate for the purpose of the research, which was to uncover relationships between motivational and behavioural factors that lead to positive or negative outcomes of retail encounters. It does mean, however, that the level of detail on links between various motivational factors, shopping behaviour and retail outcomes is limited and interpretation of the results in some instances is reliant on the author's conjecture. Detail on the precise nature of shoppers' goals was also limited, for example, the measures used only captured certain information on criteria that they had in mind for acceptable outcomes of their goal-directed behaviour.

With regard to the motivational components that influence a person's motivational state prior to the retail encounter (Bagozzi, 1993; Ford, 1992), this research considered only mood as a contributor to goal commitment, it did not account for context beliefs, self-efficacy beliefs or emotional arousal processes. The limitation of this factor is that there remain gaps in the understanding of the sources of the motivational intensity of shopping goals.

The processes involved in pursuing goals, that is, individuals' in-store behaviour and their repeated assessments of progress being made towards goal attainment were measured after the retail encounter. The consequence of this is that only a limited amount of information on the dynamic nature of goals was captured. This limitation might be addressed by designing research in which individuals are intercepted during their shopping activity as well as before and after the retail encounter or by employing qualitative methods of data collection.

Finally, because this research focuses on internal factors that motivate shopping behaviour, it does not account for the external, retail environment influences on shopping behaviour and the outcomes of retail encounters.

6.4 Recommendations for Future Research

Given the limitation of this research and the ideas advanced in the discussion developed earlier in this chapter, a variety of future research suggestions are made here.

In order to develop a fuller understanding of factors that influence the strength of people's shopping goals it would be useful to explore how the effects of mood compared to other motivational factors. In particular it would be useful to assess how mood relates to an individual's evaluations of retail outlets as means for goal pursuit (or any other means provided for consumption-related activities). In the longer term, more in-depth studies of the role of each of the motivational factors that contribute to the process of individuals becoming committed to goals would help to clarify the usefulness of the conceptualising shopping behaviour from the perspective that it is a goal-directed activity.

Within the scope for research to further illuminate the role of mood as a component of goal-directed shopping behaviour are opportunities to clarify *how* mood influences behaviour, that is to scrutinise the mechanisms by which mood operates. There are several avenues that might also be investigated in relation to the explanation that individuals mood states are a reflection of their perceptions of the adequacy of personal resources in relation to the demands of near-term goals. First, there is a need to provide more evidence that mood effects on consumption-related behaviour, particular forms such as shopping that involve physical activity, are due to the availability of resources. More specifically, it would be useful to identify what types of resources are seen as relevant to different types of shopping activities. This might be achieved by examining resource availability, perhaps adopting or adapting

measurement tools developed to examine this issue in other domains (e.g. Diener and Fujita, 1995). Alternatively, this type of investigation might be approached using quasi-experimental research in which personal resources suggested to contribute to mood - physical energy, feelings of self efficacy and social support - are manipulated. A related line of research, which would be useful on a practical level, would be to investigate whether individuals' mood states can be boosted, that is, what can be provided for consumers to help with the replenishment of resources required to take on the demands of consumption related activity.

It would also be useful to investigate consumer perceptions of the demands of pursuing various types of goals on various types of shopping trips, to examine which parts of the activity are considered to be more demanding and to ascertain whether certain factors can be identified as making shopping a more demanding activity or as smoothing the way for the pursuit of goals.

There is broad scope for exploring the effects of mood on shopping motivation in other retail settings. Other settings may not only be other retail formats, but might also refer to different times in the retail calendar so that comparisons can be made between "typical" time of the year and "atypical" periods including Christmas, January and July sales. A key question regards whether individuals in positive and negative moods are more or less likely to get involved in various types of shopping activity. Where people who are "not in the mood" are obliged to undertake the activity, because of external pressures, how do they cope with the demands of the task?

In the course of refining ideas about the effect of mood on commitment to consumption-related goals, consideration might also be given to the nature of this relationship in other service domains, particularly those where there is an onus on the consumer to perform mental and physical activities in order to obtain desired benefits. Areas of application might include service encounters in contexts such as holidays,

education, health/sports clubs or medical care, particularly forms that require the individual to be active in the recovery process. Alternative service contexts for application might include those in which individuals are required to engage in discussions or negotiations of some sort to obtain what is required. In a consumer domain this may be anything from discussing a desired hairstyle with a hair dresser to exploring financial planning with a financial advisor. In an industrial arena, the task might involve such things as negotiating a deal with a sales representative.

Questions might also be asked about how the mood state of the service provider a service encounter that necessitates interaction between the two parties for the desired outcomes to be achieved.

As far as the mediating effects of mood are concerned, some evidence was provided by this research, but these results were not conclusive and further research is required to explore the conditions under which pre-shopping mood moderates the influence of a person's commitment to goals on goal pursuit and attainment and the extent to which it effects these relationships.

The present study has provided a general indication of how people behave in retail settings when pursuing certain goals. It would be useful if future research in this area could provide more specific detail on the types of shopping behaviour that people exhibit when pursuing goals in particular shopping contexts. Although retailers have a good understanding of how elements of the retail marketing mix serve shoppers' goal-directed strategies, further research might also highlight more specific details of how shoppers in different retail formats interact with elements of the retail marketing mix in order to derive the desired benefits from the retail encounter. Useful insights might also be generated by examining how goals and shopping strategies are modified in situ, identifying how interaction with elements of the retail marketing mix influences the modification of goals and goal-directed actions. This approach would provide insights

into how retail marketing can be used to encourage consumers to adjust their goal-directed plans once in the retail setting in a way that is advantageous to the retailer.

In order to gain further insights into the dynamics of individuals' goals in the course of shopping trips more flexible methodologies are required. Further research might employ techniques such as accompanied shopping during which a commentary may be obtained from the shopper about the dynamics of his or her shopping motivation. This would be of particular interest where multipurpose shopping trips are concerned or where a person is likely to "shop around" before making a purchase. In these situations, a large number of factors can intervene between a person planning a course of action and actually following through with instrumental behaviours.

6.5 Summary

The conclusions of the thesis presented in this chapter have considered the theoretical and practical implications of the study, the limitations of the research and directions for future research. Discussion of the theoretical implications of the research in Section 6.1 was largely concerned with the extent to which theoretical propositions developed on the basis of existing literature were supported in the present research.

Consideration was also given to the nature of relationships that might be uncovered in other retail or service contexts. Practical implications of the research that were highlighted in Section 6.2 centred around ways in which retailers might encourage consumers to have clear shopping goals in mind when they enter a store and how in-store behaviour that advances customers towards goals might be facilitated. In addition, the discussion regarded how retailers might manage shoppers in varying mood states to increase the probability that they would become committed to and achieve various shopping goals even when they are not entirely "in the mood".

In discussion of the limitations of the research, attention was drawn to the limited generalisability of the study, because of the retail context in which it was carried out.

It was also highlighted that the quantitative nature of the research meant that it lacked detail, particularly with regard to the criteria that define shoppers' goals and the ability of the study to capture the true dynamics of goal-directed behaviour. The capacity of the research to fully explain shopping motivations was also limited because it only focused on mood state as a specific internal component of a person's motivational state and did not account for external influences on motivation, such as the retail environment. Taking these limitations into consideration, the final section of the conclusions advanced suggestions for further research.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 4.1: Shopping Goals Relevant to the Craft Fair Context

The table below shows the percentage of respondents who rated each of the shopping goals to be at least *fairly important* (in the goal scale development stage of the research).

goal/motive	% respondents rating item at least <i>fairly</i> <i>important</i>	goal/motive (cont.)	% respondents rating item at least <i>fairly</i> <i>important</i>
to get ideas for my own work	24	physical activity	18
to learn about Scotland	40	to pass time between other activities	35
to chat with exhibitors	13	to spend time in a pleasant setting	73
to spend time in a romantic setting	24	to look for things that I can't buy elsewhere	84
to look for presents that have a personal touch	77	to develop my own taste	59
to see/be inspired by people who design and make crafts	64	to hunt for suitable/desirable goods	72
to look at creative things/see new designs	93	to be around the kind of people who I can identify with	27
to buy things for myself which express my personality	66	to be in a stimulating environment	48
to see things that are different/unique	91	to be entertained/ distracted for a while	68
to engage in pleasant social exchanges	39	to receive a bit of attention	5
to look for something desirable to buy for myself	59	to have fun/enjoy myself	78
to indulge myself	53	to enhance/maintain my physical well being	28
to mix with other people who are like minded/have similar interests to myself	34	to develop competence	16
to feed my interest in crafts	60	to make a favourable impression, to appear interested	19
to look for a suitable gift(s)	71	to persuade/influence someone else	10
to feed my curiosity	66	to make new friends/get to know someone better	13
to get information from exhibitors	14	to get ideas for presents	75
to bring back memories of previous visits to craft fairs	23	to spend time in a cultural setting	57

Appendix 4.2: Distribution of Shopping Goal Importance Ratings

The following table provides details the items which were tested in the development of the scale to measure craft fair shopping goals. The figures presented in each column of the table, respectively, are: the percentage of respondents who rated the importance of that item as at least *fairly important*; the mean rating; the standard deviation; skewness; and kurtosis of the ratings.

goal/motive	mean rating	s.d. of ratings	skewness of ratings	kurtosis of ratings
to look for presents that have a personal touch	3.34	1.14	-0.44	-0.56
to see/be inspired by people who design and make crafts	2.97	1.22	-0.70	-0.93
to look at creative things/see new designs	3.95	0.98	-0.72	0.11
to buy things for myself which express my personality	2.85	1.20	-0.01	0.72
to see things that are different/unique	3.84	0.97	-0.81	0.52
to look for something to buy for myself	2.79	1.14	0.17	-0.66
to indulge myself	2.36	1.22	0.24	-0.89
to feed my interest in crafts	2.86	1.27	0.19	-0.89
to look for a suitable gift(s)	3.08	1.17	-0.23	-0.70
to feed my curiosity	3.00	1.17	-0.14	-0.85
to spend time in a pleasant setting	3.04	1.08	-0.20	-0.41
to look for things that I can't buy elsewhere	3.54	1.15	-0.63	-0.21
to develop my own taste	2.67	1.19	0.08	-0.85
to hunt for suitable/desirable goods	3.04	1.12	-0.27	-0.56
to be entertained/ distracted for a while	2.87	1.02	-0.20	-0.46
to have fun/enjoy myself	3.22	1.10	-0.25	-0.41
to get ideas for presents	3.23	1.12	-0.20	-0.61
to spend time in a cultural setting	2.67	1.26	-0.01	-1.05

Appendix 4.3: Items Tested for Mood Measurement Scale

Activated Pleasant Affect (high PA) enthusiastic engaged excited inspired interested lively sociable vigorous	Activated Unpleasant Affect (high NA) annoyed impatient intolerant irritable tense uneasy
Unactivated Unpleasant Affect (low PA) bored jaded nonchalant sluggish uninspired unenthusiastic	Unactivated Pleasant Affect (low NA) at ease calm carefree relaxed tranquil

Appendix 4.4: Questionnaire

Dear Sir/Madam

I am carrying out research at the University of Stirling to complete my PhD. The following questionnaire relates to my research. I have kept it as short and simple as possible to minimise the inconvenience to yourself in its completion. I would be extremely grateful if you would fill it in as your individual contribution is very important. For your trouble, your name will be entered into a draw for £50 of Marks and Spencer's gift vouchers. The draw will be made on the 17th December 1995. The results of the draw will be available from: Dept. of Marketing, University of Stirling, Stirling, FK9 4LA.

The questionnaire is in two parts. Part 1, printed on the following pages, should be completed now before you go into the craft fair. Part 2 is printed on a separate sheet and should be picked up and completed just before you leave the craft fair. For the purpose of the study it is essential that both parts of the questionnaire are completed. Your name will be entered into the draw for the gift vouchers when the second part of the questionnaire is returned to me. Your name and address will only be used for the purpose of the prize draw and will not be used in any part of this research or in any follow-up studies.

Thank you in anticipation of your co-operation

Kind regards

Sally Hibbert

Please fill in the following details:

What sex are you? (PLEASE TICK)

male female

What is your age? _____

On average, how often do you visit a craft fair? (PLEASE TICK)

four or more times per year

two or three times per year

once per year

hardly ever/never before

Are you here (PLEASE TICK):

alone with a companion other (PLEASE SPECIFY) _____

Did you come to the craft fair because (PLEASE TICK):

you wanted to come

your companion wanted to come

other (PLEASE SPECIFY)

If you live in the UK, what is your postcode? _____

=====

Many thanks for your participation in this study. In order for your name to be entered into the draw for the £50 Marks and Spencer's vouchers, please fill in the slip below:

NAME _____

ADDRESS _____

TEL NO. (day) _____

(even) _____

PART 1A

The scale below consists of a number of words that describe different feelings. Indicate to what extent you feel this way right now, that is, at the present moment. Circle the number against each word to record your answer.

	not at all <				> extremely		
lively	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
engaged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
excited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vigorous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART 1B

Below is a list of possible motives for attending a craft fair. Indicate the extent to which each one is an important motive for your visit here today.

	not at all important <				extremely > important		
Motives							
to spend time in a cultural setting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
to hunt for suitable/desirable goods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
to feed my interest in crafts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
to look at things that are creative/unique	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
to look for presents that have a personal touch	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
to see/be inspired by the people who design and make crafts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
to be entertained/distracted for a while	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
to have fun/enjoy myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
to find something desirable to buy for myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
to look for things that I can't buy elsewhere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
to develop my own taste	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
to spend time in a pleasant setting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
to indulge myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
to look for a suitable gift(s)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART 2A

Below is a list of statements that correspond to the "motives for attending a craft fair" listed in PART 1B. In this section, indicate the extent to which you feel that you have achieved each objective in the course of your visit to the craft fair today.

	not at all <				> very much so			
Motives								
spent time in a cultural setting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
hunted for suitable/desirable goods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
fed my interest in crafts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
seen things that are creative/unique	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
seen/bought things for presents that have a personal touch	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
seen/been inspired by the people who design and make crafts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
been entertained/distracted for a while	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
had fun/enjoyed myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
seen/bought something desirable for myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
seen/bought things that I can't buy elsewhere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
developed my own taste	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
spent time in a pleasant setting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
indulged myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
seen/bought a suitable gift(s)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

PART 2B

Below is the same list of words describing feelings that appeared in PART 1A. When completing this part, however, please do not pay any attention to your responses to PART 1A. Indicate to what extent you feel this way right now, that is, at the present moment. Circle a number against *each* term to record your answers.

	not at all <				> extremely			
lively	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
engaged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
excited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
vigorous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

PART 2C

Finally, please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

	strongly disagree <			> strongly agree			
I did <i>not</i> look around thoroughly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt friendly towards/felt like talking to other visitors who happened to be near me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoyed shopping at this craft fair	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
this was a place I wanted to explore	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would <i>not</i> want to return to this craft fair	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt like talking to the exhibitors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I did <i>not</i> feel like spending a lot of time here	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I searched for something to buy here	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
of the craft fairs that I have visited this is one of the most preferable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I spent more money than I had intended	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**Appendix 5.1: Interrelationships Between Variables Used to Profile Sample:
Crosstabulations and Chi² Statistics**

Relationship Between Age and Season of Shopping

			Age				Total
			18-25 yrs	26-35 yrs	36-45 yrs	over 45 yrs	
Season of shopping	Summer	Count	27	29	22	19	97
		Expected Count	16.8	31.7	23.6	24.9	97.0
	Xmas	Count	42	101	75	83	301
		Expected Count	52.2	98.3	73.4	77.1	301.0
Total		Count	69	130	97	102	398
		Expected Count	69.0	130.0	97.0	102.0	398.0

Chi-square (p=0.015)

Relationship Between Sex and Frequency of Visits to Craft Fairs

			Sex		Total
			male	female	
Freq. of visits to fairs	hardly ever/ never before	Count	18	35	53
		Expected Count	10.0	43.0	53.0
	once per year	Count	5	38	43
		Expected Count	8.1	34.9	43.0
	2 or 3 times per year	Count	31	153	184
		Expected Count	34.7	149.3	184.0
	4 or more times per year	Count	21	97	118
		Expected Count	22.2	95.8	118.0
Total		Count	75	323	398
		Expected Count	75.0	323.0	398.0

Chi-square (p=0.019)

Relationship Between Sex and Accompanied Shopping

			Sex		Total
			male	female	
Accompanied shopping	No	Count	16	111	127
		Expected Count	23.9	103.1	127.0
	Yes	Count	59	212	271
		Expected Count	51.1	219.9	271.0
Total	Count	75	323	398	
	Expected Count	75.0	323.0	398.0	

Chi-square (p=0.029)

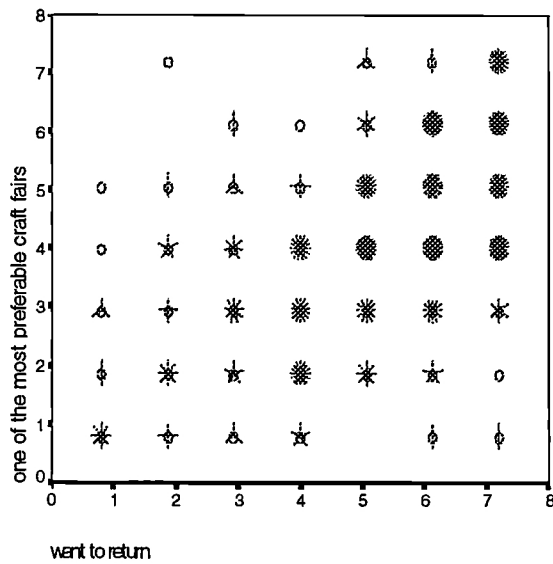
Relationship Between Frequency of Visits to Craft Fairs and Accompanied Shopping

			Freq. of visits to fairs				Total
			hardly ever/ never before	once per year	2 or 3 times per year	4 or more times per year	
Accompanied shopping	No	Count	10	16	70	31	127
		Expected Count	16.9	13.7	58.7	37.7	127.0
	Yes	Count	43	27	114	87	271
		Expected Count	36.1	29.3	125.3	80.3	271.0
Total	Count	53	43	184	118	398	
	Expected Count	53.0	43.0	184.0	118.0	398.0	

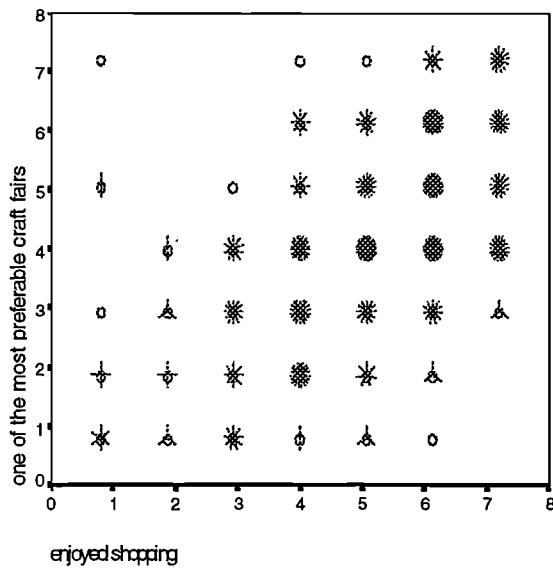
Chi-square (p=0.022)

Appendix 5.2: Scatter Plots Illustrating Relationships Between Variables Representing Retail Outcomes

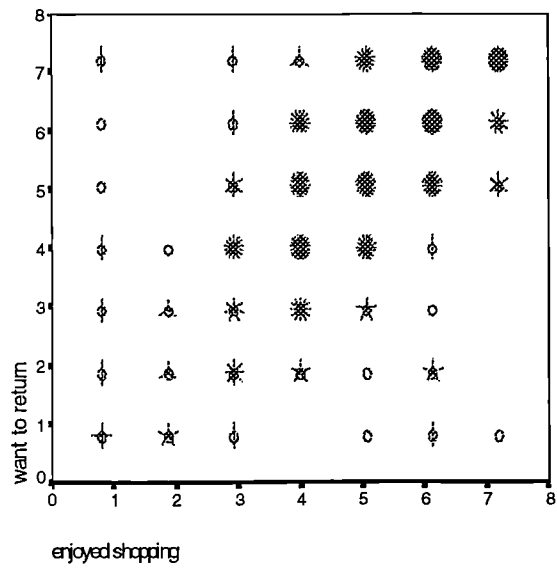
Scatter Plot of *preferred craft fair* and *intention to return*



Scatter Plot of *preferred craft fair* and *enjoyed shopping*



Scatter Plot of *intention to return* and *enjoyed shopping*



Appendix 5.3: Notes on Analytical Techniques Reported in Chapter 5

a Regression Analysis

The purpose of multiple regression is to analyse the relationship between a single dependent (criterion) variable and several independent (predictor) variables. Each predictor variable is weighted according to its relative contribution to the overall prediction, the weights being calculated so as to ensure maximum prediction. They are also used for interpretation purposes, indicating the influence of each independent variable, although interrelationships among the independent variables can complicate the interpretation (Hair *et al.*, 1995). The fact that multiple regression can be applied where there are several predictor variables, for which the data may be in various forms, means that it is a suitable technique for the present analysis.

The Relative Contributions of the Independent Variables

Where the researcher is interested in a linear relationship between a dependent and several independent variables it is often desirable to establish the relative contributions of the independent variables. Two statistics that are indicators of this are the estimated coefficient (B) and the standardised coefficient (β) for each variable in the regression equation. The magnitude of B depends on the units in which the variables are measured. Therefore, it is only possible to compare the variables' respective coefficients if they are measured in the same units. In this case the units of the various background variables (categorical data) and the mood variable (interval data) were quite different. In such cases it is the beta weights (the coefficients of the independent variables when all are expressed in standardised [Z score] form) that are used as a basis for comparison.

Although the standardised coefficients (β) offer a clearer indicator of the relative contributions of the independent variables, there remains some complication in that the standardised coefficients are influenced by correlations among the independent

variables. Therefore, it does not provide an absolute indication of the relative contributions of the independent variables. When the independent variables are correlated among themselves they each make a unique contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable. In addition, a contribution is made by the overlap among the variables. It is the contribution of this overlap that causes the complications. Where the predictor variables are intercorrelated, it is necessary to consider both the full correlation of each independent variable with the dependent variable as well as its contribution as indicated in the regression equation for purposes of interpretation. The type of regression model also needs to be taken into account.

Main Types of Multiple Regression

There are three main multiple regression models: standard, hierarchical and stepwise (statistical) multiple regression. The differences between them relate to what happens to overlapping variability due to correlated independent variables. The determination of the order of entry of independent variables into the equation can drastically affect the interpretation of the solution because of the apparent importance of various independent variables to the solution changes.

In *standard multiple regression* all independent variables are entered into the model simultaneously. Each one is assessed as if it had been entered after all the other independent variables, that is, it is evaluated for what it adds to the prediction of the dependent variable beyond the prediction afforded by the other variables. In this model the unique and overlapping contributions are included in R^2 , but only the unique contributions are attributed to any of the variables. This means, however, that a predictor might be substantially correlated with the dependent variable but because of the overlaps with other predictors it appears to be relatively unimportant. Therefore, both the full correlation and the unique contribution need to be considered in interpretation (Schroeder *et al.*, 1986).

In the *hierarchical model*, independent variables are entered into the equation in the order specified by the researcher and each is assessed in terms of what it adds to the model at its own point of entry. In this type of regression, the predictor that is entered first gets credit for the contribution made by the overlap between itself and any other predictors with which it is correlated, and so on. Order of entry is decided by the researcher on logical and theoretical grounds such that those variables considered to have a prior causal effect, or greater theoretical importance are entered first either individually or in sets/blocks. Alternatively, the opposite approach can be taken in which the less important predictor variables are entered first in order to establish what the important independent variables add to the prediction over and above the less important set.

Stepwise (statistical) regression is a procedure in which the order of entry for the independent variables is determined on statistical grounds. The statistical criteria that determines the first variable to be entered into the equation depends on the size of the full correlations between the independent and dependent variables. The second variable to be entered is that which offers the next greatest contribution to prediction. Therefore, a predictor may be substantially correlated with the dependent variable, but if it has also has a substantial overlap with the first predictor that was entered into the equation then it may not be selected for inclusion in the equation at the second stage. Instead, a predictor with a relatively small total correlation with the dependent variable might be entered second if it is uncorrelated with the variable that was entered first. Therefore, it is essential that the initial correlation between each predictor variable and the criterion be taken into account for the interpretation of statistical regression. There are risks attached to using this model because decisions are potentially made on the basis of minor differences in statistics computed from a single sample. Similarly, an equation derived from a sample may be too specific to generalise well to the wider population. In other words, statistical regression may over-fit the data (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989).

Of these three models standard multiple regression is appropriate for the simple assessment of relationships among variables. Hierarchical regression is generally used where there are logical or theoretical reasons for specifying the order in which the independent variables should be entered into the model. Stepwise/statistical regression may be used for model building with sample data and for exploratory purposes, for example, eliminating independent variables that are of limited importance to improve future research efforts (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989).

Relative Importance of Independent Variables in Regression Analysis

Generally, in order to get a complete picture of the relative importance of the predictor variables in a regression equation the following information is required: the full correlation between the independent and dependent variables; the full correlations of the independent variables with each other; and the unique relationship between the independent and the dependent variables. The first two of these are given by pairwise bivariate correlations. The unique relationship between the independent and the dependent variables is given by partial or semi-partial correlations. In partial correlations, the contribution of the other independent variables is removed from both the predictor and the criterion variables. In semi-partial correlation the contribution of the other independent variables is only taken out of the predictor variable. The squared semi-partial correlation, therefore, reflects the unique contribution of the predictor variable to the total variance of the dependent variable.

^b Interaction Effects

Interaction effects arise when the relationship between an independent and a dependent variable is influenced by another independent variable. That is, when the second independent (moderator) variable changes the form of the relationship of interest such that the slope of the relationship changes across values of the moderator variable. Arithmetically, the moderating effects of one independent variable on another is

accounted for by introducing an interaction term into the regression equation. A typical regression equation including two independent variables would normally take the form:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \varepsilon$$

where: Y = dependent variable, X_1 = first independent variable, X_2 = second independent variable, β_0 = intercept, β_1 = regression coefficient for the first independent variable, β_2 = regression coefficient for the second independent variable, and ε = residual.

Where it is desirable to investigate the moderating effects of X_2 on X_1 , a compound variable is formed by multiplying X_1 by the moderator X_2 . The regression equation that accounts for the moderated relationship is represented as follows:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_1 X_2 + \varepsilon$$

where: $X_1 X_2$ = multiplicative combination of X_1 and X_2 (interaction term), and β_3 = regression coefficient for the interaction term.

Interpretation of the regression coefficients differs when an interaction term is included in the equation. β_1 and β_2 indicate the effects of X_1 and X_2 , respectively, when the other independent variable is zero. β_3 represents the unit change in the effects of X_1 as X_2 changes.

One of the main problems with multiple regression that accounts for interaction effects relates to the threat of multicollinearity (Cronbach, 1987). Multicollinearity is almost inevitable between multiplicative terms and their component parts (Jaccard, Turrisi and Wan, 1990). One solution offered by Cronbach (1987), and supported by Jaccard,

Turrisi and Wan (1990), is to standardise the independent variables before forming the interaction term. This transformation generally produces low correlations between the interaction term and the component parts.

Appendix 5.4: Assumptions of Multiple Linear Regression

Introduction

There are two basic assumptions implicit to multiple linear regression. The first assumption is that the relationship between each set of independent variables and the dependent variable is linear and, secondly, that the effects of the sets of independent variables are additive. In addition, Berry and Feldman (1985) outline seven other assumptions that must be satisfied to be able to appropriately estimate population parameters and test statistical significance:

- 1) the independent variables, the X_i , are measured without error
- 2) for each set of values X_i , the mean error term is zero
- 3) for each set of values X_i , the variance of the error term is constant
- 4) for any two independent variables, the error terms are uncorrelated
- 5) each independent variable is uncorrelated with the error term
- 6) there is no perfect collinearity, that is, no independent variable is perfectly linearly related to one or more of the other independent variables in the model.
- 7) for each set of values X_i , the error is normally distributed

The following sections discuss the types of problems that arise when these assumptions are violated.

Measurement Error

The issue of measurement error (assumption 1) should not be dealt with at the level of analysis, but should be addressed at the research design stage. In this research, substantial effort was invested in the preliminary stages of the research to create valid scales to measure mood and shopping goals and so minimise non-random error. Nonetheless, measurement issues are considered in the discussion of the regression models obtained in the testing of each hypothesis.

Random error is likely to be present in the data to some degree, although attempts were made to minimise it by piloting of the questionnaire and taking care at the stage of data entry. Where random error is a problem, the regression coefficients may be unbiased but their standard error estimates may be large and reduce the likelihood of significance being achieved in rejection of the null hypothesis. In addition, the overall fit of the model may be deflated (Berry and Feldman, 1985).

Heteroscedasticity and Autocorrelation

Problems of heteroscedasticity and autocorrelation are associated with assumptions concerning the distribution of the error term.

Heteroscedasticity is observed if the variance of the error term is not constant (assumption 3). Of the assumptions relating to the distribution of the error term, this one is most likely to be the source of any problems in the context of present research. Heteroscedasticity arises in various situations. For example, heteroscedasticity occurs when the dependent variable is measured with error and the error varies with the value of the independent variable. Alternatively, in relation to more substantive issues, heteroscedasticity may occur when a moderating variable not included in the analysis influences the importance of the predictor variable at different levels.

With regard to the consequences of heteroscedasticity Berry and Feldman (1985) note that it does not bias the regression coefficients. It does, however, lead to bias in estimates of their variances so that, when the coefficient estimates (calculated by the ordinary least squares method) are used to test hypotheses or generate confidence intervals for the population coefficients, the hypothesis may be incorrectly accepted or rejected.

The most common approach to testing for heteroscedasticity is to plot the standardised regression residuals against the dependent values (Hair *et al.*, 1995). Violations of assumption 3 can be detected by specific patterns in of the residuals (see Hair *et al.*, 1995). Bohrnstedt and Carter (1971), having reviewed a number of studies concerned with the effects of heteroscedasticity on statistical significance, conclude, however, that unless heteroscedasticity is marked, significance tests will be almost unaffected.

Autocorrelation occurs when the error terms for two or more independent variables are correlated. This tends to be more of a problem in time series analyses where observations of a particular case are made at subsequent points in time and the error (representing influential factors that are not included in the model) at each sampling point tends to be related.

The least important of the assumptions relating to the distribution of error is the assumption (2) that for each set of values X_i , the mean error term is zero.

Assumption 2 is only of concern if the researcher is interested in the value of the intercept because this is the only coefficient that is affected by violation of this assumption.

Multicollinearity

The problem of multicollinearity is due to correlation between independent variables in the analysis. The extreme form occurs when there is perfect collinearity, that is, the independent variables are perfectly linearly related. It is only in this extreme case that the assumption is violated. Normally, in practical applications of regression analysis in the social sciences, more moderate forms of multicollinearity are encountered.

Although these less extreme cases do not violate the assumption, degrees of multicollinearity has a number of consequences of which the researcher should be aware.

Multicollinearity influences the variance of the estimated regression coefficients, such that it increases as the correlation between independent variables increases. Thus multicollinearity affects significance tests and confidence intervals for regression coefficients. When multicollinearity is high, confidence intervals for coefficients tend to be wide and t-statistics for significance tests tend to be small (Berry and Feldman, 1985). Multicollinearity tends only to be of concern when correlation between independent variables is particularly high. The SPSS output for regression analysis does, however, include tolerance statistics that indicate the presence of problematic variables.

Specification Error

Specification error is related to the two basic assumptions that the relationship between each set of predictor variables and the dependent variables in the regression is linear and that the effects of the sets of independent variables are additive. These assumptions relate, respectively, to two types of specification error. First, the functional form of the relationship may be specified wrongly, in which case the least squared estimators will be biased. This issue should be dealt with on a substantive level. However, Hair *et al.* (1995) suggest that linearity can be examined by plotting the residuals against the Y value. In multiple regression analysis the effects of each independent variable are examined by running partial regression plots (which show the relationship of a single predictor variable and the criterion variable).

Secondly, the wrong predictor variables may be used to estimate a model, which may also lead to bias in the estimators. The inclusion of inappropriate variables or exclusion of relevant predictor variables is only problematic if they are not independent from other predictor variables in the model. In this case the estimates for the coefficients of the other predictor variables are unaffected by the presence or absence of the excluded variables (Berry and Feldman, 1985). By contrast, when irrelevant variables are included in the regression model, the standard error of the estimates is

wide if relevant and irrelevant variables are correlated. When relevant variables are excluded from the regression model variables left in the equation, that are correlated with the excluded variable, will pick up some of the variance due to the excluded variable and bias the estimator of that variable. Also, the excluded variable also becomes part of the error term and, if other predictor variables are correlated with the excluded variable, they become correlated with the error term, which violates one of the major assumptions (assumption 5). In this case the OLS no longer guarantees that estimators or the parameters will be unbiased. Exclusion of a relevant variable serves to reduce the standard error of the estimate of other predictor variables, but this increase in efficiency is obtained at the cost of bias in the estimator.

As for specification error due to non linearity, the problem of which independent variables to include in the multiple regression is largely a substantive problem. In particular, there is no clear-cut way if knowing, after the event, whether an important variable has been excluded from the analysis. Statistical techniques, on the other hand, do provide information about whether irrelevant variables have been included. Partial correlations can be conducted prior to running a model in order to assess whether a particular independent variable is correlated with the dependent variable when the other independent variables are held constant (Oumlil and Balloun, 1990). Both the size of the coefficient for an independent variable and the change in the adjusted R^2 value when a variable is added/removed from the equation can be taken as indicators of the (ir)relevance of a variable. In the present research, this type of evidence was sought in for the regression analyses conducted to test each of the five hypotheses.

Normality of the Error Term Distribution

The only assumption that has not been referred to in the above discussion is assumption 7, which states that for each set of values X_j , the error is normally distributed. The reason that this has not been discussed is because violation of this assumption is of little consequence in the present research context. With regard to the