

Shopping Motivation as a Moderator in Retail Service Evaluation

INTRODUCTION

Prior research found that sacrifice, service quality, value, and satisfaction together influence customers' behavioral intentions in the comprehensive service evaluation model (Brady *et al.*, 2005). Moreover, customer characteristics such as age and gender may moderate most of the linkages in the service evaluation process (Sharma *et al.*, 2010). However, none of these studies explore the differences in the service evaluation process between different types of service contexts, despite using data collected from a wide range of services including fast food, long distance telephony, healthcare, sporting events, grocery stores, and airlines. Hence, it is not clear if this process is the same for every type of service.

The service context can be a critical factor in predicting responses to a service experience and success in retailing requires knowledge of the attributes that are valued by customers and used to discriminate between retailers (Oliver *et al.*, 1997). In fact, many studies cover a diverse range of service contexts with varying degrees of customer-employee interactions and some important differences in hedonic vs. utilitarian, and tangible vs. intangible attributes (Brady *et al.*, 2005, Cronin *et al.*, 2000). However, these studies focus more on the similarities rather than differences between these service contexts; hence they do not explain how and why customer evaluations may differ across various service contexts.

To address this gap, this paper examines the moderating influence of shopping motivation (hedonic or utilitarian) on all the linkages in the comprehensive service evaluation model. Specifically, this paper hypothesizes differences between retail categories with higher hedonic versus utilitarian attributes and tests them across two sets of retail categories; namely, those high on utilitarian service attributes (i.e., department stores, electronics, telecom services) and others high on hedonic service attributes (i.e., cosmetics, fashion, and jewelry). Besides extending prior research on service evaluation models, this study may also help

managers to identify those elements of the service evaluation process that are more important in hedonic vs. utilitarian retail categories, and to use these insights to manage their marketing mix more effectively.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

Comprehensive Service Evaluation Model

Prior research has compared four different models of service evaluation process to and found that the comprehensive service model provides the best fit to their data (e.g., Brady *et al.*, 2005, Sharma *et al.*, 2010). These models use the same five constructs (i.e., service quality, sacrifice, value, customer satisfaction, and behavioral intention), but specify different patterns of relations among all these constructs and designate one of them as a focal construct.

For example, the “Value” model considers customer perceived value as the central mediating construct in the service evaluation process (e.g., Parasuraman and Grewal, 2000, Sirohi *et al.*, 1998, Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). In contrast, the “Service quality” model treats perceived service quality as the central driver of behavioral intentions (e.g., Athanassopoulos, 2000, Boulding *et al.*, 1993, Lee and Cunningham, 2001, Zeithaml *et al.*, 1996). Next, the “Satisfaction” model specifies customer satisfaction as the key determinant of behavioral intentions (e.g., Anderson and Fornell, 1994, Andreassen, 1998, Mohr and Bitner, 1995). Finally, the “Comprehensive” model shows that service quality, service value, and customer satisfaction all relate to behavioral intentions (e.g., Bitner *et al.*, 1994, Cronin *et al.*, 2000).

< Insert Figure 1 about here >

Although prior studies found that the “comprehensive” model (Figure 1) provides the best fit, they also discovered several differences in the strength of the relationships among the various constructs across different sub-groups within their samples. For example, Brady *et al.* (2005) found a significant effect of service quality, value, and satisfaction on behavioral

intentions only in their US and Australian samples. They also found that the effects of satisfaction in the Netherlands sample, and of service quality in the Hong Kong and Moroccan samples were not significant; and only value had a significant effect on behavioral intentions in all their samples. Interestingly, Sharma et al. (2010) found that age and gender moderated most of the links in the comprehensive service evaluation model.

Shopping Motivations and Service Evaluation

Consumers seek both hedonic and utilitarian value from their shopping experiences (Babin *et al.*, 1994, Jones *et al.*, 2006, Tauber, 1972, Tauber, 1995). Hedonic value reflects the emotional and psychological aspects of the shopping experience; and utilitarian value relates to the achievement of shopping objective in an efficient manner (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982, Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). Consumers seek utilitarian value in a task-oriented, rational manner (Batra and Ahtola, 1991), and hedonic value from the joy and excitement inherent in the shopping experience itself (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003).

The extent to which consumers are motivated by the hedonic and utilitarian values may vary across shopping situations based on the product(s) being shopped for and the type(s) of retail institutions offering these products (Westbrook and Black, 1985). For example, utilitarian values explain greater variance in total customer value compared to hedonic value in a departmental store (Rintamäki *et al.*, 2006). In contrast, hedonic values explained greater variance in consumer perceptions about different retail fashion apparel brands compared to utilitarian value (Carpenter *et al.*, 2005).

Several studies explore the association of shopping motivation with different elements of the service evaluation process such as customer satisfaction (Babin *et al.*, 1994, Babin *et al.*, 2005, Carpenter and Fairhurst, 2005, Dawson *et al.*, 1990), repeat purchase (Stoel *et al.*, 2004), word of mouth and loyalty (Carpenter and Fairhurst, 2005, Jones *et al.*, 2006). Jones et al. (2006) also explore differences in the relative influence of hedonic and utilitarian

shopping value on various retail outcome variables, showing a stronger influence of hedonic value on satisfaction and word of mouth compared to utilitarian value; and a stronger influence of utilitarian value on repeat purchase intentions. They also show that the hedonic value moderates the influence of satisfaction on positive word of mouth, whereas utilitarian value moderates the influence of satisfaction on loyalty and repeat purchase intentions.

However, most of these studies use a single retail category such as departmental stores (Rintamäki *et al.*, 2006, Westbrook, 1981), hypermarkets (Chan and Tai, 2001), apparel stores (Carpenter and Fairhurst, 2005, Carpenter *et al.*, 2005), and online shopping (Childers *et al.*, 2001, Francis and White, 2004). Some collected data from different retail categories but combined it for their data analysis (Bellenger and Korgaonkar, 1980, Diep and Sweeney, 2008, Jones *et al.*, 2006) and others covered shopping malls and stores in general (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003, Babin *et al.*, 1994, Bloch *et al.*, 1994, Haytko and Baker, 2004). Hence, it is not clear if there are any differences in the moderating influence of shopping value on the different elements of the service evaluation process.

Prior research distinguishes product categories based on their hedonic (e.g. flowers, designer clothes, music, jewelry, and personal accessories) and utilitarian (e.g. home appliances, electronic gadgets, and groceries) attributes (Dhar and Wertenbroch, 2000, Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982). In fact, many studies on service evaluation cover those influenced primarily by hedonic motivations such as spectator and participation sports, entertainment; as well as utilitarian motivations such as healthcare, long distance telephony, and fast food (Cronin *et al.*, 2000). However, these studies focus more on the similarities in the service evaluation process among these categories rather than their differences; whereas studies comparing different service evaluation models cover services with mostly utilitarian motivations such as fast food, grocery stores, physicians and airlines (e.g., Brady *et al.*, 2005).

Hedonic consumption relates with facets of behavior that relate to the multi-sensory, fantasy, and emotive aspects of consumption (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). This view suggests hedonic consumption is driven by the fun a consumer has in buying and using the product, and the criteria for “success” are essentially aesthetic in nature. In fact, the main objective in utilitarian shopping categories seems to be product acquisition whereas in hedonic shopping categories, customers also draw utility from the buying process (i.e. browsing, interaction with the service employees, trying out different options). Customers also tend to be more result-driven when shopping in retail categories dominated by utilitarian motivation such as departmental stores, electronics, and telecom services. In contrast, they may be more hedonically motivated in categories such as fashion, jewelry, and cosmetics.

Prior research shows that when faced with a choice task, customers search for reasons and arguments to justify their choice (Dhar and Wertenbroch, 2000) and emphasize the utilitarian aspects of those decisions that help them justify their choices (Tversky *et al.*, 1988). Moreover, customers are shown to be more concerned about sacrificing their valuable resources (e.g., time, money, and effort) in utilitarian (e.g., fast food) compared to hedonic (e.g., entertainment) categories (Cronin *et al.*, 2000). Hence, the following hypothesis:

H1: The negative relationship between sacrifice and value is stronger for utilitarian compared to hedonic retail categories.

Utilitarian shopping motives are relatively more objective and task-oriented whereas hedonic shopping motives are more subjective and oriented towards fun, amusement, fantasy, and sensory stimulation (Babin *et al.*, 1994). Hence, customers may use an objective criterion like perceived value (costs vs. benefits analysis) to judge their satisfaction with the service experience, to a greater extent for utilitarian compared to hedonic service categories. In fact, Cronin *et al.* (2000) also show a stronger influence of value on satisfaction in utilitarian categories (e.g., healthcare) compared to hedonic categories (e.g., spectator sports). Hence,

H2: The positive relationship between value and satisfaction is stronger for utilitarian compared to hedonic retail categories.

Behaviors such as positive word of mouth and repeat purchase are associated with cognitive processes, such as perceptions of value and equity evaluations, attribution analysis, recall and interpretation of events, and communicating and sharing meaningful information with others (Hartline and Jones, 1996). Compared to the hedonic value, utilitarian shopping value focuses on the comparison of inputs and outputs of a particular shopping experience, reflecting the extent to which the trip was “successful” (Babin *et al.*, 1994). In fact, utilitarian shopping value is even shown to have a stronger influence on ‘repatronage intentions’ than hedonic shopping value (Jones *et al.*, 2006). Hence, the influence of perceived value and satisfaction on future behavioral intentions such as repeat purchase and positive WOM may be stronger in utilitarian compared to hedonic services. Therefore,

H3: The positive relationship between value and behavioral intentions is stronger for utilitarian compared to hedonic retail categories.

H4: The positive relationship between satisfaction and behavioral intentions is stronger for utilitarian compared to hedonic retail categories.

Hedonically motivated shoppers describe the enjoyment of bargaining and haggling (Sherry, 1990), and the mood-altering qualities of the shopping experience (Thompson *et al.*, 1990). Sherry (1990) suggests that “seeking of such experiences is often far more significant than the mere acquisition of products”. Retail categories with higher hedonic attributes (e.g., fashion, jewelry, and cosmetics) also allow greater interaction between customers and employees, and customers can try on various options before deciding whether to buy an item. Hedonic categories also provide a richer and fuller service experience compared to utilitarian categories (e.g., departmental stores, electronics, and telecom services).

Based on the above, customers in hedonic retail categories may be more likely to use service quality perceptions as an important cue in forming their judgments about satisfaction and value and also in predicting their behavioral intentions. In fact, Cronin *et al.* (2000) also show a stronger influence of service quality on satisfaction, value, and behavioral intentions for hedonic categories (e.g., sports and entertainment) compared to utilitarian categories (e.g., healthcare and long distance phone services). Therefore, the following hypotheses:

H5: The positive relationship between service quality and satisfaction is stronger for hedonic compared to utilitarian retail categories.

H6: The positive relationship between service quality and value is stronger for hedonic compared to utilitarian retail categories.

H7: The positive relationship service quality and behavioral intentions is stronger for hedonic compared to utilitarian retail categories.

Table 1 shows a summary of all the above hypotheses. In the next section, we describe the methodology used to test all these hypotheses and discuss the findings.

< Insert Table 1 about here >

METHOD

Pilot Study 1

The purpose of the first pilot study was to help classify the six retail categories used in the main study (cosmetics, department stores, electronics, fashion, jewelry, and telecom services) as either ‘hedonic’ or ‘utilitarian’. For this, the authors used a qualitative approach with a series of focus groups (4) and in-depth interviews (20) conducted in a central location with shoppers recruited from a cross-section of all these retail categories. Each focus group had 6-8 participants with similar demographic background and took between one to one and a half hours. The in-depth interviews took about half an hour each.

The participants indicated whether utilitarian (or functional) or hedonic (or emotional) value dominated their shopping motivation for each of these retail categories. The findings show that the shoppers seek mostly emotional and aesthetic benefits such as ‘shopping enjoyment’, ‘looking more attractive’, ‘self-confidence enhancement’, ‘matching lifestyle’, and ‘feeling happier’ in the cosmetics, fashion, and jewelry categories. In contrast, they seek functional benefits such as ‘reliable quality’, ‘product safety’, ‘good customer service’, ‘wide product range’, and ‘lower prices’ in the department stores, telecom, and electronics.

Pilot Study 2

To validate the above findings, using the approach employed by Okada (2005), the authors conducted interviews with 48 respondents asking them to rate each retail category on seven-point scales anchored with ‘not at all hedonic’ (1) to ‘extremely hedonic’ (7) and ‘not at all utilitarian’ (1) to ‘extremely utilitarian’ respectively. Based on the convergent findings from both the studies, department stores, electronics, telecom services were classified as utilitarian; and cosmetics, fashion, and jewelry as hedonic retail categories.

Main Study

A team of experienced interviewers carried out a large-scale field survey using mall-intercept approach in major shopping areas in Hong Kong covering 250 retail outlets. They kept record of all the contacts made and submitted this information along with the completed questionnaires. From about 10,000 contacts they collected 2,727 usable questionnaires, a fairly high response rate (27%) for mall-intercept approach (Bush and Hair Jr., 1985). The survey team interviewed the shoppers soon after they finished shopping.

The authors chose Hong Kong as the location for this study because it is a well-known shopping destination with hundreds of shopping malls visited by millions of shoppers every year, which allowed them to study shoppers with a wide range of demographic and

psychographic characteristics across several retail categories. Moreover, prior studies found no significant effect of service quality on behavioral intentions in Hong Kong (Brady *et al.*, 2005); whereas others found that age and gender moderated most of the links in the service evaluation process (Sharma *et al.*, 2010). Hence, this study also examines the generalizability of findings from prior studies in Hong Kong. Table 2 shows the sample composition.

< Insert Table 2 about here >

Measures

The main study used a structured questionnaire to measure all the constructs in the comprehensive service evaluation model, with multi-item scales adapted from prior research and modified to suit the retail categories covered in this study (e.g., Sharma *et al.*, 2010, Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). The authors developed an English version of the questionnaire, which a bilingual research assistant translated into Chinese and then another bilingual researcher not associated with this study back-translated it into English. Since, no major discrepancies were noticed between the original and back-translated versions; two final versions of the questionnaire were prepared; one in English and another in Chinese.

All the scales use seven-point Likert-type response formats with values ranging from 1 (strongly disagree/very low/far below your expectation) to 7 (strongly agree/very high/ far above your expectation) and the questionnaire records gender and age as categorical variables. Finally, as explained earlier, this paper operationalizes shopping motivation based on qualitative research findings about the primary consumer motivations for the six retail categories; identifying fashion, jewelry and cosmetics as hedonic and departmental stores, electronics, and telecom services as utilitarian.

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Confirmatory Factor Analysis with Maximum Likelihood Method using AMOS 6.0 on the measurement model shows good psychometric properties of all the scales with high loadings ($> .60$) on the expected factors with large t-values and no significant cross-loadings. Table 3 shows the psychometric properties of all the measures.

< Insert Tables 3 & 4 about here >

Table 4 shows the correlations among the five constructs. There is a significant positive correlation among perceived value, quality, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions. Moreover, sacrifice correlated significantly negatively with the other four constructs. All these patterns are in line with prior research and support the robustness of the scales used to measure the constructs in this study (Brady *et al.*, 2005). All five scales are also reliable with their composite reliabilities ranging from 0.79 to 0.89 (Table 4). This compares well with Cronin *et al.*'s (2000) scale where the composite reliabilities ranged from 0.69 to 0.94.

Table 5 compares the average scores for all the five scales across the two sub-groups based on hedonic vs. utilitarian shopping motivation. Shoppers in hedonic retail categories have significantly higher scores for value, service quality, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions compared to the shoppers in utilitarian retail categories, whereas shoppers in utilitarian retail categories have higher scores for sacrifice.

< Insert Table 5 about here >

Next, the analyses includes overall χ^2 difference tests for the moderating effect by dividing the sample into sub-groups based on the values of moderator variable (i.e., shopping motivation). Specifically, two models were compared; one imposing equality constraints on all the regression weights across the two sub-groups, and the other allowing all the

parameters to vary freely across the sub-groups, to test if the moderator variable have any effect on the relationships in the service evaluation model.

Both the general models with the two sub-groups as well as the constrained models with all the seven regression weights restricted as being equal across the two sub-groups provide good fit to the data. Moreover, the χ^2 differences between the two models are significant as shown in Table 6, providing evidence that shopping motivation may moderate the relationships in the service evaluation model.

< Insert Table 6 about here >

To explore these moderating effects further and test all the hypotheses, the authors constrained each link separately to be equal across the two sub-groups and calculated the χ^2 difference with respect to the general model, to test the moderating effect of each variable on each link in the comprehensive service evaluation model. Overall, the results show a significant moderating effect of shopping motivation on 6 out of 7 links (Table 7).

< Insert Table 7 about here >

DISCUSSION AND MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

As hypothesized for the SAC-VAL link (H1), shoppers in utilitarian retail categories (departmental stores, electronics, and telecom services) associate their sacrifice in terms of time, money and effort with their perceived value to a greater extent compared to shoppers in hedonic retail categories (fashion, jewelry, and cosmetics). Managers of retail categories that are more utilitarian (e.g. electronics, supermarkets, convenience stores, DIY stores) may need to focus on reducing the perceived sacrifice of their customers. This can be achieved by training front-line employees to work more efficiently, reduce customer waiting time, improving service turnaround, having clear displays and signage, or even redesigning the servicescape to facilitate service provision and minimize effort for customers. Deploying

more staff to assist customers, answer questions and direct them to the correct shelves will help to save customers' time and effort. Investments in supply chain technology can help to ensure that shelves are well-stocked with sufficient variety even at busy times to give customers a sense of “accomplishment” of the shopping trip.

For VAL-BI (H3) and SAT-BI (H4), shoppers in utilitarian retail categories associate both perceived value and satisfaction with their behavioral intentions to a greater extent compared to shoppers in hedonic retail categories. In other words, shoppers seem to be more calculative and value conscious in utilitarian retail categories, whereas they may like to relax and enjoy the shopping experience in hedonic retail categories. Managers in utilitarian retail categories may consider enhancing the perceived value and satisfaction for their customers through specific actions including price-related advertising, in-store promotions, and tangible benefits such as discounts, loyalty programs, and new product features. Additional services like choice of delivery times, free installation, and proper (green) disposal of customers' old and bulky equipment will also help to increase perceived value.

For SQ-SAT (H5) and SQ-VAL (H6), shoppers in hedonic retail categories associate perceived service quality with their satisfaction and value to a greater extent compared to those in utilitarian retail categories. This finding highlights the importance of service quality in the service evaluation process, especially in hedonic retail categories. Therefore, managers in hedonic retail categories should focus more on improving their service quality in order to enhance the value perceptions and satisfaction for such customers. This could be achieved through careful selection of frontline salespeople and training them in product knowledge and customer interaction skills. For example, in services high in search qualities like clothing and technical appliance retail, customers may prefer to be served by sales staff of the same age group as they can make better suggestions (Wäger and Lindqvist, 2010). Besides being friendly and approachable, staff should also try to anticipate the needs of customers and go

out of their way to help to help them complete their shopping trip by checking stock availability in nearby stores if not they are not available in the current store. Retail managers may also find it useful to identify those specific aspects of service quality that have the strongest impact on customer satisfaction and value perceptions, and focus on improving these aspects while maintaining their performance on the other not so important aspects.

Shopping motivation does not moderate the VAL-SAT link, thus hypothesis H2 does not find support; however this does not mean that value perceptions do not have a significant effect on satisfaction judgments. It may probably only mean that there is no difference in the association between perceived value and satisfaction for shoppers in hedonic and utilitarian retail categories. To explore this further, the authors tested for the interaction between gender and shopping motivation, by comparing the path coefficients across four groups: male + hedonic, female + hedonic, male + utilitarian, and female + utilitarian.

Interestingly, the authors found a significant interaction, wherein females in hedonic retail categories and males in utilitarian categories have significantly higher association between value and satisfaction, compared to the other two groups. This finding is in line with prior research on gender differences showing that men are generally more utilitarian (ergic, task-related and rational) in their shopping orientation and women more hedonistic (experiential, curious, pleasure seeking) (Diep and Sweeney, 2008). Moreover, females have hedonic motivations for shopping, even when the primary objective is utilitarian (Haytko and Baker, 2004). Hence, both men and women may over-emphasize their value perceptions in retail categories that are congruent with their predominant shopping motivation in general.

Overall, this study shows significant moderating influences of shopping motivation on most of the links in the service evaluation process. Hence, this research extends the work by Brady et al. (2005) on service evaluation models and others on the influence of customer characteristics on different stages in the service evaluation process (Evanschitzky and

Wunderlich, 2006, Homburg and Giering, 2001, Mittal and Kamakura, 2001, Sharma *et al.*, 2010). Unlike prior studies, this research goes beyond a mere descriptive and empirical investigation and instead uses well-established conceptual frameworks to formulate its hypotheses and tests these in a large-scale field study across six retail different categories.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Despite its important conceptual and managerial contributions, this study also has some limitations. First, it examines behavioral intentions instead of actual behavior because actual future purchase behavior is difficult to track in a cross-sectional survey. However, this may not be a major concern in this study as it involves frequently purchased products, and prior research shows that shoppers are able to predict their future behavior quite accurately in categories with frequent, routine purchase decisions (Chandon *et al.*, 2005).

Second, this study operationalized shopping motivation as a characteristic of each retail category based on a series of pretests with shoppers and it did not examine shopping motivation for individual shoppers. Although, this makes the findings easier for retail managers to understand and adopt as it would be difficult for them to measure shopping motivations at individual level for each of their shoppers, future research may measure the actual motivation for each individual shopper for a more rigorous test of the hypotheses.

Third, cultural differences may exist in the preference for hedonic versus utilitarian consumption based on cultural conditioning (Lim and Ang, 2008). Also, consumers from collectivistic cultures may emphasize interpersonal relationships more than those from individualistic cultures (Mattila, 1999). Hence, future research may provide additional insights by exploring the interaction between cultural orientations and shopping motivation.

Fourth, our study examined retail services that are fairly high in tangibility. It is possible that with services that are intangible, the findings may be different. Future research may examine more intangible hedonic (e.g. spas, holiday cruises) and utilitarian (e.g. bus and

commuter train) services to see if similar findings are obtained. Finally, in view of the recent growth in e-channels and online shopping, examining the influence of shopping motivation on the evaluation of online retail services may be useful.

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Figure 1: “Comprehensive” Model (Brady *et al.*, 2005)

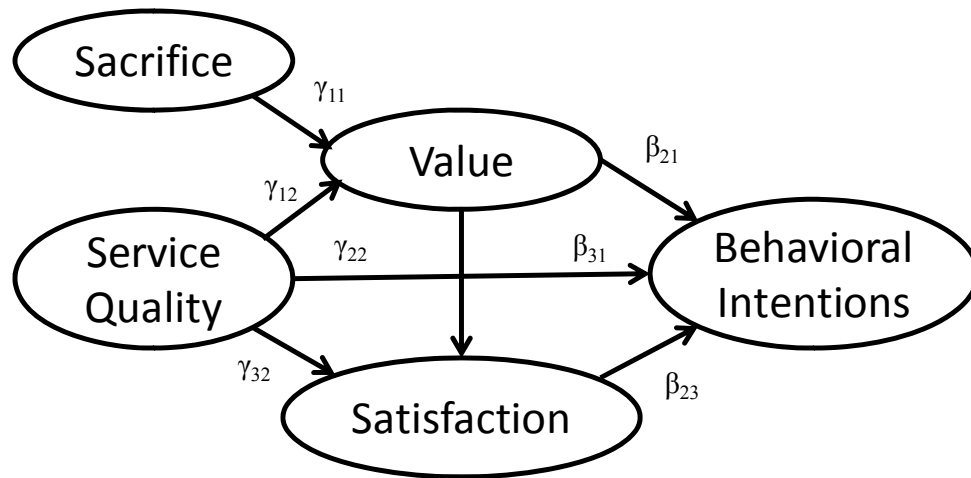


Table 1: Hypotheses Summary

Retail Category	Shopping Motivation	
	Hedonic	Utilitarian
SAC-VAL (γ_{11})	-	--
VAL-BI (β_{21})	+	++
VAL-SAT (β_{31})	+	++
SAT-BI (β_{23})	+	++
SQ-VAL (γ_{12})	++	+
SQ-BI (γ_{22})	++	+
SQ-SAT (γ_{32})	++	+

Note: The + and - signs denote positive and negative relationships respectively. The number of signs in each cell denotes the strength of that relationship e.g., ++ means a stronger positive relationship than + etc.

Table 2: Sample Composition (N=2727)

Retail Category	Overall	Shopping Motivation	
		Hedonic	Utilitarian
Fashion	504	504	-
Jewelry	419	419	-
Electronics	459	-	459
Dept Store	443	-	443
Cosmetics	498	498	-
Telecom	404	-	404
	2727	1421	1306

Table 3: Psychometric Properties of Measures

Scale	λ	α	M	SD
Perceived Service Quality (SQ) (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)				
1. Service employees at this store responded promptly to my request.	0.75	0.56	5.61	0.75
2. Service employees at this store are friendly.	0.81	0.65	5.70	0.64
3. Service employees at this store have good product knowledge.	0.75	0.56	5.68	0.68
4. Service employees at this store are willing to help customers.	0.80	0.63	5.75	0.61
5. Service employees at this store showed respect to me.	0.71	0.50	5.76	0.71
6. Service employees at this store understood my needs well.	0.67	0.45	5.56	0.77
7. Service employees at this store were flexible in responding to my requests.	0.69	0.48	5.47	0.77
Sacrifice (SAC) (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)				
8. I had to bargain a lot for a good price when shopping at this store.	0.70	0.50	2.51	0.75
9. I spent a lot of time when looking for this store.	0.72	0.52	2.73	1.54
10. I had to search a lot for products that I wanted to buy in this store.	0.79	0.63	3.13	1.18
11. I spent too much time trying out the product(s) at this store.	0.80	0.64	3.12	1.06
12. I consider the purchase process at this store was long.	0.79	0.62	3.11	1.02
13. I made a lot of effort to explain my needs to the employees at this store.	0.73	0.53	3.03	1.04
Satisfaction (SAT) (1 = very low, 7 = very high)				
14. My satisfaction with the performance of the employees at this store is.	0.74	0.54	5.00	1.18
15. Overall, my satisfaction with the service offered at this store is.	0.82	0.67	5.13	0.54
Perceived Value (VAL) (1 = very low, 7 = very high)				
16. Overall, the value of the service/products offered to me at this store is.	0.83	0.68	5.18	0.52
17. Compared to what I have to give up (e.g. time, money), the overall ability of this store to satisfy my needs is.	0.80	0.64	5.13	0.55
Behavioral intentions (BI) (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)				
18. I will share my shopping experience at this store with others.	0.75	0.56	5.24	0.81
19. I will make positive comments about this store.	0.77	0.59	5.37	0.66
20. I plan to shop at this store again.	0.79	0.62	5.37	0.72
21. I will recommend this store to others.	0.86	0.73	5.29	0.62

λ : Factor loadings, α : Corrected Item-total Correlations, M: Mean, SD: Standard Deviation

Table 4: Correlation Matrix

Construct	Sacrifice	Value	Service Quality	Satisfaction	Behavioral Intention
Sacrifice	.87				
Value	-.09**	.79			
Service Quality	-.06*	.48***	.89		
Satisfaction	-.04*	.69***	.56***	.78	
Behavioral Intention	-.04*	.61***	.52***	.59***	.87

Note: Composite reliabilities appear on the diagonal. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 5: Mean Comparison

Construct	Shopping Motivation		
	Overall	Hedonic	Utilitarian
Sacrifice	2.95	2.98*	2.92
Value	5.15	5.21**	5.09
Service Quality	5.65	5.68*	5.61
Satisfaction	5.06	5.11**	5.01
Behavioral Intention	5.31	5.43***	5.19

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 6: Models Comparison – General vs. Constrained

	Shopping Motivation	
	General	Constrained
df	364	371
χ^2	1914.18	1942.77
NFI	.94	.93
CFI	.95	.94
RMSEA	.039	.042
$\Delta\chi^2$	-	28.59***
Δdf	-	7

*** $p < .001$

Table 7: Multi-group Moderator Analysis

Shopping Motivation: Overall $\chi^2_{(364)} = 1914.18$					
Hypotheses	Link	Hedonic	Utilitarian	χ^2_{365}	$\Delta\chi^2_{(\Delta df = 1)}$
H1: Supported	SAC-VAL (γ_{11})	.04 (t = 1.48)	-.05 (t = -2.54)	1909.47	4.71*
H2: Not supported	VAL-SAT (β_{31})	.61 (t = 16.37)	.65 (t = 22.61)	1911.25	2.93
H3: Supported	VAL-BI (β_{21})	.48 (t = 7.69)	.59 (t = 9.06)	1908.96	5.22*
H4: Supported	SAT-BI (β_{23})	.15 (t = 2.48)	.24 (t = 3.56)	1909.69	4.49**
H5: Supported	SQ-SAT (γ_{32})	.24 (t = 6.39)	.11 (t = 3.64)	1908.34	5.84*
H6: Supported	SQ-VAL (γ_{12})	.60 (t = 19.65)	.52 (t = 14.92)	1909.91	4.27*
H7: Supported	SQ-BI (γ_{22})	.35 (t = 9.81)	.23 (t = 5.63)	1909.67	4.51*

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$