KANANUKUL, CHAWANUAN (FAI), Ph.D. The Impact of Consumer- and Retailer-Related Factors on Marketing Outcomes: A Comparison of Local and National Department Stores in Thailand (2014).
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This dissertation proposes a model of consumer department store patronage behavior that integrates multiple theoretical approaches within the context of the Thai retail sector. The objectives of the study are to: (1) examine the extent to which consumer-related factors (i.e., shopping motivations) influence perceptions of retailer-related factors (i.e., store attributes) within the context of both local and national Thai department stores, (2) investigate the relative efficacies of retailer-related factors (i.e., store attributes) in predicting shopping mall patronage behaviors (e.g., satisfaction, loyalty) within the context of local and national Thai department stores, and (3) examine the differences, if any, between the impact of consumer- and retailer-related factors on local and national Thai department store patronage behaviors.

Data were collected from Thai consumers residing in two metropolitan cities in Thailand: Bangsaen and Chonburi. A mall intercept approach was employed at various locations in both cities, including outside of a national department store (Central) and a local department store (Laemtong). The final sample was comprised of 807 usable questionnaires. Of these, 483 were females and 324 were males whose ages ranged from 18 to 65 years.

Structural equation modeling was employed through LISREL 8.8 to test all hypothesized relationships. Results revealed a χ^2 of 3523.67 ($df = 1355$, $p < .01$), a $\chi^2/df = 2.60$, a NFI = 0.95, a TLI = 0.97, a CFI = 0.97, a PNFI = 0.90, and RMSEA = 0.07 for

the local department store sample. For the national department store sample, results

revealed a χ2 of 4394.05 ($df = 1355$; $p < .01$), a $\chi^2/df = 3.24$, NFI = 0.92, TLI = 0.94, CFI

= 0.95, a PNFI = 0.87, and RMSEA = 0.08. Results of both samples suggest that the

hypothesized structural relationships for both the local and the national department store

samples fit the data reasonably well.

Specifically, results indicate that within the context of both local and national

department stores, design cues, ambient cues, and social cues are important for

consumers with hedonic and/or social motivations. However, for consumers with

utilitarian motivations, only design cues are important, while social cues are important

when shopping at national department stores. In addition, favorable perceptions of design

cues, ambient cues, and social cues positively influence store choice criteria as measured

in terms of perceived merchandise and service value, which, in turn, impact store

patronage behaviors (i.e., overall satisfaction and store loyalty). Furthermore, consumers

place different degrees of importance on in-store marketing communication when

evaluating store merchandise and service at local as compared to national department

stores, resulting in different levels of satisfaction and store loyalty. Theoretical and

practical implications of the study are discussed. Limitations of the study are considered

and, finally, suggestions for further research on the topic are provided.

THE IMPACT OF CONSUMER- AND RETAILER-RELATED FACTORS ON

MARKETING OUTCOMES: A COMPARISON OF LOCAL AND

NATIONAL DEPARTMENT STORES IN THAILAND

by

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DEDICATION

To

ทัศนีย์-บัญชา คณานุกูล

Tassanee-Bancha Kananukul

in respect and gratitude

for their infinite love and support.

APPROVAL PAGE

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Chapter I introduces the dissertation topic and includes eight major sections: (1) Background; (2) Statement of the Research Problem; (3) Gaps in the Research; (4) Research Purpose and Objectives; (5) Significance of the Study; (6) Methodological Considerations; (7) Definition of Key Terms; and (8) Organization of the Dissertation.

Background

Thailand is one of the fastest growing retail markets in the world, increasing from $25.5B USD in 2000 to $63.3B USD in 2010, accounting for 15.5% of the country's total employment and 20% of the country's GDP (Bank of Thailand, 2012; Euromonitor International, 2011). In just two decades, Thailand's retail sector has seen a level of transformative growth that took 50 to 80 years in the U.S. and Europe (Reardon, 2006). Beyond these direct economic contributions, retail trade plays a critical role in determining consumer behavior as well as fostering productivity, growth, and innovation in the country (Euromonitor International, 2010).

Retailing formats in Thailand range from the traditional, such as mom and pop stores, to the very modern, high-end shopping centers. Among various retail formats, the department store is a major shopping destination for Thai consumers (Euromonitor International, 2011). In Thailand, department stores do not just sell products, they are

entertainment venues designed to attract shoppers (Euromonitor International, 2010). Thai department stores emphasize fashion goods, customer service, and a pleasant shopping experience, along with the value propositions of entertainment, service, and scale (Euromonitor International, 2010).

Beyond its economic contributions, the country's retail market has played a critical role in fostering changes in the behaviors of Thai consumers (Euromonitor International, 2010). A change in retail format from traditional to modern (e.g., department store, hypermarket, supermarket, convenience store, and shopping mall retailers) began with the introduction of Central Department Store in 1956, the first modern retailer to set up shop in Thailand (Feeny, Vongpatanasin, & Soonsatham, 1996). As is discussed in the following sections, Central Department Store prompted a change in Thai consumer behavior, as it altered the overall retail landscape of the country (Feeny et al., 1996).

An Overview of the Thai Retail Industry

Prior to 1956, the traditional retail format in Thailand was the "mom and pop" store (known as "Cho-huay"). This was typically a family business, often run out of a multi-story building that sold general merchandise on the ground floor and stored inventory on the second floor, while the store owner and family occupied the upper floors (Feeny et al., 1996). Scattered around every community throughout the country, bargaining between buyers and sellers at Cho-huays was customary, as fixed prices were not yet common (Jearrajarat, 2008).

In 1956, the first major step in the modernization of Thai retailing emerged in Bangkok when Central Department Store opened its doors for business. This was the first time that a retailer would offer products at fixed prices (Jearrajarat, 2008), thereby necessitating a change in purchasing behavior among consumers. Moreover, at this time it was difficult for retailers from other countries to enter the Thai market due to the country's Alien Business Law. This law restricted ownership of companies, suggesting that Thai shareholdings must account for at least 51% of the total (Shannon, 2009). The Alien Business Law was repealed in 1999 in response to the Asian market crisis and in an effort to attract foreign investors to Thailand (Shannon, 2009). As a result, the pace of retail growth was rapid until 2010, when large European hypermarket retailers, such as Tesco, a British-based company, and the French-based company Carrefour took control of much of the retail sector.

Currently, Thailand's hypermarket is dominated by two large retailers: Tesco, with its Tesco-Lotus stores, and Big C, which is operated by a Thai company alliance with French-based Casino Group (Business Desk, 2010). Since 2010, new zoning laws implemented within urban areas require large retailers in Thailand to operate in a mini-size format, such as the convenience store, instead of the large entertainment complexes characteristic of the hypermarket (Shannon, 2009). Retail stores with at least 1,000 square meters of retail space are required to be at least 15 kilometers outside of the city (Siam Global Associates, 2003). As a result, community malls, city malls, neighborhood shopping centers and retail parks are the new types of retail formats emerging in Thailand (Loft, 2011). Community malls are typically located in residential suburbs and are

designed to serve people of that community, much like the original Cho-huay, or mom and pop stores. However, such malls usually boast unique building design, such as a futuristic structure, or state-of-the-art architectural installations (Loft, 2011). Community malls provide convenience, innovation, and a leisure-driven shopping environment, which is something that Thai consumers find appealing (Loft, 2011). In addition to the requisite change in retail format, retailers have started to provide additional services. For instance, Central, Tesco-Lotus, and 7Eleven have diversified their businesses and are offering not only consumer products, but insurance and financial services as well.

Department Stores in Thailand Today

In Thailand, the department store segment is a key economic contributor to the growth of the mixed retailer (Euromonitor International, 2011), which includes variety stores, mass merchandisers and warehouse clubs. According to Euromonitor International (2011), nearly 98% of the overall market value of the mixed retailer category is held by the department store segment. Similar to other countries, department stores and shopping malls in Thailand are normally located in big cities where consumers have adequate purchasing power and there are high levels of population density.

Currently, the department store market in Thailand is dominated by two major players: Central Retail Corporation (CRC), which operates Central, Robinson, and Zen department stores, and The Mall Group, which operates The Mall, as well as upscale shopping malls including Emporium and Siam Paragon. According to Euromonitor International (2011), CRC and The Mall Group account for more than 60 percent of the market share in this sector. CRC is the leading operator of department stores in Thailand,

followed by The Mall Group with a 46.1% and 17.4% value share respectively

(Euromonitor International, 2011). Table 1 indicates the market share of department store

operators in Thailand. In Bangkok, other department stores include several locally-owned

department stores such as Pata and Tang Hua Seng and foreign-owned department stores

such as Isetan and Tokyu. Aside from Bangkok, there are locally-owned department store

and shopping mall operators in each regional area of the country, such as Future Park

Rangsit (Pathum Thani province), Seree Department Store (Lampang province), Serm

Thai Plaza (Mahasarakam province), and Laeamtong (Chonburi province).

Table 1. Market Share among Department Store Operators, 2008 – 2011 (In % value)

Company	Name of Store	2008	2009	2010	2011
Central Retail Corporation (CRC)	Central Department Store	29.2	29.7	30.1	30.9
	Robinson Department Store	13.6	13.6	15.1	16.8
	Zen	1.8	2.2	0.8	0.1
The Mall Group	The Mall	9.7	9.9	10.1	10.2
	Siam Paragon	4.7	5.0	5.1	5.4
	The Emporium	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4
Tung Hua Seng	Tung Hua Seng Department Store	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0
Isetan (Thailand)	Isetan	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Pata	Pata Department Store	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3
Tokyo Department Store	Tokyo	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Other department stores		35.6	34.8	34	31.7
	Total (%)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Note: Adapted from Euromonitor International (2012)

As the market leader, CRC dominates the retail market through store expansion, particularly in urban areas outside of Bangkok that are important business and tourist cities (Euromonitor International, 2011). For example, Chonburi is a stable commercial center in the eastern region of Thailand and is also one of Thailand's largest districts outside of Bangkok. As a result, Chonburi has been targeted by various retailers, including department stores and hypermarkets as an attractive shopping destination (Economic Intelligence Center (EIC), 2011).

In 2009, CentralPlaza Chonburi opened to become the largest and most modern of the lifestyle shopping malls in the eastern region of Thailand. With a shopping area of 91,500 square meters, the three-story CentralPlaza Chonburi provides a range of offerings, including Robinson Department Store, Carrefour (a hypermarket), five specialty stores, more than two hundred retail shops, fifty food and beverage outlets, and a comprehensive entertainment complex (Subhadhira & Thongsumaung, 2009). Although the expansion of Central Retail Corporation (CRC) contributed to economic growth in Chonburi, it is a potential threat to local department stores. That is, local retailers could lose market share to larger national retailers like CRC that possess greater resources and can offer goods at competitive prices while maintaining profit margins. Indeed, expansion of CRC prompted the need for local department stores and shopping malls to reinvent themselves in order to attract consumers within an increasingly competitive market. However, local retailers have found it increasingly difficult to compete with the national retailers in terms of pricing and product availability (Weekly-Manager Online, 2009).

There are several key players that dominate the shopping mall sector in Chonburi. Srirath Theppratan Group, one of the leading local retailers in eastern Thailand, operates several Laemtong Department Stores in both Chonburi and Rayong provinces, and Harbor Mall Laem Chabang. Pacific Park Group operates Pacific Park Shopping Center, Sriracha. Other local operators in Chonburi include The Forum Plaza and Chaloem Thai Department Store. Despite the similarities, these local retailers differ in their merchandise selections to meet the demands of different consumer groups. Although these retailers offer various goods ranging from fashion merchandise to technological products (i.e., mobile phones, computers), Harbor Mall Laem Chabang and Laemtong Bangsean provide a wider variety of higher quality merchandise. Consequently, both are positioned as higher end compared to Chaloem Thai Department Store and The Forum Plaza.

Fierce competition among local shopping malls in Chonburi continues to intensify with the introduction of CentralPlaza, a national shopping mall. In response to the opening of CentralPlaza Chonburi, local department stores have had to adapt themselves to survive. For instance, Laemtong Bangsaen has completely renovated its store to provide more selling space and create a better shopping atmosphere (Weekly-Manager Online, 2009). Chaloem Thai Department Store has also invested in improving the in-store shopping atmosphere, using sales promotions and events in order to draw customers to the store (Weekly-Manager Online, 2009). Such investments are designed to draw in the increasingly sophisticated Thai consumer.

Thai Consumers

According to a study by Hofstede (2001), Thailand is one of Asia's strongest relationship-rich cultures. This may be why Thai consumers are brand loyal, yet they are also willing and open to trying new products (Fernguest, 2013). In addition, Patterson and Smith (2001) suggest that Thai consumers tend to exhibit high levels of loyalty to service providers when compared to western consumers. Yet, given the fierce retail competition within this sector, consumers have many store choices, therefore maintaining their store loyalty is challenging, regardless of whether consumers seek to build relationships with retailers.

According to Intarakomalyasut (2002), shopping patterns of Thai consumers have changed from being primarily product oriented or utilitarian-driven to becoming experiential or hedonic-driven. As a result, Thai consumers expect to experience new merchandise and engage with the store environment when they shop. For example, in the qualitative preliminary study conducted for this dissertation, it was revealed that shopping is not only a form of relaxation for Thai consumers, but it is also enjoined as a form of self-reward, or rewarding a "small win" through a "rewarding moment."

In Thailand, shopping malls and department stores can be very crowded, especially during the weekends or at the beginning of the month when workers get paid. Such shopping patterns are particularly important and have led to product and promotional campaigns becoming more prevalent during such times (Euromonitor International, 2011). In a recent Euromonitor International (2012) report, important factors for Thai consumers when shopping include ease of access, product range, and

customer service. In addition, due to the instability of the global and national economic situation, Thai consumers have become more frugal with their spending habits and have become more value-conscious (Euromonitor International, 2012).

<p align="center">**Statement of the Research Problem**</p>

Between 2000 and 2001, approximately half of all department stores in Thailand closed as a result of the introduction of Tesco and Carrefour hypermarket retailers (Tosonboon, 2003). Most department stores that remained open were those that belonged to Central Retail Corp Group (CRC), The Mall Group, or the leading local department store in each province. Despite competition from other retail formats, as an alternative shopping environment that is actively engaged in promotional campaigns and marketing activities, department stores have retained a strong customer base (Business News, 2011). According to Euromonitor International (2012), leading department stores in Thailand continue to add leisure goods in order to draw a greater number of consumers. Compared to other retail formats, department stores invest resources in creating an attractive store environment in order to retain existing customers, and capture new ones, as well as enhance consumers' store patronage behaviors (Euromonitor International, 2011).

The literature suggests that it is important to create emotionally engaging experiences for in-store consumers (Kim, 2001). While the focus on enhancing the customer experience is widespread in terms of practice, academic research on how to induce such experiences is limited (Bäckström & Johansson, 2006). Thus, while a department store may appear to have the advantage due to its more attractive environment, it is not clear whether consumers shop there because of this environment.

<p align="center">9</p>

According to the literature, variables such as consumer values are also important factors affecting consumers' in-store experiences (Babin, Darden, & Griffin, 1994; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). Moreover, Jones (1999) asserted that consumer-related factors are as important as retailer-related factors (i.e., store environment). Thus, knowledge of the consumer-related factors that affect perceptions of the store environment will assist department store managers in creating a pleasant experience for their target consumers. However, compared to other retail formats (i.e., hypermarkets), the particular consumer values and elements of the store environment that are most important to Thai consumers when shopping at department stores have not yet been identified. This dissertation, therefore, addresses this gap by investigating the relationships among consumer- and retailer-related factors in the context of the Thai department store.

Gaps in the Research

Delivering shopping value is the key to creating competitive advantage, in that creating and delivering consumer value is a precondition for survival in today's marketplace (Rintamäki, Kanto, Kuusela, & Spence, 2006). Thus, it is necessary to understand what those values are and how they impact consumers. Considerable evidence has revealed that consumers' shopping values (alternatively shopping motivations or shopping motives) and store attributes (i.e., store environment) are two major predictors of shopping behavior (Baker, Parasuraman, Grewal, & Voss, 2002). It is critical for retailers to provide an environment that enhances consumers' shopping values through attractive retail attributes. That is, the retailers that can deliver these values or simply

offer more than the competitors will be more likely to attract customers (Mittal & Sheth, 2001).

Considerable research efforts have been directed at identifying consumer-related factors (i.e., consumer shopping values) and retailer-related factors (i.e., store attributes) that affect consumers' store choice as a means of predicting store patronage behaviors (Baker et al., 2002; Turley & Milliman, 2000). Although consumer values and the impact of store attributes on consumer behavior are popular areas of research, few studies have examined whether such relationships exist in the context of Thai department store patronage. Only a few studies exist that investigate the impact of personal values on consumers' shopping behaviors (Cai & Shannon, 2012) and compare Thai consumers' attitudes towards marketing practices (Watchravesringkan & Punyapiroje, 2011). However, different retail formats (i.e., hypermarkets, department stores, and discount stores) offer different pricing, product availability and so on. As a result, consumers' perceptions of each may be different and therefore may lead to different shopping outcomes (Morschett, Swoboda, & Foscht, 2005). Furthermore, studies indicate that consumers place different degrees of value on different store attributes. For instance, a study by Grace and O'Cass (2005) found that consumers' perceived value of a product for the money (price consciousness) was a key driver of store repatronage in a discount store, but did not significantly affect department store repatronage. On the other hand, a study by Andreu, Bigne, Chumpitaz, and Swaen (2006) found that consumers' favorable perceptions of the in-store atmosphere exerted stronger effect on their repartronage

intentions in shopping malls as compared to traditional retailers (i.e., a store located on a residential street).

Given the fact that store attributes are different not only among different retail formats but also within the same format, consumers' perceptions of store attributes may also be different. Grace and O'Cass (2005) suggested that to understand more about retail consumers, researchers need to examine and compare their behaviors in relation to specifically identified retail stores. Thus, a comparison of local versus national department stores in terms of consumer (e.g., shopping value) and retailer (e.g., in-store environment) related factors is needed, as it can shed light on how these factors impact marketing outcomes (i.e., satisfaction and repatronage intentions).

Intra-competition within the department store sector has made it even more important to understand why Thai consumers patronize a particular store over another. However, there is a general lack of research on, and therefore understanding of, the drivers of department store selection in Thailand. Specifically, Cai and Shannon (2012) mention that no study has put consumer personal values, attitude towards mall attributes, and consumer behavior into the same model in a mall setting in Thailand. In addition, even though research demonstrates that store environment has a significant impact on a variety of consumer evaluations and behaviors (Areni & Kim, 1993; Baker et al., 2002; Grewal, Baker, Levy, & Voss 2003; Morin, Dube, & Chebat, 2007; Puccinelli et al., 2009), research related to how specific store attributes influence consumer decisions with respect to store choice, and in turn, patronage intentions and store loyalty, is needed (Baker et al., 2002). Morschett et al. (2005) suggest that to predict acceptance of a retail

store it is necessary to understand whether the store addresses the shopping motivations of consumers. Yet to do this, it must be acknowledged that retailers cannot develop effective strategies without understanding the consumer. Thus, to address this concern, the relationships between consumer- and retailer-related factors should be examined relative to marketing outcomes.

Research Purpose and Objectives

This dissertation seeks to determine the factors that are important to consumers when deciding between shopping at local versus national department stores. Specifically, this study will examine two facets of the topic. The first facet consists of the consumer shopping values that influence perceptions of retailer-related factors (i.e., department store attributes) within the context of both local and national Thai department stores. The second facet consists of the relative efficacies of retailer-related factors in predicting consumers' department store patronage behaviors (i.e., satisfaction, loyalty) within the context of the department store. This involves examining the differences that exist, if any, between the impact of consumer- and retailer-related factors on store patronage behaviors in the context of local versus national department stores.

This dissertation proposes a model of consumer department store patronage behavior that integrates multiple theoretical approaches within the context of the Thai retail sector. The specific objectives of the study are to:

(1) Examine the extent to which consumer-related factors (i.e., shopping motivations) influence perceptions of retailer-related factors (i.e., store

attributes) within the context of both local and national Thai department stores,

(2) Investigate the relative efficacies of retailer-related factors (i.e., store attributes) in predicting shopping mall patronage behaviors (e.g., satisfaction, loyalty) within the context of local and national Thai department stores, and

(3) Examine the differences, if any, that exist between the impact of consumer- and retailer-related factors on local and national Thai department store patronage behaviors.

Chonburi was selected as the location for the study because, apart from Bangkok, this city is considered an important commercial area for national retail expansion (EIC, 2011). As a result of this expansion, there is increasing competition between the national and local department stores in this area of the country. Based on target consumers as well as location, CentralPlaza and Laemtong Bangsean were chosen to represent national and local department stores, respectively.

Methodological Considerations

To achieve the study's goals and objectives, several research questions guided the overall development of the study, including:

1. What are the shopping values that drive Thai consumers to shop at national and local department stores?

2. How do Thai consumers perceive local and national department stores?

3. What criteria do Thai consumers use in selecting department stores?

As will be discussed in Chapter III, the research design for the dissertation was based on a two-step process. First, a qualitative preliminary study was conducted in order to investigate Thai consumers' perspectives regarding attributes of department stores. Based on the literature, areas of discussion were outlined and focus groups were employed with the purpose of exploring consumer shopping value and its dimensions from a holistic perspective. A total of thirty-two consumers who have shopped at both CentralPlaza Chonburi and Laemtong Bangsaen were recruited to participate in the focus groups.

Findings from the preliminary study guided the development of the conceptual framework used in the dissertation. Scale items that were used to measure the major constructs of the model were developed based on the results of the preliminary study along with existing literature with respect to the topics of consumer shopping motivation, values and marketing communication outcomes (Baker et al., 2002; Rintamäki et al., 2006). Hypotheses were developed and empirically tested via the use of a survey designed to assess the proposed relationships between model constructs. To collect survey data, a sample of Thai consumers residing in two metropolitan cities, Bangsaen and Amphur Muang, Chonburi were asked to complete the survey. The sample consisted of 807 participants. As will be discussed in Chapter III, this two-step process permitted development of a more holistic understanding of the relationships between consumer shopping motivations, store choice criteria and marketing outcomes (i.e., store loyalty).

Significance of the Study

Thailand's department store sector is highly competitive. According to

Euromonitor International's (2012) recent report, in 2011, there were 204 department

stores operating throughout the country, consisting of national department stores (e.g.,

those operating nationwide) and local department stores (e.g., those locally owned and

operating in certain locations). Due to the fierce competition in the international retail

market over the past few years, the department store has lost its competitive edge to

newer, urban retail formats like the hypermarket and community mall. In addition, an

increasing number of national and local department stores in Chonburi has intensified

competition within the regional retail market. Given the rapid expansion of multinational

hypermarket formats, it is critical for department store retailers to better understand how

to create loyal customers.

As previous scholars have stressed, enhancing customer loyalty is a critical

defensive strategy for retailers, as the existing customer base is both retained for the

retailer and denied to its competitors (Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978; Wallace, Giese, &

Johnson, 2004). As a result, consumer loyalty can be a major source of sustained growth

and profit as well as a strong company asset (Anderson & Mittal, 2000; Yang & Peterson,

2004). Although various marketing communication strategies (i.e., promotions, store

environment, event marketing) have been employed by retailers to attract new and retain

existing customers, surprisingly few researchers have investigated the effects of these

strategies on consumers (Grewal, Levy, & Kumar, 2009). Moreover, Wallace et al.

(2004) point out that while consumer loyalty to the brand has been extensively studied,

little research has been conducted on the critical role of retail loyalty. Interestingly, also absent in the literature is research that compares consumers' perception of store attributes between national versus local department stores. Yet researchers (i.e., Baker et al., 2002; Turley & Milliman, 2000) have acknowledged the theoretical and managerial importance of consumer shopping values and retailer-related factors (store attributes) in predicting consumers' patronage behaviors (i.e., satisfaction and loyalty). Thus, it is important to understand how these factors affect shopping behavior in both types of department stores as they compete for the same consumers.

This dissertation contributes to the literature by addressing the gaps in knowledge that exist in at least three ways. First, the concept of consumer shopping value has not been applied within the context of local versus national department stores. A few studies exist that relate consumer values and attitudes toward market practices but they focus on hypermarkets rather than department stores (Cai & Shannon, 2012; Watchravesringkan & Punyapiroje, 2011). Second, Thailand and Thai consumers are understudied in the retail and consumption literature in general. Third, a comparison of consumer behaviors in local and national department stores in Thailand has yet to be conducted.

Findings of this dissertation have both academic and practical value. In the search for differential advantage, Tauber (1972) suggests that product-related store benefits (i.e., low price) can be easily duplicated by the competition, thus the ability to gain a distinct differential advantage may depend on catering to shopping motives that are not product-related. Considerable literature also suggests that retailers who understand the multiplicity of motives behind shopping are better positioned to create and deliver value

that results in creating customer loyalty (Mittal & Sheth, 2001; Rintamäki et al., 2006). Thus, the findings of this study can be employed by both national and local stores in order to craft effective marketing communication strategies by understanding what consumers value when making decisions about where to shop. Findings of this dissertation provide insights of managerial importance to both national and local department stores, particularly in terms of creating an attractive in-store environment, differentiating their stores from competitors, and providing target consumers with the products and experiences they seek.

Definition of Key Terms

The following table provides definitions of key terms that are applied throughout the dissertation.

Table 2. Definition of Key Terms

Term	Definition
Hedonic	The facets of consumer behavior relating to the multisensory, fantasy and emotional aspects of one's experience with products (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982), as well as reflecting shopping's potential entertainment and emotional worth (Bellenger, Steinberg, & Stanton, 1976).
Hypermarket	A large retail facility where an enormous range of products are carried under one roof, including full lines of groceries and general merchandise (Euromonitor International, 2010).

Table 2 (continued)

Term	Definition
Loyalty	A deeply held commitment to rebuy or repatronize a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behavior (Oliver, 1999).
Mixed Retailer	Type of retailer that includes variety stores, mass merchandisers and warehouse clubs (Euromonitor International, 2011).
Pull Factor	The unique attributes of a given destination that motivate the person to visit that destination instead of others (Kinley, Josiam, & Kim, 2003).
Push Factor	The sociopsychological needs or intangible desires generated from within the person that urge him or her to visit a destination (Kinley et al., 2003; Lundberg, 1990).
Shopping Motivation	Consumer's needs and wants related to choice of retail outlet (Noble, Griffith, & Adjei, 2006; Sheth, 1983).
Store Ambient Cue	Nonvisual, background conditions in the environment, including elements such as temperature, lighting, music, and scent (Milliman, 1982, 1986; Yalch & Spangenberg, 1990).
Store Design Cue	Store environmental elements that are more visual in nature than are ambient factors such as color and layout (Baker, Grewal, & Parasuraman, 1994).
Store Satisfaction	A consumer's overall evaluation of the experience with a specific type of store (Orth & Green, 2009).

Table 2 (continued)

Term	Definition
Store Social Cue	Factors that involve the people who are within a store's environment such as employees and other customers (Baker et al., 2002).
Utilitarian	The value that reflects shopping with a work mentality (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982), which stems from monetary savings and convenience (Rintamäki et al., 2006).

Organization of the Dissertation

Chapter I outlined the research study. Background information on the topic was provided. The research purpose and objectives were discussed, as well as the significance of the study for addressing gaps in the research. Key terms were defined.

Chapter II includes a review of literature related to the study's major constructs and theories. Research on consumer shopping values in the context of national and local department stores and shopping malls is discussed. This chapter also provides a review of previous research related to the impact of marketing communication (e.g., store environment) on consumers' store choice criteria and marketing outcomes. Finally, hypotheses are developed relative to the objectives of the study.

Chapter III outlines the methodological approach that was used to test the research hypotheses. This chapter includes justification of the sample, description of the data collection procedures, and the process of instrument development. Basic

assumptions of the study are provided. Finally, statistical procedures for data analysis are described.

Chapter IV presents statistical procedures that were employed during data analysis as well as the statistical tests used. The results of hypothesis testing based on structural equation modeling are explained.

Chapter V includes discussion of the conclusions and implications of the study. Findings are discussed relative to the objectives and to the literature. Implications of the study are discussed, as well as limitations of the study, and suggestions for further research are provided.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents a review of the literature regarding concepts important to the study and consists of four major sections: (1) Theoretical Foundation; (2) Conceptual Framework; (3) Hypotheses Development; and (4) Summary. The purpose of this chapter is to explore and explain the importance of push and pull motivation factors relative to consumers' store choice criteria and store patronage behaviors. Specifically, the primary goal is to discuss how push motivations (i.e., consumers' shopping motivations) and pull motivations (i.e., in-store marketing communication) relate to consumers' perceptions of store choice criteria (i.e., perceived merchandise value and perceived service value) and store loyalty (i.e., word-of-mouth, store repatronage, and share of wallet).

Theoretical Foundation

This section introduces the theoretical foundation employed by the study, including (a) Push and Pull Theory, (b) Consumer Shopping Motivations, (c) Retailer-Related Factors and Consumer Perceptions of Store Choice Criteria, and (d) Consumer Satisfaction and Store Loyalty.

Push and Pull Motivational Theory

The concept of "Push" and "Pull" motivation factors has been applied in various contexts. For instance, in the engineering research and product development literature,

the Push-and-Pull Theory has been used to explain project success or failure (Baker & Freeland, 1972; Utterback, 1971; Zmud, 1984). In the literature on entrepreneurship, push-and-pull theory has been applied to examine motivational factors for becoming an entrepreneur (McClelland, Swail, Bell, & Ibbotson, 2005; Schjoedt & Shaver, 2007; Segal, Borgia, & Schoenfeld, 2005). Research in business has applied the concept of push-and-pull motivation to explain factors influencing retail internationalization (Diallo, 2012; Hutchinson, Alexander, Quinn, & Dohery, 2007; Treadgold, 1988). However, to understand consumer behavior, push-and-pull motivational theory has been applied most extensively in the tourism literature, particularly motivations of tourist shoppers (Kinley et al., 2003; Lundberg, 1990; Mechinda, Serirat, & Gulid, 2008). For this reason, the following discussion focuses on the relevance of this tourism literature for the present study.

According to Push-and-Pull Theory, motivations can be divided into two categories: push motivations and pull motivations. Push motivations are defined as the socio-psychological needs or intangible desires generated from within an individual that urge him or her to travel (Kinley et al., 2003; Lundberg, 1990). For instance, individuals may travel for knowledge (Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991) and to escape from the pressures and responsibilities of everyday life (Fodness, 1994). On the other hand, given a choice of many appealing destinations that offer similar attractions, pull factors reflect unique attributes of a given destination that motivate the individual to visit one destination over another (Kinley et al., 2003). Unique attributes can include size of a destination, the entertainment options provided, convenience, familiarity, safety, and a sense of escapism

(Butler, 1991; Kinley et al., 2003). Simply put, individuals are pushed by their own internal forces and pulled by the external stimulators of a destination as they perceive it (Fodness, 1994; Kinley et al., 2003; Lundberg, 1990; Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991).

According to Josiam, Smeaton, and Clements (1999), the distinction between push and pull factors is useful for providing a logical and temporal sequencing that explains behaviors. In addition, human behavior is typically regarded as both the product of internal need states and external stimuli as comprehended by individuals (Westbrook & Black, 1985). Thus, this study aims to extend the use of the push-and-pull framework by exploring shopping motivation within the context of national and local department stores in Thailand. Adapting the concept of push-and-pull motivation to the context of retail shopping, push motivations are a consumer's internal factors or shopping motives (i.e., utilitarian, hedonic, and social) that drive him or her to visit a particular store, whereas pull motivations can be the external stimulators provided by a department store, such as in-store marketing communication (in-store design), that attract the individual to that store (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Push and Pull Theory as Applied in the Current Study

Push Motivations	Pull Motivations
Consumer Shopping Motivations	→ In-Store Marketing Communication
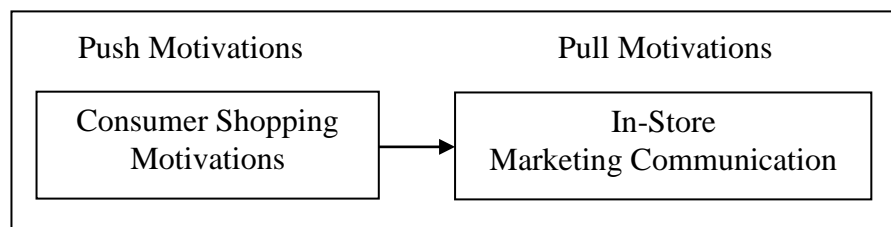
Adapted from "Why and where tourists shop: Motivations of tourist shoppers and their preferred shopping center attributes" by Kinley et al. (2003), *Journal of Shopping Center Research, 10*(1), 7-28.

Consumer Shopping Motivations

An extensive literature review on the topic of consumer motivations reveals that the terms *motive/motivation*, *value*, *goal*, *need*, *drive*, and *want* are often used interchangeably. Although these terms tend to be used in slightly different ways in the psychological literature, Howard and Sheth (1969) suggest that treating them as synonyms facilitates discussion and does not result in serious ambiguity (p. 99). Thus, this study uses the terms *motive/motivation*, and *value* interchangeably.

According to Howard and Sheth (1969), motives are one of the three key elements (brand comprehension, motives, and choice criteria) in the buyer's decision process, which combine to yield attitude, or the evaluation of a brand (p. 99). Among these elements, motives are the most important, in that motives play a central role not only in learning and performing behavior, but in regulating the input of information (Howard & Sheth, 1969). Moreover, Westbrook and Black (1985) explain that motivations are generally viewed as forces instigating behavior to satisfy internal need states. Motivation is defined by Mechinda et al. (2008) as psychological/biological needs and wants that arouse, direct, and integrate a person's behavior and activity. Similarly, Howard and Sheth (1969) describe motives as the biogenic or psychogenic needs, wants, or desires of the individual in purchasing and consuming an item in a product class. Generally speaking, motivations serve an essential role in explaining overt purchase behavior, the source of choice criteria (Howard & Sheth, 1969; Grace & O'Cass, 2005; Noble et al., 2006), and significantly contribute to store format choice (Morschett et at., 2005; Reynolds, Ganesh, & Luckett, 2002).

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An integrative theory of patronage preference and behavior proposed by Sheth (1983) suggests that shopping motivations are one predictor of choice and shopping options. Specifically, motivations first affect choice criteria and exert an influence on attitude. Second, there are short-term fluctuations in motivation intensity which affect intention. Finally, motivations affect the perceptual process via attention, perceptual bias, and overt search (Howard & Sheth, 1969). A vast array of motivations have been examined in the literature with varying degrees of focus and specificity (Maslow, 1970; McGuire, 1974; Stone, 1954; Westbrook & Black, 1985). However, in this dissertation, shopping motivations is the focus.

Shopping Motivations and Shopping Behaviors

Existing research refers to shopping as a function of the nature of the product (Holton, 1958) and the level of consumer knowledge or amount of information about alternatives (Howard & Sheth, 1969). For instance, when an individual feels the need to acquire a product, he or she may go shopping. However, Westbrook and Black (1985) argue that shopping does not occur just to acquire a product. There are, in fact, multiple reasons or needs prompting that individual to go to a shopping location. Westbrook and Black (1985) refer to these reasons or needs as *shopping motivations*.

Shopping motivations have been widely used as a foundation for understanding consumer shopping behaviors and have been conceptualized as a consumer's needs and wants related to his or her choice of retail outlets (Noble et al., 2006; Sheth, 1983). Although there are many theories of shopping motivation, as yet, none have become dominant in the retailing literature (Dawson, Bloch, & Ridgway, 1990). However, it is

often acknowledged that fundamental motivations underlying shopping behavior were first proposed by Tauber (1972). In his exploratory study, Tauber (1972) posits that shopping behavior is motivated by a variety of psychosocial needs beyond those relating to the products being acquired. For instance, consumers may go shopping when they need attention, want to be with peers, desire to meet people with similar interests, feel a need to exercise, or have leisure time (Tauber, 1972). Thus, an understanding of shopping motivations requires consideration of the kind of satisfaction that shopping activities provide, as well as the utility obtained from the merchandise that may be purchased (Tauber, 1972). Tauber's (1972) analysis of shopping motivations therefore requires assessment of the kinds of satisfaction that shopping activities provide, along with that which is derived from the merchandise purchased (Westbrook & Black, 1985).

Tauber (1972) classifies shopping motivations into either personal or social motivations, suggesting that a number of these motivations influence shopping behavior but do not necessarily relate to purchasing interest. Tauber's (1972) six personal motivations include: (1) *role playing*, for instance, consumers view grocery shopping as an integral part of the wife's role; (2) *diversion* which is the shopping motivation that offers consumers an opportunity for diversion from the routine of daily life and therefore represents a form of recreation and free entertainment; (3) *learning about new trends*, which is the need to stay informed about the latest trends in fashion, products, or ideas when visiting a store; (4) *self-gratification*, or emotional states driving consumers to go shopping, for instance, a consumer goes shopping to alleviate depression, as the shopping trip is motivated not by expected utility of consuming, but by the utility of the buying

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process itself; (5) *physical activity*, or the need of exercise, for example, consumers consider walking in shopping centers and malls to be exercise; and (6) *sensory stimulation*, or gestalt of the shopping environment, for instance, consumers perceive that shopping centers provide potential sensory benefits, such as sound and scent (p. 47). According to Tauber (1972), the five social motivations consist of (1) *social experiences outside the home* such as seeking out acquaintances; (2) *communication with others who have a similar interest*, for instance, retail stores offer hobby-related goods, such as home decorating, which serve as a place for consumers with similar interests to interact; (3) *peer group attraction*, for instance, music stores are a common meeting place where teenagers may gather; (4) *status and authority*, for instance, shopping experiences provide the opportunity for consumers to command attention and respect; and (5) *pleasure of bargaining*, for example, consumers pride themselves on their ability to make wise purchases by bargaining (p. 48).

Consistent with Tauber (1972), Sheth (1983) later suggested that consumers shop because of two kinds of shopping motivations: *functional needs* and *nonfunctional wants*. Functional needs are related to time, place, and possession needs, such as one-stop shopping, cost and availability of needed products, convenience in parking and shopping, and accessibility to the outlets (Sheth, 1983, pp. 15-16). In contrast, nonfunctional wants are related to various shopping outlets as a result of the individual's associations with certain social, emotion, and epistemic values (Sheth, 1983, pp. 15-16). With respect to the epistemic aspect of nonfunctional wants, Sheth (1983) explains that consumers shop for novelty, to satisfy their curiosity, to reduce boredom, and to keep up with new trends

and events. In brief, functional needs are clearly anchored to outlet attributes, whereas nonfunctional wants are anchored to outlet associations (Rintamäki et al., 2006). In addition, Sheth (1983) asserted that functional needs are intrinsic to outlets, whereas nonfunctional wants are extrinsic. According to Sheth (1983), consumers assess the benefits they wish to obtain and then choose retailers to attain these benefits.

Building on Tauber's (1972) seminal work, Westbrook and Black (1985) proposed two additional and potentially significant aspects of the direction and instigation of shopping behavior based on their study of female department store consumers. The first aspect pertains to the instrumentality of shopping in acquiring the desired or needed products, whereas the second aspect relates to choice optimization (Westbrook & Black, 1985). By providing broad confirmation of the hypotheses advanced by Tauber (1972) as well as recognizing the existence of two additional motivations underlying shopping activity, Westbrook and Black (1985) posit that there are three fundamental shopping motivations: (1) to acquire a product; (2) to acquire both a desired product and provide satisfaction with non-product-related needs; and (3) to primarily attain goals not related to product acquisition. Furthermore, Westbrook and Black (1985) captured these fundamental shopping motives in seven dimensions: (1) *anticipated utility* of the prospective purchase; (2) *role enhancement* of economic shopping; (3) *negotiation* to obtain price concessions from the seller; (4) *choice optimization* in terms of matching shoppers' needs and desires; (5) *affiliation* with reference groups; (6) *power and authority* in marketplace exchanges; and (7) *sensory stimulation* from the market itself. According to Westbrook and Black (1985), these

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motivations can be described as containing both hedonic and utilitarian elements. That is, some are more utilitarian (motivated by functional concerns) in nature while others are more hedonic (motivated by instrumental concerns). However, Westbrook and Black (1985) concluded that consumers appear to derive relatively more gratification from the process of shopping than from anticipating the merchandise sought.

Sheth, Newman, and Gross (1991) proposed a theory of consumption values in explaining why consumers make the choices they do (i.e., buy or not buy, choose one product type or brand over another). The theory identifies five consumption values influencing consumer choice behavior, namely: *functional*, *social*, *emotional*, *epistemic* and *conditional* value (Sheth et al., 1991). According to Sheth et al. (1991), functional value is defined as the perceived utility of an alternative's capacity for functional, utilitarian, or physical performance, whereas social value is defined as the perceived utility acquired from an alternative's association with one or more specific social group. The third value, emotional, is referred to as the perceived utility acquired from an alternative's capacity to arouse feelings or affective states. Sheth et al. (1991) explained that an alternative acquires emotional value when associated with specific feelings or when precipitating those feelings. Epistemic value is defined by Sheth et al. (1991) as the perceived utility acquired from an alternative's capacity to arouse curiosity, provide novelty, and/or satisfy a desire for knowledge such as entirely new experiences and trying new products. The last value, conditional value, is the perceived utility acquired by an alternative as the result of the specific situation or set of circumstances facing the choice maker (Sheth et al., 1991). According to Sheth et al. (1991), an alternative acquires

conditional value in the presence of antecedent physical or social contingencies that enhance its functional or social value. Sheth et al. (1991) proposed that the five consumption values contribute differently in specific choice contexts. That is, each consumption value is independent, relating additively and contributing incrementally to choice (Sheth et al., 1991).

A more recent study on grocery consumers conducted by Morschett et al. (2005) suggested four dimensions of shopping motivations or orientations: (1) *scope orientation*, or the motive to buy from a large selection of goods and services at one destination, or under one roof; (2) *quality orientation*, or demanding a high quality of assortment in general, freshness and a pleasant store atmosphere; (3) *price orientation*, or the search for low prices during promotions and general price-value; and (4) *time orientation*, or the importance of quick shopping. In contrast, Noble et al. (2006) proposed seven common shopping motives, namely (1) *convenience seeking*, or the degree to which consumers strive for time saving in their shopping; (2) *information attainment*, or consumers' gaining information related to a specific product; (3) *price attainment*, which includes either lowest price or price comparison; (4) *uniqueness seeking*, or consumers' seeking of unique merchandise; (5) *assortment seeking*, or the motive to have access to a wide selection of products and brands; (6) *social interaction*, or consumer engagement in social interaction; and (7) *browsing*, or the examination of a store's merchandise for recreational or informational purposes without a current intent to buy (Noble et al., 2006).

A review of the literature indicates that many subsequent studies have investigated shopping motivations within various retail settings (i.e., grocery stores,

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department stores, discount stores). According to Morschett et al. (2005), because there is

no commonly agreed upon classification of shopping motivations, in addition to the

studies mentioned earlier, various other shopping motivations have been proposed,

including *convenience/economic* versus *recreational motivation* (Bellenger, Robertson, &

Greenberg, 1977), *functional needs* versus *nonfunctional wants* (Sheth, 1983), *product*

versus *experimental motives* (Dawson et al., 1990), *socialization*, *diversion* (seeking

diversion from routine life), *utilitarian* (Jin & Kim, 2003), and *utilitarian* versus *hedonic*

motives (Arnold & Raynolds, 2003; Babin et al., 1994, Chandon, Wansink, & Laurent,

2000).

In response to this wide variety of motivations, Rintamäki et al. (2006) sought to

deconstruct total consumer value into three basic dimensions: *utilitarian*, *hedonic* and

social. Considering the purpose of this dissertation, these three basic dimensions are used

as a guideline for analyzing consumers' shopping motivations in the context of Thai

department stores.

Utilitarian Shopping Motivations

Utilitarian value has been described as task-related and rational (Babin et al.,

1994; Sherry, 1990). According to Kim (2006), utilitarian motivation includes two

dimensions: efficiency and achievement. Efficiency refers to consumer needs and goals

to save time and resources, whereas achievement is more concerned with the shopping

goal embodied in the success of finding specific products. Utilitarian shopping behavior

is, therefore, referred to as a rational approach involving a purchase that is efficiently

made, even if the shopping itself may not provide any fun (Babin et al., 1994). Carpenter

and Moore (2009) asserted that a consumer perceives utilitarian value by acquiring the product that necessitated the shopping trip. That is, a consumer seeks utilitarian value in a task-oriented and rational manner (Blackwell, Miniard, & Engel, 2000). In addition, Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) explained that utilitarian value reflects shopping with a work mentality and, as a result, may help explain why some consumers view shopping as a means of "getting everything done" (Fischer & Arnold, 1990).

Hedonic Shopping Motivations

Hedonic value, on the other hand, is defined as those facets of consumer behavior relating to the multisensory, fantasy, and emotional aspects of one's experience with products (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982), as well as reflecting the potential entertainment and emotional worth of shopping (Bellenger et al., 1976). By focusing on hedonic motives, Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) highlighted the three "Fs": *fantasies*, *feelings*, and *fun* to represent the hedonic aspects of consumption. However, in a widely cited study on consumer hedonic shopping motivations, Arnold and Reynolds (2003) proposed six different motivations: (1) *adventure shopping* - shopping for stimulation, adventure, and the feeling of being in another world; (2) *gratification shopping* - shopping for stress relief, to alleviate a negative mood and as a special treat to oneself; (3) *value shopping* - shopping for sales, looking for discounts, and hunting for bargains; (4) *social shopping* - the enjoyment of shopping with friends and family, socializing and bonding with others while shopping; (5) *role shopping* - the enjoyment that consumers derive from shopping for others; and (6) *idea shopping* - shopping to keep up with trends and new fashions, as well as to see new products and innovations.

Social Shopping Motivations

According to Rintamäki et al. (2006), social value is realized through status and self-esteem enhancement. Prior research has conceptualized social value as either a lower level construct contributing to utilitarian and hedonic value or modeled it as one of several dimensions comprising value realized from a consumer good. In contrast, Rintamäki et al. (2006) argued that the social dimension of shopping value should be treated as a separate, third construct. That is, the social aspects of consumption have been acknowledged (Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982) and therefore should be considered to comprise a separate dimension. Furthermore, modeling social value as a separate construct will allow for testing its relevance in the shopping domain (Rintamäki et al., 2006). Thus, for the purposes of this dissertation, social value is conceptualized as a separate construct. Table 3 provides a summary of the aforementioned studies on the topic of shopping motivations.

Table 3. Shopping Motivation Studies Identified in a Review of Extant Literature

Author(s)	Purpose	Shopping Motivations
Tauber (1972)	To encourage behavioral research and theory building concerning shopping behavior by presenting exploratory research findings to address the question of why people shop.	Personal: Role Playing; Diversion from Daily Routine; Self-gratification; Physical Activity; Learning about New Trends; Sensory Stimulation

Table 3 (continued)

Author(s)	Purpose	Shopping Motivations
		Social: Social Experiences Outside the Home; Communication with Others Having Similar Interests; Peer Group Attraction; Status and Authority; Pleasure of Bargaining
Bellenger et al. (1977)	To determine the relative importance of various patronage motives related to demographic and lifestyle variables of shoppers in the context of shopping centers.	Convenience/Economic Recreational
Westbrook and Black (1985)	To propose and empirically test a theoretical model of shopping motivations based on a study of female department store consumers.	Anticipated Utility Role Enactment Negotiation Choice Optimization Affiliation Power and Authority Sensory Stimulation

Table 3 (continued)

Author(s)	Purpose	Shopping Motivations
Dawson et al. (1990)	To examine how two psychological states--preexisting motives and transient emotions-- influence retail-related outcomes in the context of an outdoor crafts market.	Product Experiential
Sheth et al. (1991)	To present a theory of consumption values by identifying five values influencing consumer choice behavior.	Functional Social Emotional Epistemic Conditional
Babin et al. (1994)	To describe the development of a scale measuring consumer values obtained from the consumption experience of shopping. The authors also develop and validate the scale using a multistep process.	Utilitarian Hedonic
Arnold and Reynolds (2003)	To identify a comprehensive inventory of consumers' hedonic shopping motivations.	Adventure Shopping Gratification Shopping Value Shopping Social Shopping Role Shopping Idea Shopping

Table 3 (continued)

Author(s)	Purpose	Shopping Motivations
Jin and Kim (2003)	To provide an exploratory examination of consumers' shopping motivations and their typologies in the context of a discount store in Korea.	Socialization Diversion Utilitarian
Morschett et al. (2005)	To examine the role of shopping motives as the source of heterogeneity in the perception of store attributes and attitude towards a store in the context of grocery stores.	Scope Quality Price Time
Noble et al. (2006)	To gain insight into the drivers of local merchant loyalty.	Information Attainment Price Comparison Uniqueness Seeking Assortment Seeking Convenience Seeking Social Interaction Browsing
Rintamäki et al. (2006)	To deconstruct total customer value and empirically test the conceptualization in the context of a department store.	Hedonic Utilitarian Social

Although the influence of consumer shopping motivations on shopping behavior has been investigated relative to department store shopping (Rintamäki et al., 2006; Westbrook & Black, 1985), the extent to which the relationship between shopping motivations and shopping behaviors (i.e., store choice criteria) is similar within the context of both national and local department stores has yet to be examined. In addition, though department stores are popular shopping destinations among Thai consumers, the relationship between shopping motivations and shopping behaviors has not been investigated in the Thai context. As it has been well established that shopping motivations are a good predictor of shopping behaviors, this dissertation examines this relationship in an overlooked consumption context: Thai department stores.

Retailer-Related Factors and Consumers' Perceptions of Store Choice Criteria

Offering a pleasant shopping environment has become a competitive retail strategy to attract consumers to stores, enhance the shopping experience, and improve consumer satisfaction and loyalty (Andreu et al., 2006; Frasquet, Vallet, & Gil, 2002; Sirgy, Grewal, & Mangleburg, 2000). In addition, marketing academics and practitioners in the retailing area have paid considerable attention to physical stimuli, including store environment (Areni & Kim, 1993; Baker et al., 1994; Bellizzi, Crowley, & Hasty, 1983; Seok, 2009). According to Turley and Milliman (2000), previous studies on the effects of facility-based environmental cues (i.e., in-store marketing communication) on consumer behaviors have employed a variety of terms, including atmospherics (Kotler, 1974), store environment cues (Baker et al., 2002), and servicescapes (Bitner, 1992). Thus, in this

dissertation, the terms that represent in-store marketing communication, such as atmospherics and environment cues, are used interchangeably.

According to Turley and Milliman (2000), retail environment studies have manipulated a large number of atmospheric stimuli, such as color and music (Bellizzi & Hite, 1992; Vida, 2008), and then reported the influence of this stimuli on consumers' store evaluations, such as satisfaction and store image (Baker et al., 1994; Yang & Peterson, 2004; Zeithaml, 1988), and on a wide range of behavioral responses, such as time spent in the environment (Vida, 2008), sales, and impulse buying (Yalch & Spangenberg, 1993). Berman and Evans (1995) classified atmospherics into four categories, namely the exterior of the store, the general interior, layout and design variables, and point-of-purchase and decoration variables. Building upon Berman and Evans (1995), Turley and Milliman (2000) suggested human variables as an additional category. Turley and Milliman (2000) then organized these variables into five basic categories, namely exterior, general interior, store layout, interior display, and human variables (see Table 4). According to Turley and Milliman (2000), numerous empirical studies of store atmosphere deal with interior variables (i.e., color, lighting, music) and consumers' perceptions of these variables (Morin et al., 2007; Morschett et al., 2005; Yalch & Spangenberg, 1993).

Table 4. Atmospheric Categories and Variables

Atmospheric Categories	Variables
Exterior	Store Front, Marquee, Entrances, Display Windows, Building Architecture, Parking, Surrounding Area
General Interior	Flooring/Carpeting, Lighting, Scent, Sounds, Temperature, Cleanliness, Fixtures, Wall Coverings, Cash Register Placement
Store Layout	Floor Space Allocation, Product Groupings, Traffic Flow, Department Locations, Allocations Within Departments
Interior Display	Product Display, Racks and Cases, Posters, Signs, Cards, Wall Decorations
Human Variables	Crowding, Customer Characteristics, Employee Characteristics, Employee Uniforms

Source: Adapted from "Atmospheric effects on shopping behavior: A review of the experimental evidence," by Tuley & Milliman (2000). *Journal of Business Research, 49*(2), 193-211.

Baker et al. (2002) proposed a typology to categorize store elements into three broad groups: store design cues (i.e., color, display, layout, organization of merchandise), store social cues (i.e., salespeople), and store ambient cues (i.e., music, lighting). These atmospheric cues can affect consumers' perceptions of store image (Baker et al., 2002; Hu & Jasper, 2006; Mazursky & Jacoby, 1986; Sirgy et al., 2000). Additionally, consumers attend to design, social, and ambient environment cues when evaluating stores (Baker et al., 2002; Bellizzi et al., 1983) because they believe that such cues offer reliable information about product-related attributes, such as quality, price, and the overall shopping experience (Baker et al., 2002; Bitner, 1992; Michon, Chebat, & Turley, 2005).

In-Store Marketing Communication (Environmental Cues)

According to Inference Theory, individuals make judgments about the unknown on the basis of information they receive from cues that are available to them (Huber & McCann, 1982; Nisbett & Ross, 1980). For instance, consumers may form attitudes about service failure based on physical environment (Bitner, 1990), and make inferences about a store based on its environmental cues (Ward, Bitner, & Barnes, 1992). Likewise, the Theory of Affordances (Gibson, 1979) states that an individual perceives his or her physical environment as a meaningful entity and that perception conveys information directly to the individual. However, the environment is perceived not only in terms of object shapes and spatial relationships, but in terms of its possibilities for action (affordances). For instance, surfaces are used for walking and handles are used for carrying an object (Gibson, 1979).

It has been proposed that a consumer's assessment of service quality depends on perception and not necessarily reality (Darian, Tucci, & Wiman, 2001). Baker et al. (2002) asserted that consumers' store choice decision criteria, such as perceived merchandise value and perceived service value, are influenced by store environment cues. Accordingly, a number of existing studies indicate that attributes of the retail store environment have an impact on store choice and patronage behavior (Baker et al., 2002; Bellizzi et al., 1983; Hui, Dube, & Chebat, 1997; Seock, 2009; Turley & Milliman, 2000). In addition, consumers with incomplete information about merchandise or service quality are likely to base purchase decisions on inferences they make from various

information obtained from the environment, including store design and ambient cues, as well as social cues (Baker et al., 1994; Zeithaml, 1988).

Store Design Cues

Store design cues, referred as "store environmental elements," are visual in nature and may be functional (e.g., layout), and/or aesthetic (e.g., color) (Baker et al., 1994). Commodity and service information is provided to consumers through the design of the store environment (Chen & Hsieh, 2011). Findings from laboratory experiments have indicated that design elements influence customer behavior (Turley & Milliman, 2000). More specifically, color appears to influence purchasing, time spent in the store, pleasant feelings, as well as enhances store and merchandise image (Bellizzi et al., 1983; Bellizzi & Hite, 1992; Turley & Milliman, 2000). For example, the color used within a store was found to affect consumer evaluations of the store and its merchandise (Bellizzi et al., 1983). In contrast, a poorly designed store environment, such as a confusing store layout, was found to reduce shopping pleasure and lead to the deterioration of consumer mood (Spies, Hesse, & Loesch, 1997).

In a study of the influence of store environment cues on patronage intentions, Baker et al. (2002) found that consumers' perceptions of service quality, merchandise quality, price, and convenience can be influenced by design and ambient cues, which result in store patronage intentions (e.g., intending to shop at the store and recommending it to others). In addition, compared to other cues (i.e., ambient and social cues), Chen and Hsieh (2011) suggested that design cues have the most influence on consumer approach behaviors (i.e., intention to stay and return to the store). Furthermore, design cues are

found to have a stronger and more pervasive influence on consumer' perceptions of store choice criteria compared to other store cues (Baker et al., 2002).

Store Ambient Cues

Turley and Milliman (2000) stated that among the many in-store elements purported to impact patrons, music is the leading feature of academic studies. Indeed many experimental studies have been conducted to examine the effects of music on consumer behavior (Areni & Kim, 1993; Hui et al., 1997; Kellaris & Kent, 1991; Park & Young, 1986; Spangenberg, Grohmann, & Sprott, 2005). Hui et al. (1997) indicated that music influenced a consumer's reaction to having to wait for service. More specifically, they found that positively valenced music triggers a more positive emotional response to waiting (Hui et al., 1997). Research related to the effects of music on consumer evaluative and behavioral responses conducted by Vida (2008) also indicated that the positive perception of the music being played in a store results in a positive experience for the consumer, who then evaluates the in-store merchandise more favorably, and, as a result, spends more time and money in the store.

In addition to music, the literature indicates that lighting is one of the major contributing factors of retail store atmospherics. Rea (1999), for instance, suggested that lighting in the retail environment influences three things: (1) attracting customers; (2) allowing for evaluation of the merchandise; and (3) facilitating completion of the sale. The influence of lighting on consumer perceived store image and merchandise was supported in several other studies including Baker et al. (1994), Gardner and Siomkos (1986), Kotler (1974), and Summers and Hebert (2001). On the other hand, Areni and

Kim (1994) suggested that the impact of lighting on consumer behavior relates to more functional aspects. That is, lighting could affect visual acuity (i.e., checking price, reading labels, and handling merchandise) and therefore the level of interest arousal experienced by consumers (Areni & Kim, 1994).

Store Social Cues

According to Baker et al. (1994), store social cues involve the people who are within a store's environment. Baker et al. (1994) posited that social cues include number, type, and behavior of other customers and sales personnel in the retail environment. One study by Wicker (1973) found that the number of employees or salespeople in a retail environment positively influenced consumers' inferences of store services. Furthermore, the number of other customers in the store is associated with consumers' inferences of popularity or variety of store merchandise (Yuksel, 2009). Byun and Mann (2011) asserted that the number of other customers influences positive emotion (i.e., fun) and induces hedonic shopping value. Other studies suggest that the number of customers in the store does not directly elicit hedonic value but affects it through other intervening variables (Eroglu, Machleit, & Barr, 2005; Nichols, 2010). For instance, the number of customers can create a sense of competition to find unique products, and a sense of achievement derived from the competition through products acquired in the environment (Byun & Mann, 2011). Nichols (2010) suggests that competition can motivate consumers to be actively involved in shopping activities by provoking emotional experiences, thus influencing their shopping experience valuations. Research on social cues is consistent with studies indicating that tangibles (i.e., employee dress), responsiveness (i.e.,

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cooperative employees), and empathy (i.e., employees willing to give customers personal attention) are important components of service quality evaluations (Bitner, 1992; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988). Other literature suggests a relationship between store social cues and merchandise quality. For instance, Mazursky and Jacoby (1986) found that in evaluating the quality of service, the number of salespersons per department appeared to be the most salient cue for consumers. That is, in forming impressions regarding service quality, the most frequently accessed property was number of salespeople (Mazursky & Jacoby, 1986).

The influence of in-store marketing communication (i.e., store environment) on consumer behavior has received significant attention and wide acceptance among researchers (Gilboa & Rafaeli, 2003; Luomala, 2003; Mattila & Wirtz, 2001; Turley & Milliman, 2000; Wakefield & Baker, 1998). Previous studies have shown that in-store environment has a critical bearing on consumers' store choice processes (Baker et al., 2002). However, none of the studies were conducted in Thailand, or in the context of the department store. Knowledge of how in-store marketing communication enhances consumers' perceptions can assist department stores in their efforts to develop marketing communication strategies to create and maintain a positive shopping experience. Given the fact that department stores in Thailand often have large visual merchandising budgets compared to other retail formats (Euromonitor International, 2010), studies related to in-store marketing communication (i.e., design, ambient, and social cues) and its impact on consumers' store choice criteria are needed.

Consumer Satisfaction and Store Loyalty

Consumer satisfaction and loyalty are among the most researched concepts in marketing academia and among the most important constructs in practice (Curtis, Abratt, Rhoades, & Dion, 2011). Although it is widely accepted that the concept of satisfaction and loyalty are distinct, extensive research on the relationships between consumer loyalty and satisfaction indicates that these constructs appear to be complex and multidimensional. As a result, the satisfaction-loyalty relationship is not well specified (Curtis et al., 2011; Harris & Goode, 2004; Oliver, 1999). Figure 2 illustrates six of the many and diverse possible associations of satisfaction and loyalty as outlined by Oliver (2010).

Figure 2. The Relationship between Satisfaction and Loyalty
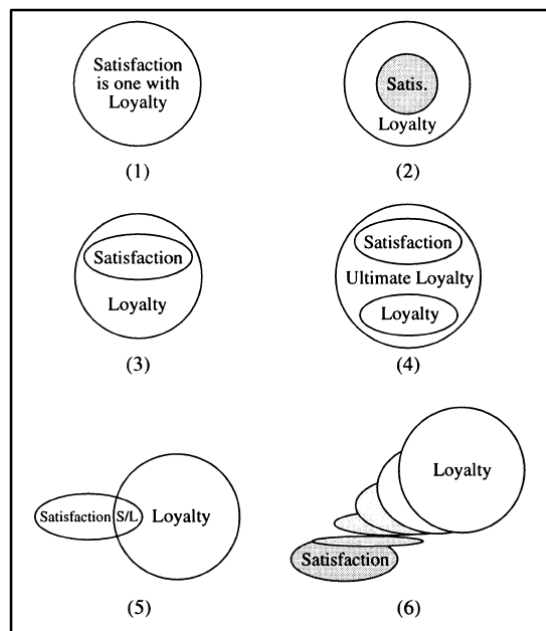
Source: "Satisfaction: A behavioral perspective on the consumer," by Oliver (2010), Armonk, N.Y: M.E. Sharpe (p. 451).

As depicted in the first example within Figure 2, satisfaction and loyalty are two manifestations of the same concept. The second and third examples suggest that satisfaction is an essential ingredient for the emergence of loyalty; the second example suggests that the former is the core, whereas the third example suggests that it is necessary. Oliver (2010) argued that it may be that satisfaction is not a core element of loyalty; however, it is difficult to enhance loyalty development without satisfaction. The fourth example suggests that a superordinate concept, referred to as *ultimate loyalty*, encompasses both satisfaction and loyalty, whereas the fifth shows satisfaction and loyalty as overlapping with the percent of overlap small in relation to the content of each construct. Finally, the sixth example presents satisfaction as the beginning of a transitioning sequence that culminates in a separate loyalty state. Based on the sixth example, loyalty may become independent of satisfaction so that reversals in the satisfaction experience (i.e., dissatisfaction) will not influence the loyalty state (Oliver, 1999). Furthermore, Oliva, Oliver, and MacMillan (1992) have empirically suggested that there is a threshold at which loyalty can revert to dissatisfaction in the face of repeatedly unsatisfactory purchase episodes. What has not yet been shown is the case in which loyalty reverts to (positive) satisfaction and the consumer becomes open to competitive advances (Oliver, 2010). According to Oliver (2010), among the six, example number 6 is the most accurate, except that satisfaction does not always transform into loyalty. That is, without additional factors (i.e., personal determination, social support), satisfaction may stay dormant. In other words, the consumer remains satisfied but does not grow beyond that state.

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Satisfaction

Satisfaction is fundamental to the well-being of individual consumers and to the profit of firms that are supported by purchasing and patronization (Oliver, 2010). Moreover, consumer satisfaction is regarded as a key outcome of buyer-seller relationships (Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Orth & Green, 2009). Although it is accepted that satisfaction with consumption benefits consumers, firms, and industries, as Oliver (2010) argued, few can agree on what the concept of satisfaction actually is. Yang and Peterson (2004) asserted that consumer satisfaction is a critical focus for effective marketing programs, yet the variety of definitions of satisfaction appearing in the existing literature causes fragmentation (Szymanski & Henard, 2001). For instance, satisfaction is defined as pleasurable fulfillment, in that consumption fulfills some need, desire, goal, and so forth and that this fulfillment is pleasurable (Oliver, 1999). Furthermore, Tse and Wilton (1988) defined consumer satisfaction as the consumer's response in a particular consumption experience to the evaluation of the perceived discrepancy between prior expectations (or some other norm or performance) and the actual performance of the product as perceived after its acquisition (p. 204). In contrast to more rational outcomes, Orth and Green (2009) and Anderson and Narus (1990) conceptualized satisfaction as a consumer's affective state resulting from an overall appraisal of his or her relationship with a retailer. An alternative conceptualization views satisfaction as consumers' assessments of the extent to which retailer performance on specific dimensions meets or exceeds prior expectations (Oliva et al., 1992; Szymanski & Henard, 2001).

Among various scholars, Oliver (1980, 1997) proposed a definition of satisfaction that appears to be sufficiently general in scope and has been adopted in many studies (Carpenter, 2008; Dick & Basu, 1994; Orth & Green, 2009; Wallace et al., 2004). According to Oliver (1997), satisfaction is the consumer's fulfillment response, in that a judgment that a product/service feature, or the product or service itself, provided (or is providing) a pleasurable level of consumption-related fulfillment, including levels of under-or over-fulfillment. Oliver (1999) suggested that satisfaction is a fairly temporal post-usage state for one-time consumption or a repeatedly experience state for ongoing consumption that reflects how the product/service has fulfilled its purpose. In other words, it is the consumer's sense that consumption provides outcomes against a standard of pleasure versus displeasure.

In addition to the diversity of satisfaction concepts, Oliver (2010) suggests that other distinctions should be viewed at different levels in order to address the confusion regarding the meaning of satisfaction. Table 5 presents the different views of satisfaction proposed by Oliver (2010). According to Oliver (2010), each row in Table 5 presents a level of abstraction along individual (micro) and aggregate (macro) dimensions, whereas each column presents the process by which antecedents or determinants cause satisfaction and the subsequent effects of satisfaction on other kinds of consumer thoughts and actions. He argues that the term "satisfaction" is often used liberally to apply to the content provided in the table.

Table 5. The Different Views of Satisfaction

Viewpoint	Antecedents	Core Concept	Consequences
Individual: One Transaction	Performance or Service Encounter	Transaction-specific Satisfaction	Complimenting, Complaining, Word of Mouth
Individual: Time Accumulated	Accumulated Performance History	Summary Satisfaction	Attitude, Loyalty, Switching
Firm's Customers in the Aggregate	Reputation, Product Quality, Promotion	Average Satisfaction, Repurchase Rates, Competitive Ranking	Share, Profits
Society	Product and Service Variety, Average Quality	Psychological Well-being	Tranquility, Productivity, Social Progress, Alienation, Consumerism

Source: "Satisfaction: A behavioral perspective on the consumer," by Oliver, 2010, Armonk, N.Y: M.E. Sharpe (p. 9).

At the micro level, the focus is on an individual consumer's state of satisfaction based on a single observation or transaction, sometimes referred as *encounter* or *transaction-specific* satisfaction (Oliver, 2010). At the higher level of abstraction, one might be interested in a consumer's accumulated satisfaction over many samplings (occurrences) of the same experience (Oliver, 2010). Existing literature refers to *accumulated* satisfaction as "long-term," "overall," "global," or "summary" satisfaction

(Bitner & Hubbert, 1994). In addition, interest is focused on the behavioral sequence

leading up to and resulting from satisfaction (Oliver, 2010). In effect, this is the process

of satisfaction as it unfolds for an individual consumer or for a firm (Oliver, 2010).

According to Yang and Peterson (2004), among the popular measurements of

satisfaction, the two most widely employed are transaction-specific and cumulative or

overall satisfaction. Thus, considering the purpose of this dissertation, existing studies

related to transaction-specific and overall satisfaction are discussed below.

Transaction-specific versus Overall Satisfaction

The transaction-specific approach defines satisfaction as an emotional response

by a consumer to his or her most recent transactional experience with an organization

(Oliver, 1993; Yang & Peterson, 2004). The associated response occurs at a specific time

following consumption, after the choice process has been completed (Yang & Peterson,

2004). Yang and Peterson (2004) described how affective response varies in intensity

depending upon the situational variables that are presented. On the other hand, the overall

satisfaction perspective views consumer satisfaction as a cumulative evaluation that

requires summing the satisfaction associated with specific products and various facets of

the firm (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Parasuraman et al., 1988).

Previous studies consider overall satisfaction to be a primary function of

perceived service quality (Bitner, 1992; Boulding, Kalra, Staelin, & Zeithaml, 1993;

Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Parasuraman et al., 1988). Compared to transaction-specific

satisfaction, overall satisfaction reflects a consumer's cumulative impression of a firm's

service performance. As a result, it may serve as a better predictor of consumer loyalty

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(Jones & Suh, 2000; Oliver, 1993). According to Orth and Green (2009), store satisfaction represents a consumer's overall evaluation of his or her experience with a specific type of store, such as a national or local department store. In the retail literature, scholars define satisfaction as a consumer's assessment of the extent to which retailer performance on specific dimensions meets or exceeds prior expectations (Szymanski & Henard, 2001, p. 17), the best indicator of a company's future profits (Kotler, 1991, p. 19), and a consumer's affective state resulting from an overall appraisal of his or her relationship with a retailer (Anderson & Narus, 1990, p. 45). Furthermore, to enhance loyalty, frequency of cumulative satisfaction is required so that individual satisfaction episodes become aggregated or blended (Oliver, 1999). Orth and Green (2009) suggested that store satisfaction represents a consumer's overall evaluation of the experience with a specific type of store. Based on the discussion in the literature, the overall satisfaction perspective appears best suited to accomplish the objectives of this dissertation.

Loyalty

Consumer loyalty has long been regarded as an important goal, therefore both academics and practitioners have attempted to uncover its most prominent antecedents (Yang & Peterson, 2004). However, similar to the satisfaction concept, ways of defining and measuring consumer loyalty are not consistent across the literature (Oliver, 1999; Yang & Peterson, 2004). According to Mechinda et al. (2008), loyalty has been defined based on several perspectives, such as the behavioral perspective (Brown, 1952; Cunningham, 1956; Dick & Basu, 1994), the attitudinal perspective (Jaiswal & Niraj,

2011) and the composite approach (Backman & Crompton, 1991; Jacoby, 1971; Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978; Pritchard & Howard, 1997).

The behavioral perspective defines consumer loyalty as repeat patronage. That is, the proportion of times a consumer chooses the same product or service in a specific category compared to the total number of purchases made by the consumer in that category (Neal, 1999; Yang & Peterson, 2004). Loyalty is viewed as actual consumption, a sequence of purchases, proportion of market share, probability of purchase, duration, frequency, and as purchase intention (Dick & Basu, 1994; Mechinda et al., 2008).

In contrast, the attitudinal perspective views loyalty as a specific desire to continue a relationship with a service provider (Yang & Peterson, 2004). The attitudinal approach goes beyond overt behavior and expresses loyalty in terms of a consumer's strength of affection toward a brand (Backman & Crompton, 1991; Mechinda et al., 2008).

Composite measures of loyalty integrate both behavioral and attitudinal dimensions (Mechinda et al., 2008; Pritchard & Howard, 1997). Although the composite measurement seems to be the most comprehensive, Mechinda et al. (2008) argued that it is not necessarily the most practical. Thus, according to Yang and Peterson (2004), attitudinal and behavioral measures have been the most widely used by researchers to define and assess loyalty.

The beginnings of a behavioral perspective (centered on observable actions) on loyalty appeared in the 1970s when the majority of researchers measured loyalty as a pattern of repeat purchasing (Oliver, 2010). For instance, Newman and Werbel (1973)

defined loyal consumers as those who rebought a brand, considered only that brand, and did no brand-related information seeking. These definitions, however, only reflect what the consumer does, in that the psychological meaning of satisfaction or loyalty is overlooked (Oliver, 1999). Jacoby and Chestnut (1978) have explored the psychological meaning of loyalty in distinguishing the concept of loyalty from behavior definitions (i.e., repeat purchase). Based on their analysis, Jacoby and Chestnut (1978) proposed that consistent purchasing as an indicator of loyalty could be invalid because of happenstance buying or a preference for convenience, and that inconsistent purchasing could mask loyalty if consumers were multibrand loyal. Because of these possibilities, Jacoby and Chestnut (1978) suggested that researchers avoid infering loyalty or disloyalty solely from repetitive purchase patterns without further analysis. Although Jacoby and Chestnut (1978) make seminal contributions to exploring and elaborating upon the phases of loyalty, it is the work of Oliver (1997) that constitutes the most comprehensive evaluation of the construct (Harris & Goode, 2004).

According to Oliver (1997, 1999), loyalty has generally been and continues to be defined as repeat purchasing frequency or relative volume of same-brand purchasing. However, intention may not always lead to action, and repeated buying behavior may not reflect intentions. Thus, in Oliver (2010), the components of loyalty, brand loyalty, and switching behavior were explained by turning to behavior-based explanations for brand-specific purchase pattern sequences within a product category. Accordingly, consumer loyalty is examined as a deeply-held commitment to rebuy or repatronize a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand

purchasing despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behavior (Oliver, 1999, 2010).

Oliver (2010) proposed a four stage brand-loyalty model according to the cognition-affect-conation pattern, suggesting that loyalty requires consistency across the cognitive, affective, conative, and action dimensions of the consumer's focal brand orientation. However, a consumer can become loyal or locked at each loyal phase (Oliver, 1999, 2010). Specifically, consumers are thought to first become loyal in a cognitive sense, then later in an affective sense, still later in a conative sense, and finally in a behavioral sense, described as action-inertia (Oliver, 1999, 2010). Contemporary researchers appear to support this four-stage framework of loyalty because it incorporates and integrates both behavioral and attitudinal components (Aaker, 1991; Han, Kim, & Kim, 2011; Harris & Goode, 2004).

Cognitive Loyalty

At this stage, consumers are loyal to a brand based on the information they have about that brand. That is, the brand attribute information available to the consumer indicates that one brand is preferable to its alternatives. This stage is referred to as cognitive loyalty, or loyalty based on brand belief only (Oliver, 1999, 2010). Cognition can be based on prior or vicarious knowledge or on recent experience-based information. Oliver (2010) explained that loyalty at this phase is directed toward the brand because of this information (i.e., attribute performance levels). This consumer state, however, is of a shallow nature (Oliver, 2010). That is, if the transaction is routine, such that satisfaction is not processed (i.e., trash pickup, utility provision), the depth of loyalty is no deeper

than mere performance (Oliver, 2010). In contrast, if satisfaction is processed, it becomes part of the consumer's experiences and begins to take on affective overtones (Oliver, 2010).

Affective Loyalty

In this stage of loyalty development, a liking or attitude toward the brand has developed on the basis of cumulatively satisfying usage occasions (Oliver, 2010). According to Oliver (2010), commitment at this phase is referred to as affective loyalty and is encoded in the consumer's mind as cognition and affect. Whereas cognition is directly subject to counter argumentation, affect is not as easily dislodged (Oliver, 2010). Similar to cognitive loyalty, affective loyalty remains subject to switching, as evidenced by data showing that large percentages of brand defectors claim to have been previously satisfied with the brand. Thus, Oliver (2010) suggested that it would be desirable if consumers were loyal at a deeper level of commitment.

Conative Loyalty

The conative or behavioral intention stage is influenced by repeated episodes of positive affect toward the brand (Oliver, 2010). By definition, conation implies a brand-specific commitment to repurchase (Oliver, 2010). Yang and Peterson (2002) explained that conative loyalty is a deeply-held commitment to buy (a good intention or desire) which may result in unrealized action. In effect, the consumer desires to repurchase, but similar to any good intention, this desire may be an anticipated but unrealized action (Oliver, 2010; Yang & Peterson, 2004).

Action Loyalty

Action loyalty is the last stage where consumers convert intentions to actions (Yang & Peterson, 2004). Study of the mechanism by which intentions are converted to actions is referred to as "action control" (Oliver, 1999, 2010). In the action control sequence, the motivated intention in the previous loyalty state is transformed into "readiness to act" (Oliver, 2010, p. 434). The action control paradigm proposes that this readiness is accompanied by an additional desire to overcome obstacles that might prevent the act (Oliver, 2010). For Oliver (2010), readiness to act is analogous to a deeply-held commitment to rebuy or repatronize a preferred product/service consistently in the future, while overcoming obstacles is analogous to rebuying despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behavior.

By ending the cognitive-affective-conative sequence with an action phase, the attitude-based loyalty model points to the behavior interest that is the action state of inertial rebuying (Oliver, 2010). Simply put, cognitive loyalty focuses on the brand's performance aspects, affective loyalty is directed toward the brand's likeableness, conative loyalty is expressed in the consumer's socially committed intention to rebuy the brand, and action loyalty is the commitment to the action of rebuying (Oliver, 2010). Action loyalty is ideal, but Yang and Peterson (2004) argued that it is difficult to observe and measure, therefore most researchers employ the conative or behavioral-intention measure.

Research Related to Consumer Satisfaction and Store Loyalty

Wallace et al. (2004) conceptualized store loyalty as the "customer's attitudinal and behavioral preference for the retailer when compared with available competitive alternatives" (p. 251). Numerous studies suggest that store loyalty is indicated by an intention to perform a diverse set of behaviors that signal a motivation to maintain a relationship with the focal firm, including repeatedly purchasing products at a particular store, willingness to pay more for the service, engaging in positive word-of-mouth, and allocating a large share of wallet to the store (Orth & Green, 2009; Seock, 2009; Sirohi, McLaughlin, & Wittink, 1998; Zeithml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996). Moreover, much of the literature positions consumer satisfaction as an antecedent to loyalty (Bitner & Hubbert, 1994; Bloemer & Ruyter, 1998; Mechinda et al., 2008; Oliver, 1999; 2010, Orth & Green, 2009; Yang & Peterson, 2004). In the tourism literature, for instance, Mechinda et al. (2008) found that satisfaction plays a significant role in determining destination loyalty. Specifically, satisfaction influences the choice of destination and the decision to return (Mechinda et al., 2008). Furthermore, consumers who are satisfied will be more likely to continue to purchase. In contrast, unsatisfied consumers will be more likely to switch to another alternative (Mechinda et al., 2008; Oliver & Swan, 1989).

In line with the tourism literature, the retail literature also suggests the influence of consumer satisfaction on retailer or store loyalty. For instance, a study conducted by Andreu et al. (2006) indicated that consumer satisfaction had a positive effect on repatronage intentions, disposition to pay more, and desire to remain in specific retail setting-shopping centers. Based on the literature review, the idea that satisfaction

influences store loyalty is well established, suggesting that higher satisfaction relates to higher loyalty (Bloemer & Ruyter, 1998; Macintosh & Lockshin, 1997; Magi, 2003). Thus, in this dissertation, overall satisfaction is positioned as an antecedent to loyalty.

Conceptual Framework

The purpose of this dissertation is to identify the factors that are important to Thai consumers when deciding between shopping at local versus national department stores. To address the gaps in literature, this dissertation investigates the shopping motivations that influence consumers' perceptions of retailer-related factors (i.e., department store attributes) and the relative efficacies of retailer-related factors for predicting consumers' department store patronage behaviors (i.e., satisfaction and loyalty) within the context of local versus national department stores in Thailand.

A considerable number of studies have found that satisfaction is a major antecedent of loyalty, as it is a necessary step in loyalty formation (Oliver, 1999, 2010), and higher satisfaction relates to higher loyalty (Bloemer & Ruyter, 1998; Garbarino & Johnson, 1999). Furthermore, the fact that store satisfaction influences store loyalty is well established (Macintosh & Lockshin, 1997). Thus, this study considers satisfaction as an antecedent to predict differences in consumer loyalty to local versus national Thai department stores. In this dissertation, consumer loyalty is assessed by purchasing behavior, the inclination to recommend the department store to others, and spending (share of wallet) at a particular department store. This approach has proven to be useful in previous loyalty research (Magi, 2003; Zeithaml et al., 1996).

Drawing on the concept of push-and-pull motivations and the literature regarding influences on consumer store patronage behavior, the conceptual framework of the current study is shown in Figure 3. Based on the extant literature, the research model proposes that shopping motivations (i.e., utilitarian, hedonic, and social) influence consumers' perceptions of in-store marketing communication (i.e., design, ambient, and social cues), which in turn, influence their store choice criteria (i.e., perceived merchandise and service values). The store choice criteria then influences consumers' overall satisfaction, which in turn, leads to store loyalty (i.e., word-of-mouth, store repatronage, and share of wallet).

Figure 3. Conceptual Framework for the Study
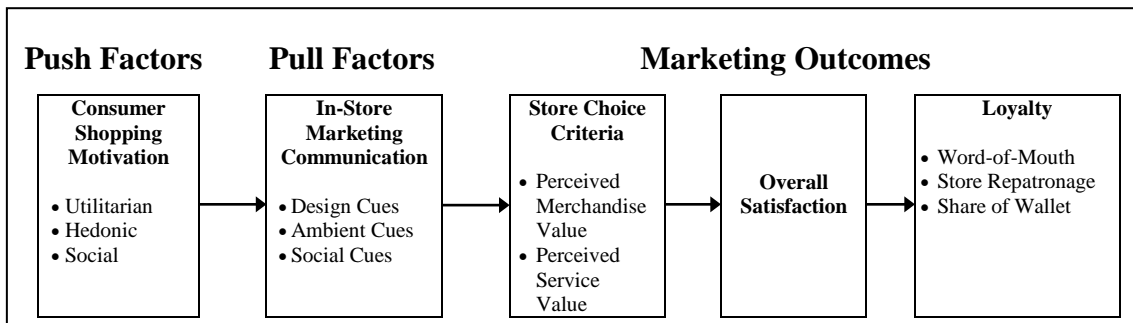
Hypotheses Development

According to the literature as well as findings from the qualitative preliminary study, the conceptual model suggests a relationship between shopping motivations and perceptions of in-store marketing communication, which impacts perceived merchandise and service value. These perceived values ultimately influence satisfaction and store

loyalty. To assess the model, a total of eight hypotheses were tested and are described in this section.

Hypothesis 1: Relationship between utilitarian motivations and perceived in-store marketing communication

According to Rintamäki et al. (2006), utilitarian value stems from monetary savings and convenience. The shopping goal of utilitarian consumers is convenience, which consequently influences getting in and out of the store quickly and finding the merchandise they seek easily (Baker et al., 2002). Thus, previous studies suggest that consumers driven by utilitarian motivations are likely to reveal their preferences for the convenience factor, and pay attention to whether the environment could promote highly-efficient accomplishment of tasks (Babin et al., 1994; Chen & Hsieh, 2011; Westbrook & Black, 1985). Convenience can be defined as the ratio of inputs to outputs, with time and effort being the relevant inputs (Seiders, Berry, & Gresham, 2000). Thus, for utilitarian consumers, maximizing the speed and ease of shopping is critical (Seiders et al., 2000). As a result, for their search and transaction convenience, consumers who are driven by utilitarian motivations may prefer organized merchandise and good store layout/product displays. Within the context of department stores, social cues (i.e., salespeople, other consumers) may influence the speed and ease of shopping for utilitarian consumers. Research indicates that the number of salespeople in the store influences time/effort cost perceptions. That is, consumers can expect to get quick service from salespeople (Baker et al., 2002). In addition, according to Mejri, Debabi, and Nasraout (2012), utilitarian shopping is primarily functional and provides no relaxation or enjoyment states.

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Therefore, it is expected that store ambient cues (i.e., music, lighting, and scent) that play an important role in providing entertainment and relaxation (Chen & Hsieh, 2011; Turley & Chebat, 2002) are not important to utilitarian consumers.

Findings from the qualitative preliminary research undertaken for this dissertation also confirmed the existence and the influence of utilitarian motivations (i.e., convenience, value, role shopping) on consumers' preferences for department stores in terms of layout, salespeople, organization of merchandise, convenient access, product variety, and promotion. The findings also revealed that the demands for convenience, product variety, and good service were more important when shopping at a national department store versus a local department store. Comparing national with local department stores, it would be expected that national department stores may better address utilitarian needs through organized merchandise, standardized layout, varieties of products/services (one stop shopping), and better promotion. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed (see Figure 4):

H1: Consumers with utilitarian motivations will positively evaluate in-store marketing communication in terms of (a) design cues (i.e., layout, product assortment) and (b) social cues (i.e., employees). Specifically, the influence of utilitarian motivations on perceived in-store marketing communication will be stronger in the national as compared to local department store context.

Figure 4. Relationship between Utilitarian Motivations and Perceived In-Store Marketing Communication: Design and Social Cues

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                                    H1: +                               │
│  ┌──────────────────────┐                ┌────────────────────────┐   │
│  │                      │                │  (a)  Design Cues       │   │
│  │ Utilitarian Motivations │──────────▶  │                        │   │
│  │                      │                │  (b)  Social Cues       │   │
│  └──────────────────────┘                └────────────────────────┘   │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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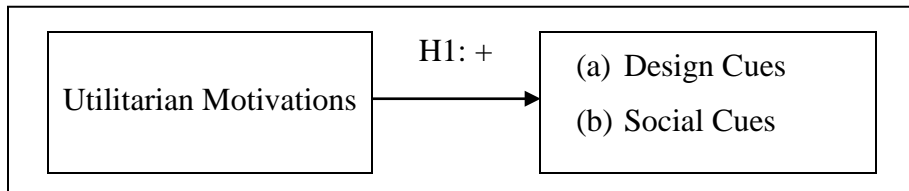
Hypothesis 2: Relationship between hedonic motivations and perceived in-store marketing communication

Unlike utilitarian value, which stems from monetary savings and convenience, hedonic motivation stems from exploration and entertainment (Rintamäki et al., 2006). Consumers with hedonic motivations focus more on the pleasure of the shopping experience (Chen & Hsieh, 2011). It was found in the literature that consumers driven by hedonic motivations are likely to enjoy shopping activities such as window shopping, browsing, and seeking variety, while buying is not necessary (Babin et al., 1994). Further studies suggest that in-store restaurants, benches and overall store atmospherics make the shopping experience more entertaining and thus provide hedonic value (Andreu et al., 2006; Babin et al., 1994; Turley & Milliman, 2000). Specifically, Chen and Hsieh (2011) found that when compared to other cues (i.e., social), ambient cues such as music and lighting are the most influential on consumer emotions, enabling them to experience active and positive emotions, as well as acquire pleasant experiences. According to Byun and Mann (2011), the number of other customers in the store influences consumers' positive emotions (i.e., fun) and induces hedonic shopping value. Furthermore, the

number of other customers may create a sense of competition in finding a good deal (Byun & Mann, 2011). As a result, competition can motivate consumers to be actively involved in shopping activities by provoking emotional experiences, thus influencing their hedonic shopping value (Eroglu et al., 2005; Nichols, 2010). Within the context of department stores, design cues (i.e., color, product assortment), ambient cues (i.e., music), and social cues (i.e., the number of other customers) may create a sense of entertainment and fun for hedonic consumers.

The qualitative preliminary findings indicated that hedonic motivations (i.e., recreation, inspiration seeking) influenced respondents' preferences for bright lighting, product display, presence of related services, a sense of leisure, modern decoration, innovativeness, and appearance of salespeople and other consumers. Findings also revealed that participants with hedonic motivations were more likely to shop at a national department store than a local department store because of the former's environment, including better lighting and store layout. Compared to local department stores, national department stores better address the needs of hedonic consumers by providing a sense of leisure (i.e., cinema, various restaurants), modern decoration and display, innovativeness, and well-dressed sales people/consumers. Therefore, the following hypothesis was developed (see Figure 5):

> H2: Consumers with hedonic motivations will positively evaluate in-store marketing communication in terms of (a) design cues (i.e., color, layout, product assortment), (b) ambient cues (i.e., music, lighting, scent), and (c) social cues (i.e., employees and other consumers). Specifically, the

influence of hedonic motivation on perceived in-store marketing

communication will be stronger in the national as compared to local

department store context.

Figure 5. Relationship between Hedonic Motivations and Perceived In-Store Marketing
Communication: Design, Ambient and Social Cues

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                                     H2: +                         │
│  ┌───────────────────────┐          ┌────────────────────────┐   │
│  │                        │          │  (a)  Design Cues      │   │
│  │  Hedonic Motivations   │ ───────▶ │  (b)  Ambient Cues     │   │
│  │                        │          │  (c)  Social Cues      │   │
│  └───────────────────────┘          └────────────────────────┘   │
│                                                                   │
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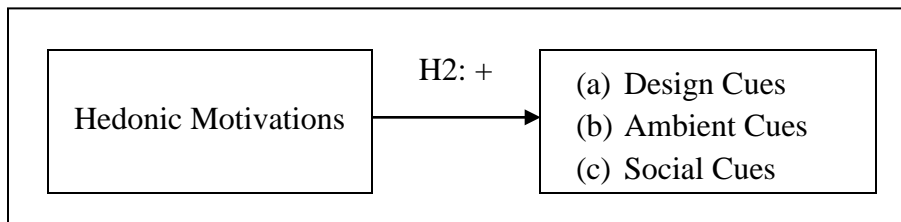
Hypothesis 3: Relationship between social motivations and perceived in-store marketing
communication

In contrast to utilitarian and hedonic motivations, social motivations are realized

through status and self-esteem enhancement (Rintamäki et al., 2006; Sirgy et al., 2000).

Consumers driven by social motivations shop as a way to express their personal values

(Chandon et al., 2000). For instance, consumers may peruse products at stores that clearly

push their financial capabilities with little intention of purchasing, but the process of

doing so enhances their status and/or self-esteem, which contributes to social value

(Rintamäki et al., 2006). Sirgy et al. (2000) asserted that individuals have ideal images of

themselves, and thus self-esteem is enhanced by realizing these images though

patronizing stores that are associated with them. Previous research on the retail

environment suggests that store design (i.e., color, layout, and display), ambient cues

(i.e., lighting and music), and social cues (i.e., well-dressed salespeople and other

customers) influence the consumer's image of the store and its merchandise (Dube et al., 1995; Gardner & Siomkos, 1985; Newman & Cullen, 2002; Rea, 1999; Vida, 2008). For example, certain types of music (i.e., classical music), lighting (soft lights), and well-dressed salespeople are likely to enhance the image of an upscale store among affluent patrons (Gardner & Siomkos, 1985; Sirgy et al., 2000). For consumers, patronizing a store that has an image consistent with their ideal self-image helps them to feel good about themselves (Sirgy et al., 2000). Furthermore, O'Cass and Grace (2008) argued that a consumer who has self-store image congruence in relation to a particular store will derive value from the service provided by the store employee. That is, consumers will display their preferences based on the service offerings.

Findings from the qualitative preliminary study also support the existence and influence of social motivations (i.e., social, cosmopolitan shopping), specifically on preferences for merchandise offered in department stores (i.e., global brands), presence of related services (i.e., modern cinema), a sense of urbanization through fashionable store design, music and standardized service from well-dressed salespeople. Moreover, the findings indicated that participants with social motivations preferred to shop at a national department store over a local department store because the former provides them with a better image, including a greater sense of urbanization, and offers a greater variety of products/services, as well as a higher standard of service than local department stores. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed (see Figure 6):

H3:   Consumers with social motivations will positively evaluate in-store

marketing communication in terms of (a) design cues (i.e., color, layout,

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product assortment), (b) ambient cues (i.e., music, lighting), and (c) social

cues (i.e., employees, other consumers). Specifically, the influence of social

motivation on perceived in-store marketing communication will be stronger

in the national as compared to local department store context.

Figure 6. Relationship between Social Motivations and Perceived In-Store Marketing
Communication: Design, Ambient and Social Cues

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                          H3: +
┌──────────────────┐           ┌──────────────────────┐
│                  │           │ (a)  Design Cues     │
│ Social Motivations│─────────▶│ (b)  Ambient Cues    │
│                  │           │ (c)  Social Cues     │
└──────────────────┘           └──────────────────────┘
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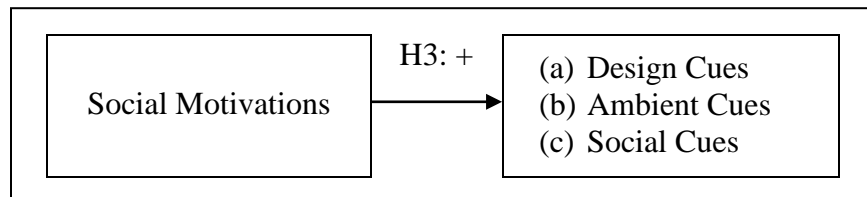
Hypothesis 4: Relationship between design cues and store choice criteria

According to Inference Theory and the Theory of Affordances, individuals form

inferences about a focal object based on environmental cues (Baker et al., 1994, 2002;

Bitner, 1990; Ward et al., 1992). Accordingly, the literature indicates that design cues

such as color can influence consumers' feelings as well as store and product image

(Bellizzi et al., 1983; Bellizzi & Hite, 1992; Turley & Milliman, 2000). Several studies

suggest that perceptions of merchandise and service quality are influenced by store

design cues (Baker et al., 2002; Bitner, 1992; Bellizzi et al., 1983; Chen & Hsieh, 2011;

Lin & Chiang, 2010). Specifically, a study by Baker et al. (1994) indicated that an

environment of prestige (i.e., the use of gold metallic accents on displays) enhances

consumers' inferences about merchandise quality. Likewise, Greenland and McGoldrick

(1994) found that consumers' perceptions of employees in more modern-style banks were

more favorable than those in traditional-style banks. In other words, modern-style banks are expected to provide consumers with better service than traditional-style banks. Further, findings from the qualitative preliminary research indicate that national department stores are perceived to have better design cues (i.e., display, layout, organized merchandise) than local department stores. Therefore, the following hypothesis was developed (see Figure 7):

> H4:   Consumers' perceptions of design cues will positively influence their store choice criteria relative to (a) perceived merchandise value and (b) perceived service value. Specifically, the relationship between perceptions of design cues and store choice criteria will be stronger in the national as compared to local department store context.

Figure 7. Relationship between Design Cues and Store Choice Criteria
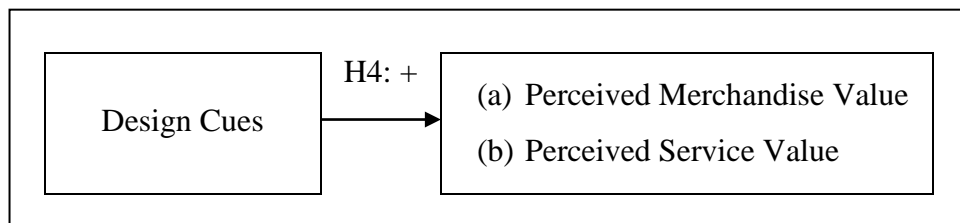
Hypothesis 5: Relationship between ambient cues and store choice criteria

The Theory of Affordances proposes that individuals perceive affordance attributes of the environment in an immediate way, and these perceptions convey information directly to them (Baker et al., 2002; Gibson, 1979). Similarly, Kotler (1974) suggested that store ambient cues provide clues regarding products and services and

create an impression on the consumer. Consumers establish beliefs based on these cues

and the beliefs become the basis of their assessments of merchandise and service quality

(Bitner, 1992). In addition, research in retail settings indicates that ambient cues (i.e.,

music) influence consumers' positive emotions (Hui et al., 1997; Sweeney & Wyber,

2002). Positive response to music results in a positive experience for the consumer, who

then evaluates the in-store merchandise more favorably (Vida, 2008). In addition to

music, other ambient cues such as lighting were found to influence consumers'

perceptions of store image and merchandise quality (Areni & Kim, 1993; Baker et al.,

1994). A study by Baker et al. (1994) indicated that good ambient cues can impact

consumers' merchandise and service quality inferences. Findings from the qualitative

preliminary research indicated that participants think that national department stores are

more likely to offer better ambient cues (i.e., lighting, music) than local department

stores. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed (see Figure 8):

> H5: Consumers' perceptions of ambient cues will positively influence their store
>
> choice criteria relative to (a) perceived merchandise value and (b) perceived
>
> service value. Specifically, the relationship between perceptions of ambient
>
> cues and store choice criteria will be stronger in the national as compared to
>
> local department store context.

Figure 8. Relationship between Ambient Cues and Store Choice Criteria

```
┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                           H5: +                               │
│  ┌──────────────────┐          ┌──────────────────────────┐  │
│  │                  │          │ (a) Perceived Merchandise │  │
│  │  Ambient Cues    │─────────▶│     Value                 │  │
│  │                  │          │ (b) Perceived Service     │  │
│  └──────────────────┘          │     Value                 │  │
│                                └──────────────────────────┘  │
└──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

<u>Hypothesis 6: Relationship between social cues and store choice criteria</u>

Baker et al. (1994) and Kotler (1974) suggested that social cues include number and behavior of sales personnel and other customers in the retail environment. Applying Inference Theory (Huber & McCann, 1982; Nisbett & Ross, 1980) and the Theory of Affordances (Gibson, 1979) to the retailing context, a consumer may form inferences about service quality based on the presence of salespeople and other customers in the store. That is, the number of salespeople may indicate how long a consumer will spend searching for merchandise (Baker et al., 2002), whereas the number of other customers in the store may indicate service waiting time. Also, as discussed earlier, the number of other customers in the store is associated with a consumer's inferences about the store merchandise quality (Yuksel, 2009). The literature indicates that the number, dress, responsiveness, and empathy of salespeople can influence consumers' perceptions of service quality (Brady & Cronin, 2001; Chen & Hsieh, 2011; Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Mazursky & Jacoby, 1986; Parasuraman et al., 1988; Wicker, 1973). That is, a consumer is likely to assume the reliability and trustworthiness of a service encounter based on his or her evaluation of store employees (Lin & Chiang, 2010). Specifically, Yan et al. (2011) found that in the department store context, formality of employee clothing serves

as a cue for a consumer's inferences about the service quality expected from the employee. In addition, Lin and Chiang (2010) argued that social cues (i.e., well-dressed employees, friendly service) influence not only the consumer's perceptions of service quality, but of merchandise quality. Likewise, findings from the qualitative preliminary research indicated that national department stores are perceived as providing better social cues (i.e., many salespeople who are well-trained and wear nice clothing) than local department stores. Therefore, the following hypothesis was developed (see Figure 9).

H6: Consumers' perceptions of social cues will positively influence their store choice criteria relative to (a) perceived merchandise value and (b) perceived service value. Specifically, the relationship between perceptions of social cues and store choice criteria will be stronger in the national as compared to local department store context.

Figure 9. Relationship between Social Cues and Store Choice Criteria
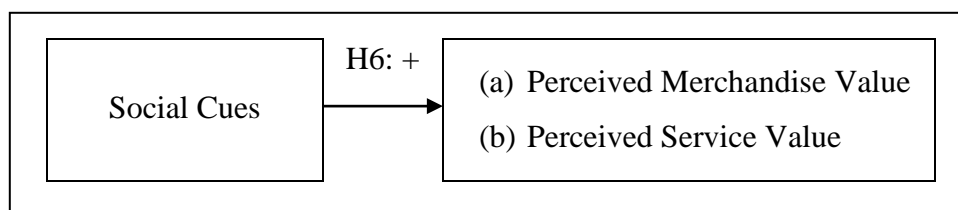
Hypothesis 7: Relationship between store choice criteria and overall satisfaction

Previous studies provide evidence to support that consumer perceived value has a positive effect on satisfaction (Anderson & Mittal, 2000; Bei & Chiao, 2001; Yang & Peterson, 2004). The relationship between perceived service quality and satisfaction has

also been shown in previous studies (Grace & O'Cass, 2005). More specifically, the fact that perceived service quality influences satisfaction was confirmed through empirical analysis by Cronin and Taylor (1992), supporting the quality-satisfaction causal relationship. Oliver (1993) asserted that this causal relationship holds true regardless of whether these constructs are measured in relation to a given experience or an evaluation over time. Furthermore, Darian et al. (2001) proposed that a critical factor influencing satisfaction is perceptions of service by salespeople in the retail store environment. In terms of store choice criteria and its impact on satisfaction, a similar argument regarding the impact of shopping motivation on perceived in-store marketing communication could be made here. That is, compared to local department stores, national department stores may provide higher merchandise value in terms of product quality and service value (number of salespeople and high standard of service), therefore consumers who patronize national department stores are likely to express higher levels of satisfaction than consumers who patronize local department stores. Further, findings from the qualitative preliminary research indicate that national department stores are seen as providing better product and service quality than local department stores. Thus, the following hypothesis was developed (see Figure 10):

H7: Consumers' store choice criteria relative to (a) perceived merchandise value and (b) perceived service value will positively influence their overall satisfaction. Specifically, the relationship between store choice criteria and overall satisfaction will be stronger in the national as compared to local department store context.
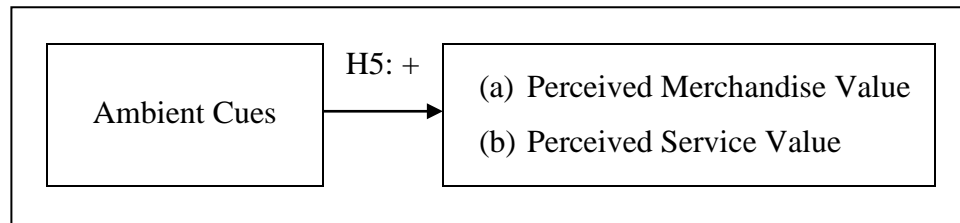
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Figure 10. Relationship between Store Choice Criteria and Overall Satisfaction
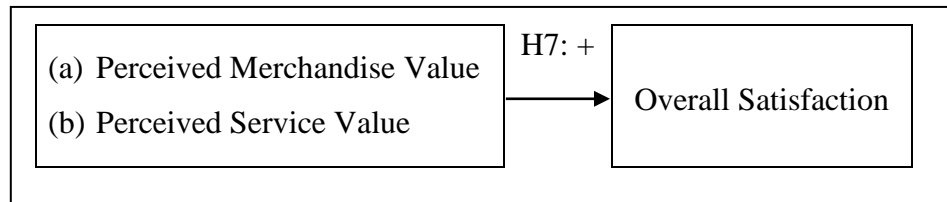
Hypothesis 8: Relationship between overall satisfaction and store loyalty

Theoretical and empirical support for a positive relationship between satisfaction and loyalty is substantial, suggesting that loyalty can be generated by improving consumer satisfaction (Curtis et al., 2011; Oliver, 1999; Yang & Peterson, 2004; Zeithaml et al., 1996). Satisfied consumers are likely to have a higher usage level of a product/service than those who are not satisfied, and they are likely to possess a stronger repurchase intention and to recommend the product/service to their acquaintances (Andreu et al., 2006; Yang & Peterson, 2004; Zeithaml et al., 1996). Based on the literature review, the fact that satisfaction influences store loyalty is well established, suggesting that higher levels of satisfaction relate to higher levels of loyalty (Bloemer & Ruyter, 1998; Macintosh & Lockshin, 1997; Magi, 2003).

By integrating both behavioral and attitudinal dimensions, much of the literature suggests that loyalty can take the form of word-of-mouth, store repatronage, and share of wallet (Magi, 2003; Oliver, 2010; Orth & Green, 2009; Seock, 2009; Sirohi et al., 1998; Zeithaml et al., 1996). Based on the attitudinal dimensions of loyalty, a consumer who is satisfied with a store is likely to spread favorable word-of-mouth communication about the store (Sirohi et al., 1998; Zeithaml et al., 1996). In addition to word-of-mouth,

numerous studies suggest that share of wallet indicates a customer's behavioral loyalty (Jones & Sasser, 1995; Orth & Green, 2009; Reynolds & Beatty, 1999; Seock, 2009; Sirohi et al., 1998; Wirtz, Mattila, & Lwin, 2007; Zeithaml et al., 1996). Moreover, Osman (1993) found that a consumer who is loyal to a certain store will make a visit to that store his or her priority in any shopping event. Thus, Bloemer and Ruyter (1998) suggest that repeat visiting behavior can be used as a behavioral measure in loyalty research. These measures of loyalty are consistent with Oliver's (2010) four stage brand-loyalty model. That is, word-of-mouth, store repatronage, and share of wallet are a set of behaviors that signal affective loyalty (the brand's likeableness), conative loyalty (the consumer's committed intention to rebuy the brand) and action loyalty (the commitment to the action of rebuying) respectively.

However, according to Fornell (1992), the degree of impact of satisfaction on loyalty is not equal for all industries or all situations. For instance, a study by Wallace et al. (2004) found that satisfaction is a stronger predictor of loyalty for multiple-channel customers than single-channel customers. This is because a multiple-channel customer perceives an increased ability to satisfy his or her complex needs via enhanced service output and more points of contact with a specific merchant (Wallace et al., 2004). Thus, multiple-channel service output and multiple points of contact make it easier for the multiple-channel customer's satisfaction to manifest itself in the form of loyalty. A study conducted by Shankar et al. (2003) also found that the relationship between loyalty and satisfaction is higher in the online than the offline channel because the online medium makes it easier for satisfied customers to choose the service provider again.

The findings from Wallace et al. (2004) and Shankar et al. (2004) can be extended to the context of local versus national department stores. Comparing national department stores with local department stores, national department stores offer more merchandise variety, better store environments, and have a higher number of sales personnel. As a result, a consumer may perceive an increased potential to satisfy his or her complex needs in the context of a national department store. Thus, compared to local department stores, overall satisfaction with national department stores may be likely to manifest itself in the form of loyalty. Therefore, as shown in Figure 11, it is hypothesized that:

H8: Consumers' overall satisfaction with shopping at a store will positively influence their loyalty relative to (a) word of mouth, (b) store repatronage, and (c) share of wallet. Specifically, the relationship between overall satisfaction and loyalty will be stronger in the national as compared to local department store context.

Figure 11. Relationship between Overall Satisfaction and Store Loyalty
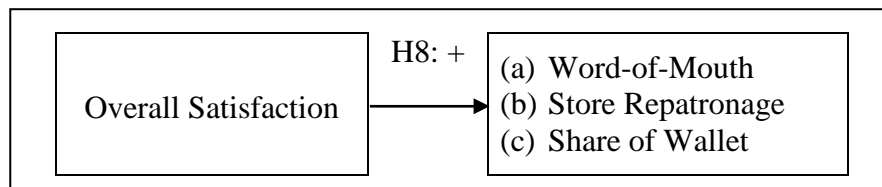
Summary

This chapter described the theoretical foundation for the dissertation as well as the constructs to be tested. Based on a review of pertinent literature, the conceptual model was introduced and eight primary testable hypotheses were developed. The conceptual model will be empirically tested to investigate the relationships among consumers' shopping motivations, perceived in-store marketing communication, store choice criteria, overall satisfaction, and store loyalty. Theoretically, the effects of generalized shopping motivations on perceived in-store marketing communication, perceived in-store marketing communication on store choice criteria, store choice criteria on overall satisfaction, and overall satisfaction on store loyalty will be assessed. Additionally, the relationships among these factors will be examined in the context of local versus national department stores in Thailand. The next chapter outlines the research design and methods used in this dissertation.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the research design that was employed by this study and includes six major sections: (1) Research Purpose and Objectives; (2) Preliminary Study; (3) Instrument Development; (4) Sample and Procedures; (5) Statistical Analysis; and (6) Summary.

Research Purpose and Objectives

As discussed in Chapter I, the purpose of this study is to investigate shopping motivations (push factors) and their influences on perceptions of retailer-related factors (pull factors) in predicting store patronage behaviors (i.e., satisfaction, loyalty) within the context of both local and national Thai department stores. Specifically, the objectives of the study are three-fold:

1. To examine the extent to which consumer-related factors (i.e., shopping motivations) influence perceptions of retailer-related factors (i.e., store attributes) within the context of both local and national Thai department stores;

2. To investigate the relative efficacies of retailer-related factors in predicting consumers' store patronage behaviors (i.e., satisfaction, loyalty) within the context of both local and national Thai department stores; and

3. To examine the differences, if any, between the impact of consumer- and retailer-related factors on local and national Thai department store patronage behaviors.

To achieve the research objectives, this study involved a two-step process starting with a qualitative preliminary study, followed by the quantitative main study. The next section discusses the preliminary qualitative study that informed the main dissertation research design.

Preliminary Study

As described above, a two-step research design was developed in order to explore Thai consumers' perspectives regarding department stores (see Figure 12). The first step consisted of a qualitative preliminary study. Given the fact that there is a general lack of research on the shopping motivations of Thai consumers, a preliminary study was undertaken to explore their motivations, particularly in the context of local versus national department stores. The study employed focus groups conducted with consumers in Thailand. Questions asked included, *Between these two types of department stores, where do you shop for most of your products and services?*, *What prompts you to decide to shop at a particular department store?*, *How do you feel when you shop at either department store?*, and *What do you like/dislike about either department store?* (see Appendix A: Focus Group Schedule). With IRB approval and participants' consent, focus groups were audio-taped (see Appendix B: IRB Consent Form). Participant responses were transcribed, translated, and then analyzed for common themes. By using a thematic approach to analysis (Keegan, 2009; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Spiggle, 1994), previously

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unidentified and distinct issues emerged in terms of Thai consumers' shopping

motivations and their store choice criteria, particularly the values that they perceive to be

important with respect to merchandise and service. As discussed in Chapter II, the seven

motivations that emerged include: convenience, recreation, value, role, social, inspiration

seeking, and cosmopolitanism. These findings were then used to guide development of

the research instrument used for dissertation data collection (see Figure 12). Concepts

defined in previous research on consumer shopping motivations (i.e., Babin et al., 1994;

Noble et al., 2006; Reynolds et al., 2002; Rintamäki et al., 2006) and in-store marketing

communication (i.e., Baker et al., 2002), as discussed in Chapter II, were also considered.

Figure 12. Process of Research Design Development

Step 1
Preliminary Study

Step 2
Main Study

Qualitative Approach	**Quantitative Approach**	**Conclusions**
Themes Emerged: Convenience, Recreation, Value, Role, Social, Inspiration Seeking, and Cosmopolitanism	The relationship among consumers' shopping values (Push Motivations), Marketing Communication (Pull Motivations), Store Choice Criteria, and Marketing Outcomes	The impact of push and pull motivations on store choice criteria and marketing outcomes

Instrument Development

For the second step (dissertation data collection), a structured questionnaire was developed based on a review of extant literature and the findings from the preliminary study. As discussed, a total of seven distinct shopping motivations (convenience, recreation, value, role, social, inspirational seeking, and cosmopolitanism) emerged from the focus group data. These findings were integrated with the existing literature in order to develop the conceptual framework and to obtain measurement information related to the variables under investigation. That is, convenience, value, and role shopping contribute to utilitarian motivations, whereas recreation and inspiration seeking contribute to hedonic motivations. Lastly, social and cosmopolitan shopping motivations are considered to contribute to social motivations. As a result, the questionnaire used in this dissertation was comprised of the following variables: push factors, including shopping motivations (i.e., utilitarian, hedonic, and social), pull factors, including in-store marketing communication (i.e., design, social, and ambient cues), store choice criteria (i.e., perceived merchandise value and perceived service value), and marketing outcomes (i.e., overall satisfaction and loyalty). General questions assessing overall shopping experiences and demographic information were also included. A total of 75 items were included in the instrument (see Appendix C: Survey Questionnaire).

Measures

Table 6 summarizes the major constructs that are employed by the dissertation. Existing measurement scales were selected from the literature for each construct for validation purposes. All measurement scales were found to have a satisfactory reported

level of reliability (Cronbach's α ranged from .73 to .90) in the literature. The major

constructs being investigated in the study included consumer shopping motivations, in-

store marketing communication, store choice criteria, and marketing outcomes (i.e.,

word-of-mouth, store repatronage, and share of wallet). Unless otherwise indicated,

constructs were measured using a seven-point Likert-type scale that asks for participants'

level of agreement with each statement ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly

agree" (7). Demographic variables (i.e., age, gender, education) and general questions

related to participants' shopping behaviors (i.e., frequency of visits to the department

store) were measured using categorical scales.

Push Factors

Consumer Shopping Motivations

The current study conceptualized consumer shopping motivations as consisting of

three dimensions--utilitarian, hedonic, and social--measured by eighteen items adapted

from Rintamäki et al. (2006). Of these eighteen items, six items assessed utilitarian

shopping motivations (e.g., "I made an inexpensive purchase," "I was able to get

everything I needed at one stop," "I was able to make my purchase conveniently"). Six

items measured hedonic shopping motivations (e.g., "I enjoyed the shopping trip itself, not

just because I was able to get my purchase done," "I was having fun with this shopping

trip," "I wanted to explore, touch, and/or try different products while shopping"), and six

items measured social shopping motivations (e.g., "I am eager to tell my

friends/acquaintances about this shopping trip," "I found products carried by this store

consistent with my style," "This shopping trip gave me something that is personally

important or pleasing to me"). All eighteen items measuring consumer shopping

motivations employed a seven-point Likert-type scale where 1 = "strongly disagree" and 7

= "strongly agree." The psychometric properties of these scales have been examined and

evidence supports both reliability and validity (Rintamäki et al., 2006).

Pull Factors

      In-store Marketing Communication

      In this study, in-store marketing communication was assessed relative to three

different cues: design cues, social cues, and ambient cues. Scales measuring these three

cues were adapted from Baker et al. (1994) and Mohan, Sivakumaran, and Sharma et al.

(2012), and consisted of twenty-eight items. Scales assessing design cues consisted of

nine items (i.e., "The color scheme in (store) was pleasing," "It was easy to move about

in (store)," "(Store) has a wide variety of products"). Scales assessing social cues

consisted of ten items (i.e., "There were enough employees in (store) to service

customers," "The employees seemed like they would be knowledgeable," "(Store)

seemed very crowded to me"). Last, scales assessing ambient cues consisted of nine

items (i.e., "The music in (store) made my shopping pleasant," "Lighting in (store) is

pleasant," "(Store) had a pleasant odor/scent"). All twenty-eight items measuring in-store

marketing communication employed a seven-point Likert-type scale where 1 = "strongly

disagree" and 7 = "strongly agree." The psychometric properties of these scales have

been examined and evidence supports both reliability and validity (Baker et al., 1994;

Mohan et al., 2012).

Store Choice Criteria

Perceived Merchandise Value

Perceived merchandise value was measured via five items adapted from Baker et al. (2002). The scale has gone through numerous reliability and validity checks which have been found in the literature (Baker et al., 2002) and have been extensively employed in assessing perceived merchandise value (i.e., "Products purchased from (store) are high in quality," "The price shown for the product in (store) is fair"). All five items measuring perceived merchandise value employed a seven-point Likert-type scale where 1 = "strongly disagree" and 7 = "strongly agree."

Perceived Service Value

Perceived service value was measured via five items adapted from Baker et al. (1994). The scale has also gone through numerous reliability and validity checks which have been found in the literature (Baker et al., 1994), and have been extensively employed in assessing perceived service value (i.e., "I was treated well in (store)," "Employees of (store) gave me personal attention"). All five items measuring perceived merchandise value employed a seven-point Likert-type scale where 1 = "strongly disagree" and 7 = "strongly agree."

Marketing Outcomes

Overall Satisfaction

Overall satisfaction was measured by three items adapted from Oliver (1980). These items include "I am satisfied with the decision to visit this store," "I am happy with the visit," and "I am pleased with the shopping trip." These three items employed a

seven-point Likert-type scale where 1 = "strongly disagree" and 7 = "strongly agree."

The psychometric properties of these scales have been examined and evidence supports

both reliability and validity (Oliver, 1980).

Consumer Loyalty

The current study conceptualized consumer loyalty as consisting of three

dimensions that relate to word-of-mouth, repatronage intentions, and share of wallet.

Thus, consumer loyalty was measured with eight items adapted from Carpenter (2008)

and Zeithaml et al. (1996). Of these eight items, three items measured word-of-mouth

(i.e., "I say positive things about (store) to other people"), two items measure repatronage

intentions (i.e., "I will shop at this store in the future"), and three items assessed share of

wallet (i.e., "Out of every 10 purchases you make at department stores, how many

purchases are made at this store?"). All items measuring consumer loyalty employed a

seven-point Likert-type scale where 1 = "strongly disagree" and 7 = "strongly agree,"

except three items assessing share of wallet that were assessed through categorical scales.

The psychometric properties of these scales have been examined and evidence supports

both reliability and validity (Carpenter, 2008; Zeithaml et al., 1996).

Demographic Information and General Questions

Demographic information was acquired in terms of (1) age, (2) gender, (3)

education level, (4) marital status, and (5) personal monthly income. All items were

assessed through categorical scales. In addition, one item assessed the participant's

frequency of department store visits in the past three months. Frequency of visit was

measured using a scale where 1 = never, 2 = one to three times, 3 = four to six times, 4 =

seven to nine times, 5 = ten to twelve times, and 6 = more than twelve times (see

Appendix C: Survey Questionnaire).

Table 6. Scale Construct, Conceptualization of Scale Items, Item Description, and
Sources

Scale Construct	Conceptualization of Scale Items	# of Items	Item Description	Source(s)
Utilitarian Shopping Motivations	Shopping motivations which stem from monetary savings and convenience.	6	· I saved money when I shop at (store). · I made an inexpensive purchase. · I got my purchase done cheaper than if I had made it elsewhere. · I was able to get everything I needed at one stop. · I was able to shop without disruptive queuing or other delays. · I was able to make my purchase conveniently.	Rintamäki et al. (2006)
Hedonic Shopping Motivations	Shopping motivations which stem from exploration and entertainment.	6	· I enjoyed this shopping trip itself, not just because I was able to get my purchase done. · I was having fun with this shopping trip.	Rintamäki et al. (2006)

Table 6 (continued)

Scale Construct	Conceptualization of Scale Items	# of Items	Item Description	Source(s)
			· In my opinion, shopping around was a pleasant way to spend leisure time. · I felt adventurous and wanted to visit different departments in order to find interesting products. · I was looking for insights and new ideas to buy. · I wanted to explore, touch, and/or try different products while shopping.	
Social Shopping Motivations	Shopping motivations which are realized through status and self-esteem enhancement.	6	· Patronizing (store) fits the impression that I want to give to others. · I am eager to tell my friends/acquaintances about this shopping trip. · I feel that I belong to the customer segment of (store). · I found products carried by this store consistent with my style.	Rintamäki et al. (2006)

Table 6 (continued)

Scale Construct	Conceptualization of Scale Items	# of Items	Item Description	Source(s)
			· I felt like a smart shopper, because I made successful purchases.	
			· This shopping trip gave me something that is personally important or pleasing to me.	
Design Cues	Consumers' perceptions of color, layout, and product assortment.	9	Color · The color scheme in (store) was pleasing. · The colors used in (store) appeared to be currently fashionable.	Baker et al. (1994)
			Layout · The physical facilities in (store) were attractive. · The merchandise in (store) appeared organized. · It was easy to move about in (store). · It was easy to locate products/ merchandise in (store).	Mohan et al. (2012)

Table 6 (continued)

Scale Construct	Conceptualization of Scale Items	# of Items	Item Description	Source(s)
			Assortment · (Store) has a wide variety of products. · (Store) has many brands in most of the product categories. · (Store) has different price ranges in different products.	Mohan et al. (2012)
Social Cues	Consumers' perceptions of employees and other customers within the store.	10	Employees · There were enough employees in (store) to service customers. · The employees were well dressed and appeared neat. · The employees seemed like they would be friendly. · The employees seemed like they would be helpful. · The employees seemed like they would be knowledgeable.	Baker et al. (1994), and Mohan et al. (2012)

Table 6 (continued)

Scale Construct	Conceptualization of Scale Items	# of Items	Item Description	Source(s)
			<u>Other Customers</u> · (Store) seemed very crowded to me. · (Store) was a little too busy. · There were a lot of shoppers in (store). · (Store) provided an opportunity for me to communicate with others sharing similar interests. · (Store) provided a meeting place where I may gather with my peers.	Machleit et al. (2000) and Hui and Jasper (2006)
Ambient Cues	Consumers' perceptions of music, lighting, and scent.	9	<u>Music</u> · The music in (store) made my shopping pleasant. · The music in (store) bothered me.* · The music in (store) was appropriate.	Baker et al. (1994)
			<u>Lighting</u> · (Store) is well-lit. · (Store) is correctly-lit (neither too bright nor dull). · Lighting in (store) is pleasant.	Mohan et al. (2012)

Table 6 (continued)

Scale Construct	Conceptualization of Scale Items	# of Items	Item Description	Source(s)
			Scent · (Store) had a pleasant odor/scent. · (Store) had an appropriate odor/scent. · (Store) had a terrible odor/scent.*	Mohan et al. (2012)
Perceived Merchandise Value	Consumers' perceptions of merchandise price and quality.	5	Quality · Products purchased from (store) are high in quality. · The workmanship of products purchased in (store) is high.	Baker et al. (2002)
			Value · The price shown for the product in (store) is fair. · The product in (store) is a good value for money. · At the price shown, the product in (store) is economical.	Baker et al. (2002)

Table 6 (continued)

Scale Construct	Conceptualization of Scale Items	# of Items	Item Description	Source(s)
Perceived Service Value	Consumers' perceptions of interpersonal service quality.	5	· I was treated well in (store). · Employees of (store) gave me personal attention. · The (store)'s employees are willing to help customers. · (Store) offered high-quality service. · Employees of (store) are not too busy to respond to my requests promptly.	Baker et al. (1994)
Overall Satisfaction	Consumers' overall evaluation of the experience with a specific store.	3	· I am satisfied with the decision to visit (store). · I am happy with my visit. · I am pleased with my shopping trip.	Oliver (1980)
Consumer Loyalty	An intention to perform a diverse set of behaviors that signal a motivation to maintain a relationship with the focal firm.	8	Word-of-Mouth · I say positive things about (store) to other people. · I recommend (store) to someone who seeks advice. · I encourage others to shop at (store).	Zeithaml et al. (1996)

Table 6 (continued)

Scale construct	Conceptualization of scale items	# of Items	Item description	Source(s)
			Store repatronage	Zeithaml et al. (1996)
			· I will shop at (store) in the near future.	
			· I consider myself a regular customer of (store).	
			Share of wallet	Carpenter (2008)
			· How much did you spend in (store) in the past three months?	
			· Out of every 1,000 Baht you spend at department stores, how many Baht do you spend at (store)?	
			· Out of every 10 purchases you make at department stores, how many purchases are made at (store)?	

Note: Asterisk (*) indicates reversed items.

Pretesting the Instrument

The survey questionnaire was first developed in English and then translated into

Thai by the Thai researcher who is fluent in both Thai and English. The survey was then

back-translated by a native Thai professor who is also fluent in both English and Thai to

ensure translation equivalence (Douglas & Craig, 1983). To increase the content validity of the measurement and selection of items for the study, a sample of thirty respondents were asked to complete the survey. The participants were recruited from Chonburi, Thailand and were selected based on shopping experiences (e.g., shopping at national and local department stores) that are similar to those who were asked to respond to the final survey. The participants were presented with the survey draft and were asked to examine the questionnaire for meaningfulness, relevance, and clarity. The questionnaire was modified slightly based on the responses. Pretest respondents were not included in the final sample.

Sample and Procedures

This study employed a quantitative research design using the survey method. The survey was used to collect data from Thai consumers residing in two metropolitan cities in Chonburi: Bangsaen and Muang. The sample consisted of 407 national and 400 local department store consumers, for a total of 807 Thai consumers.

In addition to the researcher, eight students were hired as research assistants to distribute questionnaires. After extensive training sessions, the students were divided into two groups, comprised of four per group. Each group was assigned data collection at the same department store (either a national or local department store) every day for four weeks. To increase representativeness of the sample and ensure a balanced quota, data collection occurred each day of the week from morning until late afternoon/early evening (Bush & Hair, 1985). A mall intercept approach was employed at various locations in both cities, including outside of a national department store (Central) and a local

department store (Laemtong), therefore participants were recruited as they were exiting

the store. Participants were randomly selected, with every sixth person approached and

asked to complete the survey. As an individual exited the department store, the researcher

invited him or her to participate in the study. The researcher introduced himself/herself

and explained the purpose of the study. The researcher then provided a copy of the

Institutional Review Board's (IRB) informed consent form for the participant to read (see

Appendix D: IRB Consent Form). The researcher stressed the anonymity and

confidentiality of the participant's answers. After receiving participant's signed consent

form, the researcher provided a copy of the questionnaire to the participant and discussed

any questions the participant had while completing the survey.

Statistical Analysis

SPSS Statistics 20 and structural equation modeling using LISREL 8.8 (Joreskog

& Sorbom, 1996) was used to analyze the data. Data analyses consisted of descriptive

statistics, including frequency distributions, percentages, and mean scores. Reliability

was assessed on an individual factor using Cronbach's alpha, as it is widely used to

assess the reliability of a psychometrically developed scale (Peter, 1979). The reliability

of all constructs should exceed 0.70 as an indication of acceptable measures (Malhotra,

2007; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

A two-step procedure using maximum likelihood estimation was performed to

establish the measurement and structural models (Anderson & Gerbing, 1998). A

confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with LISREL 8.8 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993) was

first performed to establish the measurement model. The CFA was also performed to

confirm unidimensionality, discriminant and convergent validity, as well as examine the goodness-of-fit of the measurement model.

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was then conducted to test the conceptual model and proposed hypotheses. The structural model specifies how latent variables are measured in terms of the observed variables and specifies the relationships among the unobserved constructs (Bearden, Sharma, & Tell, 1982; Kline, 2004). Thus, this technique allows for an examination of the hypothesized relationships among constructs simultaneously. By using SEM, the causal relationships among the exogenous variables-- shopping motivations (i.e., utilitarian, hedonic, social shopping motivations)--and endogenous variables--in-store marketing communication (i.e., design, social, ambient), store choice criteria (i.e., perceived merchandise and service value), overall satisfaction, and loyalty (i.e., word-of-mouth, store repatronage, and share of wallet)--were identified.

According to Hair et al. (2010), there are three types of overall model fit measures useful in SEM: (1) *absolute fit* such as Chi-square (χ^2), Normed Chi-square (χ^2/df), and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA); (2) *incremental fit* such as the Normed Fit Index (NFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI); and (3) *parsimonious fit* such as the Parsimonious Normed Fit Index (PNFI) and Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI). Hu and Bentler (1999) encourage researchers to employ at least one or more measures from each type of measure to assess model fit. Thus, several fit indices from each type of measure such as Chi-square (χ^2), Normed Chi-square (χ^2/df), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), and Parsimonious

Normed Fit Index (PNFI) were employed to assess the model fit. These indices were chosen as they have been found to be the most insensitive to sample size, model misspecification and parameter estimates (Kline, 2004).

According to Kline (2004), the Chi-square is the most basic fit statistic of SEM analyses (Kline, 2004). The χ^2 is a "badness-of-fit" index, suggesting the higher its value, the worse the model's correspondence to the data (Kline, 2004). The Normed Chi-square (χ^2/df) was proposed by Joreskog (Hair et al., 2010) to overcome the concerns over the chi-square statistic. One criterion for good model fit as recommended by previous researchers (i.e., Hu & Bentler, 1998; Kline, 2004; Mulaik et al., 1989) is a Normed chi-square (χ^2/df) of less than 3.0. The RMSEA is an absolute fit index that takes sample size into account. RMSEA is not very sensitive to a large sample size, but sensitive to estimation at a small sample size (Hu & Bentler, 1998; Kline, 2004). RMSEA is moderately sensitive to simple model misspecification and very sensitive to complex misspecification (Hu & Bentler, 1998). RMSEA values less than .05 indicate close approximate fit, values between .05 and .08 suggest reasonable error of approximation, and RMSEA greater than .10 indicates poor fit (Brown & Cudeck, 1992).

According to Kline (2004) and McDonald and Ho (2002), the NFI and CFI are among the most widely used in SEM. The NFI is a comparative fit index which assesses the model by comparing the chi-square value of the model to the chi-square value of the null model (Bentler & Bonnet, 1980). Values for the NFI at or greater than .90 indicate a good fit (Bentler & Bonnet, 1980). The CFI measures the relative improvement in the fit of the researcher's model over that of a baseline model (Kline, 2004). A rule of thumb for

CFI and other incremental or comparative fit indices is that values greater than roughly

.90 may indicate reasonably good fit of the model, and greater than .95 indicate excellent

fit (Hair et al., 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1998; Kline, 2004).

The Tucker-Lewis index (TLI, also known as Non-Normed Fit Index or NNFI) is

relatively independent of sample size (Marsh, Balla, & McDonald, 1988). Values for the

TLI at or greater than .90 indicate a reasonably good fit (Hair et al., 2010; Hu & Bentler,

1999; Kline, 2004). The Parsimonious Normed Fit Index (PNFI) was developed based

upon the NFI by adjusting for degree of freedom (Mulaik et al, 1989). Hair et al. (2010)

and Kline (2004) suggest a PNFI greater than 0.50 as a cutoff value.

Summary

This chapter explained the research design of this dissertation, including the

methods that were employed to address the research objectives and test the hypotheses.

Instrument development, participant sample and data collection procedures were

outlined. Statistical analysis approaches were then discussed. The next chapter presents

the results of the data analysis.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter includes the following sections: (1) Description of Sample and
Responses; (2) Descriptive Statistics; (3) Measurement Model; (4) Structural Model and
Hypotheses Testing; and (5) Summary.

Description of Sample and Responses

Data were collected from Thai consumers residing in two metropolitan cities:
Bangsaen and Muang, during June and July of 2013. A total of 1,031 consumers were
approached and asked to complete the survey (504 from the local department store
Laemtong and 517 from the national department store Central). A total of 820
participants completed the survey (410 from Laemtong and 410 from Central), yielding
an overall response rate of 79.5% (81.3% from Laemtong and 79.3% from Central). Of
those, 13 responses were incomplete, resulting in a total of 807 usable responses.

Demographic characteristics of the respondents for the overall sample as well as
for each individual sample are summarized in Table 7. There were no major differences
in the demographic characteristics between both samples except for age. The majority of
the Laemtong sample (18 to 23 years old) was slightly younger than the majority of the
Central sample (24 to 30 years old). The final Laemtong sample (n = 400) was comprised
of 238 females (59.5%) and 162 males (40.5%), with ages ranging from 18 to 23 years
(37.8%), 24 to 30 years (33.5%), 31 to 40 years (17%), 41 to 50 years (10.8%), and more

than 50 years old (1%). Related to educational attainment, the majority were high-school

graduates (91.3%), single (68.3%), and reported their employment as government worker

(8.3%), employee of a company (26.3%), or business owner (28.8%). In addition, the

majority of Laemtong respondents (34%) had a monthly income between 10,001 and

20,000 Thai Baht (333 - 666 USD).

The final Central sample (n = 407) was comprised of 245 females (60.2%) and

162 males (39.8%), with ages ranging from 18 to 23 years (30.5%), 24 to 30 years (40%),

31 to 40 years (18.4%), 41 to 50 years (7.6%), and more than 50 years old (3.4%). The

majority (91.6%) were high-school graduates and single (74.9%). Most indicated

employment as a government worker (5.9%), or in a private company (41%), or were

business owners (17.9%). The majority of Central respondents (42.5%) indicated a

monthly income between 10,001 and 20,000 Thai Baht (333 - 666 USD) (see Table 7).

Table 7. Demographic Information

Characteristics	Frequency (Percentage)		
	Total	Laemtong	Central
Number of participants	807	400	407
Gender			
Male	324 (40.1%)	162 (40.5%)	162 (39.8%)
Female	483 (59.9%)	238 (59.5%)	245 (60.2%)
Age (years)			
18-23	275 (34%)	151 (37.8%)	124 (30.5%)
24-30	297 (37%)	134 (33.5%)	163 (40%)
31-40	143 (17.7%)	68 (17%)	75 (18.4%)
41-50	74 (9.2%)	43 (10.8%)	31 (7.6%)
51-60	17 (2%)	4 (1%)	13 (3.2%)
≥ 61	1 (0.1%)	0 (0%)	1 (0.2%)

Table 7 (continued)

Characteristics	Frequency/Percentage		
	Total	Laemtong	Central
Marital Status			
Single	578 (71.6%)	273 (68.3%)	305 (74.9%)
Married	192 (23.8%)	105 (26.3%)	87 (21.4%)
Widow	18 (2.2%)	10 (2.5%)	8 (2.0%)
Divorce	19 (2.4%)	12 (3%)	7 (1.7%)
Employment			
Government office	57 (7%)	33 (8.3%)	24 (5.9%)
Private company	272 (33.7%)	105 (26.3%)	167 (41%)
Business owner	188 (23.3%)	115 (28.8%)	73 (17.9%)
Other	290 (36%)	147 (36.8%)	143 (35.1%)
Monthly income (Thai Baht)			
< 10,000	219 (27%)	125 (31.3%)	94 (23.1%)
10,001 – 20,000	309 (38%)	136 (34%)	173 (42.5%)
20,001 – 30,000	189 (24%)	103 (25.8%)	86 (21.1%)
30,001 – 50,000	74 (9%)	36 (9%)	38 (9.3%)
50,001 – 70,000	7 (0.9%)	0 (0%)	7 (1.7%)
≥ 70,001	9 (1.1%)	0 (0%)	9 (2.2%)
Educational attainment			
Less than high-school	19 (2.4%)	8 (2%)	11 (2.7%)
High-school diploma	205 (25.4%)	99 (24.8%)	106 (26%)
Undergraduate	533 (66%)	266 (66.5%)	267 (65.6%)
Master/ Doctoral	50 (6.2%)	27 (6.8%)	23 (5.7%)

Descriptive Statistics

Tables 8 and 9 present the descriptive statistics and the correlation matrix for the twelve constructs measured for the Laemtong and Central samples, respectively.

The Laemtong Sample

As seen in Table 8, the means of all constructs measured were close to or lower than 4.0, except utilitarian motivations ($M_{\text{Utilitarian motivations}} = 4.00$), hedonic motivations ($M_{\text{Hedonic motivations}} = 4.19$), and store repatronage ($M_{\text{Store repatronage}} = 4.06$). The standard

100

deviation (SD) ranged from 1.02 ($M_{\text{Ambient cues}}$ = 3.93) to 1.43 ($M_{\text{Store repatronage}}$ = 4.06),

indicating substantial variances in the responses. The values of correlations ranged from

0.11 (between design cues and share of wallet, ambient cues and share of wallet, and

social cues and share of wallet) to 0.71 (between word-of-mouth and overall satisfaction).

The Central Sample

As seen in Table 9, the means of all constructs measured were above 4.0, except

social motivations ($M_{\text{Social motivations}}$ = 3.87), perceived merchandise value ($M_{\text{Perceived}}$

$_{\text{merchandise value}}$ = 3.98), and share of wallet ($M_{\text{Share of wallet}}$ = 3.61). The standard deviation

(SD) ranged from 0.97 ($M_{\text{Design cues}}$ = 5.01) to 1.50 ($M_{\text{Store repatronage}}$ = 4.36), indicating

substantial variances in the responses. The values of correlations ranged from 0.12

(between design cues and share of wallet) and 0.74 (between overall satisfaction and

word-of-mouth).

<div align="center">

Measurement Model

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Following Anderson and Gerbing (1998), a two-step approach was used to

establish a measurement model and test the structural model. A confirmatory factor

analysis (CFA) was performed using the maximum-likelihood estimation procedure

through LISREL 8.8 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993) to confirm unidimensionality, as well as

discriminant and convergent validity. In addition, CFA was performed to examine the

goodness-of-fit of the measurement model consisting of the twelve latent constructs

discussed earlier: (1) Utilitarian shopping motivations; (2) Hedonic shopping

motivations; (3) Social shopping motivations; (4) Design cues; (5) Ambient cues; (6)

Social cues; (7) Perceived merchandise value; (8) Perceived service value; (9) Overall

satisfaction; (10) Word-of-mouth; (11) Store repatronage; and (12) Share of wallet.

Absolute fit measures were used to assess the overall model fit for both the structural and

the measurement model.

Table 8. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlation Matrix: Laemtong Sample (N = 400)

Model Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
			**Correlations**											
1. Utilitarian motivations	4.00	1.13	**.71**											
2. Hedonic motivations	4.19	1.06	.48[c]	**.64**										
3. Social motivations	3.58	1.14	.42[c]	.58[c]	**.79**									
4. Design cues	3.84	1.05	.46[c]	.43[c]	.62[c]	**.72**								
5. Ambient cues	3.94	1.02	.28[c]	.31[c]	.40[c]	.52[c]	**.70**							
6. Social cues	3.84	1.06	.32[c]	.35[c]	.50[c]	.66[c]	.52[c]	**.79**						
7. Perceived merchandise value	3.65	1.04	.30[c]	.38[c]	.53[c]	.58[c]	.51[c]	.50[c]	**.77**					
8. Perceived service value	3.79	1.09	.30[c]	.31[c]	.49[c]	.55[c]	.53[c]	.63[c]	.65[c]	**.77**				
9. Overall satisfaction	3.87	1.11	.27[c]	.39[c]	.46[c]	.60[c]	.54[c]	.52[c]	.61[c]	.59[c]	**.84**			
10. Word-of-mouth	3.71	1.28	.30[c]	.39[c]	.60[c]	.60[c]	.51[c]	.53[c]	.64[c]	.62[c]	.71[c]	**.84**		
11. Store repatronage	4.06	1.43	.39[c]	.48[c]	.55[c]	.50[c]	.50[c]	.44[c]	.50[c]	.48[c]	.61[c]	.66[c]	**.85**	
12. Share of wallet	3.40	1.11	.14[b]	.32[c]	.20[c]	.11[a]	.11[a]	.11[a]	.16[b]	.17[b]	.16[b]	.19[c]	.30[c]	**.69**

Note. [a] $p < .05$ (2-tailed), [b] $p < .01$, [c] $p < .001$.
The bold diagonal values are the square root of the average variance extracted for each construct.
1 = utilitarian; 2 = hedonic; 3 = social; 4 = design cues; 5 = ambient cues; 6 = social cues; 7 = perceived merchandise value;
8 = perceived service value; 9 = overall satisfaction; 10 = word-of-mouth; 11 = store repatronage; 12 = share of wallet.

Table 9. Means, Standard Deviations and Correlation Matrix: Central Sample (N = 407)

Model Variables	Mean	SD	Correlations											
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Utilitarian motivations	4.61	1.18	**.67**											
2. Hedonic motivations	4.71	1.02	.43^c	**.62**										
3. Social motivations	3.87	1.09	.35^c	.56^c	**.75**									
4. Design cues	5.01	0.97	.45^c	.37^c	.41^c	**.73**								
5. Ambient cues	4.61	1.01	.29^c	.22^c	.26^c	.53^c	**.73**							
6. Social cues	4.43	1.08	.31^c	.22^c	.33^c	.59^c	.51^c	**.77**						
7. Perceived merchandise value	3.99	1.02	.24^c	.22^c	.31^c	.46^c	.52^c	.53^c	**.74**					
8. Perceived service value	4.25	1.07	.27^c	.23^c	.33^c	.51^c	.55^c	.66^c	.67^c	**.80**				
9. Overall satisfaction	4.46	1.14	.34^c	.45^c	.41^c	.56^c	.47^c	.44^c	.55^c	.57^c	**.85**			
10. Word-of-mouth	4.23	1.26	.31^c	.38^c	.45^c	.44^c	.45^c	.42^c	.52^c	.53^c	.74^c	**.86**		
11. Store repatronage	4.36	1.50	.24^c	.35^c	.40^c	.36^c	.35^c	.38^c	.48^c	.50^c	.62^c	.72^c	**.87**	
12. Share of wallet	3.61	1.30	.24^c	.20^c	.22^c	.12^a	.16^b	.19^c	.16^b	.15^b	.26^c	.27^c	.39^c	**.76**

Note. ^{a} $p < .05$ (2-tailed), ^{b} $p < .01$, ^{c} $p < .001$.
The bold diagonal values are the square root of the average variance extracted for each construct.
1 = utilitarian; 2 = hedonic; 3 = social; 4 = design cues; 5 = ambient cues; 6 = social cues; 7 = perceived merchandise value; 8 = perceived service value; 9 = overall satisfaction; 10 = word-of-mouth; 11 = store repatronage; 12 = share of wallet.

In CFA, overall model fit indicates the degree to which specified indicators represent the hypothesized constructs for effects (Kline, 2004). According to Hair et al. (2010), there are three types of overall model fit measures useful in SEM: (1) absolute fit such as Chi-square (χ^2), Normed Chi-square (χ^2/df), and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA); (2) incremental fit such as the Normed Fit Index (NFI) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI); and (3) parsimonious fit such as the Parsimonious Normed Fit Index (PNFI). Hu and Bentler (1999) encourage researchers to employ at least one or more measures from each type of measure to assess model fit. According to Kline (2004), an acceptable level of overall goodness-of-fit does not mean that the measurement model meets fit requirements or that the structural model is fully supported. Thus, researchers must assess each of these areas separately to confirm whether the model meets the requirement or to use these fit indices to identify potential problems that affected overall goodness-of-fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Hair et al. (2010) further suggest that the size of the factor loading is one important indicator of convergent validity. In the case of a high degree of convergent validity, high loadings on a factor would indicate that they converge on a common point: the latent construct. Although maximum likelihood factor loading estimates are not associated with a specified range of acceptable or unacceptable values, Hair et al. (2010) suggest that their magnitude, direction, and statistical significance should be evaluated. The twelve latent constructs relative to the 67-items used in this study are shown in Table 10.

Table 10. Measurement Items

Constructs/ Indicators

Utilitarian Motivations (ξ_1)
- U1   I saved money when I shop at (store).
- U2   I made an inexpensive purchase.
- U3   I got my purchase done cheaper than if I had made it elsewhere.
- U4   I was able to get everything I needed at one stop.
- U5   I was able to shop without disruptive queuing or other delays.
- U6   I was able to make my purchase conveniently.

Hedonic Motivations (ξ_2)
- H1   I enjoyed this shopping trip itself, not just because I was able to get my purchase done.
- H2   I was having fun with this shopping trip.
- H3   In my opinion, shopping around was a pleasant way to spend leisure time.
- H4   I felt adventurous and wanted to visit different departments in order to find interesting products.
- H5   I was looking for insights and new ideas to buy.
- H6   I wanted to explore, touch, and/or try different products while shopping.

Social Motivations (ξ_3)
- S1   Patronizing (store) fits the impression that I want to give to others.
- S2   I am eager to tell my friends/acquaintances about this shopping trip.
- S3   I feel that I belong to the customer segment of (store).
- S4   I found products carried by this store consistent with my style.
- S5   I felt like a smart shopper, because I made successful purchases.
- S6   This shopping trip gave me something that is personally important or pleasing for me.

Design Cues (η_1)
- D1   The color scheme in (store) was pleasing.
- D2   The colors used in (store) appeared to be currently fashionable.
- D3   The physical facilities in (store) were attractive.
- D4   The merchandise in (store) appeared organized.
- D5   It was easy to move about in (store).
- D6   It was easy to locate products/ merchandise in (store).
- D7   (Store) has a wide variety of products.
- D8   (Store) has many brands in most of the product categories.
- D9   (Store) has different price ranges in different products.

Table 10 (continued)

Constructs/ Indicators

Ambient Cues (η_2)

A1	The music in (store) made my shopping pleasant.
A2	The music in (store) bothered me.
A3	The music in (store) was appropriate.
A4	(Store) is well-lit.
A5	(Store) is correctly-lit (neither too bright nor dull).
A6	Lighting in (store) is pleasant.
A7	(Store) had a pleasant odor/scent.
A8	(Store) had an appropriate odor/scent.
A9	(Store) had a terrible odor/scent.

Social Cues (η_3)

C1	There were enough employees in (store) to service customers.
C2	The employees were well dressed and appeared neat.
C3	The employees seemed like they would be friendly.
C4	The employees seemed like they would be helpful.
C5	The employees seemed like they would be knowledgeable.
C6	(Store) seemed very crowded to me.
C7	(Store) was a little too busy.
C8	There were a lot of shoppers in (store).
C9	(Store) provided an opportunity for me to communicate with others sharing similar interests.
C10	(Store) provided a meeting place where I may gather with my peers.

Perceived Merchandise Value (η_4)

M1	Products purchased from (store) are high in quality.
M2	The workmanship of products purchased in (store) is high.
M3	The price shown for the product in (store) is fair.
M4	The product in (store) is a good value for money.
M5	At the price shown, the product in (store) is economical.

Perceived Service Value (η_5)

P1	I was treated well in (store).
P2	Employees of (store) gave me personal attention.
P3	The (store)'s employees are willing to help customers.
P4	(Store) offered high-quality service.
P5	Employees of (store) are not too busy to respond to my requests promptly.

Table 10 (continued)

Constructs/ Indicators

Overall Satisfaction (η_6)
 SA1   I am satisfied with the decision to visit (store).
 SA2   I am happy with my visit.
 SA3   I am pleased with my shopping trip.
Word-of-mouth (η_7)
 W1   I say positive things about (store) to other people.
 W2   I recommend (store) to someone who seeks advice.
 W3   I encourage others to shop at (store).
Store Repatronage (η_8)
 I1   I will shop at (store) in the near future.
 I2   I consider myself a regular customer of (store).
Share of Wallet (η_9)
 SOW1   How much did you spend in (store) in the past 3 months?
 SOW2   Out of every 1,000 Baht you spend at department stores, how many (Thai Baht) do you spend at (store)?
 SOW3   Out of every 10 purchases you make at department stores, how many purchases are made at (store)?

Initial CFA: Laemtong Sample

According to the CFA results, the chi-square statistic for the initial CFA model of twelve latent constructs relative to the 67-items was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 5522.67$, $df = 2078$, $p < .01$), indicating a lack of satisfactory model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999).[1] Several researchers such as Hair et al. (2010), Hu and Bentler (1998), and Kline (2004) advise against relying on one fit index to assess model fit. Instead, they suggest using the RMSEA, NFI, and CFI, which are less influenced by sample size, to assess model fit (Kline, 2004). Other fit indices that have been used in the SEM literature include the

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[1] The chi-square statistic is sensitive to sample size and may reject models that should not be rejected when the sample size is large (Kline, 2004).

Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI, also known as Non-Normed Fit Index or NNFI) and the

Parsimonious Normed Fit Index (PNFI). One criterion for good model fit as

recommended by previous researchers (i.e., Hu & Bentler, 1998; Kline, 2004; Mulaik et

al., 1989) is a Normed chi-square (χ^2/df) of less than 3.0. However, several researchers

including Wheaton, Muthen, Alwin, and Summer (1977) suggest a Normed chi-square

(χ^2/df) of less than 5.0. In addition, Hair et al. (2010) and Kline (2004) suggest values of

the NFI, TLI, and CFI greater than 0.90, the PNFI greater than 0.50, and a RMSEA less

than 0.08 as cutoff values. Based on these criteria, it was concluded that for the Laemtong

sample, the measurement model fit the data reasonably well at $\chi^2/df = 2.65$, NFI = 0.93,

TLI = 0.96, CFI = 0.96, PNFI = 0.88, RMSEA = 0.07 with a 90 percent confidence

interval ranging from 0.06 to 0.07.

In addition, a confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement model shows that

each factor loading of the indicators for each construct were statistically significant at

0.001 and sufficiently high for structural model testing, except two items (A2 and A9)

related to the perception of ambient cues construct that revealed insignificant factor

loadings ($p > .05$) (see Table 11). Eighteen items were used to measure shopping

motivations, including six utilitarian motivation items (factor loadings ranged from 0.50

to 0.79), six hedonic motivation items (factor loadings ranged from 0.51 to 0.76), and six

social motivation items (factor loadings ranged from 0.69 to 0.84). Twenty-eight items

were used to measure in-store marketing communication, including nine design cue items

(factor loadings ranged from 0.49 to 0.76), nine ambient cue items (factor loadings

ranged from -0.04 to 0.76), and ten social cue items (factor loadings ranged from 0.23 to

0.84). Ten items were used to measure store choice criteria, including five perceived

merchandise value items (factor loadings ranged from 0.73 to 0.81) and five perceived

service value items (factor loadings ranged from 0.60 to 0.85). Regarding marketing

outcomes, eleven items were used, including three overall satisfaction items with

loadings ranging from 0.77 to 0.88, three word-of-mouth items (factor loadings ranged

from 0.82 to 0.85), two store repatronage items (factor loadings ranged from 0.81 to

0.90), and three share of wallet items with loadings ranging from 0.64 to 0.73 (see Table

11).

Table 11. Initial CFA Standardized Factor Loadings for both Laemtong and Central
Samples

Construct	Factor Measure		Standardized Factor Loading (*t*-value)	
			Laemtong	Central
Consumer Shopping Motivations	Utilitarian Shopping Motivations	U1	.68	.40
		U2	.79*** (13.05)	.43*** (5.56)
		U3	.74*** (12.44)	.43*** (5.60)
		U4	.53*** (9.31)	.61*** (6.50)
		U5	.50*** (8.79)	.58*** (6.39)
		U6	.51*** (9.06)	.64*** (6.59)
	Hedonic Shopping Motivations	H1	.63	.56
		H2	.71*** (11.49)	.71*** (10.15)
		H3	.76*** (11.97)	.67*** (9.80)
		H4	.51*** (8.81)	.58*** (8.92)
		H5	.65*** (10.75)	.66*** (9.70)
		H6	.55*** (9.39)	.50*** (7.95)
	Social Shopping Motivations	S1	.69	.67
		S2	.80*** (14.63)	.70*** (12.49)

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Table 11 (continued)

Construct	Factor Measure		Standardized Factor Loading (*t*-value)	
			Laemtong	Central
		S3	.84*** (15.44)	.85*** (14.67)
		S4	.82*** (15.12)	.82*** (14.26)
		S5	.69*** (12.79)	.62*** (11.26)
		S6	.70*** (13.08)	.71*** (12.57)
In-store Marketing Communication	Perception of design cues	D1	.75	.79
		D2	.76*** (15.30)	.84*** (18.55)
		D3	.75*** (15.19)	.84*** (18.64)
		D4	.70*** (14.01)	.76*** (16.59)
		D5	.49*** (9.72)	.58*** (11.95)
		D6	.65*** (13.04)	.53*** (10.75)
		D7	.74*** (14.97)	.67*** (14.12)
		D8	.72*** (14.51)	.60*** (12.51)
		D9	.58*** (11.51)	.39*** (7.82)
	Perception of ambient cues	A1	.54	.48
		A2	-.04 (-0.83)	.05 (0.89)
		A3	.64*** (9.32)	.56***(8.04)
		A4	.72*** (10.00)	.81*** (9.60)
		A5	.66*** (9.52)	.74*** (9.25)
		A6	.76*** (10.27)	.81*** (9.60)
		A7	.72*** (9.99)	.75*** (9.34)
		A8	.69*** (9.80)	.65*** (8.75)
		A9	-.04 (-0.75)	.23*** (4.07)
	Perception of social cues	C1	.69	.61
		C2	.75*** (13.91)	.68*** (11.37)
		C3	.83*** (15.18)	.87*** (13.49)
		C4	.84*** (15.43)	.89*** (13.66)
		C5	.78*** (14.35)	.76*** (12.42)
		C6	.30*** (5.61)	.14** (2.67)
		C7	.23*** (4.35)	.11* (2.16)
		C8	.41*** (7.85)	.32*** (5.96)
		C9	.37*** (7.00)	.24*** (4.58)

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Table 11 (continued)

Construct	Factor Measure		Standardized Factor Loading (*t*-value)	
			Laemtong	Central
		C10	.40*** (7.56)	.34*** (6.32)
Store Choice Criteria	Perception of merchandise value	M1	.73	.57
		M2	.75*** (14.44)	.69*** (10.60)
		M3	.81*** (15.66)	.87*** (12.09)
		M4	.79*** (15.27)	.84*** (11.92)
		M5	.77*** (14.87)	.65*** (10.25)
	Perception of service value	P1	.78	.79
		P2	.84*** (18.11)	.82*** (18.14)
		P3	.85*** (18.30)	.86*** (19.35)
		P4	.79*** (16.79)	.81*** (17.92)
		P5	.60*** (12.19)	.72*** (15.34)
Marketing Outcomes	Overall Satisfaction	SA1	.77	.84
		SA2	.88*** (18.97)	.88*** (21.58)
		SA3	.87*** (18.52)	.85*** (20.60)
	Word-of-mouth	W1	.82	.86
		W2	.84*** (19.46)	.91*** (24.35)
		W3	.85*** (19.73)	.80*** (19.66)
	Store repatronage	I1	.90	.89
		I2	.81*** (18.79)	.85*** (20.88)
	Share of wallet	SOW1	.67	.81
		SOW2	.73*** (9.82)	.82*** (14.20)
		SOW3	.64*** (9.49)	.64*** (12.14)

Note. First λ path was set to 1, therefore, no *t*-values are given.
* *t*-value (two-tailed) =1.96 ($p < .05$), ** *t*-value =2.58 ($p < .01$), *** *t*-value =3.29 ($p < .001$).

Initial CFA: Central Sample

The results indicate that the initial CFA model of the Central sample had a

significant χ^2 statistic (χ^2 = 6765.38, df = 2078, $p < .01$). However, other fit indices

revealed acceptable model fit, including χ^2/df of 3.26, NFI of 0.90, TLI of 0.92, CFI of

0.93, and PNFI of 0.85. The Normed chi-square (χ^2/df) of 3.26 is less than 5.0, as recommended (Wheaton et al., 1977). The RMSEA is reported at 0.08 with a 90 percent confidence interval ranging from 0.07 to 0.08. Therefore, it was concluded that for the Central sample, the measurement model yields a good fit.

Furthermore, a confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement model shows that each factor loading of the indicators for each construct was statistically significant at 0.001 and sufficiently high for structural model testing, except one item (A2) from the perception of ambient cues construct and two items (C6 and C7) from the perception of social cues construct that revealed insignificant factor loadings (see Table 11). Eighteen items were used to measure shopping motivations, including six utilitarian motivation items (factor loadings ranged from 0.40 to 0.64), six hedonic motivation items (factor loadings ranged from 0.50 to 0.71), and six social motivation items (factor loadings ranged from 0.62 to 0.85). Twenty-eight items were used to measure in-store marketing communication, including nine design cue items (factor loadings ranged from 0.39 to 0.84), nine ambient cue items (factor loadings ranged from 0.05 to 0.81), and ten social cue items (factor loadings ranged from 0.11 to 0.89). Store choice criteria were measured with ten items, including five perceived merchandise value items (factor loadings ranged from 0.57 to 0.87) and five perceived service value items (factor loadings ranged from 0.72 to 0.86). Eleven items were used to measure marketing outcomes, including three overall satisfaction items with loadings ranging from 0.84 to 0.88, three word-of-mouth items (factor loadings ranged from 0.80 to 0.91), two store repatronage items (factor

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loadings ranged from 0.85 to 0.89), and three share of wallet items with loadings ranging from 0.64 to 0.82 (see Table 11).

Based on the results of the CFA discussed above, 13 items were deleted due to poor factor loading values ($p < .05$), resulting in a total of 54 items retained for subsequent analysis. Items that were deleted include utilitarian motivation items (U), i.e., U1 = 0.40 (Central sample), U2 = 0.43 (Central sample), U3 = 0.43 (Central sample); perception of design cues (D), i.e., D5 = 0.49 (Laemtong sample), D9 = 0.39 (Central sample); perception of ambient cues (A), i.e., A1 = 0.48 (Central sample); A2 = -0.04 (Laemtong sample), 0.05 (Central sample) and A9 = -0.04 (Laemtong sample), and 0.23 (Central sample); perception of social cues (C) i.e., C6 = 0.30 (Laemtong sample), 0.14 (Central sample), C7 = 0.23 (Laemtong sample), and 0.11 (Central sample), C8 = 0.41 (Laemtong sample), and 0.32 (Central sample), C9 = 0.37 (Laemtong sample), and 0.24 (Central sample), C10 = 0.40 (Laemtong sample), and 0.34 (Central sample). These low factor loadings (i.e., A2, A9) may occur due to culture differences. In other words, these items may not be relevant to Thai consumers.

Final CFA: Laemtong Sample

After deleting 13 items that revealed insignificant factor loadings, twelve latent constructs relative to the 54 items were subjected to the final CFA analysis. The results of the final CFA for the Laemtong sample revealed that the proposed model had a significant χ^2 statistic at $p < .01$ ($\chi^2 = 3044.96$, $df = 1311$).[2] However, other fit indices

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[2] The chi-square statistic may reject models that should not be rejected when the sample size is large (Kline, 2004).

such as a NFI of 0.96, a TLI of 0.97, and a CFI of 0.97, are higher than the recommended

value of 0.90, suggesting satisfactory model fit (Kline, 2004). Furthermore, the results

indicated a PNFI of 0.88, which is greater than the cutoff value of 0.50. In addition, the

normed chi-square (χ^2/df) of 2.32 is less than 3.0, as recommended (Hu & Bentler, 1998;

Kline, 2004; Mulaik et al., 1989). The RMSEA is reported at 0.06 with a 90 percent

confidence interval ranging from 0.05 to 0.06. Based on these indices, it was concluded

that the measurement model indicated good fit (see Table 12).

Table 12. Measurement Model Fit Indices

CFA	Model	χ^2 (df)	χ^2/df	NFI	TLI	CFI	PNFI	RMSEA
Initial	L	5522.67 ($df = 2078, p < .01$)	2.65	.93	.96	.96	.88	.07
	C	6765.38 ($df = 2078, p < .01$)	3.26	.90	.92	.93	.85	.08
Final	L	3044.96 ($df = 1311, p < .01$)	2.32	.96	.97	.97	.88	.06
	C	3902.15 ($df = 1311, p < .01$)	2.97	.93	.95	.95	.85	.07

Note. L = Laemtong (N = 400), C = Central (N = 407)
χ^2 = Chi-square estimate; df = Degrees of Freedom; χ^2/df = Normed Chi-square; NFI = Normed
Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Iindex; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; PNFI = Parsimony Normed
Fit Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

In addition, the standardized factor loadings revealed that each indicator loads on

a single factor and that all standardized loadings are acceptable (see Table 13). Fifteen

items used to measure shopping motivations included three utilitarian motivation items

(factor loadings ranged from 0.53 to 0.83), six hedonic motivation items (factor loadings

ranged from 0.50 to 0.75), and six social motivation items (factor loadings ranged from

0.69 to 0.84). Eighteen items were used to measure in-store marketing communication,

including seven design cue items (factor loadings ranged from 0.62 to 0.79), six ambient cue items (factor loadings ranged from 0.61 to 0.78), and five social cue items (factor loadings ranged from 0.68 to 0.86). Ten items used to measure store choice criteria include five perceived merchandise value items (factor loadings ranged from 0.73 to 0.81) and five perceived service value items (factor loadings ranged from 0.60 to 0.85). Marketing outcomes were measured through eleven items, including three overall satisfaction items (factor loadings ranged from 0.77 to 0.88), three word-of-mouth items (factor loadings ranged from 0.82 to 0.85), two store repatronage items (factor loadings ranged from 0.81 to 0.90), and three share of wallet items with loadings ranging from 0.64 to 0.74 (see Table 13).

Final CFA: Central Sample

Results revealed that the final CFA model for the Central sample also had a significant χ^2 statistic ($\chi^2 = 3902.15$, $df = 1311$; $p < .01$).[3] However, other fit indices suggested a relatively good fit, including the NFI (0.93), TLI (0.95), and CFI (0.95). In addition, the Normed chi-square (χ^2/df) of 2.97, PNFI of 0.85, and RMSEA of 0.07 with a 90 percent confidence interval ranging from 0.071 to 0.076, also indicate a satisfactory fit (see Table 12).

The standardized factor loadings revealed that each indicator loads on a single factor and that all standardized loadings are acceptable (see Table 13). Fifteen items were used to measure shopping motivations, including three utilitarian motivation items (factor

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[3] The chi-square statistic may reject models that should not be rejected when the sample size is large (Kline, 2004).

loadings ranged from 0.55 to 0.83), six hedonic motivation items (factor loadings ranged from 0.50 to 0.72), and six social motivation items (factor loadings ranged from 0.62 to 0.85). Eighteen items were used to measure in-store marketing communication, including seven design cue items (factor loadings ranged from 0.50 to 0.86), six ambient cue items (factor loadings ranged from 0.54 to 0.82), and five social cue items (factor loadings ranged from 0.60 to 0.89). Ten items were used to assess store choice criteria, including five perceived merchandise value items (factor loadings ranged from 0.57 to 0.87) and five perceived service value items (factor loadings ranged from 0.72 to 0.86). Marketing outcomes was measured through eleven items, including three overall satisfaction items (factor loadings ranged from 0.84 to 0.88), three word-of-mouth items (factor loadings ranged from 0.80 to 0.91), two store repatronage items (factor loadings ranged from 0.85 to 0.89), and three share of wallet items with factor loadings ranging from 0.64 to 0.82 (see Table 13).

Table 13. A Summary of Measurement Model Results: Initial CFA versus Final CFA

Construct		Completely Standardized Factor Loading (*t*-value)			
		Initial CFA		Final CFA	
		Laemtong	Central	Laemtong	Central
Utilitarian Shopping		(α = .79)	(α = .70)	(α = .72)	(α = .69)
Motivations (ξ_1)	U1	.68	.40	Deleted item	Deleted item
	U2	.79*** (13.05)	.43*** (5.56)	Deleted item	Deleted item
	U3	.74*** (12.44)	.43*** (5.60)	Deleted item	Deleted item
	U4	.53*** (9.31)	.61*** (6.50)	.53	.55
	U5	.50*** (8.79)	.58*** (6.39)	.75*** (9.48)	.59*** (8.54)
	U6	.51*** (9.06)	.64*** (6.59)	.81*** (9.59)	.83*** (9.50)

Initial CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .79, AVE = .40; CR = .69, AVE = .28
Final CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .74, AVE = .50; CR = .70, AVE = .45

Construct		Initial CFA Laemtong	Initial CFA Central	Final CFA Laemtong	Final CFA Central
Hedonic Shopping		(α = .81)	(α = .78)	(α = .81)	(α = .78)
Motivations (ξ_2)	H1	.63	.56	.64	.57
	H2	.71*** (11.49)	.71*** (10.15)	.72*** (11.64)	.72*** (10.35)
	H3	.76*** (11.97)	.67*** (9.80)	.75*** (12.03)	.67*** (9.92)
	H4	.51*** (8.81)	.58*** (8.92)	.51*** (8.86)	.58*** (8.97)
	H5	.65*** (10.75)	.66*** (9.70)	.65*** (10.80)	.65*** (9.78)
	H6	.55*** (9.39)	.50*** (7.95)	.56*** (9.55)	.50*** (8.05)

Initial CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .80, AVE = .41; CR = .78, AVE = .38
Final CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .81, AVE = .41; CR = .79, AVE = .38

Table 13 (continued)

Construct		Completely Standardized Factor Loading (*t*-value)			
		Initial CFA		Final CFA	
		Laemtong	Central	Laemtong	Central
Social Shopping		**(α = .89)**	**(α = .87)**	**(α = .89)**	**(α = .87)**
Motivations (ξ₃)	S1	.69	.67	.69	.67
	S2	.80*** (14.63)	.70*** (12.49)	.79*** (14.61)	.70*** (12.49)
	S3	.84*** (15.44)	.85*** (14.67)	.84*** (15.45)	.85*** (14.69)
	S4	.82*** (15.12)	.82*** (14.26)	.83*** (15.14)	.82*** (14.30)
	S5	.69*** (12.79)	.62*** (11.26)	.69*** (12.78)	.62*** (11.24)
	S6	.70*** (13.08)	.71*** (12.57)	.71*** (13.11)	.71*** (12.57)
Initial CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .89, AVE = .58; CR = .87, AVE = .54					
Final CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .90, AVE = .62; CR = .87, AVE = .54					
Design Cues (η₁)		**(α = .88)**	**(α = .87)**	**(α = .89)**	**(α = .88)**
	D1	.75	.79	.77	.81
	D2	.76*** (15.30)	.84*** (18.55)	.78*** (16.35)	.86*** (19.89)
	D3	.75*** (15.19)	.84*** (18.64)	.79*** (16.46)	.84*** (19.39)
	D4	.70*** (14.01)	.76*** (16.59)	.71*** (14.62)	.76*** (16.86)
	D5	.49*** (9.72)	.58*** (11.95)	Deleted item	Deleted item
	D6	.65*** (13.04)	.53*** (10.75)	.62*** (12.46)	.50*** (10.16)
	D7	.74*** (14.97)	.67*** (14.12)	.72*** (14.72)	.65*** (13.82)
	D8	.72*** (14.51)	.60*** (12.51)	.70*** (14.39)	.59*** (12.27)
	D9	.58*** (11.51)	.39*** (7.82)	Deleted item	Deleted item
Initial CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .89, AVE = .47; CR = .88, AVE = .41					
Final CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .89, AVE = .53; CR = .88, AVE = .53					

Table 13 (continued)

Construct		Completely Standardized Factor Loading (*t*-value)			
		Initial CFA		Final CFA	
		Laemtong	Central	Laemtong	Central
Ambient Cues (η_2)		**(α = .75)**	**(α = .79)**	**(α = .85)**	**(α = .86)**
	A1	.54	.48	Deleted item	Deleted item
	A2	-.04 (-0.83)	.05 (0.89)	Deleted item	Deleted item
	A3	.64*** (9.32)	.56*** (8.04)	.61	.54
	A4	.72*** (10.00)	.81*** (9.60)	.73*** (11.50)	.82*** (10.97)
	A5	.66*** (9.52)	.74*** (9.25)	.68*** (10.85)	.76*** (10.52)
	A6	.76*** (10.27)	.81*** (9.60)	.78*** (11.95)	.82*** (10.94)
	A7	.72*** (9.99)	.75*** (9.34)	.71*** (11.26)	.74*** (10.40)
	A8	.69*** (9.80)	.65*** (8.75)	.68*** (10.84)	.63*** (9.49)
	A9	-.04 (-0.75)	.23*** (4.07)	Deleted item	Deleted item

Initial CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .80, AVE = .36; CR = .82, AVE = .38
Final CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .85, AVE = .49; CR = .87, AVE = .53

Construct		Initial CFA Laemtong	Initial CFA Central	Final CFA Laemtong	Final CFA Central
Social Cues (η_3)		**(α = .83)**	**(α = .77)**	**(α = .89)**	**(α = .85)**
	C1	.69	.61	.68	.60
	C2	.75*** (13.91)	.68*** (11.37)	.75*** (13.60)	.67*** (11.12)
	C3	.83*** (15.18)	.87*** (13.49)	.86*** (15.31)	.87*** (13.24)
	C4	.84*** (15.43)	.89*** (13.66)	.86*** (15.30)	.89*** (13.40)
	C5	.78*** (14.35)	.76*** (12.42)	.79*** (14.28)	.77*** (12.21)
	C6	.30*** (5.61)	.14** (2.67)	Deleted item	Deleted item
	C7	.23*** (4.35)	.11* (2.16)	Deleted item	Deleted item
	C8	.41*** (7.85)	.32*** (5.96)	Deleted item	Deleted item

Table 13 (continued)

Construct		Completely Standardized Factor Loading (*t*-value)			
		Initial CFA		Final CFA	
		Laemtong	Central	Laemtong	Central
	C9	.37*** (7.00)	.24*** (4.58)	Deleted item	Deleted item
	C10	.40*** (7.56)	.34*** (6.32)	Deleted item	Deleted item
Initial CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = 0.83, AVE = 0.36; CR = 0.79, AVE = 0.33					
Final CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = 0.89, AVE = 0.63; CR = 0.88, AVE = 0.59					
Perceived Merchandise Value (η_4)		**(α = .88)**	**(α = .84)**	**(α = .88)**	**(α = .84)**
	M1	.73	.57	.73	.57
	M2	.75*** (14.44)	.69*** (10.60)	.76*** (14.70)	.69*** (10.61)
	M3	.81*** (15.66)	.87*** (12.09)	.81*** (15.72)	.87*** (12.09)
	M4	.79*** (15.27)	.84*** (11.92)	.79*** (15.35)	.84*** (11.92)
	M5	.77*** (14.87)	.65*** (10.25)	.77*** (14.91)	.65*** (10.25)
Initial CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .88, AVE = .59; CR = .85, AVE = .54					
Final CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .88, AVE = .60; CR = .85, AVE = .54					
Perceived Service Value (η_5)		**(α = .88)**	**(α = .90)**	**(α = .88)**	**(α = .90)**
	P1	.78	.79	.78	.79
	P2	.84*** (18.11)	.82*** (18.14)	.84*** (18.16)	.82*** (18.16)
	P3	.85*** (18.30)	.86*** (19.35)	.85*** (18.31)	.86*** (19.36)
	P4	.79*** (16.79)	.81*** (17.92)	.79*** (16.80)	.81*** (17.93)
	P5	.60*** (12.19)	.72*** (15.34)	.60*** (12.20)	.72*** (15.33)
Initial CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .88, AVE = .60; CR = .97, AVE = .64					
Final CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .88, AVE = .60; CR = .90, AVE = .64					

Table 13 (continued)

Construct		Completely Standardized Factor Loading (*t*-value)			
		Initial CFA		Final CFA	
		Laemtong	Central	Laemtong	Central
Overall Satisfaction (η_6)		**(α = .88)**	**(α = .89)**	**(α = .88)**	**(α = .89)**
	SA1	.77	.84	.77	.84
	SA2	.88*** (18.97)	.88*** (21.58)	.88*** (18.98)	.88*** (21.60)
	SA3	.87*** (18.52)	.85*** (20.60)	.87*** (18.54)	.85*** (20.61)
Initial CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .88, AVE = .71; CR = .89, AVE = .73					
Final CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .88, AVE = .71; CR = .89, AVE = .73					
Word-of-mouth (η_7)		**(α = .87)**	**(α = .89)**	**(α = .87)**	**(α = .89)**
	W1	.82	.86	.82	.86
	W2	.84*** (19.46)	.91*** (24.35)	.84*** (19.49)	.91*** (24.32)
	W3	.80*** (19.73)	.80*** (19.66)	.85*** (19.69)	.80*** (19.69)
Initial CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .87, AVE = .70; CR = .89, AVE = .74					
Final CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .87, AVE = .70; CR = .89, AVE = .74					
Store Repatronage (η_8)		**(α = .84)**	**(α = .86)**	**(α = .84)**	**(α = .86)**
	I1	.90	.89	.90	.89
	I2	.81*** (18.79)	.85*** (20.88)	.81*** (18.86)	.85*** (20.87)
Initial CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .85, AVE = .73; CR = .86, AVE = .76					
Final CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .85, AVE = .73; CR = .86, AVE = .76					

Table 13 (continued)

Construct		Completely Standardized Factor Loading (*t*-value)			
		Initial CFA		Final CFA	
		Laemtong	Central	Laemtong	Central
Share of wallet (η_9)		**(α = .72)**	**(α = .80)**	**(α = .72)**	**(α = .80)**
	SOW1	.67	.81	.67	.81
	SOW2	.73*** (9.82)	.82*** (14.20)	.74*** (9.80)	.82*** (14.30)
	SOW3	.64*** (9.49)	.64*** (12.14)	.64*** (9.47)	.64*** (12.18)

Initial CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .72, AVE = .46; CR = .80, AVE = .58
Final CFA (Laemtong; Central): CR = .73, AVE = .47; CR = .80, AVE = .58

Note. First λ path was set to 1, therefore, no *t*-values are given.
* *t*-value (two-tailed) =1.96 (*p* < .05), ** *t*-value =2.58 (*p* < .01), *** *t*-value =3.29 (*p* < .001).
Construct Reliability (Cronbach's α); Composite Factor Reliability (CR); Average Variance Extracted (AVE).

Assessment of Psychometric Properties

Results of the measurement model were also employed to assess the psychometric properties of the measures, including reliability and validity. For measuring reliability, composite factor reliability (CR) was used to assess the reliability of the scale, while average variance extracted (AVE) was used to assess convergent validity. Discriminant validity was assessed through the confidence interval test and variance extracted test (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The confidence interval test requires that the correlation between two latent constructs plus or minus two standard errors does not include 1.0. The variance extract test requires that the square correlation between two latent constructs is lower than the average variance extracted for each construct. Cronbach's α was used to assess the reliability related to internal consistency between constructs. According to the literature, the acceptable level of Cronbach's α is equal to or greater than 0.70 (Malhotra, 2007; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). A factor loading value greater than 0.50 and CR greater than 0.70 were used as the standards to establish convergent validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hair et al., 2010).

The Laemtong Sample

The factor loading values found for the Laemtong sample ranged from 0.51 to 0.91, with most results above 0.70. Thus, factor loadings meet acceptable levels, suggesting convergent validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hair et al., 2010). Internal consistency was assessed through the use of the Cronbach's α coefficient. Results revealed that all constructs have values greater than 0.70 (ranging from 0.72 of utilitarian motivations to 0.89 of design, ambient, and social cues), indicating high internal

consistency among constructs (see Table 13). In addition, the internal consistency of all latent variables was assessed by computing composite reliability (CR). Results indicated that the CR for all constructs ranged from 0.73 (share of wallet) to 0.90 (social shopping motivations), suggesting high internal consistency for all constructs.

According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), an average variance extracted (AVE) value of constructs exceeding 0.5 indicates a relatively high level of variance. As shown in Table 13, AVE values of most constructs measured for the Laemtong sample were greater than 0.50, except for hedonic shopping motivations (0.41), ambient cues (0.49), and share of wallet (0.47), which had AVE values below 0.50. However, the AVE values of these constructs were very close to 0.50, thus it was concluded that most AVE values are in the 0.50 or greater range and convergent validity was acceptable among the measurement constructs. Convergent validity and discriminant validity were examined to assess construct validity. According to Hair et al. (2010), convergent validity refers to the degree to which two measures of the same concepts are correlated. Convergent validity was assessed through the average variance extracted (AVE). When different instruments are strongly correlated, convergent validity is demonstrated. Convergent validity indicates that measurement scales address the intended concept and the instruments are measuring what they were intended to measure.

According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), discriminant validity was assessed through the confidence interval test and variance extracted test. The confidence interval test requires that the correlation between two latent constructs plus or minus two standard errors does not include 1.0. The variance extract test requires that the square correlation

between two latent constructs should be lower than the average variance extracted for each construct. In terms of discriminant validity, the bold diagonal values in Table 8 illustrate that the square root of the average variance extracted ranged from 0.64 (hedonic motivations) to 0.85 (store repatronage), which is greater than its correlations with other constructs (see Table 8). Thus, discriminant validity was established for the Laemtong sample.

The Central Sample

CFA results showed that factor loading values of measurement items for the Central sample ranged from 0.50 to 0.91, with most factor loading results above 0.70 indicating acceptable levels of convergent validity (Malhotra, 2007; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Cronbach's α values of most constructs were also greater than 0.70 (ranging from 0.69 for utilitarian motivations to 0.90 for perceived service value), except for utilitarian motivations (α = 0.69), which was marginal (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hair et al., 2010). Thus, the Cronbach's α values of all constructs indicated internal consistency among items (see Table 13). In addition, regarding the internal consistency of the latent variables, the CR for constructs ranged from 0.79 (hedonic motivations) to 0.90 (perceived service value), indicating high internal consistency for all constructs.

Results also indicate that the AVE values of most constructs were greater than the recommended value of 0.50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), except for utilitarian motivations (0.45) and hedonic motivations (0.38), suggesting convergent validity among all measurement constructs except utilitarian motivations and hedonic motivations. However, all factor loadings were significant at $p < .001$, suggesting convergent validity

(Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hair et al., 2010). In addition, results revealed that the bold

diagonal values representing the square root of the average variance extracted ranged

from 0.62 (hedonic motivations) to 0.87 (store repatronage), which are greater than

correlations with other constructs (see Table 9). Thus, discriminant validity was also

established for the Central sample.

Structural Model and Hypotheses Testing

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was performed to test the proposed

conceptual model and all hypothesized relationships. As a part of the SEM analysis, the

factor structure of survey measurements was tested via LISREL 8.8.

Model Testing

To analyze structural models, structural equation modeling (SEM) was conducted

using the maximum-likelihood estimation procedure through LISREL 8.8. The

relationships in the model were based on the theoretical associations as discussed in

Chapter II. According to the SEM results, most of the hypothesized paths were

significant at the $p < .01$ level. Squared multiple correlations (R^2) are reported for

endogenous constructs as well as path coefficients and t-values for each statistically

significant path. Chi-square statistics (χ^2), Normed Chi-square (χ^2/df), Normed Fit Index

(NFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Parsimony Normed Fit

Index (PNFI), and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) were used to

assess model fit.

Laemtong Sample

Figure 13 displays the results of SEM for the Laemtong sample. The SEM results revealed that the path model of the Laemtong sample had a significant χ^2 test-statistic of 3523.67 ($df = 1355$, $p < .01$), suggesting inadequate model-data fit. However, other fit indices including $\chi^2/df = 2.60$, NFI $= 0.95$, TLI $= 0.97$, CFI $= 0.97$, and PNFI $= 0.90$ were greater than the accepted cut-off value. Furthermore, the model's RMSEA index was 0.07, with a 90% confidence interval ranging from 0.06 and 0.07, suggesting that the hypothesized structural relationship fit the data satisfactory (see Table 14). In addition, three shopping motivations (i.e., utilitarian, hedonic, and social) explained 60% of the variance (R^2) in design cues and 37% of the variance (R^2) in social cues, while hedonic motivations and social motivations explained 27% of the variance (R^2) in ambient cues. Three in-store marketing communication factors (i.e., design cues, ambient cues, and social cues) explained 53% of the variance (R^2) in perceived merchandise value and 56% of the variance (R^2) in perceived service value. Perceived merchandise value and perceived service value explained 60% of the variance (R^2) in overall satisfaction. In addition, overall satisfaction explained 76% of the variance (R^2) in word-of-mouth, 57% of the variance (R^2) in store repatronage, and 5.3% of the variance (R^2) in share of wallet.

Central Sample

Figure 14 shows the results of SEM for the Central sample. The SEM results revealed that the path model of the Central sample also had a significant χ^2 test-statistic of 4394.05 ($df = 1355$; $p < .01$), indicating a lack of satisfactory model fit. However, other fit indices such as a $\chi^2/df = 3.24$, NFI $= 0.92$, TLI $= 0.94$, CFI $= 0.95$, and PNFI $=$

0.87 were greater than the accepted cut-off value. In addition, the model's RMSEA index

was 0.08, with a 90% confidence interval ranging between 0.07 and 0.08, suggesting that

the hypothesized structural relationship for the Central sample fit the data reasonably

well. In addition, three shopping motivations (i.e., utilitarian, hedonic, and social)

explained 43% of the variance (R^2) in design and 31% of the variance (R^2) in social cues,

while hedonic motivations and social motivations explained 11% of the variance (R^2) in

ambient cues. Three in-store marketing communication factors (i.e., design, ambient, and

social cues) explained 34% of the variance (R^2) in perceived merchandise value and 55%

of the variance (R^2) in perceived service value. Perceived merchandise value and

perceived service value explained 44% of the variance (R^2) in overall satisfaction. In

addition, overall satisfaction explained 75% of the variance (R^2) in word-of-mouth, 59%

of the variance (R^2) in store repatronage, and 9.5% of the variance (R^2) in share of wallet

(see Table 15).

Table 14. A Summary of Structural Equation Modeling Goodness of Fit (Laemtong Sample, N = 400)

Construct	Fit Measure	Fit Guideline Criteria	Measurement Model		Structural Model	Accepted
			Initial CFA	Final CFA	(SEM)	
Absolute Fit	Chi-square (χ^2)	$p > .05$	5522.67 ($df = 2078$, $p < .01$)	3044.96 ($df = 1311$, $p < .01$)	3523.67 ($df = 1355$, $p < .01$)	x
	Normed chi-square (χ^2/df)	$p < 5.0$	2.65	2.32	2.60	√
	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	$p < .08$	.07	.06	.07	√
Incremental Fit	Normed Fit Index (NFI)	$p > .90$	.93	.96	.95	√
	Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	$p > .90$	.96	.97	.97	√
	Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	$p > .90$	.96	.97	.97	√
Parsimonious Fit	Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	$p > .50$	.88	.88	.90	√

Source: Hu, L., & Bentler, P.M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6(1), 1-55.
Note. Initial CFA of 12 latent constructs relative to 67-items, final CFA of 12 latent constructs relative to 53-items.

Table 15. A Summary of Structural Equation Modeling Goodness of Fit (Central Sample, N = 407)

Construct	Fit Measure	Fit Guideline Criteria	Measurement Model		Proposed Model (SEM)	Accepted
			Initial CFA	Final CFA		
Absolute Fit	Chi-square (χ^2)	$p > .05$	6765.38 ($df = 2078$, $p < .01$)	3902.15 ($df = 1311$, $p < .01$)	4394.05 ($df = 1355$, $p < .01$)	X
	Normed chi-square (χ^2/df)	$p < 5.0$	3.26	2.97	3.24	√
	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	$p < .08$	.08	.07	.08	√
Incremental Fit	Normed Fit Index (NFI)	$p > .90$	.90	.93	.92	√
	Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	$p > .90$	.92	.95	.94	√
	Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	$p > .90$	.93	.95	.95	√
Parsimonious Fit	Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	$p > .50$	.85	.85	.87	√

Source: Hu, L., & Bentler, P.M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6(1), 1-55.
Note. Initial CFA of 12 latent constructs relative to 67-items, final CFA of 12 latent constructs relative to 53-items.

Hypotheses Testing

As shown in Figure 13 and Figure 14 (see pp. 146 – 147), the patterns of effects

revealed by the path models (for both the Laemtong and Central samples) suggest that

most of the study's hypotheses were supported. Both models illustrate each path

relationship, which are reported relative to each hypothesis in Table 16.

Table 16. Results of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

Hypothesis		Standardized regression weight (*t*-value)	
		Laemtong	Central
H_{1a}	Consumers with utilitarian motivations will positively evaluate in-store marketing communication in terms of design cues.	0.24^{***} (3.89)	0.59^{***} (6.15)
H_{1b}	Consumers with utilitarian motivations will positively evaluate in-store marketing communication in terms of social cues.	0.12 (1.73)	0.50^{***} (5.01)
H_{1c}	The influence of utilitarian motivations on perceived in-store marketing communication will be stronger in the national as compared to local department store context.	0.24^{***} (3.89) $<$	0.59^{***} 6.15)
		0.12 (1.73) $<$	0.50^{***} (5.01)
H_{2a}	Consumers with hedonic motivations will positively evaluate in-store marketing communication in terms of design cues.	0.64^{***} (9.35)	0.47^{***} (7.09)
H_{2b}	Consumers with hedonic motivations will positively evaluate in-store marketing communication in terms of ambient cues.	0.51^{***} (7.11)	0.36^{***} (5.16)
H_{2c}	Consumers with hedonic motivations will positively evaluate in-store marketing communication in terms of social cues.	0.55^{***} (7.95)	0.31^{***} (4.81)

Table 16 (continued)

Hypothesis		Standardized regression weight (*t*-value)		
		Laemtong		Central
H$_{2d}$	The influence of hedonic motivations on perceived in-store marketing communication will be stronger in the national as compared to local department store context.	0.64*** (9.35)	>	0.47*** (7.09)
		0.51*** (7.11)	>	0.36*** (5.16)
		0.55*** (7.95)	>	0.31*** (4.81)
H$_{3a}$	Consumers with social motivations will positively evaluate in-store marketing communication in terms of design cues.	0.70*** (8.96)		0.35*** (4.45)
H$_{3b}$	Consumers with social motivations will positively evaluate in-store marketing communication in terms of ambient cues.	0.46*** (5.28)		0.29*** (3.37)
H$_{3c}$	Consumers with social motivations will positively evaluate in-store marketing communication in terms of social cues.	0.59*** (6.93)		0.44*** (4.91)
H$_{3d}$	The influence of social motivations on perceived in-store marketing communication will be stronger in the national as compared to local department store context.	0.07*** (8.96)	>	0.35*** (4.45)
		0.46*** (5.28)	>	0.29*** (3.37)
		0.59*** (6.93)	>	0.44*** (4.91)
H$_{4a}$	Consumers' perceptions of design cues will positively influence their store choice criteria relative to perceived merchandise value.	0.43*** (7.41)		0.11* (2.09)
H$_{4b}$	Consumers' perceptions of design cues will positively influence their store choice criteria relative to perceived service value.	0.19*** (3.65)		0.12** (2.62)
H$_{4c}$	The relationship between perceptions of design cues and store choice criteria will be stronger in the national as compared to local department store context.	0.43*** (7.41)	>	0.11* (2.09)
		0.19*** (3.65)	>	0.12** (2.62)
H$_{5a}$	Consumers' perceptions of ambient cues will positively influence their store choice criteria relative to perceived merchandise value.	0.36*** (6.31)		0.31*** (5.14)

Table 16 (continued)

Hypothesis		Standardized regression weight (*t*-value)			
		Laemtong		Central	
H_{5b}	Consumers' perceptions of ambient cues will positively influence their store choice criteria relative to perceived service value.	0.32^{***} (6.13)		0.33^{***} (6.37)	
H_{5c}	The relationship between perceptions of ambient cues and store choice criteria will be stronger in the national as compared to local department store context.	0.36^{***} (6.31) 0.32^{***} (6.13)	> <	0.31^{***} (5.14) 0.33^{***} (6.37)	
H_{6a}	Consumers' perceptions of social cues will positively influence their store choice criteria relative to perceived merchandise value.	0.11^{*} (2.23)		0.40^{***} (6.04)	
H_{6b}	Consumers' perceptions of social cues will positively influence their store choice criteria relative to perceived service value.	0.44^{***} (7.00)		0.57^{***} (8.91)	
H_{6c}	The relationship between perceptions of social cues and store choice criteria will be stronger in the national as compared to local department store context.	0.11^{*} (2.23) 0.44^{***} (7.00)	< <	0.40^{***} (6.04) 0.57^{***} (8.91)	
H_{7a}	Consumers' store choice criteria relative to perceived merchandise value will positively influence their overall satisfaction.	0.52^{***} (8.84)		0.32^{***} (5.53)	
H_{7b}	Consumers' store choice criteria relative to perceived service value will positively influence their overall satisfaction.	0.37^{***} (7.05)		0.46^{***} (8.11)	
H_{7c}	The relationship between store choice criteria and overall satisfaction will be stronger in the national as compared to local department store context.	0.52^{***} (8.84) 0.37^{***} (7.05)	> <	0.32^{***} (5.53) 0.46^{***} (8.11)	
H_{8a}	Consumers' overall satisfaction with shopping at a store will positively influence their loyalty relative to word-of-mouth.	0.86^{***} (14.35)		0.87^{***} (16.53)	

Table 16 (continued)

Hypothesis		Standardized regression weight (*t*-value)	
		Laemtong	Central
H$_{8b}$	Consumers' overall satisfaction with shopping at a store will positively influence their loyalty relative to store repatronage.	0.75*** (13.55)	0.77*** (14.59)
H$_{8c}$	Consumers' overall satisfaction with shopping at a store will positively influence their loyalty relative to share of wallet.	0.23*** (3.65)	0.31*** (5.33)
H$_{8d}$	The relationship between overall satisfaction and loyalty will be stronger in the national as compared to local department store context.	0.86*** (14.35) < 0.75*** (13.55) < 0.23*** (3.65) <	0.87*** (16.53) 0.77*** (14.59) 0.31*** (5.33)

Note. Laemtong (N = 400), Central (N = 407).
$_*$ *t*-value (two-tailed) = 1.96 (*p* < .05), $_{**}$ *t*-value = 2.58 (*p* < .01), $_{***}$ *t*-value = 3.29 (*p* < .001).

Testing Hypothesis 1: Examining relationships between utilitarian motivations and

perceived in-store marketing communication

Hypothesis 1 proposed a positive relationship between utilitarian motivations and

perceived in-store marketing communication as measured by design cues and social cues.

Specifically, H$_{1a}$ proposed that there would be a relationship between utilitarian

motivations and design cues, and results showed that utilitarian motivations positively

influenced design cues for both the Laemtong sample (γ_{11} = 0.24, *t*-value = 3.89, *p* <

.001) and the Central sample (γ_{11} = 0.59, *t*-value = 6.15, *p* < .001). Thus, H$_{1a}$ was

supported.

In testing H$_{1b}$, which stated that there would be a relationship between utilitarian

motivations and social cues, the results indicated that while utilitarian motivations did

not influence social cues for the Laemtong sample ($\gamma_{31} = 0.12$, t-value = 1.73, $p > .05$), utilitarian motivations positively influenced social cues for the Central sample ($\gamma_{31} = 0.50$, t-value = 5.01, $p < .001$). That is, utilitarian motivations had a significant, positive influence on social cues just for the Central sample. Thus, H$_{1b}$ was partially supported.

Specifically, results showed that the influence of utilitarian motivations on perceived in-store marketing communication related to both design cues and social cues was stronger for the Central sample (design cues: $\gamma_{11} = 0.59$, t-value = 6.15, $p < .001$; social cues: $\gamma_{31} = 0.50$, t-value = 5.01, $p < .001$) as compared to the Laemtong sample (design cues: $\gamma_{11} = 0.24$, t-value = 3.89, $p < .001$; social cues: $\gamma_{31} = 0.12$, t-value = 1.73, $p > .05$) (see Table 16). Thus, H$_{1c}$ was supported.

Testing Hypothesis 2: Examining relationships between hedonic motivations and perceived in-store marketing communication

Hypothesis 2 proposed a positive relationship between hedonic motivations and perceived in-store marketing communication in terms of design cues, ambient cues, and social cues. Based on the results, a positive relationship between hedonic motivations and perceived in-store marketing communication (i.e., design cues, ambient cues, and social cues) was found for both the Laemtong and the Central samples. Specifically, H$_{2a}$ proposed that there would be a relationship between hedonic motivations and design cues, and results showed that hedonic motivations positively influenced design cues for both the Laemtong sample ($\gamma_{12} = 0.64$, t-value = 9.35, $p < .001$) and the Central sample ($\gamma_{12} = 0.47$, t-value = 7.09, $p < .001$). Thus, H$_{2a}$ was supported.

In testing H$_{2b}$, which stated that there would be a relationship between hedonic

motivations and ambient cues, the results showed that hedonic motivations positively

influenced ambient cues for both the Laemtong sample (γ_{22} = 0.51, t-value = 7.11, $p <$

.001) and the Central sample (γ_{22} = 0.36, t-value = 5.16, $p < .001$). Thus, H$_{2b}$ was also

supported.

In testing H$_{2c}$, which stated that there would be a relationship between hedonic

motivations and social cues, the results indicated that hedonic motivations also positively

influenced social cues for both the Laemtong sample (γ_{32} = 0.55, t-value = 7.95, $p < .001$)

and the Central sample (γ_{32} = 0.31, t-value = 4.81, $p < .001$) (see Table 16). Thus, H$_{2c}$ was

supported

Specifically, results showed that the influence of hedonic motivations on

perceived in-store marketing communication related to design, ambient, and social cues

was stronger for the Laemtong sample (design cues: γ_{12} = 0.64, t-value = 9.35, $p < .001$;

ambient cues: γ_{22} = 0.51, t-value = 7.11, $p < .001$; social cues: γ_{32} = 0.55, t-value = 7.95,

$p < .001$), as compared to the Central sample (design cues: γ_{12} = 0.47, t-value = 7.09, $p <$

.001; ambient cues: γ_{22} = 0.36, t-value = 5.16, $p < .001$; social cues: γ_{32} = 0.31, t-value =

4.81, $p < .001$). Thus, H$_{2d}$ was not supported.

Testing Hypothesis 3: Examining relationships between social motivations and perceived

in-store marketing communication

Hypothesis 3 posited a positive relationship between social motivations and

perceived in-store marketing communication as measured by design cues, ambient cues,

and social cues. A positive relationship between social motivations and perceived in-store

marketing communication (i.e., design cues, ambient cues, and social cues) was found for both the Laemtong and the Central samples. Specifically, H_{3a} proposed that there would be a relationship between social motivations and design cues, and results showed that social motivations positively influenced design cues for both the Laemtong sample ($\gamma_{13} = 0.70$, t-value = 8.96, $p < .001$) and the Central sample ($\gamma_{13} = 0.35$, t-value = 4.45, $p < .001$). Thus, H_{3a} was supported.

In testing H_{3b}, which stated that there would be a relationship between social motivations and ambient cues, the results indicated that social motivations positively influenced ambient cues for both the Laemtong sample ($\gamma_{23} = 0.46$, t-value = 5.28, $p < .001$) and the Central sample ($\gamma_{23} = 0.29$, t-value = 3.37, $p < .001$). Thus, H_{3b} was also supported.

In testing H_{3c}, which stated that there would be a relationship between social motivations and social cues, the results indicated that social motivations positively influenced social cues for both the Laemtong sample ($\gamma_{33} = 0.59$, t-value = 6.93, $p < .001$) and the Central sample ($\gamma_{33} = 0.44$, t-value = 4.91, $p < .001$). Thus, H_{3c} was supported.

Specifically, results indicated that the influence of social motivations on perceived in-store marketing communication related to design, ambient, and social cues was stronger for the Laemtong sample in terms of design cues ($\gamma_{13} = 0.70$, t-value = 8.96, $p < .001$), ambient cues ($\gamma_{23} = 0.46$, t-value = 5.28, $p < .001$), and social cues ($\gamma_{33} = 0.59$, t-value = 6.39, $p < .001$), as compared to the Central sample (design cues: $\gamma_{13} = 0.35$, t-value = 4.45, $p < .001$; ambient cues: $\gamma_{23} = 0.29$, t-value = 3.37, $p < .001$; social cues: γ_{33}

= 0.44, t-value = 4.91, $p < .001$, respectively) (see Table 16). Thus, H$_{3d}$ was not supported.

Testing Hypothesis 4: Examining relationships between design cues and store choice criteria

Hypothesis 4 suggested a positive relationship between design cues and store choice criteria as measured in terms of perceived merchandise value and perceived service value. A positive relationship between design cues and store choice criteria (i.e., perceived merchandise value and perceived service value) was found for both the Laemtong and the Central samples. Specifically, H$_{4a}$ proposed that there would be a relationship between design cues and perceived merchandise value. Results indicated that design cues positively influenced perceived merchandise value for both the Laemtong sample ($\beta_{41} = 0.43$, t-value = 7.41, $p < .001$) and the Central sample ($\beta_{41} = 0.11$, t-value = 2.09, $p < .05$). Thus, H$_{4a}$ was supported.

In testing H$_{4b}$, which stated that there would be a relationship between design cues and perceived service value, the results indicated that design cues positively influenced perceived service value for both the Laemtong sample ($\beta_{51} = 0.19$, t-value = 3.65, $p < .001$) and the Central sample ($\beta_{51} = 0.12$, t-value = 2.62, $p < .01$). Thus, H$_{4b}$ was also supported.

Specifically, results showed that the influence of design cues on store choice criteria related to perceived merchandise value and perceived service value was stronger for the Laemtong sample (perceived merchandise value: $\beta_{41} = 0.43$, t-value = 7.41, $p < .001$; perceived service value: $\beta_{51} = 0.19$, t-value = 3.65, $p < .001$) as compared to the

Central sample (perceived merchandise value: $\beta_{41} = 0.11$, t-value $= 2.09$, $p < .05$; perceived service value: $\beta_{51} = 0.12$, t-value $= 2.62$, $p < .01$) (see Table 16). Thus, H_{4c} was not supported.

Testing Hypothesis 5: Examining relationships between ambient cues and store choice criteria

Hypothesis 5 proposed a positive relationship between ambient cues and store choice criteria as measured by perceived merchandise value and perceived service value. Results indicated a positive relationship between ambient cues and store choice criteria (i.e., perceived merchandise value and perceived service value) for both the Laemtong and the Central samples. Specifically, H_{5a} proposed that there would be a relationship between ambient cues and perceived merchandise value, and results suggest that ambient cues positively influenced perceived merchandise value for both the Laemtong sample ($\beta_{42} = 0.36$, t-value $= 6.31$, $p < .001$) and the Central sample ($\beta_{42} = 0.31$, t-value $= 5.14$, $p < .001$). Thus, H_{5a} was supported.

In testing H_{5b}, which stated that there would be a relationship between ambient cues and perceived service value, the results indicated that ambient cues positively influenced perceived service value for both the Laemtong sample ($\beta_{52} = 0.32$, t-value $= 6.13$, $p < .001$) and the Central sample ($\beta_{52} = 0.33$, t-value $= 6.37$, $p < .001$). Thus, H_{5b} was also supported.

Specifically, results further suggest that the influence of ambient cues on store choice criteria related to perceived merchandise value was stronger for the Laemtong sample ($\beta_{42} = 0.36$, t-value $= 6.31$, $p < .001$), than for the Central sample ($\beta_{42} = 0.31$, t-

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value = 5.14, $p < .001$). In contrast, the influence of ambient cues on store choice criteria related to perceived service value was stronger for the Central sample ($\beta_{52} = 0.33$, t-value = 6.37, $p < .001$), than for the Laemtong sample ($\beta_{52} = 0.32$, t-value = 6.13, $p < .001$) (see Table 16). Thus, H$_{5c}$ was partially supported.

Testing Hypothesis 6: Examining relationships between social cues and store choice criteria

Hypothesis 6 posited a positive relationship between social cues and store choice criteria in terms of perceived merchandise value and perceived service value. Results revealed a positive relationship between social cues and store choice criteria (i.e., perceived merchandise value and perceived service value) for both the Laemtong and the Central samples. Specifically, H$_{6a}$ proposed that there would be a relationship between social cues and perceived merchandise value, and results indicated that social cues positively influenced perceived merchandise value for both the Laemtong sample ($\beta_{43} =$ 0.11, t-value = 2.23, $p < .05$) and the Central sample ($\beta_{43} = 0.40$, t-value = 6.04, $p < .001$). Thus, H$_{6a}$ was supported.

In testing H$_{6b}$, which stated that there would be a relationship between social cues and perceived service value, the results indicated that social cues positively influenced perceived service value for both the Laemtong sample ($\beta_{53} = 0.44$, t-value = 7.00, $p <$ .001) and the Central sample ($\beta_{53} = 0.57$, t-value = 8.91, $p < .001$). Thus, H$_{6b}$ was also supported.

Specifically, results further suggest that the influence of social cues on store choice criteria relative to perceived merchandise value and perceived service value was

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stronger for the Central sample (perceived merchandise value: $\beta_{43} = 0.40$, t-value = 6.04, $p < .001$; perceived service value: $\beta_{53} = 0.57$, t-value = 8.91, $p < .001$) than for the Laemtong sample (perceived merchandise value: $\beta_{43} = 0.11$, t-value = 2.23, $p < .05$; perceived service value: $\beta_{53} = 0.44$, t-value = 7.00, $p < .001$) (see Table 16). Thus, H_{6c} was supported.

Testing Hypothesis 7: Examining relationships between store choice criteria and overall satisfaction

Hypothesis 7 suggested a positive relationship between store choice criteria as measured by perceived merchandise value, perceived service value and overall satisfaction. Results indicated a positive relationship between store choice criteria (i.e., perceived merchandise value and perceived service value) and overall satisfaction for both the Laemtong and the Central samples. Specifically, H_{7a} proposed that there would be a relationship between perceived merchandise value and overall satisfaction, and results indicated that perceived merchandise value positively influenced overall satisfaction for both the Laemtong sample ($\beta_{64} = 0.52$, t-value = 8.84, $p < .001$) and the Central sample ($\beta_{64} = 0.32$, t-value = 5.53, $p < .001$). Thus, H_{7a} was supported.

In testing H_{7b}, which stated that there would be a relationship between perceived service value and overall satisfaction, the results indicated that perceived service value positively influenced overall satisfaction for both the Laemtong sample ($\beta_{65} = 0.37$, t-value = 7.05, $p < .001$) and the Central sample ($\beta_{65} = 0.46$, t-value = 8.11, $p < .001$). Thus, H_{7b} was also supported.

Specifically, results further suggest that the influence of perceived merchandise value on overall satisfaction was stronger for the Laemtong sample ($\beta_{64} = 0.52$, t-value = 8.84, $p < .001$) than for the Central sample ($\beta_{64} = 0.32$, t-value = 5.53, $p < .001$). On the other hand, the influence of perceived service value on overall satisfaction was stronger for the Central sample ($\beta_{65} = 0.46$, t-value = 8.11, $p < .001$) than for the Laemtong sample ($\beta_{65} = 0.37$, t-value = 7.05, $p < .001$) (see Table 16). Thus, H_{7c} was partially supported.

Testing Hypothesis 8: Examining relationships between overall satisfaction and store loyalty

Hypothesis 8 proposed a positive relationship between overall satisfaction and store loyalty in terms of word-of-mouth, store repatronage, and share of wallet. Results revealed a positive relationship between overall satisfaction and store loyalty (i.e., word-of-mouth, store repatronage, and share of wallet) for both the Laemtong and the Central samples. Specifically, H_{8a} proposed that there would be a relationship between overall satisfaction and word-of-mouth, and results indicated that overall satisfaction positively influenced word-of-mouth for both the Laemtong sample ($\beta_{76} = 0.86$, t-value = 14.35, $p < .001$) and the Central sample ($\beta_{76} = 0.87$, t-value = 16.53, $p < .001$). Thus, H_{8a} was supported.

In testing H_{8b}, which stated that there would be a relationship between overall satisfaction and store repatronage, the results indicated that overall satisfaction positively influenced store repatronage for both the Laemtong sample ($\beta_{86} = 0.75$, t-value = 13.55, $p < .001$) and the Central sample ($\beta_{86} = 0.77$, t-value = 14.59, $p < .001$). Thus, H_{8b} was also supported.

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In testing H$_{8c}$, which stated that there would be a relationship between overall satisfaction and share of wallet, the results indicated that overall satisfaction positively influenced share of wallet for both the Laemtong sample (β_{96} = 0.23, t-value = 3.65, $p <$ .001) and the Central sample (β_{96} = 0.31, t-value = 5.33, $p <$ .001). Thus, H$_{8c}$ was supported.

Specifically, results further suggest that the influence of overall satisfaction on word-of-mouth, as well as store repatronage and share of wallet was stronger for the Central sample (β_{76} = 0.87, t-value = 16.53, $p <$ .001; β_{86} = 0.77, t-value = 14.95, $p <$ .001; β_{96} = 0.31, t-value = 5.33, $p <$ .001) than for the Laemtong sample (β_{76} = 0.86, t-value = 14.35, $p <$ .001; β_{86} = 0.75, t-value = 13.55, $p <$ .001; β_{96} = 0.23, t-value = 3.65, $p <$ .001), respectively (see Table 16). Thus, H$_{8d}$ was supported.

In summary, H$_1$, H$_2$, H$_3$, H$_4$, H$_5$, and H$_7$ were partially supported, whereas H$_6$ and H$_8$ were fully supported (see Table 17).

Table 17. A Summary of Hypothesis Testing Results

Hypothesis		Supported?
H$_{1a}$	Consumers with utilitarian motivations will positively evaluate in-store marketing communication in terms of design cues.	Y
H$_{1b}$	Consumers with utilitarian motivations will positively evaluate in-store marketing communication in terms of social cues.	Partial
H$_{1c}$	The influence of utilitarian motivations on perceived in-store marketing communication will be stronger in the national as compared to local department store context.	Y
H$_{2a}$	Consumers with hedonic motivations will positively evaluate in-store marketing communication in terms of design cues.	Y

Table 17 (continued)

Hypothesis		Supported?
H$_{2b}$	Consumers with hedonic motivations will positively evaluate in-store marketing communication in terms of ambient cues.	Y
H$_{2c}$	Consumers with hedonic motivations will positively evaluate in-store marketing communication in terms of social cues.	Y
H$_{2d}$	The influence of hedonic motivations on perceived in-store marketing communication will be stronger in the national as compared to local department store context.	N
H$_{3a}$	Consumers with social motivations will positively evaluate in-store marketing communication in terms of design cues.	Y
H$_{3b}$	Consumers with social motivations will positively evaluate in-store marketing communication in terms of ambient cues.	Y
H$_{3c}$	Consumers with social motivations will positively evaluate in-store marketing communication in terms of social cues.	Y
H$_{3d}$	The influence of social motivations on perceived in-store marketing communication will be stronger in the national as compared to local department store context.	N
H$_{4a}$	Consumers' perceptions of design cues will positively influence their store choice criteria relative to perceived merchandise value.	Y
H$_{4b}$	Consumers' perceptions of design cues will positively influence their store choice criteria relative to perceived service value.	Y
H$_{4c}$	The relationship between perceptions of design cues and store choice criteria will be stronger in the national as compared to local department store context.	N
H$_{5a}$	Consumers' perceptions of ambient cues will positively influence their store choice criteria relative to perceived merchandise value.	Y
H$_{5b}$	Consumers' perceptions of ambient cues will positively influence their store choice criteria relative to perceived service value.	Y
H$_{5c}$	The relationship between perceptions of ambient cues and store choice criteria will be stronger in the national as compared to local department store context.	Partial

Table 17 (continued)

Hypothesis		Supported?
H$_{6a}$	Consumers' perceptions of social cues will positively influence their store choice criteria relative to perceived merchandise value.	Y
H$_{6b}$	Consumers' perceptions of social cues will positively influence their store choice criteria relative to perceived service value.	Y
H$_{6c}$	The relationship between perceptions of social cues and store choice criteria will be stronger in the national as compared to local department store context.	Y
H$_{7a}$	Consumers' store choice criteria relative to perceived merchandise value will positively influence their overall satisfaction.	Y
H$_{7b}$	Consumers' store choice criteria relative to perceived service value will positively influence their overall satisfaction.	Y
H$_{7c}$	The relationship between store choice criteria and overall satisfaction will be stronger in the national as compared to local department store context.	Partial
H$_{8a}$	Consumers' overall satisfaction with shopping at a store will positively influence their loyalty relative to word-of-mouth.	Y
H$_{8b}$	Consumers' overall satisfaction with shopping at a store will positively influence their loyalty relative to store repatronage.	Y
H$_{8c}$	Consumers' overall satisfaction with shopping at a store will positively influence their loyalty relative to share of wallet.	Y
H$_{8d}$	The relationship between overall satisfaction and loyalty will be stronger in the national as compared to local department store context.	Y

Note. Y denotes Yes, N denotes No.

Figure 13. Structural Equation Model Results (Laemtong Sample)
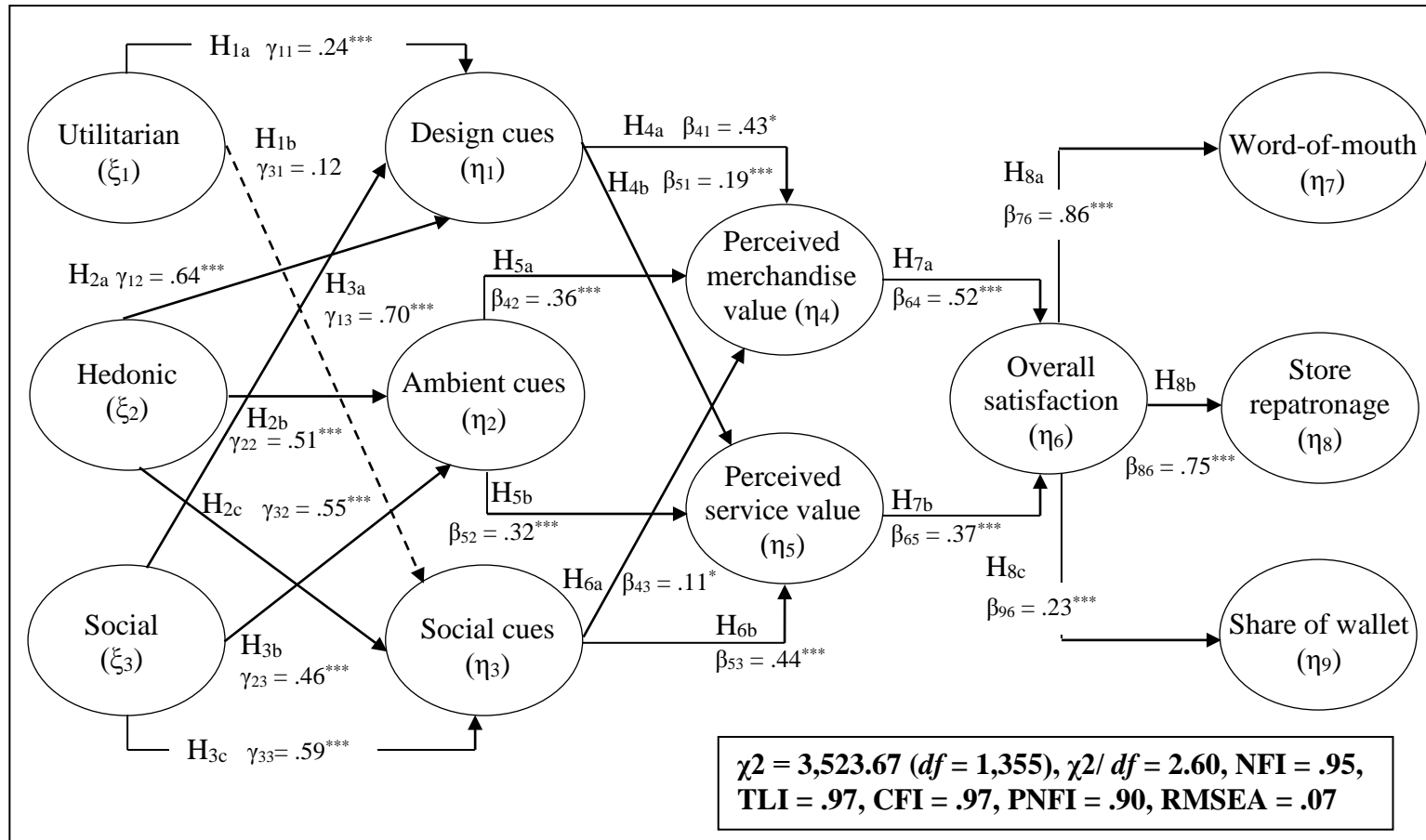
Note. [*] t-value = 1.96 ($p < .05$), [**] t-value = 2.58 ($p < .01$), [***] t-value = 3.29 ($p < .001$).
Indicator variables, correlations among exogenous variables, and disturbances have been omitted for notational simplicity.
Coefficient: Completely standardized solution.

Figure 14. Structural Equation Model Results (Central Sample)
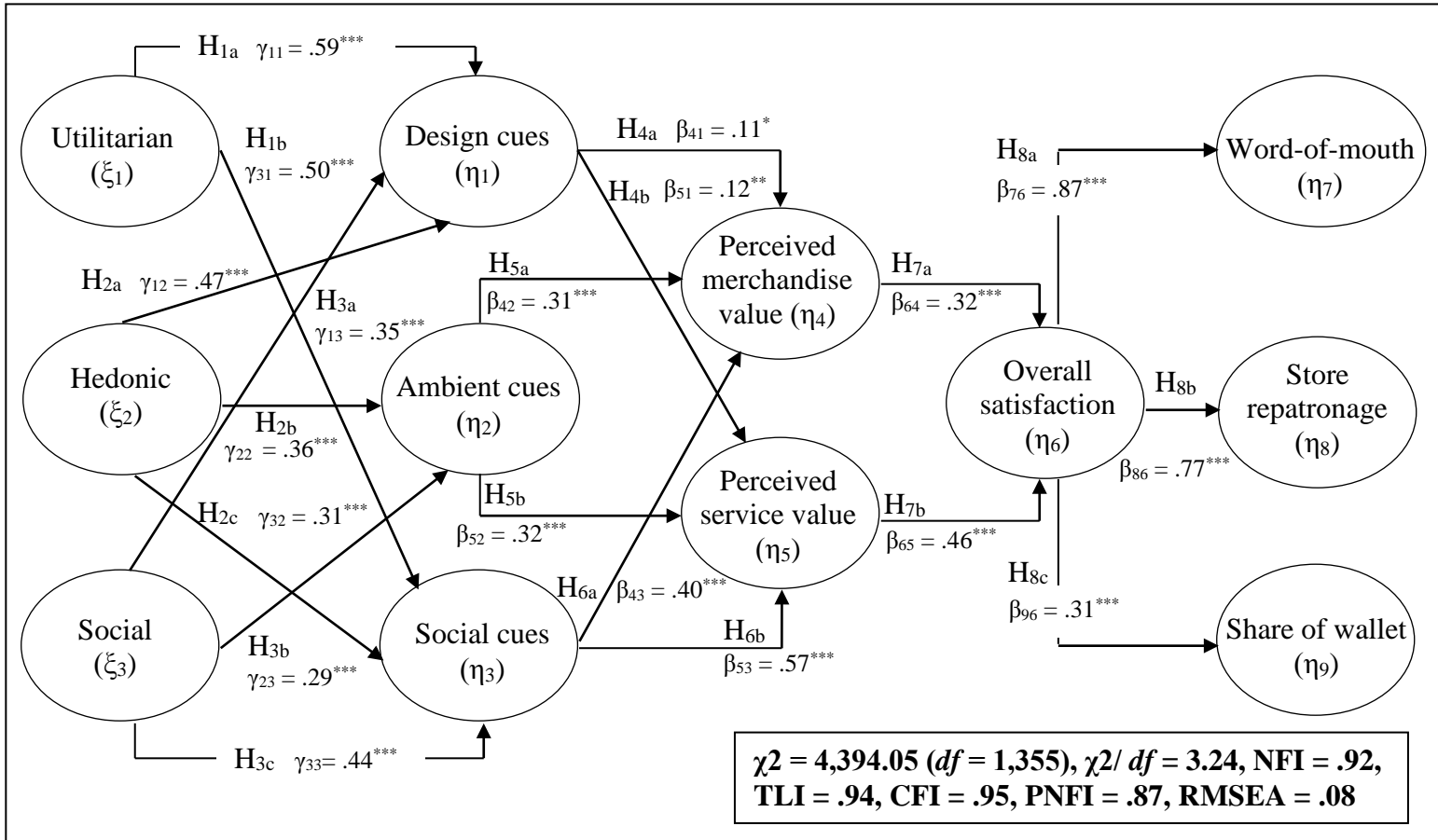
Note. * t-value = 1.96 (p < .05), ** t-value = 2.58 (p < .01), *** t-value = 3.29 (p < .001).
Indicator variables, correlations among exogenous variables, and disturbances have been omitted for notational simplicity.
Coefficient: Completely standardized solution.

Summary

This chapter provided an analysis of the survey responses. Description of the samples (Laemtong and Central) was included, and discussion of the measurement model analysis was provided. Hypotheses were tested based on the structural equation models, and the model fit was considered to be good. Based on the CFA and SEM model analysis, it was determined that most of the hypotheses were supported. The next chapter includes a discussion of conclusions based on the findings and provides suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

This chapter summarizes key findings and connects these findings to the objectives and to the research discussed in the review of literature. This chapter contains four major sections: (1) Discussion; (2) Conclusions; (3) Implications and Recommendations; and (4) Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research.

Discussion

The overall purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships among consumer-related factors (shopping motivations) and consumers' perceptions of retailer-related factors (in-store marketing communication) in predicting marketing outcomes (i.e., overall satisfaction and store loyalty) within the context of local and national Thai department stores. Specifically, this study aimed to examine the relationships between various aspects of consumer- and retailer-related factors and their influence on patronage behaviors relative to both local and national department stores. Four primary objectives guided the study: (1) to examine the impact of shopping motivations (i.e., utilitarian, hedonic, and social motivations) on perceived in-store marketing communication (i.e., design, ambient, and social cues); (2) to investigate the impact of perceived in-store marketing communication on store choice criteria (i.e., perceived merchandise and perceived service value); (3) to explore the impact of store choice criteria on consumers' overall satisfaction; and (4) to access the impact of consumers' overall satisfaction on

store loyalty relative to word-of-mouth, store repatronage, and share of wallet. Findings are discussed in relation to the four objectives below.

Objective 1: Examining the Impact of Consumer Shopping Motivation on Perceived In-store Marketing Communication

Hypothesis 1: Relationship between utilitarian motivations and perceived in-store marketing communication

H_1 predicted a positive relationship between utilitarian motivations and perceived in-store marketing communication in terms of design cues (H_{1a}) and social cues (H_{1b}). A positive relationship between utilitarian motivations and design cues (H_{1a}) was supported by both the Laemtong sample ($\gamma_{11} = 0.24$, t-value $= 3.89$, $p < .001$) and the Central sample ($\gamma_{11} = 0.59$, t-value $= 6.15$, $p < .001$) (see Figure 15). This finding indicates that consumers with utilitarian motivations positively evaluated design cues (i.e., store layout, color, and product assortment) when shopping at both local and national department stores. In contrast, a positive relationship between utilitarian motivations and social cues (H_{1b}) was not supported by the Laemtong sample ($\gamma_{31} = 0.12$, t-value $= 1.73$, $p > .05$); however, it was supported by the Central sample ($\gamma_{31} = 0.50$, t-value $= 5.01$, $p < .001$). These findings indicate that consumers with utilitarian motivations positively evaluated social cues (i.e., sales people, other consumers) only when shopping at national department stores, suggesting that utilitarian-oriented consumers expect both local and national department stores to have good store layout, color, and organized merchandise, but that they expect professional behaviors of sales personnel and other customers only in national department stores. Thus, based on the results of H_{1a} and H_{1b}, the Central sample

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provided results consistent with previous studies (i.e., Babin et al., 1994; Baker et al., 2002; Chen & Hsieh, 201; Westbrook & Black, 1985) while the Laemtong sample did not. That is, consumers with utilitarian motivations are concerned with whether the store environment promotes efficient accomplishment of tasks, indicated by their preferences for such factors as organized merchandise and good store layout (design cues). Overall, these consumers were less concerned with the appearance of salespeople or the presence of other customers in the store (social cues), in the context of a local department store as compared to the national department store context.

In addition, the influence of utilitarian motivations on design cues and social cues was found to be stronger for the Central sample (design cues: $\gamma_{11} = 0.59$, t-value = 6.15, $p < .001$; social cues: $\gamma_{31} = 0.50$, t-value = 5.01, $p < .001$) when compared to the Laemtong sample (design cues: $\gamma_{11} = 0.24$, t-value = 3.89, $p < .001$; social cues: $\gamma_{31} = 0.12$, t-value = 1.73, $p > .05$). That is, the demands for design cues (i.e., store layout, color, and product assortment) and social cues (i.e., salespeople, other consumers) were more important among utilitarian-oriented consumers when shopping at national department stores as compared to local department stores.

Figure 15. Relationship between Utilitarian Motivations and Perceived In-Store
Marketing Communication: Design and Social Cues.

Note. [*] t-value = 1.96 ($p < .05$), [**] t-value = 2.58 ($p < .01$), [***] t-value = 3.29 ($p < .001$)
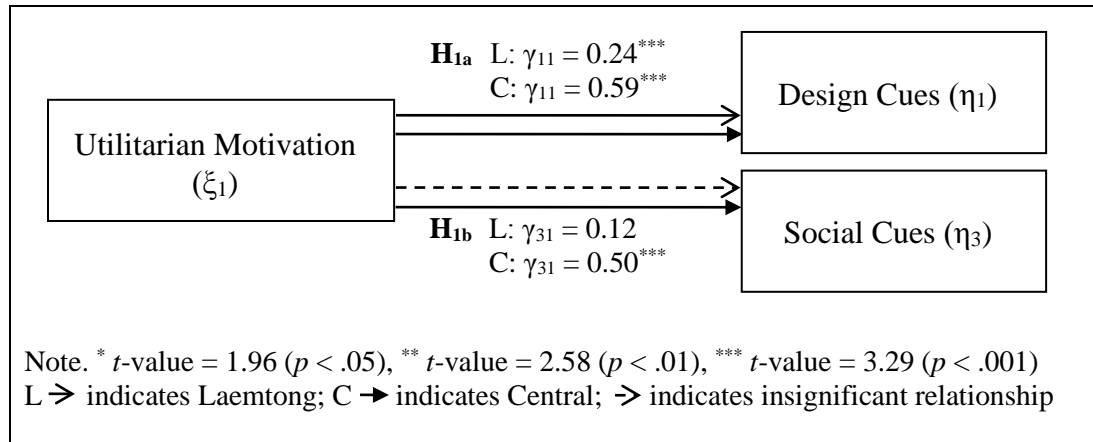L→ indicates Laemtong; C→ indicates Central; ⇢ indicates insignificant relationship

Hypothesis 2: Relationship between hedonic motivations and perceived in-store

marketing communication

H_2 proposed a positive relationship between hedonic motivations and perceived

in-store marketing communication in terms of design cues (H_{2a}), ambient cues (H_{2b}), and

social cues (H_{2c}). The findings from both samples support all hypothesized relationships.

Specifically, the relationship between hedonic motivations and design cues (H_{2a}) was

supported by both the Laemtong ($\gamma_{12} = 0.64$, t-value = 9.35, $p < .001$) and the Central

sample ($\gamma_{12} = 0.47$, t-value = 7.09, $p < .001$). In addition, the relationship between

hedonic motivations and ambient cues (H_{2b}) was also supported by the Laemtong ($\gamma_{22} =$

0.51, t-value = 7.11, $p < .001$) and the Central sample ($\gamma_{22} = 0.36$, t-value = 5.16, $p <$

.001). Last, the relationship between hedonic motivations and social cues (H_{2c}) was

supported by the Laemtong ($\gamma_{32} = 0.55$, t-value = 7.95, $p < .001$) and Central sample (γ_{32}

= 0.31, t-value = 4.81, $p < .001$) (see Figure 16). These findings suggest that consumers

with hedonic motivations place importance on design cues (i.e., store layout, color, and product assortment), ambient cues (i.e., music, lighting, scent), and social cues (i.e., employees and other customers) when shopping at both local and national department stores. Consistent with previous studies such as Andreu et al. (2006), Babin et al. (1994), and Turley and Milliman (2000), such findings suggest that consumers driven by hedonic motivations are likely to enjoy shopping activities that entail window shopping and in-store browsing, therefore they place more emphasis on the store environment in terms of organized merchandise and good store layout/product display. This finding is also consistent with other studies, such as Cen and Hsieh (2011), indicating that ambient cues such as music and lighting enable a consumer to have a pleasant shopping experience. Findings can also be linked to those of Marmurek, Finlay, Kanetkar, and Londerville (2007) who suggest that music impacts the willingness of casino consumers to stay in the casino longer and gamble more money. Moreover, several studies reveal that pleasurable in-store experiences reflect hedonic shopping values (Bäckström & Johansson, 2006; Ballantine, Jack, & Parsons, 2010; Bloch, Ridgway, & Dawson, 1994; Falk & Campbell, 1997; Jones, 1999; Lin & Chiang, 2010; Mohan et al., 2012). Similarly, social cues, such as the number of other customers in the store, can positively influence consumers' emotions (i.e., fun) and therefore induce hedonic shopping value (i.e., Byun & Mann, 2011; Eroglu et al., 2005; Nichols, 2010).

Furthermore, the influence of hedonic motivations on perceived in-store marketing communication (i.e., design cues, ambient cues, and social cues) was found to be stronger for the Laemtong sample when compared to the Central sample. Specifically,

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the influence of hedonic motivations on design cues was stronger for the Laemtong sample ($\gamma_{12} = 0.64$, t-value $= 9.35$, $p < .001$) as compared to the Central sample ($\gamma_{12} = 0.47$, t-value $= 7.09$, $p < .001$). The influence of hedonic motivations on ambient cues was stronger for the Laemtong sample ($\gamma_{22} = 0.51$, t-value $= 7.11$, $p < .001$) as compared to the Central sample ($\gamma_{22} = 0.36$, t-value $= 5.16$, $p < .001$). Finally, the influence of hedonic motivations on social cues was also stronger for the Laemtong sample ($\gamma_{32} = 0.55$, t-value $= 7.95$, $p < .001$) as compared to the Central sample ($\gamma_{32} = 0.31$, t-value $= 4.81$, $p < .001$). That is, consideration of design cues (i.e., store layout, color, and product assortment), ambient cues (i.e., music, lighting, scent), and social cues (i.e., employees and other consumers) were more important when hedonic consumers shopped at local as compared to national department stores. According to Woodruff, Cadotte, and Jenkins (1983), consumers develop shopping expectations primarily through marketer-controlled sources (i.e., advertising or personal selling), which may explain why this finding emerged. The local department store used advertising (billboards) to communicate a recent renovation. By doing this, customers may have been drawn to the store with the expectation that it would offer an improved layout, better lighting, and professional salespeople. As a result, it is possible that those consumers with hedonic motivations anticipated greater satisfaction from the local department store in terms of design, ambient, and social cues as compared to the national department store.

Figure 16. Relationship between Hedonic Motivations and Perceived In-Store Marketing Communication: Design, Ambient, and Social Cues.

H₂ₐ L: $\gamma_{12} = 0.64^{***}$
C: $\gamma_{12} = 0.47^{***}$

Design Cues (η_1)

H₂ᵦ L: $\gamma_{22} = 0.51^{***}$
C: $\gamma_{22} = 0.36^{***}$

Hedonic Motivation (ξ_2)

Ambient Cues (η_2)

H₂ᵧ L: $\gamma_{32} = 0.55^{***}$
C: $\gamma_{32} = 0.31^{***}$

Social Cues (η_3)

Note. * t-value = 1.96 ($p < .05$), ** t-value = 2.58 ($p < .01$), *** t-value = 3.29 ($p < .001$)
L → indicates Laemtong; C → indicates Central
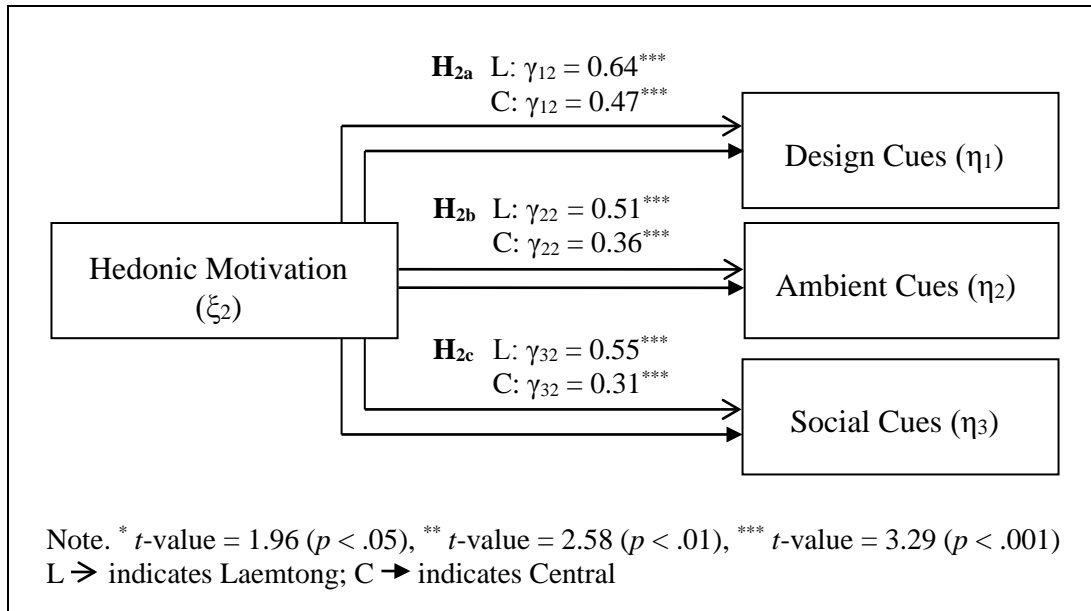
Hypothesis 3: Relationship between social motivations and perceived in-store marketing communication

H₃ suggested a positive relationship between social motivations and perceived in-store marketing communication in terms of design cues (H₃ₐ), ambient cues (H₃ᵦ), and social cues (H₃ᵧ). The findings from both samples support the relationships addressed in Hypothesis 3. Specifically, the relationship between social motivations and design cues (H₃ₐ) was supported by the Laemtong ($\gamma_{13} = 0.70$, t-value = 8.96, $p < .001$) and Central sample ($\gamma_{13} = 0.35$, t-value = 4.45, $p < .001$), as was the relationship between social motivations and ambient cues (H₃ᵦ Laemtong: $\gamma_{23} = 0.46$, t-value = 5.28, $p < .001$; Central: $\gamma_{23} = 0.29$, t-value = 3.37, $p < .01$). The relationship between social motivations and social cues (H₃ᵧ) was also supported by the Laemtong ($\gamma_{33} = 0.59$, t-value = 6.93, $p <$

.001) and Central sample ($\gamma_{33} = 0.44$, t-value = 4.91, $p < .001$) (see Figure 17). These findings indicate that consumers with social motivations considered design cues related to store layout, color, and product assortment, ambient cues in terms of music, lighting, and scent, and social cues relative to employees and other consumers when shopping at both local and national department stores. These findings are consistent with previous research that suggests that patronizing a store with an image consistent with a consumer's ideal self-image helps that consumer to feel good about him or herself (Dornoff & Tatham, 1972; Ibrahim & Najjar, 2007; Sirgy et al., 2000). Similarly, previous studies posited that consumers with social motivations are likely to positively evaluate factors that influence the image of the store and its merchandise, such as store design cues (i.e., color, layout, product assortment and display), ambient cues (i.e., lighting and music), and social cues (i.e., salespeople and other customers in the store) (Dube et al., 1995; Gardner & Siomkos, 1985; Newman & Cullen, 2002; O'Cass & Grace, 2008; Rea, 1999; Vida, 2008).

However, it is important to note that the influence of social motivations on perceived in-store marketing communication (i.e., design cues, ambient cues, and social cues) was stronger for the Laemtong sample when compared to that of Central. Specifically, the influence of social motivations on design cues was stronger for the Laemtong sample ($\gamma_{13} = 0.70$, t-value = 8.96, $p < .001$) as compared to the Central sample ($\gamma_{13} = 0.35$, t-value = 4.45, $p < .001$). Similarly, the influence of social motivations on ambient cues was stronger for the Laemtong sample ($\gamma_{23} = 0.46$, t-value = 5.28, $p < .001$) as compared to the Central sample ($\gamma_{23} = 0.29$, t-value = 3.37, $p < .01$), and the influence

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of social motivations on social cues was stronger for the Laemtong sample ($\gamma_{33} = 0.59$, *t*-value = 6.93, $p < .001$) as compared to the Central sample ($\gamma_{33} = 0.44$, *t*-value = 4.91, $p < .001$). That is, considerations of design cues (i.e., store layout, color, and product assortment), ambient cues (i.e., music, lighting, scent), and social cues (i.e., employees and other customers) was more important among consumers driven by social motivations when shopping at local as compared to national department stores. In line with the discussion of findings relative to H$_2$, one possible explanation for this finding is that those respondents driven by social motivations were attracted by the local department stores' advertisements about a recent store renovation, resulting in greater expectations that the local department store would offer a good in-store environment (i.e., layout, lighting, and salespeople).

Figure 17. Relationship between Social Motivations and Perceived In-Store Marketing Communication: Design, Ambient, and Social Cues.

Note. * *t*-value = 1.96 ($p < .05$), ** *t*-value = 2.58 ($p < .01$), *** *t*-value = 3.29 ($p < .001$)
L → indicates Laemtong; C → indicates Central
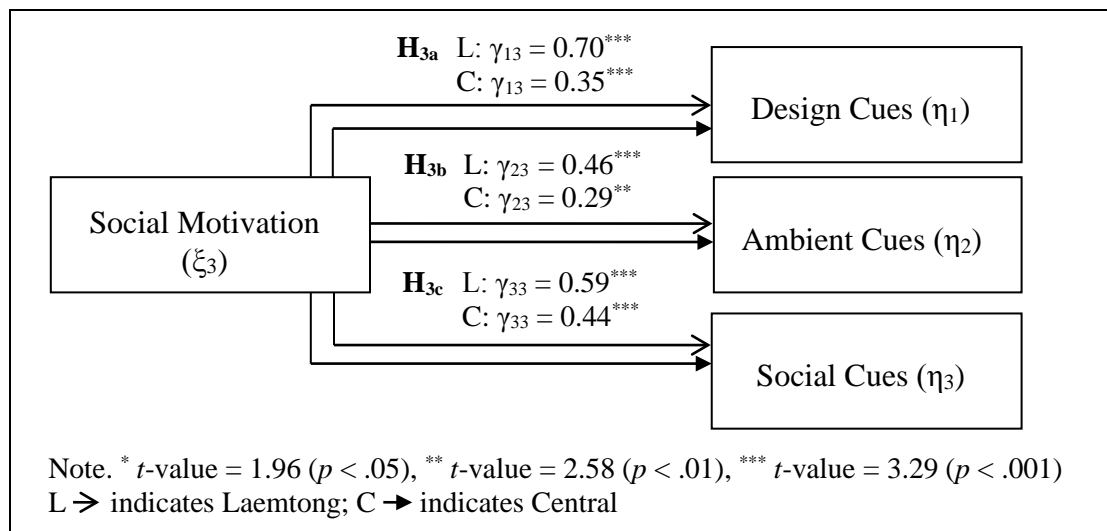
Objective 2: Investigating the Impact of Perceived In-store Marketing

Communication on Store Choice Criteria

Hypothesis 4: Relationship between design cues and store choice criteria

H_4 predicted a positive relationship between design cues and store choice criteria

relative to perceived merchandise value (H_{4a}) and perceived service value (H_{4b}). Findings

from both the Laemtong and Central samples supported the relationships proposed by H_4.

Specifically, the relationship between design cues and perceived merchandise value (H_{4a})

and the relationship between design cues and perceived service value (H_{4b}) were

supported by both the Laemtong sample (Perceived merchandise value: $\beta_{41} = 0.43$, t-

value $= 7.41$, $p < .001$; Perceived service value: $\beta_{51} = 0.19$, t-value $= 3.65$, $p < .001$) and

the Central sample (Perceived merchandise value: $\beta_{41} = 0.11$, t-value $= 2.09$, $p < .05$;

Perceived service value $\beta_{51} = 0.12$, t-value $= 2.62$, $p < .01$), respectively (see Figure 18).

These findings indicate that consumers' perceptions of design cues (i.e., color, layout,

product assortment) had a positive impact on their store choice criteria, specifically the

perceived merchandise value and perceived service value in both the local and national

department store context. These findings lend support to previous studies (i.e., Baker et

al., 2002; Bitner, 1992; Bellizzi et al., 1983; Chen & Hsieh, 2011; Lin & Chiang, 2010),

indicating that perceptions of merchandise and service quality are influenced by store

design cues, such as store color and display.

However, the influence of design cues on store choice criteria (i.e., perceived

merchandise value and perceived service value) was stronger for the Laemtong sample as

compared to the Central sample. Specifically, the influence of perceptions of design cues

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on perceived merchandise value and perceived service value was stronger for the Laemtong sample ($\beta_{41} = 0.43$, t-value = 7.41, $p < .001$; $\beta_{51} = 0.19$, t-value = 3.65, $p < .001$) as compared to that of Central ($\beta_{41} = 0.11$, t-value = 2.09, $p < .05$; $\beta_{51} = 0.12$, t-value = 2.62, $p < .01$). That is, design cues (i.e., color, layout, product assortment) appear to impact consumers' inferences about merchandise and service quality more in the local as compared to national department store context. In line with the discussion of findings relative to H_2 and H_3, one possible explanation for this finding is that consumers came to the local department store with expectations that it would offer an improved in-store environment. In this case, layout, colors, and merchandise assortment in the local department store were likely to exceed consumers' expectations in contrast to those who patronized the national department store. Favorable perceptions of store layout and merchandise may have resulted in stronger perceived merchandise and service value in the local as compared to national department store.

Figure 18. Relationship between Design Cues and Store Choice Criteria: Perceived Merchandise Value, Perceived Service Value.

Note. * t-value = 1.96 ($p < .05$), ** t-value = 2.58 ($p < .01$), *** t-value = 3.29 ($p < .001$)
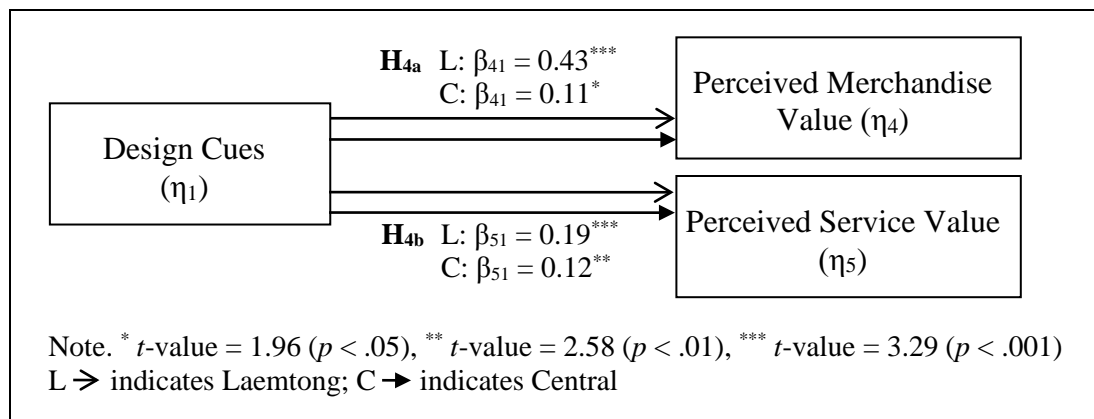L $\rightarrow$ indicates Laemtong; C $\rightarrow$ indicates Central

<u>Hypothesis 5: Relationship between ambient cues and store choice criteria</u>

H_5 anticipated a positive relationship between ambient cues and store choice criteria relative to perceived merchandise value (H_{5a}) and perceived service value (H_{5b}). The findings from the Laemtong and Central samples support the relationships predicted by H_5. Specifically, the relationship between ambient cues and perceived merchandise value (H_{5a}) and the relationship between ambient cues and perceived service value (H_{5b}) were supported by the Laemtong ($\beta_{42} = 0.36$, t-value $= 6.31$, $p < .001$; $\beta_{52} = 0.32$, t-value $= 6.13$, $p < .001$) and Central sample ($\beta_{42} = 0.31$, t-value $= 5.14$, $p < .001$; $\beta_{52} = 0.33$, t-value $= 6.37$, $p < .001$), respectively (see Figure 19). These findings indicate that consumers' perceptions of ambient cues (i.e., music, lighting, scent) were related to store choice criteria, specifically perceived merchandise value and perceived service value in both the local and national department store contexts. These findings are in line with previous studies, specifically that store ambient cues (such as music) provide the consumer with clues regarding the quality of products and services and thereby create an impression on him or her (Baker et al., 2002; Kotler, 1974; Yalch & Spangenberg, 2000). Moreover, lighting can influence the consumer's perception of both store image and merchandise quality (Baker et al., 1994; Summers & Hebert, 2001). More specifically, Areni and Kim (1993) found that soft lighting created a romantic setting that produced a desirable dining atmosphere and, in a retail store, implied high quality merchandise. As shown by both samples, ambient cues such as good lighting or appropriate music can influence consumers' inferences about merchandise and service quality (Baker et al., 2002; Dube & Morin, 2001).

The influence of ambient cues on perceived merchandise value was stronger for the Laemtong sample (β_{42} = 0.36, *t*-value = 6.31, *p* < .001) as compared to that of Central (β_{42} = 0.31, *t*-value = 5.14, *p* < .001). However, the influence of ambient cues on perceived service value was stronger for the Central sample (β_{52} = 0.33, *t*-value = 6.37, *p* < .001) as compared to Laemtong (β_{52} = 0.32, *t*-value = 6.13, *p* < .001). This finding indicates that while ambient cues (i.e., music, lighting, and scent) impact consumers' inferences about merchandise quality more in the local as compared to the national department store context, ambient cues impact consumers' inferences about service quality more in the national versus local department store context. According to the findings from the qualitative preliminary study, participants expected better in-store environment (i.e., design cues, ambient cues, and social cues) from national department stores as compared to local department stores. Thus, a possible explanation for this finding is that respondents who patronized the local department store were likely to have lower expectations of music and lighting than those patronizing the national department store. In this case, the music and lighting that are offered in the local department store were likely to exceed consumers' expectations, therefore this may explain why they evaluated the in-store merchandise more favorably than those who patronized national department stores.

Figure 19. Relationship between Ambient Cues and Store Choice Criteria: Perceived Merchandise Value and Perceived Service Value.
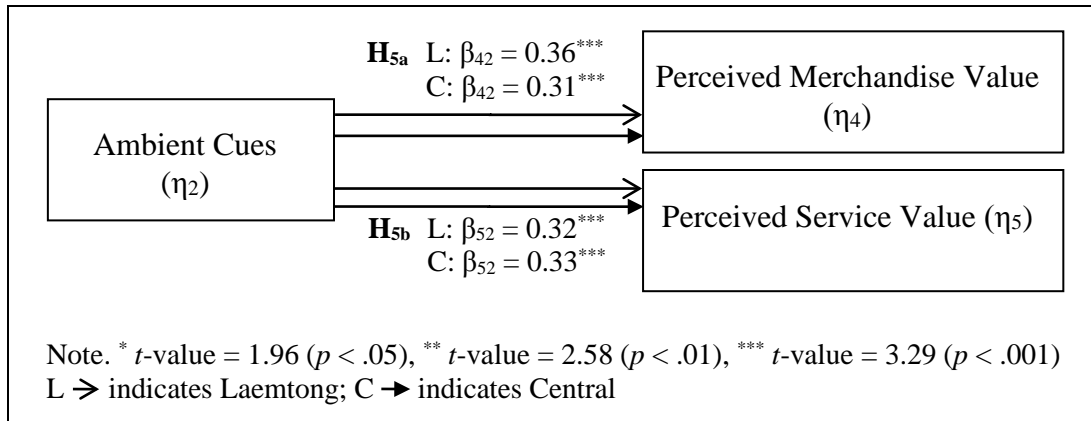
H$_{5a}$ L: $\beta_{42} = 0.36^{***}$
C: $\beta_{42} = 0.31^{***}$

Perceived Merchandise Value (η_4)

Ambient Cues (η_2)

Perceived Service Value (η_5)

H$_{5b}$ L: $\beta_{52} = 0.32^{***}$
C: $\beta_{52} = 0.33^{***}$

Note. * t-value = 1.96 ($p < .05$), ** t-value = 2.58 ($p < .01$), *** t-value = 3.29 ($p < .001$)
L ➤ indicates Laemtong; C ➔ indicates Central

Hypothesis 6: Relationship between social cues and store choice criteria

H$_6$ predicted a positive relationship between social cues and store choice criteria relative to perceived merchandise value (H$_{6a}$) and perceived service value (H$_{6b}$). Findings from both the Laemtong and Central samples supported the relationships predicted by H$_6$. Specifically, the relationship between social cues and perceived merchandise value (H$_{6a}$) and the relationship between social cues and perceived service value (H$_{6b}$) were supported by the Laemtong sample (perceived merchandise value: $\beta_{43} = 0.11$, t-value = 2.23, $p < .05$; perceived service value $\beta_{53} = 0.44$, t-value = 7.00, $p < .001$) and the Central sample (perceived merchandise value: $\beta_{43} = 0.40$, t-value = 6.04, $p < .001$; perceived service value: $\beta_{53} = 0.57$, t-value = 8.91, $p < .001$), respectively (see Figure 20). This finding indicates that perceptions of social cues (i.e., salespeople and other customers) impact store choice criteria relative to perceived merchandise value and perceived service value in the context of both local and national department stores. Such findings are

consistent with those of previous studies linking number, appearance, responsiveness, and empathy of salespeople to consumers' perceptions of service quality (Brady & Cronin, 2001; Chen & Hsieh, 2011; Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Mazursky & Jacoby, 1986; Parasuraman et al., 1988; Wicker, 1973), and number of other customers in the store with inferences about store merchandise quality (Yuksel, 2009). Specifically, the reliability, responsiveness, and empathy of service providers or salespeople were found to be important to the expectation of superior service quality (Brady & Cronin, 2001; Parasuraman et al., 1988), whereas number of other customers in the store was important to communicating the store's popularity or variety of merchandise offered (Yuksel, 2009).

In addition, the influence of social cues on store choice criteria (i.e., perceived merchandise value and perceived service value) was stronger for the Central sample when compared to the Laemtong sample. Specifically, the influence of social cues on perceived merchandise and perceived service value was stronger for the Central sample (perceived merchandise value: $\beta_{43} = 0.40$, t-value $= 6.04$, $p < .001$; perceived service value $\beta_{53} = 0.57$, t-value $= 8.91$, $p < .001$) as compared to that of Laemtong (perceived merchandise value: $\beta_{43} = 0.11$, t-value $= 2.23$, $p < .05$; perceived service value $\beta_{53} = 0.44$, t-value $= 7.00$, $p < .001$). That is, social cues (i.e., salespeople and the presence of other customers in the store) impact consumers' inferences about merchandise and service quality more in the national versus local department store context.

Figure 20. Relationship between Social Cues and Store Choice Criteria: Perceived Merchandise Value, and Perceived Service Value.
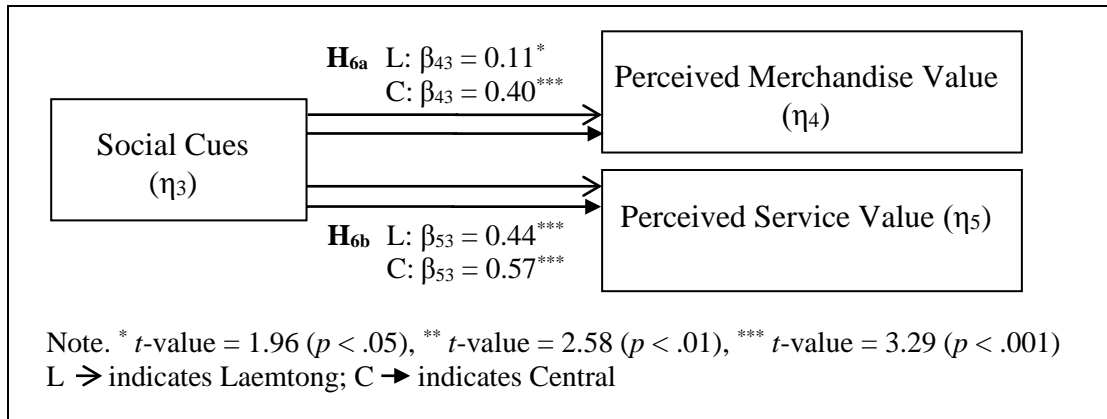

H6a L: $\beta_{43} = 0.11^{*}$
C: $\beta_{43} = 0.40^{***}$

Perceived Merchandise Value (η_4)

Social Cues (η_3)

H6b L: $\beta_{53} = 0.44^{***}$
C: $\beta_{53} = 0.57^{***}$

Perceived Service Value (η_5)

Note. * t-value = 1.96 ($p < .05$), ** t-value = 2.58 ($p < .01$), *** t-value = 3.29 ($p < .001$)
L → indicates Laemtong; C → indicates Central

Objective 3: To Explore the Influence of Store Choice Criteria on Consumers' Overall Satisfaction

<u>Hypothesis 7: Relationship between store choice criteria and overall satisfaction</u>

H_7 proposed a positive relationship between store choice criteria in terms of perceived merchandise value and overall satisfaction (H_{7a}), and perceived service value and overall satisfaction (H_{7b}). Findings from the Laemtong and Central samples support all of the relationships predicted by H_7. Specifically, the relationship between perceived merchandise value and overall satisfaction (H_{7a}) and the relationship between perceived service value and overall satisfaction (H_{7b}) were supported by the Laemtong (perceived merchandise value and overall satisfaction: $\beta_{64} = 0.52$, t-value = 8.84, $p < .001$; perceived service value and overall satisfaction: $\beta_{65} = 0.37$, t-value = 7.05, $p < .001$) and Central sample (perceived merchandise value and overall satisfaction: $\beta_{64} = 0.32$, t-value = 5.53, $p < .001$; perceived service value and overall satisfaction: $\beta_{65} = 0.46$, t-value = 8.11, $p <$

.001), respectively (see Figure 21). These findings indicate that perceived merchandise value and perceived service value had a positive impact on consumers' overall satisfaction in the context of both local and national department stores. As such, these findings are in line with previous studies that proposed a relationship between store choice criteria and consumer satisfaction, particularly that improving product and service attributes may enhance customer satisfaction (Anderson & Mittal, 2000; Bei & Chiao, 2001; Yang & Peterson, 2004).

The influence of perceived merchandise value on overall satisfaction was stronger for the Laemtong sample ($\beta_{64} = 0.52$, t-value = 8.84, $p < .001$) as compared to the Central sample ($\beta_{64} = 0.32$, t-value = 5.53, $p < .001$). However, the influence of perceived service value on overall satisfaction was stronger for the Central sample ($\beta_{65} = 0.46$, t-value = 8.11, $p < .001$) as compared to the Laemtong sample ($\beta_{65} = 0.37$, t-value = 7.05, $p < .001$). That is, respondents who patronized the local department store expressed higher levels of satisfaction relative to store merchandise than those patronizing the national department store. On the other hand, respondents who patronized the national department store expressed higher levels of satisfaction with store service than those who patronized the local department store. This difference could be explained in part by the Expectation and Confirmation Theory, which suggests that consumer satisfaction arises when comparing one's perceptions of a product's performance to one's expectations (Oliver, 1980). That is, if perceived performance exceeds a consumer's expectations (a positive disconfirmation), then the consumer is satisfied. However, when perceived performance falls short of a consumer's expectations (a negative disconfirmation), then the consumer

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tends to be dissatisfied (Lee, Johnson, & Gahring, 2008; Spreng, Mackenzie, & Olshavsky, 1996). Thus, it is possible that those consumers who experience higher levels of satisfaction with merchandise quality in local department stores might have lower expectation levels in local as compared to national department stores. Favorable perceptions of merchandise quality may have, in turn, led to higher levels of satisfaction.

Figure 21. Relationship between Store Choice Criteria and Overall Satisfaction.

Note. * t-value = 1.96 ($p < .05$), ** t-value = 2.58 ($p < .01$), *** t-value = 3.29 ($p < .001$)
L $\rightarrow$ indicates Laemtong; C $\rightarrow$ indicates Central
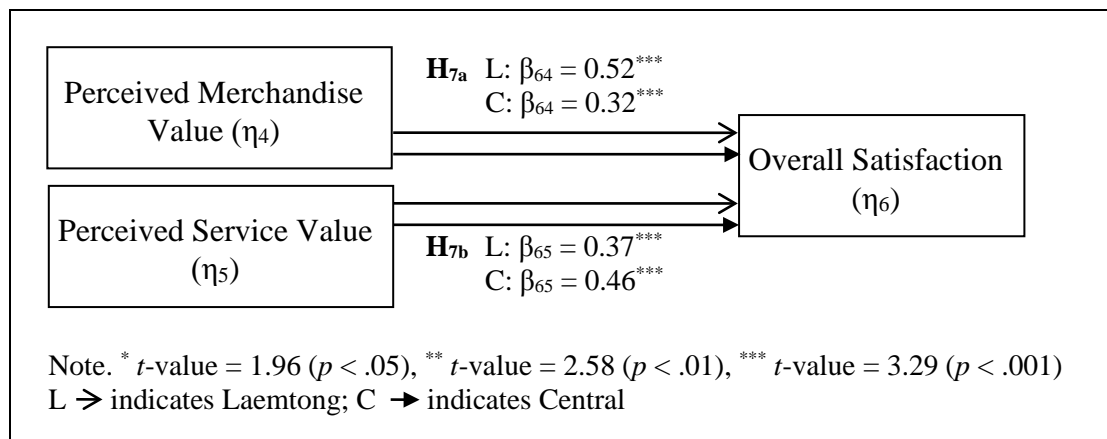
Objective 4: To Assess the Impact of Overall Satisfaction on Store Loyalty

Hypothesis 8: Relationship between overall satisfaction and store loyalty

H$_8$ predicted a positive relationship between overall satisfaction and store loyalty relative to word-of-mouth (H$_{8a}$), store repatronage (H$_{8b}$), and share of wallet (H$_{8c}$). The results of both the Laemtong and the Central samples support the relationships predicted by H$_8$. Specifically, the relationship between overall satisfaction and word-of-mouth (H$_{8a}$) was supported by the Laemtong sample ($\beta_{76} = 0.86$, t-value = 14.35, $p < .001$) and the Central sample ($\beta_{76} = 0.87$, t-value = 16.53, $p < .001$). The relationship between

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overall satisfaction and store repatronage (H_{8b}) was also supported by the Laemtong

sample ($\beta_{86} = 0.75$, t-value = 13.55, $p < .001$) and the Central sample ($\beta_{86} = 0.77$, t-value

= 14.59, $p < .001$). Finally, the relationship between overall satisfaction and share of

wallet (H_{8c}) was also supported by both the Laemtong sample ($\beta_{96} = 0.23$, t-value = 3.65,

$p < .001$) and the Central sample ($\beta_{96} = 0.31$, t-value = 5.33, $p < .001$) (see Figure 22).

These findings indicate that respondents' overall satisfaction with shopping at both local

and national department stores was positively related to loyalty relative to word-of-

mouth, store repatronage, and share of wallet. These findings are consistent with those of

previous studies indicating that higher satisfaction relates to higher loyalty as exhibited

by positive word-of-mouth, store repatronage, and greater share of wallet (Andreu et al.,

2006; Bitner & Hubbert, 1994; Bloemer & Ruyter, 1998; Mechinda et al., 2008; Oliver,

1999; 2010, Orth & Green, 2009; Yang & Peterson, 2004; Zeithaml et al., 1996).

The influence of overall satisfaction on store loyalty (i.e., word-of-mouth, store

repatronage, share of wallet) was stronger for the Central sample when compared to that

of Laemtong. Specifically, the influence of overall satisfaction on word-of-mouth was

stronger for the Central sample ($\beta_{76} = 0.87$, t-value = 16.53, $p < .001$) as compared to the

Laemtong sample ($\beta_{76} = 0.86$, t-value = 14.35, $p < .001$); the influence of overall

satisfaction on store repatronage was stronger for the Central sample ($\beta_{86} = 0.77$, t-value

= 14.59, $p < .001$) as compared to the Laemtong sample ($\beta_{86} = 0.75$, t-value = 13.55, $p <$

.001), and the influence of overall satisfaction on share of wallet was stronger for the

Central sample ($\beta_{96} = 0.31$, t-value = 5.33, $p < .001$) as compared to the Laemtong sample

($\beta_{96} = 0.23$, t-value = 3.65, $p < .001$). Based on these findings, it appears that respondents

considered it more likely that their needs (i.e., service) would be satisfied by national

rather than local department stores. Consequently, overall satisfaction with shopping at

national department stores was more likely to manifest itself in the form of higher levels

of word-of-mouth, store repatronage, and share of wallet as compared to local department

stores.

Figure 22. Relationship between Overall Satisfaction and Store Loyalty: Word-of-Mouth, Store Repatronage, and Share of Wallet.

$\mathbf{H_{8a}}$ L: $\beta_{76} = 0.86^{***}$
C: $\beta_{76} = 0.87^{***}$

Word-of Mouth (η_7)

Overall Satisfaction (η_6)

$\mathbf{H_{8b}}$ L: $\beta_{86} = 0.75^{***}$
C: $\beta_{86} = 0.77^{***}$

Store Repatronage (η_8)

$\mathbf{H_{8c}}$ L: $\beta_{96} = 0.23^{***}$
C: $\beta_{96} = 0.31^{***}$

Share of Wallet (η_9)

Note. * t-value = 1.96 ($p < .05$), ** t-value = 2.58 ($p < .01$), *** t-value = 3.29 ($p < .001$)
L → indicates Laemtong; C → indicates Central
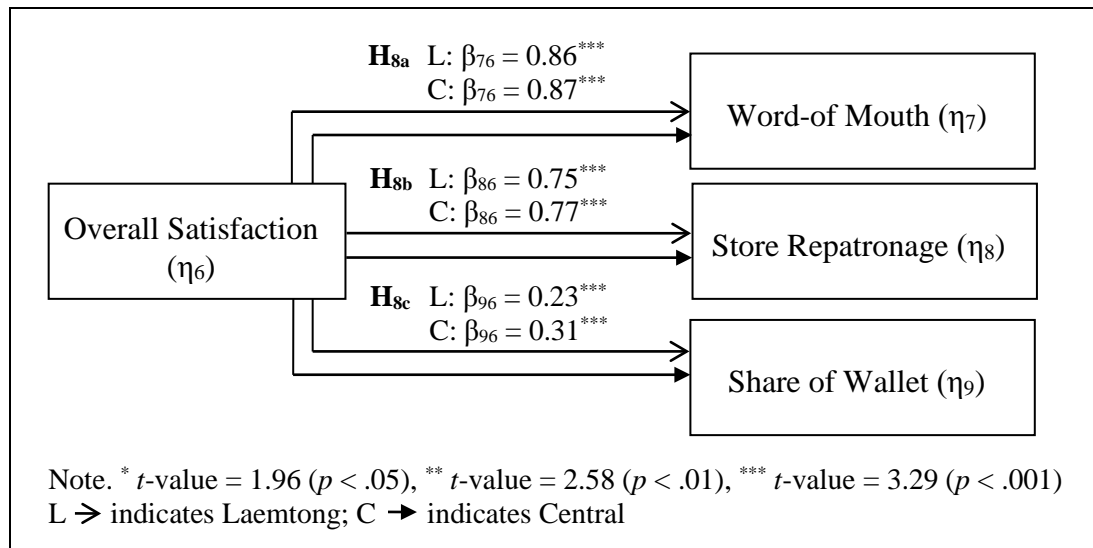
Conclusions

This dissertation has identified the factors that are important to consumers when

deciding where to shop, specifically comparing local and national Thai department stores.

Shopping motivations that influence consumers' perceptions of retailer-related factors

(in-store marketing communication) were investigated, as well as the relative efficacies

of retailer-related factors for predicting department store patronage behaviors (i.e., satisfaction and loyalty).

Based on the results, while store layout, color, and product assortment (design cues) are important for consumers with utilitarian motivations when shopping at both local and national department stores, these utilitarian-oriented consumers tend to place importance on salespeople and other customers (social cues) only when shopping at national department stores. These findings are linked to that of Baker et al. (2002), who revealed that when utilitarian-oriented consumers shop, they are likely to prefer convenience related factors, such as store layout and organized merchandise. Thus, in this case, design cues (i.e., store layout and product assortment) were considered as a factor influencing shopping convenience at both local and national department stores, whereas social cues (salespeople and other customers) were considered only when shopping at national department stores.

Findings of the dissertation further indicate that design cues (store layout, color, and product assortment), ambient cues (music, lighting, and scent), as well as social cues (appearance and behavior of salespeople and other customers) are important for consumers driven by hedonic and/or social motivations when shopping at local as well as national department stores. These findings are linked to that of Chen and Hsieh (2011), who proposed that design cues (i.e., color) and ambient cues (i.e., music, lighting) can create a pleasant environmental atmosphere in the store, thereby making consumers feel more relaxed and be more likely to enjoy the shopping experience. These findings are similar to that of Byun and Mann (2011), which suggest that social cues (i.e., the number

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of other customers) positively influence emotions (i.e., enjoyment) and induce greater

hedonic shopping value. Furthermore, findings of previous research (i.e., Dube et al.,

1995; Newman & Cullen, 2002; Vida, 2008) showed that store design (i.e., color, layout,

and display), ambient cues (i.e., lighting and music), and social cues (i.e., appearance and

behavior of salespeople and other customers) can influence the image of the store. Thus,

as this study found, these cues (design, ambient, and social) are likely to be important

factors for a consumer driven by social motivations looking to patronize stores with

images that are consistent with his or her ideal self-image.

Regarding the impact of perceived in-store marketing communication (i.e., design

cues, ambient cues, and social cues) on store choice criteria (i.e., perceived merchandise

and perceived service value), the results reveal that when consumers shop at both local

and national department stores, their store choice criteria relative to perceived

merchandise value and perceived service value will likely be influenced by their

perceptions of color, layout, and product assortment (design cues), music, lighting, and

scent (ambient cues), and sales personnel and other customers (social cues). These

findings support previous studies, wherein perceptions of merchandise and service

quality are influenced by store design cues such as color and display (Baker et al., 2002;

Bellizzi et al., 1983; Bitner, 1992; Chen & Hsieh, 2011; Lin & Chiang, 2010), ambient

cues such as music and lighting (Areni & Kim, 1993; Baker et al., 1994; Bitner, 1992),

and social cues such as appearance of salespeople and other consumers in the store

(Brady & Cronin, 2001; Chen & Hsieh, 2011; Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Parasuraman et

al., 1988; Yan et al., 2011; Yuksel, 2009).

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Findings of this study indicated a relationship between store choice criteria (i.e., perceived merchandise value and perceived service value) and consumers' overall satisfaction, suggesting that when shopping at both local and national department stores, consumers' overall satisfaction will likely be influenced by their perceptions of merchandise as well as service. These findings support those of previous studies (Bei & Chiao, 2001; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Grace & O'Cass, 2005), suggesting that satisfaction can be enhanced by perceived merchandise and service quality.

Furthermore, consumers' overall satisfaction with shopping at both local and national department stores was found to impact their loyalty, particularly relative to word-of-mouth, store repatronage, and share of wallet. These findings are in line with several existing studies on the positive relationship between satisfaction and loyalty in terms of positive word-of-mouth (Sirohi et al., 1998; Zeithaml et al., 1996), store repatronage (Bloemer & Ruyter, 1998; Osman, 1993), and share of wallet (Jones & Sasser, 1995; Orth & Green, 2009; Reynolds & Beatty, 1999; Seock, 2009; Sirohi et al., 1998; Wirtz et al., 2007; Zeithaml et al., 1996).

This study examined the influence of consumer- and retailer-related factors on local and national Thai department store patronage behaviors. Based on the findings, the demands for better store layout, color, and product assortment (design cues) and shopping environment related to salespeople and other customers (social cues) were higher among utilitarian driven consumers when shopping at national department stores as compared to local department stores. On the other hand, the demand for better store layout, color, and product assortment (design cues), music, lighting, and scent (ambient cues), and better

environment related to salespeople and other customers (social cues) were higher when hedonic and socially-driven consumers shopped at local as compared to national department stores.

Regarding the differences between the impact of consumer- and retailer-related factors on local and national department store patronage behaviors, consumers' perceptions of store layout, color, and product assortment (design cues) were more important when evaluating store merchandise and service while shopping at local as compared to national department stores. In contrast, consumers' perceptions of salespeople and other customers in the store were more important when evaluating store merchandise and service quality while shopping at national as compared to local department stores. However, consumers' perceptions of music, lighting, and scent (ambient cues) were more important for evaluating store merchandise when shopping at local department stores and for evaluating store service when shopping at national department stores.

According to the findings, respondents who patronized local department stores were likely to express greater levels of satisfaction with store merchandise than those who patronized national department stores. On the other hand, respondents who patronized national department stores were likely to express greater levels of satisfaction with store service than those who patronized local department stores. Moreover, consumers' overall satisfaction was likely to generate higher levels of store loyalty relative to word-of-mouth, store repatronage, and share of wallet in the context of national as compared to local department stores.

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Implications and Recommendations

This dissertation examined the relationships among consumer-related factors (shopping motivations) and consumers' perceptions of retailer-related factors (in-store marketing communication) in predicting marketing outcomes (i.e., overall satisfaction and store loyalty). Findings confirm the importance of positive in-store marketing communication (i.e., design cues, ambient cues, and social cues) in contributing to department store loyalty among Thai consumers. In addition, this dissertation proposed and empirically examined a model of consumer department store patronage behavior that integrates multiple theoretical approaches within the context of the Thai department store. Based on this model, four issues of theoretical relevance emerged from the research and are discussed below.

First, this dissertation examined the extent to which consumer-related factors (i.e., shopping motivations) influence perceptions of retailer-related factors (i.e., in-store marketing communication) within the context of both local and national Thai department stores. The findings provide clear implications for the importance of shopping motivations (i.e., utilitarian, hedonic, and social) in influencing perceptions of in-store marketing communication (i.e., design cues, ambient cues, and social cues). These findings offer additional support for the existing literature in the areas of shopping motivations and perceived in-store marketing communication in the department store context. Although the two constructs (shopping motivation and perceived in-store marketing communication) have been found to be related in various contexts such as grocery stores (Morschett et al., 2005), supermarkets (Chen & Hsieh, 2011), and apparel

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stores (Yalch & Spangenberg, 1993), this was the first time that the relationship between these two constructs has been identified within the department store context.

Second, this study investigated the relative efficacies of retailer-related factors (i.e., in-store marketing communication) in predicting store patronage behaviors (i.e., satisfaction and loyalty) within the context of local and national department stores. The findings indicate that within the context of local and national department stores, perceptions of design cues (i.e., store layout, color, product assortment), ambient cues (i.e., music, lighting, and scent), and social cues (i.e., salespeople and other customers) positively influenced store choice criteria (i.e., perceived merchandise value and perceived service value). These findings strengthen the conviction that in-store environmental cues (design cues, ambient cues, and social cues) impact consumer evaluations of a store and its merchandise (Bellizzi et al., 1983; Bellizzi & Hite, 1992; Chen & Hsieh, 2011; Turley & Milliman, 2000). In this study, perceptions of merchandise and service value influenced overall satisfaction, which, in turn, impacted store loyalty (i.e., word-of-mouth, store repatronage, and share of wallet) (Andreu et al., 2006; Orth & Green, 2009; Seock, 2009; Sirohi et al., 1998; Zeithml et al., 1996). Thus, the importance of retailer-related factors (i.e., in-store marketing communication) for predicting store patronage behaviors (i.e., satisfaction, loyalty) regardless of department store type (local or national) can be inferred from this study.

Third, this dissertation examined the differences between the impact of consumer- and retailer-related factors on local and national department store patronage behaviors. The findings indicate that consumers place importance on different in-store marketing

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communication (design cues, ambient cues, social cues), when evaluating store merchandise and service at local as compared to national department stores, resulting in different levels of satisfaction and store loyalty (i.e., word-of-mouth, store repatronage, and share of wallet) in the context of a national versus local department store. This dissertation supports the proposition that consumers' perceived importance of store attributes varies by retail store format and consumer characteristics (Kim & Kang, 1995; Seock, 2009). Thus, this study points to the necessity of reproducing studies across diverse types of stores or with different groups of consumers, as consumers' perceptions of different store formats may lead to different shopping outcomes (Morscheet et al., 2005).

Finally, given that Thailand and Thai consumers are understudied in the retail and store patronage literature, this study provides important theoretical implications by addressing some of the gaps in knowledge that exist. Findings of this dissertation extend the existing literature on consumer shopping motivations, in-store marketing communication, and their influences on store patronage behaviors to the department store context, specifically local versus national department stores. Understanding the multiplicity of motives behind shopping is critical to create and deliver value, which can ultimately contribute to establishing customer loyalty (Mittal & Sheth, 2001; Rintamäki et al., 2006). To this end, findings of this study can be used by both local and national Thai department stores to create attractive in-store environments, satisfy target consumers, and ultimately enhance store loyalty.

This dissertation also offers several managerial implications. First, in order to create positive perceptions of the in-store marketing communication among utilitarian consumers, both local and national department stores should focus on providing a well-designed store environment. For instance, the merchandise and store layout should be organized such that it is convenient for customers to find what they need and want while shopping (Baker et al., 2002). As discussed, utilitarian consumers evaluated store salespeople and other customers (social cues) only when shopping at national department stores, therefore, national department stores should consider offering good service via knowledgeable salespeople along with a well-designed store environment. In order to meet the expectations for in-store environment among consumers driven by hedonic and social motivations, both local and national department stores could enhance the store environment through such design cues as color, playing appropriate music, making sure the store is well lit with a nice scent, as well as offering a variety of products and ensuring that well-dressed, knowledgeable salespeople are available to assist customers (Baker et al., 2002; Berry & Bendapudi, 2003; Chen & Hsieh, 2011; Vida, 2008).

Second, in order to enhance consumers' positive perceptions of merchandise and service quality, both local and national department stores may consider focusing on store environment, such as ordered store layout, use of pleasing colors, and well-organized displays of quality merchandise. Furthermore, appropriate music in a well-lit setting is important, along with providing good service through well-dressed and knowledgeable sales personnel. All of this would enhance consumers' perceptions of merchandise and service value (Areni & Kim, 1993; Baker et al., 1994; Bitner, 1992; Brady & Cronin,

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2001; Chen & Hsieh, 2011; Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Lin & Chiang, 2010; Mazursky & Jacoby, 1986; Parasuraman et al., 1988; Wicker, 1973; Yuksel, 2009).

Third, both local and national department stores can enhance consumers' overall satisfaction by providing better merchandise and service quality (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Darian et al., 2001; Grace & O'Cass, 2005). Both local and national department stores should also focus on increasing overall shopping satisfaction among consumers in order to generate positive word-of-mouth (Andreu et al., 2006; Sirohi et al., 1998; Yang & Peterson, 2004; Zeithaml et al., 1996) and to increase store repatronage (Bloemer & Ruyter, 1998; Oliver, 2010) and share of wallet (Orth & Green, 2009; Reynolds & Beatty, 1999; Seock, 2009; Wirtz, Mattila, & Lwin, 2007).

Finally, based on the differences between the impact of consumer- and retailer-related factors on local and national department store patronage behaviors, it is suggested that local department stores should focus on creating a good store layout, color, and product assortment (design cues), as well as music, lighting, and scent (ambient cues) and professional salespeople (social cues), as these factors were expected by consumers (i.e., hedonic and social consumers) when shopping at local as compared to national department stores. On the other hand, national department stores should focus on creating a good store layout, color, and product assortment (design cues) as well as providing knowledgeable sales personnel (social cues), as these factors were expected by consumers (i.e., utilitarian consumers) when shopping at national as compared to local department stores. Furthermore, it was suggested that local department stores enhance consumers' perceived merchandise value, which may result in overall satisfaction (Bei &

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Chiao, 2001) by providing good store layout, color, product assortment (design cues), as well as proper music, lighting, and scent (ambient cues). National department stores could enhance consumers' perceived service value by providing a high level of service via well-dressed sales personnel. By increasing consumers' perceived service value, national department stores can increase consumers' overall satisfaction, which, in turn, can generate store loyalty relative to word-of-mouth, store repatronage, and share of wallet (Curtis et al., 2011; Oliver, 2010; Yang & Peterson, 2004; Zeithaml et al., 1996). However, based on the finding that satisfaction with services offered in the store is likely related to the confirmation or disconfirmation of consumer expectations (Smith & Houston, 1985; Spreng et al., 1996), both local and national department stores should ensure that high levels of merchandise and service quality will ultimately be delivered to the consumer.

Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

There are a few limitations to this study. These limitations, along with the study's findings, also offer an agenda for further research. First, the research was conducted with local and national department stores targeting middle-income shoppers. Thus, results may not be generalized to other department stores such as those that target high-income shoppers (i.e., The Emporium, Siam Paragon). Future research could examine the relationships among consumer- and retailer-related factors and their impact on marketing outcomes relative to department stores that target different consumer segments.

Second, although the study results generally support the proposed model, the results are necessarily limited to the study's context, which is the Thai department store.

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Thus, future research is needed to explore how the underlying constructs of the conceptual model apply to a wider range of shopping contexts, particularly those emerging in Thai retailing, such as the community mall concept discussed in Chapter I.

Third, this study investigates the impact of consumer shopping motivations on in-store marketing cues that marketers commonly use (i.e., design cues, ambient cues, and social cues). Thus, future research may explore the impact of shopping motivations specifically on other in-store marketing tools, such as digital signage (i.e., digital flat LCD or plasma screens), in-store video, and interactive media used by retailers to signal merchandise and service value and enhance the in-store shopping experience. Although such media is relatively new to the retail environment, it is being used in many retail contexts, including main-street shopping areas, malls, and individual stores (Dennis, Michon, Brakus, Newman, & Alamanos, 2012). In addition, it would be useful to identify the relative impact of in-store environment cues on other potential outcomes, such as consumer inferences of retail brand image.

Finally, in order to enhance the consumer's shopping experience and ultimately establish store loyalty, retailers should ensure that the intended atmosphere (i.e., in-store marketing communication deliberately created by retailers) aligns with the consumer's expectations, because satisfaction with a store is related to confirmation or disconfirmation of expectations (Kopalle & Lehmann, 2001; Smith & Houston, 1985; Wallace et al., 2004; Yoon & Kim, 2000). Thus, there is a need for closer investigation of (1) whether perceptions of in-store marketing communication differ between retailers and

their target consumers and (2) the factors that must be considered by different retailers in developing in-store marketing communication.

In conclusion, this dissertation provided a theoretical framework that empirically tested relationships between shopping motivations, in-store marketing communication, store choice criteria, overall satisfaction, and store loyalty among Thai department store consumers. This study contributes to the existing literature in the areas of motivation and store choice, and does so by examining these factors relative to both local and national department stores in the context of Thailand. Findings also offer managerial insights for department stores. That is, the findings of this study can be employed by practitioners of both national and local department stores in Thailand in order to shape effective marketing communication strategies and ultimately develop store loyalty among Thai consumers.

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APPENDIX A

FOCUS GROUP SCHEDULE

1. Between these two types of department stores, where do you shop for most of your products and services?

2. What prompts you to decide to shop at a particular department store?

3. Between these two types of department stores, where do you enjoy shopping the most?

4. How do you feel when you shop at either department store?

5. What do you like/ dislike about either department store?

6. Between these two types of department stores, where do you find it most easy to shop?

7. If you have limited budget, where would you go to shop?

8. Is there anything else that you would like to discuss that we did not talk about?

1. ระหว่างห้างทั้งสอง ห้างใดที่คุณไปซื้อสินค้าและใช้บริการบ่อยกว่า?

2. เพราะเหตุใดคุณถึงไปซื้อของที่ห้างทั้งสอง?

3. ระหว่างสองห้างนี้ ห้างใดที่คุณมีความสุขในการซื้อของมากกว่ากัน? เพราะเหตุใด?

4. คุณรู้สึกอย่างไรเมื่อไปซื้อของที่ห้างทั้งสอง?

5. สิ่งใดบ้างที่คุณชอบ และ ไม่ชอบในห้างทั้งสอง?

6. ห้างใดที่คุณรู้สึกสะดวกในการซื้อของ?

7. หากคุณมีเงินจำกัด คุณจะเลือกไปซื้อของที่ห้างใด?

8. มีอะไรอื่นอีกหรือไม่ที่คุณอยากจะพูดถึง ที่เรายังไม่ได้พูดถึงในการสัมภาษณ์ครั้งนี้?

APPENDIX B

**APPROVAL OF INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD (IRB) FOR THE USE OF
HUMAN PARTICIPANTS IN RESEARCH FOR FOCUS GROUPS**

THE UNIVERSITY of NORTH CAROLINA
GREENSBORO

To: Nancy Hodges
Consumer, Apparel, and Retail Studies

From: UNCG IRB

Date: 5/18/2012

RE: Notice of IRB Exemption
Exemption Category: 2.Survey, interview, public observation
Study #: 12-0182

Study Title: Investigating the shopping motivations of Thai consumers

This submission has been reviewed by the above IRB and was determined to be exempt from further review according to the regulatory category cited above under 45 CFR 46.101(b).

Study Description:

This research will explore Thai consumers' shopping motivations and experiences.

Investigator's Responsibilities

Please be aware that any changes to your protocol must be reviewed by the IRB prior to being implemented. The IRB will maintain records for this study for three years from the date of the original determination of exempt status.

CC:
Kittichai Watchravesringkan
Chawanuan Kananukul

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UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA AT GREENSBORO

CONSENT TO ACT AS A HUMAN PARTICIPANT: LONG FORM

Project Title: Investigating the shopping motivations of Thai consumers

Project Director: Dr Nancy Hodges

Participant's Name: _____

What is the study about?
This is a research project. The goal of this research project is to investigate Thai consumers' shopping motivations and decision-making.

Why are you asking me?
You are being asked to participate in this study because you are at least 18 years and live in the Chonburi area. Your shopping motivations and experiences with shopping decision-making will provide unique insight into the topic.

What will you ask me to do if I agree to be in the study?
You will be asked to be interviewed in a focus group regarding your shopping motivations. On agreement to be interviewed within a group, the interview will last approximately 1-2 hours. I will also ask you to be available for a review of your interview transcript once complete. This review will take approximately 1 to 2 hours.

Is there any audio/video recording?
Digital audio recording will be used to ensure reliability of data collected. Because your voice will be potentially identifiable by anyone who hears the tape, confidentiality for things you say on the tape cannot be guaranteed, although the researcher will try to limit access to the tape as described below.

What are the dangers to me?
The Institutional Review Board at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro has determined that participation in this study poses minimal risk to participants. As stated above, there is a slight risk of a breach of confidentiality. Measures that will be implemented to minimize this risk are described in the confidentiality section below.

If you have any concerns about your rights or how you are being treated, please contact Eric Allen in the Office of Research and Compliance at UNCG at 01-336-256-1482. Questions, concerns or complaints about this project or benefits or risks associated with being in this study can be answered by Dr. Nancy Hodges, who may be contacted at 01-336-256-0291 or njnelson@uncg.edu, or Chawamuan Kananukul at 01-336-457-0948 or c_kananu@uncg.edu.

Are there any benefits to me for taking part in this research study?
There are no direct benefits to participants of this study.

Are there any benefits to society as a result of me taking part in this research?
Your participation will help to provide a better understanding of Thai consumers' shopping motivations.

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Will I get paid for being in the study? Will it cost me anything?
There are no costs to you or payments made for participating in this study.

How will you keep my information confidential?
Consent forms will be stored in a locked file cabinet in the Principal Investigator's campus office, audio files will be password protected. All information obtained in this study is strictly confidential unless disclosure is required by law. Consent forms will be kept for three years after the close of the study and destroyed by shredding. Audio files will be kept password protected on the student researcher's home computer for a minimum of five to a maximum of seven years upon completion of the study, after which point the files will be erased. Data will be transported from Thailand to the US safely and securely via the password protected laptop computer, and both the laptop and consent forms will be carried by the Student Researcher throughout travel.

What if I want to leave the study?
You have the right to refuse to participate or to withdraw at any time, without penalty. If you do withdraw, it will not affect you in any way. If you choose to withdraw, you may request that any of your data which has been collected be destroyed unless it is in a de-identifiable state.

What about new information/changes in the study?
If significant new information relating to the study becomes available which may relate to your willingness to continue to participate, this information will be provided to you.

Voluntary Consent by Participant:
By signing this consent form you are agreeing that you read, or it has been read to you, and you fully understand the contents of this document and are openly willing consent to take part in this study. All of your questions concerning this study have been answered. By signing this form, you are agreeing that you are 18 years of age or older and are agreeing to participate, or have the individual specified above as a participant participate, in this focus group described to you by <u>Chawanuan Kananukul</u>.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

เอกสารยินยอมให้สัมภาษณ์

หัวข้อ: การศึกษาแรงจูงใจในการซื้อสินค้าของผู้บริโภคชาวไทย

หัวหน้าโครงการ: ดร. แนนซี่ ฮอดเจส (Dr. Nancy Hodges)

ผู้ให้สัมภาษณ์: _____

การศึกษาครั้งนี้เกี่ยวข้องกับอะไร

การศึกษานี้เป็นโครงการวิจัยที่มีวัตถุประสงค์ในการศึกษาแรงจูงใจในการซื้อสินค้าของผู้บริโภคชาวไทย

เพราะเหตุใดคุณจึงสัมภาษณ์ผม/ ดิฉัน

เนื่องจากคุณเป็นผู้ที่มีอายุตั้งแต่ 18 ปีขึ้นไป และเคยซื้อของที่ห้างเซ็นทรัลและห้างแหลมทอง

ความเห็นของคุณที่มีต่อการซื้อของที่ห้างสรรพสินค้าถือเป็นข้อมูลสำคัญ

ที่ทำให้เกิดความเข้าใจในแรงจูงใจในการซื้อของของผู้บริโภคชาวไทย

คุณต้องการให้ผม/ ดิฉัน ทำอะไรบ้างหากผม/ ดิฉัน ตกลงให้สัมภาษณ์

คุณจะต้องให้ข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับแรงจูงในการซื้อของที่ห้างสรรพสินค้าในการสัมภาษณ์แบบกลุ่ม

ซึ่งการสัมภาษณ์จะใช้เวลาประมาณ 1-2 ชั่วโมง นอกจากนี้คุณอาจจะต้องใช้เวลาอีกประมาณ 1-2

ชั่วโมงในการตรวจทานบทสัมภาษณ์

การสัมภาษณ์ครั้งนี้มีการบันทึกภาพ/ เสียงหรือไม่

จะมีการใช้เครื่องบันทึกเสียงเพื่อความถูกต้องของข้อมูล เนื่องจากผู้ที่ฟังเทปนี้อาจจำเสียงของคุณได้

ฉะนั้นผู้วิจัยไม่สามารถรับรองได้ว่าสิ่งที่คุณให้สัมภาษณ์จะเป็นความลับ

อย่างไรก็ตามผู้วิจัยพยายามจำกัดผู้ฟังดังคำอธิบายด้านล่าง

ความเสี่ยงใดบ้างที่อาจเกิดขึ้นกับผม/ ดิฉัน

คณะกรรมการ สถาบันพิจารณางานวิจัย มหาวิทยาลัยนอร์ทแคโรไลนา เมืองกรีนส์โบโร

กำหนดให้การเข้าร่วมการศึกษานี้มีความเสี่ยงต่อผู้ให้สัมภาษณ์น้อยที่สุด ดังได้กล่าวไว้ข้างต้นว่า

ความเสี่ยงที่อาจเกิดขึ้นเกี่ยวข้องกับการรักษาความลับของข้อมูล อย่างไรก็ตามมาตรการต่างๆ
ที่มีจะนำไปสู่การปฏิบัติเพื่อให้เกิดความเสี่ยงน้อยที่สุด ดังจะกล่าวถึงต่อไป

หากท่านมีความกังวลเกี่ยวกับสิทธิ์หรือการที่ท่านจะถูกปฏิบัติในการสัมภาษณ์ กรุณาติดต่อ คุณอิริค อัลเลน (Eric Allen)
สำนักงานวิจัยและความร่วมมือ มหาวิทยาลัยนอร์ทแคโรไลนา เบอร์โทร 01-336-256-1482 โดยทุกคำถาม
ข้อกังวลหรือการร้องทุกข์ ร่วมทั้งความเสี่ยงหรือผลประโยชน์ที่เกี่ยวกับการศึกษาครั้งนี้ ดร.แนนซี่ ฮอดเจส (Dr. Nancy
Hodges) จะเป็นผู้ตอบข้อสงสัย คุณสามารถติดต่อ ดร. แนนซี่ ฮอดเจส ที่ เบอร์โทร 01-336-256-0291 หรือ
njnelson@uncg.edu หรือ ชวนวล คณานุกูล เบอร์โทร 01-336-457-0948 หรือ c_kananu@uncg.edu

การให้สัมภาษณ์ครั้งนี้ผม/ ดิฉัน จะได้รับผลประโยชน์ใดๆ หรือไม่
ไม่มีผลประโยชน์ใดๆ สำหรับผู้ให้สัมภาษณ์

การให้สัมภาษณ์ของผม/ ดิฉัน จะก่อให้เกิดประโยชน์อย่างไรบ้างต่อสังคม
การให้สัมภาษณ์ของคุณจะก่อให้เกิดความเข้าใจในแรงจูงใจในการซื้อสินค้าของผู้บริโภค
นอกจากนี้ข้อมูลที่ได้ยังสามารถช่วยนักการตลาดในการวางแผนการสื่อสารการตลาดอีกด้วย

ผม/ ดิฉัน จะได้รับค่าตอบแทน หรือเสียค่าใช้จ่ายใดๆ หรือไม่
ผู้ให้สัมภาษณ์จะไม่ได้รับค่าตอบแทนหรือเสียค่าใช้จ่ายใดๆ ทั้งสิ้น

คุณจะเก็บข้อมูลของผม/ ดิฉัน เป็นความลับโดยวิธีใด
แบบฟอร์มการยินยอมให้สัมภาษณ์จะถูกเก็บรักษาไว้ในตู้เก็บเอกสารที่สำนักงานของผู้รับมอบอำนาจ
ไฟล์เสียงการให้สัมภาษณ์จะถูกล็อกด้วยรหัส
ข้อมูลทุกชิ้นที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการวิจัยในครั้งนี้จะถูกเก็บเป็นความลับและไม่มีการเปิดเผยนอกจากจะมีการร้องขอทางกฎหมาย
แบบฟอร์มการยินยอมให้สัมภาษณ์จะถูกเก็บไว้เป็นเวลา 3 ปีนับจากวันที่การวิจัยนี้เสร็จสิ้นลง
และจะถูกทำลายโดยเครื่องทำลายเอกสาร ไฟล์เสียงจะมีการเข้ารหัสป้องกันในเครื่องคอมพิวเตอร์ที่บ้านของผู้วิจัยอย่างน้อย 5
ปี หรือไม่เกิน 7 ปี ขึ้นอยู่กับระยะเวลาที่การศึกษาจะเสร็จสิ้น หลังจากนั้นไฟล์เสียงจะถูกลบทิ้ง

จะเกิดอะไรขึ้นหากผม/ ดิฉันต้องการหยุดการให้สัมภาษณ์
คุณมีสิทธิ์ที่จะปฏิเสธหรือถอนตัวจากการสัมภาษณ์ได้ตลอดเวลาที่ต้องการ โดยปราศจากการลงโทษหรือผลกระทบใดๆ
และคุณสามารถร้องขอให้ทำลายข้อมูลของคุณที่ได้ให้สัมภาษณ์ไปก่อนหน้าเว้นแต่ข้อมูลนั้นไม่มีการระบุผู้ให้สัมภาษณ์

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ในกรณีที่เกิดการเปลี่ยนแปลงหรือมีข้อมูลใหม่ ๆ ในการศึกษาครั้งนี้

หากมีข้อมูลสำคัญที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการศึกษาครั้งนี้ที่อาจส่งผลต่อการตัดสินใจในการให้สัมภาษณ์ คุณจะได้รับข้อมูลเหล่านั้น

การเข้าร่วมด้วยความสมัครใจ:

การเซ็นชื่อในแบบฟอร์มฉบับนี้แสดงว่าคุณยอมรับว่าคุณอ่านหรือได้รับการอ่านให้ฟัง

และคุณมีความเข้าใจเป็นอย่างดีในเนื้อหาของเอกสารฉบับนี้ และเต็มใจที่จะเข้าร่วมเป็นส่วนหนึ่งในการศึกษาครั้งนี้

คุณได้รับคำตอบในทุกๆ ประเด็นที่คุณสงสัย การเซ็นชื่อในแบบฟอร์มนี้แสดงว่าคุณมีอายุ 18 ปีบริบูรณ์หรือมากกว่า

และคุณตกลงที่จะให้สัมภาษณ์แบบกลุ่ม หรือได้รับการระบุเป็นการส่วนตัวในฐานะผู้ให้สัมภาษณ์โดย ชวนวล คณานุกูล

ลายเซ็น: _____ วันที่: _____

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APPENDIX C

SURVEY QUESTIONAIRE

Dear Sir/Madam,

We are a research team from the department of Consumer Apparel Retail Studies at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, USA. We are conducting research to better understand consumer shopping behavior at Department Stores. Thus, your input is important. You are invited to voluntarily participate in this study because you are at least 18 years old and have visited either Laemtong or Central Department store. Please take about 10 minutes to complete this survey. There is no right or wrong answer to the questions. You are allowed to work at your own pace. You may stop filling out this survey at any time you feel uncomfortable. There is no risk and no benefit to you by participating in this study.

Thank you in advance for your participation. If you have any questions, please feel free to ask the researchers. We would be glad to assist you. In addition, if you have any questions concerning your rights as a research subject, you may contact the Office of Research and Compliance at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro at 1-336-256-1482.

Sincerely,

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Ph.D. Student
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Section 1: Shopping Motivations

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements that best describes your motivation to shop at a department store.

		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1	I saved money when I shop at (store).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I made an inexpensive purchase.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I got my purchase done cheaper than if I had made it elsewhere.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I was able to get everything I needed at one stop.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I was able to shop without disruptive queuing or other delays.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I was able to make my purchase conveniently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I enjoyed the shopping trip itself, not just because I was able to get my purchase done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I was having fun with this shopping trip.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	In my opinion, shopping around was a pleasant way to spend leisure time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I felt adventurous and wanted to visit different departments in order to find interesting products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	I was looking for insights and new ideas to buy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	I wanted to explore, touch, and/or try different products while shopping.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Patronizing (store) fits the impression that I want to give to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	I am eager to tell my friends/acquaintances about this shopping trip.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	I feel that I belong to the customer segment of (store).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	I found products carried by this store consistent with my style.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
17	I felt like a smart shopper because I made successful purchases.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	This shopping trip gave me something that is personally important or pleasing to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 2: In-Store Marketing Communication
Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements about the store environment.

		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1	The color scheme in (store) was pleasing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	The colors used in (store) appeared to be currently fashionable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	The physical facilities in (store) were attractive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	The merchandise in (store) appeared organized.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	It was easy to move about in (store).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	It was easy to locate products/ merchandise in (store).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	(Store) has a wide variety of products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	(Store) has many brands in most of the product categories.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	(Store) has different price ranges in different products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	There were enough employees in (store) to service customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	The employees were well dressed and appeared neat.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	The employees seemed like they would be friendly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	The employees seemed like they would be helpful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	The employees seemed like they would be knowledgeable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
15	(Store) seemed very crowded to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	(Store) was a little too busy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	There were a lot of shoppers in (store).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	(Store) provided an opportunity for me to communicate with others having similar interests.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	(Store) provided a meeting place where I may gather with my peers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	The music in (store) made my shopping pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	The music in (store) bothered me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	The music in (store) was appropriate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	(Store) is well-lit.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	(Store) is correctly-lit (neither too bright nor dull).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	Lighting in (store) is pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	(Store) had a pleasant odor/scent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	(Store) had an appropriate odor/scent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	(Store) had a terrible odor/scent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 3: Store Choice Criteria

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements about the store environment.

		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1	Products purchased from (store) are high in quality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	The workmanship of products purchased in (store) is high.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	The price shown for the product in (store) is fair.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
4	The product in (store) is a good value for money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	At the price shown, the product in (store) is economical.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I was treated well in (store).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Employees of (store) gave me personal attention.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	The (store)'s employees are willing to help customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	(Store) offered high-quality service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Employees of (store) are not too busy to respond to my requests promptly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 4: Overall Satisfaction and Loyalty

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements about your satisfaction and purchases.

		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1	I am satisfied with the decision to visit (store).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I am happy with my visit.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I am pleased with my shopping trip.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I say positive things about (store) to other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I recommend (store) to someone who seeks advice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I encourage others to shop at (store).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I will shop at (store) in the near future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I consider myself a regular customer of (store).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 5: General and Demographic Information

Please √ in front of your answer.

1. How often did you visit (store) in the past 3 months?

        _____Never   _____1-3 times

        _____4-6 times   _____7-9 tmes

        _____10-12 times   _____More than 12 times

2. How much did you spend in (store) in the past 3 months?

        _____0 B.   _____1-300 B.

        _____301-600 B.   _____601-900 B.

        _____901-1,200 B.   _____> 1,200 B.

3. Out of every 1,000 Baht you spend at department stores, how many Baht do you spend at (store)?

        _____0 B.   _____1-300 B.

        _____301-400 B.   _____401-500 B.

        _____501-600 B.   _____> 600 B.

4. Out of every 10 purchases you make at department stores, how many purchases are made at (store)?

        _____0 time   _____1-2 times

        _____3-4 times   _____5-6 times

        _____7-8 times   _____> 8 times

5. Gender: _____Male   _____Female

6. Age: _____18-23   _____24-30

        _____31-40   _____41-50

        _____51-60   _____61 up

7. Marital status: _____Single/ never married   _____Married

        _____Widowed   _____Divorced

8. Individual monthly income:

        _____< 10,000 Baht   _____10,001-20,000 Baht

        _____20,001-30,000 Baht   _____30,001-50,000 Baht

        _____50,001-70,000 Baht   _____> 70,000 Baht

9. Career: _____Work for the government

                             _____Work for private company

                             _____Self-employed

                             _____Other, please specify: _____

10. Highest education obtained:

                             _____Less than high school

                             _____Vocational school

                             _____Associate degree

                             _____Undergraduate degree

                             _____Graduate degree (Master's or Ph.D)

11. The province you are currently residing within:

                             _____Conburi/ Pattaya

                             _____Others, please specify: _____

Thank you very much for your participation.

THE UNIVERSITY *of* NORTH CAROLINA
GREENSBORO

สวัสดีค่ะ/ครับ

พวกเราเป็นคณะวิจัยจากภาควิชา Consumer Apparel and Retail Studies มหาวิทยาลัยนอร์ทแคโรไลนา เมืองกรีนส์โบโร่ ประเทศสหรัฐอเมริกา กำลังทำวิจัยเกี่ยวกับพฤติกรรมการซื้อสินค้าที่ห้างสรรพสินค้าของผู้บริโภคชาวไทย ดังนั้นความร่วมมือจากคุณจึงเป็นสิ่งสำคัญ

คุณได้รับเชิญให้เข้าร่วมการวิจัยครั้งนี้เนื่องจากคุณเป็นผู้ที่มีอายุตั้งแต่ 18 ปีขึ้นไปและเคยซื้อของ ณ ห้างเซ็นทรัล หรือ ห้างแหลมทองบางแสน กรุณาใช้เวลาตอบแบบสอบถามประมาณ 10 นาที การตอบแบบสอบถามไม่มีคำตอบที่ถูกหรือผิด คุณสามารถหยุดตอบแบบสอบถามได้ทุกเวลาที่ต้องการ คุณจะไม่ได้รับความเสี่ยงหรือผลประโยชน์ใดๆ ทั้งสิ้นในการตอบแบบสอบถามนี้

ขอขอบคุณในความร่วมมือของคุณมา ณ โอกาสนี้ หากคุณมีคำถามหรือข้อสงสัยใดๆ โปรดสอบถามนักวิจัย เรายินดีเป็นอย่างยิ่งในการตอบคำถาม หรือหากคุณมีข้อสงสัยเกี่ยวกับสิทธิ์ของคุณในการเข้าร่วมการวิจัย คุณสามารถติดต่อไปยัง Office of Research and Compliance มหาวิทยาลัยนอร์ทแคโรไลนา เมืองกรีนส์โบโร่ หรือโทร 1-336-256-1482.

ด้วยความนับถือ

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ส่วนที่ 1: เหตุผลในการมาเดินห้างสรรพสินค้า

กรุณาเลือกคำตอบที่ตรงกับตัวคุณมากที่สุด

		ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง					เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	
1	ฉันประหยัดเงินเมื่อมาซื้อของที่ห้างนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	ที่นี่ฉันซื้อของได้ไม่แพง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	ฉันซื้อของที่ห้างนี้ได้ถูกกว่าที่อื่นๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	มาที่ห้างนี้ที่เดียว ฉันสามารถซื้อของได้ครบตามที่ต้องการ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	ที่ห้างนี้ฉันซื้อของได้โดยไม่ต้องต่อคิวยาวไม่ถูกรบกวนให้เสียเวลา	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	ที่ห้างนี้ฉันสามารถซื้อของได้อย่างสะดวก	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	ฉันพอใจในการมาเดินห้าง ไม่ใช่เพราะแค่ซื้อของได้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	ฉันสนุกกับการซื้อของที่นี่	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	ฉันว่าการมาเดินห้างเป็นการใช้เวลาว่างที่น่าพอใจ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	ฉันรู้สึกตื่นเต้นและต้องการไปช้อปปิ้งที่ห้างอื่นๆ เพื่อหาสินค้าที่น่าสนใจ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	ฉันมักจะมองหาไอเดียใหม่ๆ เพื่อที่จะได้ซื้อ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	ระหว่างเดินห้างฉันต้องการดูจับต้องและลองสินค้าต่างๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	การมาเดินห้างนี้เข้ากันได้ดีกับสิ่งที่ฉันอยากให้คนอื่นจำเกี่ยวกับตัวฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	ฉันกระตือรือร้นในการบอกเพื่อนและคนที่รู้จักเกี่ยวกับการมาห้างครั้งนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	ฉันว่าฉันเหมาะกับการเป็นลูกค้าที่ห้างนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	สินค้าที่ห้างนี้สอดคล้องกับสไตล์ของฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	ฉันว่าฉันฉลาด เพราะฉันประสบความสำเร็จในการซื้อของ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	การมาเดินห้างครั้งนี้ให้บางสิ่งที่สำคัญทำให้ฉันพอใจ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ส่วนที่ 2: บรรยากาศในห้าง

		ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง					เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	
1	ฉันชอบบรรยากาศภายในห้างนี้โดยเฉพาะสีที่ใช้ตกแต่ง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	สีที่ใช้ตกแต่งภายในอาคาร ทำให้ห้างนี้ดูทันสมัย	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	สิ่งอำนวยความสะดวกต่างๆ ในห้างนี้ดูน่าดึงดูด	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	สินค้าที่ขายในห้างนี้ถูกจัดอย่างเป็นระเบียบ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	สำหรับฉันการเดินในห้างนี้ค่อนข้างง่าย	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		ไม่เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง						เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง
6	สำหรับฉัน มันเป็นเรื่องง่ายในการหาสินค้าที่ห้างนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	ห้างนี้ขายสินค้าที่หลากหลาย	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	ที่ห้างนี้ สินค้าส่วนใหญ่จะมีหลายยี่ห้อให้เลือก	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	ของที่ขายในห้างนี้มีราคาสูง-ต่ำต่างกันไปตามประเภทของสินค้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	ห้างนี้มีพนักงานขายให้บริการลูกค้าอย่างเพียงพอ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	ฉันว่าพนักงานขายของที่ห้างนี้แต่งกายดูดี	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	พนักงานขายของที่ห้างนี้ดูเป็นมิตร	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	พนักงานขายของที่ห้างนี้ให้ความช่วยเหลือเป็นอย่างดี	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	ฉันรู้สึกว่าพนักงานขายของที่ห้างนี้ดูมีความรู้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	ฉันว่าในห้างนี้ค่อนข้างจะแออัด	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	ฉันว่าในห้างนี้ค่อนข้างจะดูยุ่งเหยิง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	มีลูกค้าจำนวนมากในห้างนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	ห้างนี้ทำให้ฉันได้มีโอกาสพูดคุยกับคนอื่นที่มีความสนใจเหมือนกัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	ห้างนี้มีพื้นที่ให้ฉันได้พบปะเพื่อนๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	เพลงที่เปิดในห้างนี้ ทำให้ฉันเดินห้างอย่างเพลิดเพลิน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	เพลงที่เปิดในห้างนี้ทำให้ฉันรำคาญ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	ฉันว่าห้างนี้เลือกเปิดเพลงได้ดี	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	ฉันรู้สึกว่าความสว่างภายในห้างนี้ค่อนข้างดี	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	ภายในห้างไม่มืดหรือสว่างจนเกินไป	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	ฉันพอใจกับความสว่างภายในห้างนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	ฉันค่อนข้างพอใจกับกลิ่นที่หอมสดชื่นภายในห้างนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	ฉันว่าภายในห้างมีกลิ่นที่เหมาะกับบรรยากาศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	ฉันรู้สึกว่าภายในห้างมีกลิ่นที่แย่มาก	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ส่วนที่ 3: การรับรู้เกี่ยวกับสินค้าและบริการของห้างนี้

		ไม่เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง						เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง
1	ฉันคิดว่าสินค้าที่ซื้อจากห้างนี้มีคุณภาพสูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	ฉันว่าสินค้าในห้างนี้ใช้ฝีมือการผลิตที่สูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	ราคาสินค้าของห้างนี้เป็นราคาที่ยุติธรรม	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	ฉันว่าซื้อสินค้าที่ห้างนี้ค่อนข้างคุ้มค่าเมื่อเทียบกับราคา	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	สินค้าที่ขายที่ห้างนี้ เป็นสินค้าราคาประหยัด	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		ไม่เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง						เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง
6	ฉันได้รับการบริการที่ดีที่ห้างนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	พนักงานขายในห้างนี้สนใจในการให้บริการแก่ฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	ฉันรู้สึกว่าพนักงานขายในห้างนี้อยากที่จะบริการลูกค้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	ฉันว่าการให้บริการลูกค้าของห้างนี้มีคุณภาพสูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	พนักงานขายที่ห้างนี้ไม่ได้ยุ่งมากจนไม่สามารถให้บริการฉันได้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ส่วนที่ 4: ความพึงพอใจในห้างนี้

		ไม่เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง						เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง
1	ฉันดีใจที่ตัดสินใจมาที่ห้างนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	ฉันรู้สึกดีที่แวะเข้ามาที่ห้างนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	ฉันพอใจที่ได้มาซื้อของที่ห้างนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	ฉันบอกคนอื่นๆ เกี่ยวกับสิ่งดีๆ ของห้างนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	เมื่อมีใครขอให้ฉันแนะนำที่สำหรับซื้อของ ฉันแนะนำให้เขามาห้างนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	ฉันชักชวนให้ใครๆ มาเดินที่ห้างนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	อีกไม่นาน ฉันจะมาที่ห้างนี้อีก	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	ฉันเป็นลูกค้าประจำของห้างนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ส่วนที่ 5: กรุณาทำเครื่องหมาย √ หน้าคำตอบที่ต้องการ

1. สามเดือนที่ผ่านมา ท่านมาที่ห้างนี้ประมาณกี่ครั้ง?
   _____ไม่ได้มาเลย   _____1-3 ครั้ง   _____4-6 ครั้ง
   _____7-9 ครั้ง   _____10-12 ครั้ง   _____มากกว่า 12 ครั้ง

2. สามเดือนที่ผ่านมาท่านใช้จ่ายเงินที่ห้างนี้ประมาณกี่บาท
   _____ไม่ได้ใช้เงินเลย   _____1-300 บ.   _____301-600 บ.
   _____601-900 บ.   _____901-1,200 บ.   _____มากกว่า 1,200 บ.

3. จาก 1,000 บ.ที่ท่านใช้ซื้อของ ท่านใช้เงินที่ห้างนี้ประมาณกี่บาท
   _____0 บ.   _____1-300 บ.   _____301-400 บ.
   _____401-500 บ.   _____501-600 บ.   _____มากกว่า 600 บ.

4. จาก 10 ครั้งที่ท่านซื้อของ ท่านมาซื้อของที่ห้างนี้ประมาณกี่ครั้ง
   _____0 ครั้ง   _____1-2 ครั้ง   _____3-4 ครั้ง
   _____5-6 ครั้ง   _____7-8 ครั้ง   _____มากกว่า 8 ครั้ง

5. เพศ: _____ชาย   _____หญิง

6. อายุ:   _____18-23
                  _____24-30
                  _____31-40
                  _____41-50
                  _____51-60
                  _____61 ปีขึ้นไป

7. สถานภาพ: _____โสด/ ไม่เคยแต่งงาน   _____แต่งงานแล้ว
                  _____เป็นหม้าย   _____หย่าร้าง

8. รายได้ส่วนตัวต่อเดือน: _____น้อยกว่า 10,000 บ.
                          _____10,001-20,000 บ.
                          _____20,001-30,000 บ.
                          _____30,001-50,000 บ.
                          _____50,001-70,000 บ.
                          _____มากกว่า 70,000 บ.

9. อาชีพ: _____รับราชการ   _____ทำงานบริษัทเอกชน
                  _____ทำธุรกิจส่วนตัว   _____อื่นๆ โปรดระบุ _____

10. วุฒิการศึกษาสูงสุดที่ได้รับ:
                  _____น้อยกว่ามัธยมปลาย
                  _____มัธยมปลาย/ อาชีวศึกษา
                  _____อนุปริญญา
                  _____ปริญญาตรี
                  _____ปริญญาโท/ ปริญญาเอก

11. ที่อยู่ปัจจุบัน: _____ชลบุรี หรือ พัทยา
                  _____อื่นๆ โปรดระบุ: _____

ขอบคุณค่ะ/ครับ

APPENDIX D

APPROVAL OF INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD (IRB) FOR THE USE OF HUMAN PARTICIPANTS IN RESEARCH FOR FINAL SURVEY

OFFICE OF RESEARCH INTEGRITY
2718 Beverly Cooper Moore and Irene Mitchell Moore
Humanities and Research Administration Bldg.
PO Box 26170
Greensboro, NC 27402-6170
336.256.1482
Web site: integrity.uncg.edu
Federalwide Assurance (FWA) #216

THE UNIVERSITY of NORTH CAROLINA
GREENSBORO

To: Chawanuan Kananukul
Cons, Apparel, and Ret Stds

From: UNCG IRB

Date: 4/29/2013

RE: Notice of IRB Exemption
Exemption Category: 2.Survey, interview, public observation
Study #: 13-0131
Study Title: The Impact of Consumer -and Retailer-Related Factors on Marketing Outcome: a
Comparison of Local versus National Department Stores in Thailand

This submission has been reviewed by the IRB and was determined to be exempt from further
review according to the regulatory category cited above under 45 CFR 46.101(b).

Study Description:

This study investigate what factors are important to Thai consumers when deciding between
shopping at a local department store versus national department store. Specifically, it examines the
consumer shopping values that influence perceptions of retailer-related factors within the context of
both local and national Thai department stores. This study also investigates the relative efficacies of
retailer-related factors in predicting consumers' department store patronage behaviors (e.g.,
satisfaction, loyalty) within the two contexts (local and national Thai department stores).

Investigator's Responsibilities

Please be aware that any changes to your protocol must be reviewed by the IRB prior to being
implemented. Please utilize the most recent and approved version of your consent form/information
sheet when enrolling participants. The IRB will maintain records for this study for three years from
the date of the original determination of exempt status.

CC:
Nancy Hodges, Cons, Apparel, and Ret Stds
Kittichai Watchravesringkan, Cons, Apparel, and Ret Stds

Recruitment script:

Hello. We are a research team from the department of Consumer Apparel Retail Studies at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, USA. We are conducting research to better understand consumer shopping behavior at Department Stores.

You are invited to voluntarily participate in this study because you are at least 18 years old and have visited either Laemtong or Central Department store.

If you are agree to participate in this study, please take about 10 minutes to complete this survey. There is no right or wrong answer to the questions. You are allowed to work at your own pace. You may stop filling out this survey at any time you feel uncomfortable.

There is no anticipated risk and no benefit to you by participating in this study.

If you have any questions, please feel free to ask. We would be glad to assist you. Thank you.

APPROVED IRB

APR 2 9 2013

Dear Sir/Madam,

We are a research team from the department of Consumer Apparel Retail Studies at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, USA. We are conducting research to better understand consumer shopping behavior at Department Stores. Thus, your input is important. You are invited to voluntarily participate in this study because you are at least 18 years who have visited either Laemtong or Central Department store. Please take about 10 minutes to complete this survey. There is no right or wrong answer to the questions. You are allowed to work at your own pace. You may stop filling out this survey at any time you feel uncomfortable. There is no risk and no benefit to you by participating in this study.

Thank you in advance for your participation. If you have any questions, please feel free to ask the researchers. We would be glad to assist you. In addition, if you have any questions concerning your rights as a research subject, you may contact the Office of Research and Compliance at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro at 1-336-256-1482.

Sincerely,

Ms. Chawanuan Kananukul
Ph.D. Student
Consumer, Apparel, and Retail Studies
University of North Carolina, Greensboro
Tel: 1-336-457-0948
Email: c_kananu@uncg.edu

Dr. Nancy Hodges
Professor
Consumer, Apparel, and Retail Studies
University of North Carolina at Greensboro
Tel: 1-336-334-5250
Email: njnelson@uncg.edu

Dr. Kittichai (Tu) Watchravesringkan
Associate Professor
Consumer, Apparel, and Retail Studies
University of North Carolina, Greensboro
Tel: 1-336-334-5250
Email: k_watchr@uncg.edu

APPROVED IRB

APR 2 9 2013

สวัสดีค่ะ/ครับ

     พวกเราคณะวิจัยจากภาควิชา Consumer Apparel and Retail Studies มหาวิทยาลัยนอร์ทแคโรไลน่า เมือง Greensboro ประเทศสหรัฐอเมริกา กำลังทำวิจัยเกี่ยวกับพฤติกรรมการซื้อสินค้าที่ห้างสรรพสินค้าของคนไทย ซึ่งความร่วมมือจากคุณมีความสำคัญต่อการวิจัยครั้งนี้ คุณได้รับเชิญให้เข้าร่วมการวิจัยเนื่องจากคุณมีอายุ 18 ปีขึ้นไป และเคยเดินห้างเซ็นทรัล ชลบุรี หรือ ห้างแหลมทอง บางแสน หากคุณตกลงเข้าร่วมเป็นส่วนหนึ่งในการวิจัย กรุณาใช้เวลาตอบแบบสอบถามประมาณ 10 นาที โดยการตอบแบบสอบถามจะไม่มีคำตอบที่ถูกหรือผิด นอกจากนี้คุณสามารถหยุดตอบแบบสอบถามได้ทุกเวลาที่ต้องการ โดยการตอบแบบสอบถามนี้คุณจะไม่ได้รับความเสี่ยงหรือผลประโยชน์ใดๆ ทั้งสิ้น

     ขอขอบคุณในความร่วมมือของคุณมา ณ โอกาสนี้ หากคุณมีคำถามหรือข้อสงสัยใดๆ โปรดสอบถามนักวิจัย หรือหากคุณมีความกังวลเกี่ยวกับสิทธิ์หรือการถูกปฏิบัติในการตอบแบบสอบถาม กรุณาติดต่อ สำนักงานวิจัยและความร่วมมือ (Office of Research and Compliance) มหาวิทยาลัยนอร์ทแคโรไลนา เบอร์โทร 336-256-1482

ด้วยความนับถือ

ชวนวล คณานุกูล
นักศึกษาปริญญาเอก
Consumer, Apparel, and Retail Studies
มหาวิทยาลัยนอร์ท แคโรไรน่า เมือง Greensboro
โทร: 1-336-457-0948
Email: c_kananu@uncg.edu

ดร.แนนซี่ ฮอดเจส	ดร.กิตติชัย วัชระเวชศรีงคาน
ศาสตราจารย์	รองศาสตราจารย์
Consumer, Apparel, and Retail Studies	Consumer, Apparel, and Retail Studies
มหาวิทยาลัยนอร์ท แคโรไรน่า เมือง Greensboro	มหาวิทยาลัยนอร์ท แคโรไรน่า เมือง Greensboro
โทร: 1-336-334-5250	โทร: 1-336-334-5250
Email: njnelson@uncg.edu	Email: k_watchr@uncg.edu

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA AT GREENSBORO

Project Title: The Impact of Consumer -and Retailer-Related Factors on Marketing Outcome: a
Comparison of Local versus National Department Stores in Thailand

Project Director: Chawanuan Kananukul

Participant's Name: _____

What is the study about?

This research study aims to investigate what factors are important to Thai consumers when
deciding between shopping at a local versus national department store.

Why are you asking me?

You are being asked to participate in this study because you are at least 18 years who have
visited Laemtong and Central Department store.

What will you ask me to do if I agree to be in the study?

If you agree to participate, your participation will involve filling out a survey pertaining to your
shopping motivation, perception of in-store marketing communication, store choice criteria, and
shopping behavior. It will take 5-10 minutes to complete this survey. There are no right or wrong
answers to the questions. You are allowed to work at your own pace. You may choose not to
answer some or all of the questions. You may stop filling out this survey at any time.

Is there any audio/video recording?

No

What are the dangers to me?

There are no anticipated risks from participating in this research. The Institutional Review Board
at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, USA has determined that participation in this
study poses minimal risk to participants. If you have any concerns about your rights or how you
are being treated please contact the Office of Research Compliance at UNCG at 1-336-256-1482.
Questions about this project or benefits or risks associated with being in this study can be
answered by Chawanuan Kananukul by calling 1-336-457-0948 or sending an email at
c_kananu@uncg.edu and Dr.Kittichai (Tu) Watchravesringkan by calling 1-336-334-5250 or
email: k_watchr@uncg.edu.

Are there any benefits to me for taking part in this research study?

There are no direct benefits to participants in this study.

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Are there any benefits to society as a result of me taking part in this research?

This research benefits society by helping us to better understand how shopping motivations may affect consumers' perceived in-store marketing communication, store choice criteria, and their shopping behaviors. Thus, these results may aid store managers to effectively developing in-store marketing communication that address shopping motivations of their targets.

Will I get paid for being in the study? Will it cost me anything?

There are no costs to you or payments made for participating in this study.

How will you keep my information confidential?

Only principal investigator sand the student researcher will have access to information you provided. In order to maintain your confidentiality, neither your name nor address will be asked. Your answers will be kept confidential. Questionnaires will be assigned an id number so that all participants remain confidential. No link will be made between participant's names and their survey answers. Data will be kept for 3 years under the researchers' accounts that are protected with the usernames and passwords, after which all computer files will be deleted. All information obtained in this study is strictly confidential unless disclosure is required by law.

What about new information/changes in the study?

If significant new information relating to the study becomes available which may relate to your willingness to continue to participate, this information will be provided to you.

What if I want to leave the study?

You have the right to refuse to participate or to withdraw at any time, without penalty. If you do withdraw, it will not affect you in any way. If you choose to withdraw, you may request that any of your data which has been collected be destroyed unless it is in a de-identifiable state.

Voluntary Consent by Participant:

By continuing with the survey, you are agreeing that you read, or it has been read to you, and you fully understand the contents of this document and are openly willing consent to take part in this study. All of your questions concerning this study have been answered by Chawanuan Kananukul. By continuing with the survey, you are agreeing that you are 18 years of age or older and are agreeing to participate.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

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หัวข้อ: ศึกษาปัจจัยของผู้บริโภคและผู้ค้าปลีกที่ก่อให้เกิดผลลัพธ์ทางการตลาด:

เปรียบเทียบระหว่างห้างสรรพสินค้าท้องถิ่นกับห้างสรรพสินค้าระดับประเทศในประเทศไทย

หัวหน้าโครงการ: <u>ชวนวล คณานุกูล</u>

ผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม: _____

การศึกษาครั้งนี้เกี่ยวข้องกับอะไร

การศึกษาครั้งนี้มีขึ้นเพื่อศึกษาปัจจัยที่มีความสำคัญต่อผู้บริโภคในการตัดสินใจเลือกซื้อสินค้า ณ
ห้างสรรพสินค้าท้องถิ่นและห้างสรรพสินค้าระดับประเทศ

เพราะเหตุใดคุณจึงสัมภาษณ์ผม/ ดิฉัน

เนื่องจากคุณมีอายุตั้งแต่ 18 ปีขึ้นไป และเคยใช้บริการห้างเซ็นทรัล ชลบุรี และห้างแหลมทอง บางแสน

คุณต้องการให้ผม/ ดิฉัน ทำอะไรบ้างหากผม/ ดิฉันตอบตกลง

หากคุณตกลง คุณจะต้องตอบแบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับการแรงจูงใจในการเดินห้างสรรพสินค้า
การรับรู้เกี่ยวกับการสื่อสารการตลาดภายในห้าง การตัดสินใจเลือกห้างสรรพสินค้า
และพฤติกรรมการเดินห้างสรรพสินค้าของคุณ การตอบแบบสอบถามจะใช้เวลาประมาณ 10 -15 นาที
โดยจะไม่มีคำตอบที่ถูกหรือผิด คุณสามารถเลือกที่จะตอบหรือไม่ตอบคำถามข้อใดข้อหนึ่งหรือทุกข้อ
และสามารถที่จะหยุดตอบแบบสอบถามได้ทุกเวลา

การสัมภาษณ์ครั้งนี้มีการบันทึกภาพ/ เสียงหรือไม่

ไม่มี

ความเสี่ยงใดบ้างที่อาจเกิดขึ้นกับผม/ ดิฉัน

คณะกรรมการ สถาบันพิจารณางานวิจัย มหาวิทยาลัยนอร์ทแคโรไลนา เมืองกรีนส์โบโร
กำหนดให้การเข้าร่วมการศึกษานี้ไม่มีความเสี่ยงต่อผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม
หากคุณมีความกังวลเกี่ยวกับสิทธิ์หรือการถูกปฏิบัติในการตอบแบบสอบถาม กรุณาติดต่อ สำนักงานวิจัยและความร่วมมือ
มหาวิทยาลัยนอร์ทแคโรไลนา เบอร์โทร 336-256-1482 โดยทุกคำถาม ข้อกังวลหรือการร้องทุกข์
รวมทั้งความเสี่ยงหรือผลประโยชน์ที่เกี่ยวกับการศึกษาครั้งนี้ ชวนวล คณานุกูล จะเป็นผู้ตอบข้อสงสัย คุณสามารถติดต่อ
ชวนวล คณานุกูล ที่ เบอร์โทร 1-336-4570948 หรือ email: c_kananu@uncg.edu และ ดรกิตติชัย วัชรเวชศรีงคาน.
ที่เบอร์โทร 1-336-334-5250 หรือ email: k_watchr@uncg.edu.

การตอบแบบสอบถามครั้งนี้ผม/ ดิฉัน จะได้รับผลประโยชน์ใดๆ หรือไม่

ไม่มีผลประโยชน์ใดๆ สำหรับผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม

การตอบแบบสอบถามของผม/ ดิฉัน จะก่อให้เกิดประโยชน์อย่างไรบ้างต่อสังคม

การตอบแบบสอบถามจะเป็นประโยชน์ต่อสังคม
ในแง่ของการสร้างความเข้าใจเกี่ยวกับปัจจัยที่มีผลต่อการเดินห้างสรรพสินค้า
การรับรู้เกี่ยวกับการสื่อสารการตลาดภายในห้าง และพฤติกรรมของผู้บริโภค
โดยผลการวิจัยจะเป็นประโยชน์ต่อนักการตลาดในการวางแผนการสื่อสารการตลาดที่เหมาะสมกับผู้บริโภคที่เป็นกลุ่มเป้าหมาย

ผม/ ดิฉัน จะได้รับค่าตอบแทน หรือเสียค่าใช้จ่ายใดๆ หรือไม่

ผู้ตอบแบบสอบถามจะไม่ได้รับค่าตอบแทนหรือเสียค่าใช้จ่ายใดๆ ทั้งสิ้น

คุณจะเก็บข้อมูลของผม/ ดิฉัน เป็นความลับโดยวิธีใด

เฉพาะผู้รับผิดชอบที่ได้รับมอบหมายและนักศึกษาที่ทำการวิจัยเท่านั้น ที่สามารถเข้าถึงข้อมูลได้
และเพื่อรักษาข้อมูลที่คุณให้ไว้เป็นความลับ จะไม่มีการถามชื่อและที่อยู่ในแบบสอบถาม
ทุกคำตอบจะถูกเก็บเป็นความลับโดยจะมีการกำหนดตัวเลขให้แบบสอบถาม
และจะไม่มีการเชื่อมโยงระหว่างผู้ตอบแบบสอบถามและคำตอบที่ให้
ข้อมูลในการวิจัยครั้งนี้จะถูกเก็บในตู้เก็บเอกสารที่ล็อคไว้ในมหาวิทยาลัยนอร์ทแคโรไลนา เมืองกรีนส์โบโร เป็นเวลา 3 ปี
หลังจากนั้นเอกสารทั้งหมดจะถูกทำลาย ส่วนที่เป็นไฟล์ข้อมูลจะถูกลบทิ้ง
อนึ่งข้อมูลในงานวิจัยนี้จะถูกเก็บเป็นความลับโดยไม่มีการเปิดเผยนอกจากจะมีการร้องขอทางกฎหมาย

หากมีข้อมูลใหม่/ เปลี่ยนแปลงในการศึกษานี้จะทำอย่างไร

คุณจะได้รับข้อมูลใหม่ที่เกี่ยวกับการศึกษาครั้งนี้

จะเกิดอะไรขึ้นหากผม/ ดิฉันต้องการหยุดการให้สัมภาษณ์

คุณมีสิทธิ์ที่จะปฏิเสธการตอบแบบสอบถามหรือหยุดการตอบแบบสอบถามได้ตลอดเวลา โดยจะไม่ได้รับผลกระทบใดๆ ทั้งสิ้น
และคุณสามารถร้องขอให้ทำลายข้อมูลของคุณที่ได้ให้ไว้ เว้นแต่ข้อมูลนั้นไม่มีการระบุผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม

การเข้าร่วมด้วยความสมัครใจ:

การเซ็นเอกสารนี้ แสดงว่าคุณได้อ่านหรือได้รับฟังการอ่าน/ อธิบายให้ฟัง
และคุณมีความเข้าใจเป็นอย่างดีในเนื้อหาของเอกสารฉบับนี้ และเต็มใจที่จะเข้าร่วมเป็นส่วนหนึ่งในการศึกษาครั้งนี้
การตอบรับแสดงว่าคุณมีอายุ 18 ปีบริบูรณ์หรือมากกว่า และคุณตกลงที่จะตอบแบบสอบถามโดยสมัครใจ

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ลายเซ็น: _____ วันที่: _____