2023

Moderating Effects of Likelihood to Use In-Store Technology in Grocery Stores: Perceived Value of Retailtainment

Adesegun Oyedele

Fuat Firat
The University of Texas Rio Grande Valley

Monica Hernandez

Emily Goenner Munson

Recommended Citation

Oyedele, Adesegun, et al. "Moderating Effects of Likelihood to Use In-Store Technology in Grocery Stores: Perceived Value of Retailtainment." Influences of Social Media on Consumer Decision-Making Processes in the Food and Grocery Industry, edited by Theodore Tarnanidis, et al., IGI Global, 2023, pp. 86-110. https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-6684-8868-3.ch004

Chapter 4
Moderating Effects of Likelihood to Use In-Store Technology in Grocery Stores:
Perceived Value of Retailtainment

Adesegun Oyedele
University of the Incarnate Word, USA

Fuat Firat
The University of Texas-Rio Grande Valley, USA

Monica Hernandez
https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8906-928X
Texas Lutheran University, USA

Emily Goenner Munson
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0598-4075
St. Cloud State University, USA

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is the assessment of the moderating effects of consumers' likelihood to use instore technologies on the relationship between retailtainment value and satisfaction with retailtainment in physical grocery stores. A questionnaire designed to test our model was administered to 332 undergraduate students. The data were analyzed using AMOS-SEM. The results show that perceived benefit, enjoyment, and unique values of retailtainment were significant in explicating satisfaction with retailtainment. Regarding the interaction effects of likelihood to use instore technology, the results reveal the positive relationship between human interactivity-instore, benefits, and unique values, and the dependent variable satisfaction with retailtaiment are stronger for individuals with low likelihood to use instore technologies. Results confirmed that retailtainment, which provides enjoyment and perceived informative benefits in terms of experience with the consumption of products, is likely to increase satisfaction and improve loyalty as well as propensity to return to the store.

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-6684-8868-3.ch004

INTRODUCTION

Fulberg (2003) describes retailtainment as an attempt by retailers to provide entertainment experiences to customers through staging instore performances to enhance the value of their product/service offerings. In this study, we research the case of physical retail grocery stores, and we describe retailtainment as the instore entertainment activities used by physical grocery stores to connect, entertain, and increase customers' interest in their merchandise. So far, retailtainment events have generally included free product tasting/sampling, product demonstrations, instore cooking shows, instore artist appearances, live shows, and pop-up events. For instance, HEB stores, one of the largest grocery stores in the U.S., stages pop-up cooking events offering customers the opportunity to meet and interact with local celebrity chefs to share cooking ideas.

Previously, Hede and Kellett (2011) posited that retailers, particularly grocery retailers, have focused on retailtainment strategies or strategies to enhance consumers' instore experiences and engagement. They advocated for more studies to explicate consumers' perceptions of and attitude toward retailtainment. Sands et al. (2015) argued there is a gap in the literature on consumers' perceived value of instore retailtainment and the effects of perceived value on satisfaction with retailtainment. They urged scholars to develop studies to assess and test consumer factors that moderate the relationship between perceived retailtainment value and satisfaction.

Developing such studies is relevant, particularly in the grocery store context, because instore retailtainment drives engagement and promotes employee-customer interaction during the shopping process. Employee interaction with customers provides more opportunities for relationships and experiential value creation in grocery stores. Experiential and relational value are the main factors that allow for creation of unique value that will maximize perceived instore value and satisfaction (Jara et al., 2018).

The current forms of retailtainment promote engagement with store employees or product demonstrators making consumers' preference for human interactivity in the physical grocery store environment relevant in explaining satisfaction with the retailtainment experience and customers' satisfaction with physical grocery stores (Florenthal & Shoham, 2010). Despite the logical link between preference for human interactivity and satisfaction with retailtainment, no study in the literature has assessed the effects of human interactivity-instore on satisfaction with retailtainment.

Pantano and Vannucci (2019) argued more studies are needed to understand retailers' and consumers' responses to increased adoption and usage of instore technologies in physical retail stores. Similarly, a recent study by Grewal et al. (2020) alluded to the need for researchers to assess the potential interaction effects of consumers' likelihood to use instore technologies on the relationship between

perceived retailtainment value and satisfaction with retailtainment. The human interactivity demands of retailtainment events would conflict with the anticipated desires of consumers with high likelihood to use instore technologies that are currently largely designed for shopping efficiency and convenience.

In contrast, the human interactivity demands of retailtainment should align well with the expected relational value desired by consumers with low likelihood to use such instore technologies. Therefore, we anticipate consumers' perceived value and satisfaction with retailtainment will be different for consumers with high versus low likelihood to use instore technologies. So far, the moderating effects of likelihood to use instore technologies on the relationship between perceived retailtainment value and satisfaction with retailtainment has not been reported in the literature.

We begin by investigating the influence of preference for human interactivity-instore and perceived retailtainment value on satisfaction with retailtainment. In addition, we evaluate the effects of satisfaction with retailtainment on word-of-mouth and revisit intention to shop in a physical grocery store. We test the moderating effects of high versus low likelihood to use instore technologies on the relationship between perceived retailtainment value and satisfaction with retailtainment to help assess potential for and hurdles to new retailtainment technologies. The moderating variable is defined as likelihood to use instore technologies deployed by retailers to aid the convenience of locating information and product search instore and transaction convenience in the payment stage.

This study does not seek to explain attitudes and perceptions towards instore use of technology. Rather, we are interested in understanding how consumers' likelihood to use instore technologies interacts with the relationship between perceived retailtainment value and satisfaction with retailtainment in a physical grocery store situation. Thus, theories we find most relevant for this study are the Stimulus-Organism-Response (S-O-R) framework (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974), perceived value (Holbrook, 1999), and human interactivity mode in physical grocery stores (Florenthal & Shoham, 2010).

Our findings will help to understand the influence of instore technologies on consumers' perceived value and satisfaction with retailtainment in a physical grocery store environment. This offers insight on the role of instore customer engagement programs such as retailtainment and preferences for human interactivity-instore on consumer loyalty behavior in a physical grocery store environment.

This chapter is organized as follows: first, we briefly discuss the literature on interactivity modes in retail stores, and retail atmospherics and perceived value in thephysical retail environment. Second, we present the study hypotheses and the conceptual model in the study. Third, we discuss the study methodology, results from the study, and implications for retailtainment technology use in physical stores.

Finally, we present a discussion on the study limitations and recommendations for future research.

BACKGROUND

Interactivity

Interactivity is one dimension of retailtainment. Consumers' preferences for different interactivity modes should affect customer satisfaction (Burke, 2002). Florenthal and Shoham (2010) proposed several modes of interacting, including two modes of interactivity that are relevant for consideration in physical grocery store situations: product interactivity and human interactivity. Product interactivity describes the consumers' experience with a product that engages their senses. Physical stores provide greater product interactivity than online stores because consumers have the option to engage their senses and touch products. Human interactivity describes personal interactions among humans throughout their shopping experience, including interactions with store employees, customer service representatives, friends, instore performers, and other shoppers.

Atmosphere

Many studies of retail atmosphere have employed the Stimulus-Organism-Response (S-O-R) framework from psychology to evaluate consumers' perceptions and behavioral responses (e.g., Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). According to Turley and Milliman (2000), the S-O-R framework proposes that the environment produces Stimuli (S) that trigger organismic/internal (O) changes in individuals and result in approach or avoidance responses (R) (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974; Sands et al., 2015). The proposed S-O-R framework (Turley and Milliman, 2000) substantiates the effects of tactile, aural, olfactory, and visual cues on consumer behavior and accounts for responses of approach and avoidance. The three fundamental components of this framework are arousal, pleasure, and dominance. Evidence from previous studies (e.g., Donovan et al., 1994) show limited support for the effects of dominance. Consequently, studies on the S-O-R framework in consumption situations are more focused on assessing the arousal and pleasure dimensions than evaluating dominance effects.

Mehrabian and Russell (1974) defined arousal as a measure of an individual's feelings of excitement, stimulation, and alertness to a stimulus in the environment. Pleasure is a measure of an individual's feelings of happiness, joyfulness, and satisfaction with a stimulus in the environment. Pleasure assesses the extent of

enjoyment perceived by the individual in an environment (Yalch & Spangenberg, 2000). For example, staging food-tasting shows in a grocery store may enrich the consumers' pleasure; on the other hand, staging a hard sell instore event to pressure customers to buy a new product may lead to consumers' displeasure.

Kaltcheva and Weitz's (2006) study showed that consumers with recreational shopping motives are more likely than consumers with task-oriented motives to enjoy the experience of shopping in stores that exhibit high arousal stimuli. Traditionally, retailtainment events in physical grocery stores display high arousal stimuli. Consumers' low likelihood to use instore technologies may imply preference for recreational experiences and the need for interaction with others in the grocery store, including employees. Following this logic, given the current efficiency-and-convenience-oriented nature of instore technologies, we anticipate that consumers with low likelihood, rather than high likelihood, to use instore technologies would be more receptive to high arousal stimuli from retailtainment. That is, we argue that engagement with technology and desire for retailtainment will be contingent on the nature of the technology in use.

Consumers who are driven by task-oriented motivations would attain satisfaction mainly from the shopping outcome as opposed to deriving satisfaction from the shopping activities. The goal of shoppers with task-oriented motivations is to execute the shopping activity in an efficient manner without expending too much energy or time (van Rompay et al., 2012; Kaltcheva & Weitz, 2006). Vieira and Torres (2014) found that shoppers characterized by task-oriented motives tend to perceive high arousal retail environments to be challenging in shopping situations, which may lead to negative emotions or unpleasant feelings. Task-oriented consumers attain satisfaction from accomplishing a task. Therefore, the utility value rather than the hedonic value of a shopping situation is more important to task-oriented consumers.

Drawing insight from Kaltcheva and Weitz (2006), we posit that consumers with high likelihood to use instore technologies and task-oriented consumers share common characteristics including the need for efficiency and timeliness in a grocery store shopping situation. This argument is logical because, as we already mentioned, most contemporary instore technologies that have smart capabilities in grocery stores allow customers to efficiently and conveniently search for products and checkout products in a timely manner.

Gelbrich et al.'s (2014) study on the factors that influence the use of self-service technology (SST) in public, such as in grocery stores, suggests that the likelihood to use SSTs is strongly linked to task-oriented behavior. Other related studies, such as the works of Collier et al. (2015), also show that task-oriented behavior rather than recreational influences (e.g., retailtainment) positively affects high likelihood to use instore technologies. Thus, we expect consumers with high rather than low

likelihood to use instore technologies would be less responsive to arousal/enjoyment from retailtainment.

Perceived Value

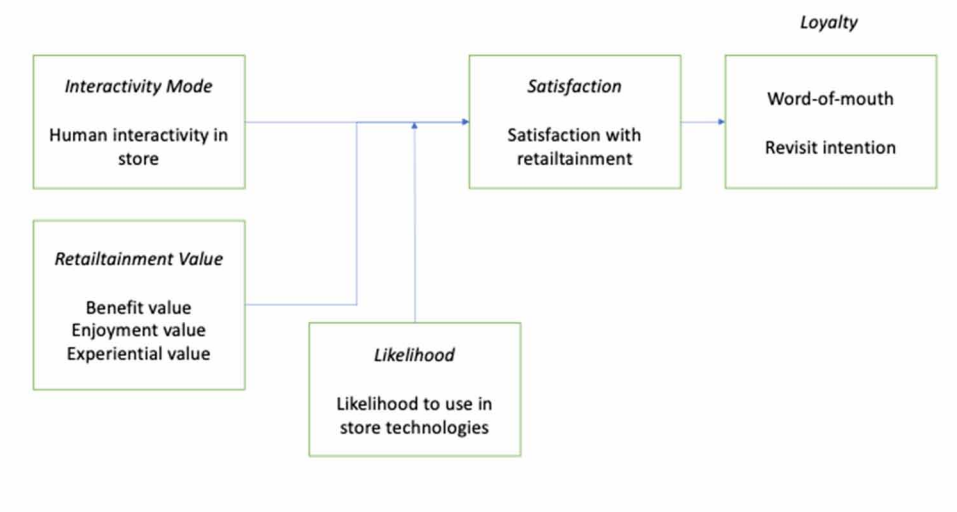
A review of the literature reveals that the theories of consumption value and multidimensional perspectives of perceived value (e.g., Babin et al., 1994; Holbrook, 1999; Sheth et al., 1991) are relevant in understanding consumers' perceived value of retailtainment in physical retail stores. Functional value denotes consumers' perceived utility from assessing the physical and functional attributes of a product/service. Sweeney and Soutar (2001) conceptualized two types of functional value: monetary functional value (economic value) and performance functional value (convenience value).

In this study, functional value relates to deriving economic and convenience values and ease of completing task-related activities that consumers need to accomplish when they shop in a physical grocery store. Economic value may be derived from receiving coupons and free product samples from participation in retailtainment events. Perceived convenience value accounts for the consumer's need to derive some form of utility or functional outcome from shopping at a physical store. An example of convenience value in this context is customers obtaining timely information about new product deals from product demonstrators staging retailtainment events.

Perceived emotional value is defined as the outcome of consumers' responses to the visual aesthetic and affective attributes of a product (Veryzer, 1993). Sheth, Newman & Gross (1991) contend consumers may perceive emotional value if the product/service stimulates affective experiences or feelings. Hirschman (1980) contended feelings or affective experiences might be positive or negative. Positive emotional value is derived from the capacity of the product to stimulate playful and fun experiences (Holbrook, 1994; Sheth, Newman & Gross, 1991). General dimensions of positive affective experiences are happiness, fun, playfulness, joy, etc. Negative affective experiences are indicated through anger, fear, and distress.

Regardless of the situation, the perceived emotional value of a retail environment, a retail grocery store, is largely related to the visual appeal of the retail setting, as determined by the physical attractiveness and the design of the retail environment (Holbrook, 1994; Mathwick, Malhotra & Rigdon, 2001). Customers derive experiential and emotional values from retailtainment through their interactions with the physical environment, relational interactions with store employees and through the shopping tips they get from talking to product demonstrators and other customers.

Figure 1. Moderating effects of likelihood to use instore technologies on the relationship between perceived retailtainment value and satisfaction with retailtainment



CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

Relevant Theories

Our review of the literature and relevant theories shows the pleasure-arousal models (e.g., Donovan et al., 1994), perceived value theory (e.g., Holbrook, 1994), and perspectives on interactivity mode in physical retail stores (e.g., Florenthal & Shoham, 2010) are relevant for explicating consumers' perceptions and responses to environmental cues in a physical retail store. We integrate knowledge from perceived value, pleasure-arousal models, and human interactivity needs in physical retail stores to explain the effects of perceived value of retailtainment and human interactivity-instore on satisfaction with retailtainment, and additionally, we assess the effects of satisfaction on word-of-mouth and revisit intention. We test the moderating effects of likelihood to use instore technologies on the relationship between perceived retailtainment value and satisfaction with retailtainment. The study model is presented in Figure 1.

Human Interactivity-instore

Consumers may have high levels of interpersonal communication during their visits to physical grocery stores where they can interact with customer service representatives, as opposed to shopping online which only offers them mediated

communication. Beatty et al. (1996) investigated the relationship between customer loyalty, repeat customer-engagement, and relationship selling activities of customer service representatives in retail stores. The outcome of their study suggests that instore activities that promote human interactivity and personal interaction between customers and store employees (e.g., retaitainment) positively affect loyalty behavior and customer satisfaction.

Similarly, Merrilees and Miller (2001) examined the relationship between physical interactivity variables, such as customers' instore interactivity, design, and instore atmosphere, on store loyalty. The results of their study suggest that consumer preferences for human interactivity-instore has a positive impact on customer satisfaction, and that superstores, compared to traditional specialist stores, tend to prioritize self-service and store atmosphere over personal interactions with customers.

As noted earlier, human interactivity tendencies, such as socializing with store employees, should be weaker in consumers with high, rather than those with low, likelihood to use instore technologies. For consumers with high likelihood to use instore technologies, leveraging the efficiency of instore technologies rather than seeking human interactivity would be crucial for completing their shopping tasks. In contrast, consumers with low likelihood to use instore technologies are expected to leverage opportunities for human interactivity rather than use instore technologies for shopping related tasks in physical grocery stores. Based on this background, we propose:

H_{1a}: Human interactivity-instore is positively related to consumers' satisfaction with retailtainment.

H_{1b}: The effects of the positive relationship between human interactivity-instore and satisfaction with retailtainment will be stronger for consumers with low, rather than those with high, likelihood to use instore technologies.

Perceived Benefit Value

Perceived benefit relates to consumers' need to derive functional value (convenience and economic values) from their visit to the grocery store (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). Perceived convenience value is defined as consumers' perception of the location benefits and the time savings obtained from purchasing or using a product/service (Berry et al., 2002). For service delivered through a physical grocery store, convenience value may be attained through ease of obtaining information and acquiring a product in the grocery store. Zeithmal and Bitner (2000) point out that higher perception of time scarcity results from performing tasks associated with purchasing a product and consuming a service. Therefore, convenience value is linked to perceived reduction in the time and effort required to acquire and consume a service.

Consumers may attain ease of use and convenience values from instore events or retailtainment that can aid them in completion of their shopping task in a timely manner (Jain & Bagdare, 2009). Examples of retailtainment that facilitate ease of use and convenience values include instore information events at store entrances and product demonstrations. Retailtainment events focused on product demonstration could help ease the effort and time required to search for new product options or compare products. Economic value may be derived from retailtainment through instore pop-up events that offer coupons and exclusive discounts on high demand products during specific store operating hours. In addition, economic benefit could be attained through coupon offers that are broadly linked to customer participation in product sampling events (Davis & Hodges, 2002).

Broadly, most instore retailtainment promotes human interactivity, which demands engagement with store employees or customer service representatives (Jain & Bagdare, 2009). Consequently, we anticipate the human interaction demand of retailtainment may reduce perception of benefit value for consumers with high likelihood to use instore technologies. This is because the human-interactivity demand of retailtainment would be perceived as a hindrance to attaining the convenience value of using instore technologies for completing the pending buying tasks. In contrast, the effect of this relationship should increase for consumers with low likelihood to use instore technologies because the human interactivity aspects of retailtainment are likely to be prioritized over the efficiency of using instore technology to accomplish the pending shopping tasks. Therefore, we hypothesize the following:

H_{2a}: The perceived benefit value of retailtainment is positively related to consumers' satisfaction with retailtainment.

H_{2b}: The effects of the positive relationship between perceived benefit value of retailtainment and satisfaction with retailtainment will be reduced for consumers with high, rather than those with low, likelihood to use instore technologies.

Perceived Enjoyment and Unique Values

Numerous perceived value researchers have noted that consumers' perceived enjoyment of shopping experiences is connected to the different dimensions of hedonic value (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982) and satisfaction (Falk & Campbell, 1997). Along this line, Ridgway et al (1990) found that perceived enjoyment is positively related to Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) emotional state model or PAD model. Hedonic value of retailtainment may be derived from the friendly, personal interactions with product demonstrators staging a retailtainment event. Numerous scholars argue consumers and store employees are active collaborative participants of enjoyment value in consumption situations (e.g., Deighton & Grayson, 1995;

Gummesson, 1998). Huizinga (1955) points out that enjoyment value is related to escapism, and escapism enables consumers to temporarily withdraw from the stressful demands of day-to-day activities.

Experiential and relational situations create value that is unique and memorable and will maximize customer value. Perceived unique value in the grocery store context refers to consumers' perception of unique experiential and relational benefits offered by a store, compared to competing or other stores. Bagdare and Jain (2013) posit retailers can distinguish themselves from their competition by enhancing their customer experience through influencing perceptions of the store by making the store unique in its environment and making the store experience memorable. Retailtainment events such as product demonstrations can help the retailer facilitate service differentiation and unique shopping experiences instore that are enjoyable and entertaining (Franke & Schreier, 2008).

In grocery stores, experiential benefits are generally linked with the consumer-retailer relationship, which is influenced by the layout of the store, interactions with store employees, and staging of retailtainment events. Employee interaction during the retailtainment event should influence consumers' perception of and satisfaction with the grocery store. Drawing insight from the above discussion suggests a retailtainment event can enhance consumers' perception of the store and increase enjoyment value and perceived uniqueness of the grocery store. Therefore, we expect perceived enjoyment and unique values of retailtainment to have a positive effect on satisfaction with retailtainment. We anticipate the effects of the positive relationship between perceived retailtainment enjoyment and unique values on satisfaction with retailtainment will be stronger for consumers with low, rather than high, likelihood to use instore technologies. Thus:

H_{3a}: The perceived enjoyment value of retailtainment is positively related to consumers' satisfaction with retailtainment.

H_{3b}: The effects of the positive relationship between perceived enjoyment value of retailtainment and satisfaction with retailtainment will be reduced for consumers with high, rather than those with low, likelihood to use instore technologies.

H_{4a}: The perceived unique value of retailtainment is positively related to consumers' satisfaction with retailtainment.

H_{4b}: The effects of the positive relationship between perceived unique value of retailtainment and satisfaction with retailtainment will be reduced for consumers with high, rather than those with low, likelihood to use instore technologies.

Satisfaction

A review of past studies showed that satisfaction is an important dependent variable for explicating consumers' perceptions of retail engagement and experience (Bitner, 1992; Booms & Bitner, 1982). The definition of satisfaction hinges on a relative judgement of a selected standard and on disconfirming or confirming meeting the expectation of that performance standard. Consumers may experience dissatisfaction if they perceive the service experience in a retail store is substandard or if the performance of a retail service experience is perceived to be below the expected standard.

Numerous studies have assessed factors that predict satisfaction with a retail store service and satisfaction with a product/service and customer engagement experience (Abbott et al., 2000). Consumers' satisfaction with the environment in a physical retail store affects their perceptions, attitude, and behavioral responses toward the retail store (Iacobucci et al., 1995). Woodruff et al. (1983) find that consumers' satisfaction with a retail store's environment and retailtainment related engagement positively affects their loyalty behavior (e.g., revisit intention and word-of-mouth) toward the retail store. Based on this background information, we posit:

H_5: Customer satisfaction with retailtainment is positively related to word-of-mouth intentions towards a grocery store that offers retailtainment experiences.

H_6: Customer satisfaction with retailtainment is positively related to revisit intention to shop in a grocery store that offers retailtainment experiences.

METHODOLOGY

Survey Questionnaire

The questionnaire used in this study consists of three sections. The first section is the consent to participate in the study statement, definition of retailtainment, and examples of retailtainment activities. Next, we provided a brief guideline on how to complete the survey questionnaire. For example, one of the narratives in the guidelines reads as follows: "This study and survey questions are designed to determine your perception about retailtainment customer experiences in physical grocery stores. Retailtainment describes the instore entertainment activities used by physical grocery stores to connect, entertain and increase customers' interest in their merchandise. Retailtainment events include free product tasting/sampling, product demonstration, instore cooking shows, instore artist appearances, live shows, and pop-up events."

Table 1. Scale items and measurement values

Construct and items	Mean	SD	Load	CR	AVE	α
Human interactivity-instore (adapted from Florenthal and Shoham, 2010)	3.37	0.67		0.86	0.60	0.82
I can conduct an intelligent discussion with customer-service reps. in a grocery store that provides RE experiences (e.g., sampling).			0.62			
I can have an interpersonal dialogue with customer-service reps. in a grocery store that provides RE experiences (e.g., sampling).			0.73			
I can have an engaging discussion with customer-service reps. in a grocery store that provides RE experiences (e.g., sampling).			0.74			
I can socialize with customer-service reps. in a grocery store that provides RE experiences (e.g., sampling).			0.75			
Benefit value (adapted from Kim and Kankanhalli, 2009)	3.19	0.75		.88	0.66	0.83
I can get better experiences shopping for groceries in a grocery store that provides RE experiences (e.g., sampling).			0.81			
I think shopping for groceries in a grocery store that provides RE experiences (e.g., sampling) is easy compared to shopping at other grocery stores.			0.71			
I can save money by shopping for groceries in a grocery store that provides RE experiences (e.g., sampling).			0.70			
I feel shopping for groceries in a physical grocery store that provides RE experiences (e.g., sampling) is convenient.			0.85			
Enjoyment value (adapted from Ligas and Chaudhuri, 2012)	3.38	0.77		0.87	0.67	0.86
I would enjoy shopping for groceries in a grocery store that provides RE experiences (e.g., sampling).			0.81			
The actual process of shopping for groceries would be pleasant in a grocery store that provides RE experiences (e.g., sampling).			0.77			
I would enjoy watching live cooking demonstrations if they occurred at a grocery store.			0.70			
I would have fun shopping for groceries in a grocery store that provides RE experiences (e.g., sampling).			0.80			
Unique value (adapted from Ligas and Chaudhuri, 2012)	3.54	0.66		0.82	0.60	0.77
I believe a grocery store that offers RE experiences is different from other stores in a positive way.			0.84			
I believe a grocery store that offers RE experiences is unique in a good way.			0.84			
I believe a grocery store that offers RE experiences provides benefits that no other store offers.			0.63			
Satisfaction (adapted from Hsu et al. 2006)	3.39	0.68		0.82	0.60	0.82

Table 1. Continued

Construct and items	Mean	SD	Load	CR	AVE	α
I would be satisfied with retailtainment customer experiences offered by a grocery store.			0.76			
I would be very pleased with retailtainment customer experiences offered by a grocery store.			0.81			
On an overall basis, retailtainment customer experiences offered by a grocery store would fulfill my expectations.			0.74			
Word-of-mouth (adapted from Lee et al. 2019)	3.44	0.73		0.79	0.60	0.79
I would speak favourably about retailtainment customer experiences to others.			0.72			
I would say positive things about retailtainment customer experiences to others.			0.76			
I would assist other customers with retailtainment customer experiences if they need my help.			0.60			
Revisit Intention (adapted from Lee et al. 2019)	3.40	0.74		0.82	0.60	0.81
Given the chance, I intend to shop in a grocery store that offers retailtainment customer experiences.			0.83			
I am willing to shop in a grocery store that offer retailtainment customer experiences in the near future.			0.75			
I will frequently shop in a grocery store that offers retailtainment customer experiences.			0.74			
Likelihood to use technology (adapted from Oyedele and Simpson, 2017)	3.33	0.83		0.86	0.60	0.76
I would use computer tablets in the aisles in a grocery store to learn more about the store's products.			0.52			
I would purchase a good if I find a coupon or discover a discount on a grocery store's interactive kiosk.			0.71			
I would use interactive kiosks in a grocery store to seek information on specials and deals for customers.			0.74			
I would use a grocery store's app that lets me check r myself out using my mobile phone.			0.60			
I would use a mobile check out option that allows the grocery store staff to scan items in your cart and speed transactions from anywhere in the store.			0.61			

*SD = Standard deviation, Load = Factor loadings, CR = Composite reliability, α = Cronbach's alpha
Model fit indices: Chi-square = 1155.403/338, χ^2/df = 3.41, p = 0.00
GFI = .94, NFI = .92, CFI = .91, RMSEA = 0.08

The second section of the questionnaire contains the survey Likert type scales/ constructs. The constructs used in the study are adapted from prior research (See Table 1). The human interactivity-instore measures are from the work of Florenthal and Shoham (2010), and the perceived benefit value scale is adapted from Kim

and Kankanhalli (2009). The enjoyment value and unique value scales are adapted from Ligas and Chaudhuri (2012). Satisfaction is adapted from the work of Hsu et al. (2006), and revisit intention and word-of-mouth scales are adapted from Lee et al.'s (2019) study on food shopping experience. The scale measuring likelihood to use instore technologies is adapted from Oyedele and Simpson's (2007) measure of usage frequency of self-service technologies. With the exception of demographic variables, all of the scale items are rated on a 1-5-point Likert type scale where '1' = Strongly Disagree and '5' = Strongly Agree. The third section of the questionnaire contained standard socio-demographic questions (e.g., age, gender, education, etc.).

Procedure and Sample

College students were considered suitable for this study because recent studies on market trends in the retail industry suggest that instore self-service technologies are popular among college-age students, between 18–25 years old. Young consumers may derive value from using instore technologies because it gives them some control over their shopping experience (Hooker, 2020). Also, the college student sample was deemed suitable for this study because college students tend to be representative of others within the same age group (Fry et al., 1973; Xu et al., 2004). Therefore, the survey questionnaire was administered to 332 undergraduate business students in classes at a Midwestern U.S. university. Participation in the study was voluntary and no incentives for participation were provided. The questionnaire contained Likert scale items and standard demographic questions. A total of 312 questionnaires were completed and used in the analysis. All survey respondents were recruited using convenience sampling. A majority of the study's respondents were single (92%), white (63%), and female (51%); the average age was 23 years old.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Measurement Model

The measurement and structural models were evaluated using AMOS structural equation modeling software (AMOS-SEM). The study constructs were evaluated for reliability, convergent and discriminant validity. All Cronbach's alphas were above the .70 recommended value. The composite reliability results ranged from .70 to .80, which exceeds Bagozzi and Yi's (1989) recommended value of .60. Discriminant validity was evaluated using Fornell-Larcker's (1981) benchmark whereby if all the squared correlations between the latent constructs are less than their AVEs, then discriminant validity is confirmed (See Table 2). The Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI)

Table 2. Discriminant validity: Average variance extracted and construct correlations

Construct	Mean	Std Dev	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Human interactivity-instore	3.37	0.66	**0.77**							
Benefit value	3.22	0.74	0.37	**0.81**						
Enjoyment value	3.41	0.77	0.38	0.70	**0.82**					
Unique value	3.55	0.65	0.29	0.56	0.70	**0.77**				
Satisfaction	3.40	0.68	0.37	0.66	0.69	0.70	**0.77**			
Word-of-Mouth	3.46	0.72	0.33	0.58	0.64	0.62	0.70	**0.77**		
Revisit Intention	3.42	0.74	0.35	0.70	0.68	0.61	0.71	0.79	**0.77**	
Likelihood to use technology	3.27	0.81	0.26	0.29	0.35	0.37	0.32	0.33	0.40	1

Note: The square root of the AVEs are on the diagonal, and construct correlations are below the diagonal.

Table 3. Structural model results

	Hypothesized paths	Path coefficient	t-values	p-values	Hypothesis Supported?
H1a	Human interactivity-instore àSatisfaction	0.08	1.64	0.10	No
H2a	Benefit-value àSatisfaction	0.32	3.12	0.00	Yes
H3a	Enjoyment value àSatisfaction	0.31	2.45	0.00	Yes
H4a	Uniqueness value àSatisfaction	0.30	3.60	0.00	Yes
H5	Satisfaction à Word-of-mouth	0.87	12.12	0.00	Yes
H6	Satisfaction à Revisit intention	0.95	11.19	0.00	Yes
	Variable	R^2			
	Satisfaction	0.79			
	Word-of-mouth	0.77			
	Revisit Intention	0.95			
	Model fit indices: Chi-square = 677.181/226, χ^2/df = 2.99, p = 0.00 GFI = .93, NFI = .93, CFI = .91, RMSEA = 0.07				

is .94, the Normed Fit Index (NFI) is .92, and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) is .91. The GFI, NFI and the CFI values exceed the recommended threshold of .90 (Bentler, 1990). The chi-square value computation for the measurement model is 1155.403 and the degrees of freedom are 338, resulting in a chi-square/df ratio of 3.41 (See Table 3)

Structural Model

The results from testing the structural model show the RMSEA value is within the limit for reasonable fit of 0.07. The Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI) is .93, the Normed Fit Index (NFI) is .93, and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) is .91. The GFI, NFI and the CFI values exceed the recommended threshold of .90 (Bentler, 1990). Overall, the fit indices (e.g., CFI, GFI, and NFI) indicate the data fit the hypothesized model well. The chi-square value computation for the structural model is 677.181 and the degrees of freedom are 226, resulting in a chi-square/df ratio of 2.99, which is within the desirable value of between 1 and 3 (Bentler, 1990).

The significance levels for each path coefficient and the R^2 values from testing the structural model offer useful understanding about the hypothesized relationships in the study's model. The results presented in Table 3 show the R^2 of satisfaction is 0.79; revisit intention is 0.95; and word of mouth is 0.77. The recommended R^2 value for consumer behavior studies is 0.20 (Hair et al., 2011). Following this criterion of 0.20, the R^2 for satisfaction, revisit intention, and word of mouth are significant.

With the exception of the relationship between human interactivity-instore and satisfaction, the results of the path coefficients show all coefficients are significant at the 0.05 significance level. For instance, the results show that benefit value (β=0.32, t=3.12, p=0.00), enjoyment value (β=0.31, t=2.45, p=0.00), and unique value (β=0.30, t=3.60, p=0.00) significantly affect satisfaction with retailtainment. The hypothesized relationships between satisfaction and word-of-mouth (β=0.87, t=12.12, p=0.00), and satisfaction on revisit intention (β=0.95, t=11.19, p=0.00) are significant at the 0.05 significance level.

A closer look at the results shows the coefficient of the relationship between benefit value and satisfaction (0.32) is greater than the coefficient of the relationship between human interactivity-instore and satisfaction with retailtainment (0.08). This indicates the value of the instore experience, or the value derived from instore retailtainment experiences, to be relatively more influential than consumers' internal characteristics (e.g., preference for human interactivity-instore) in the prediction of satisfaction with retailtainment. One implication of this result is that retail managers can broadly enhance their customer satisfaction initiative by increasing the benefit and pragmatic value of instore retailtainment events. This may include a safe shopping environment or other factors to ensure the instore experience is as fast and as safe

as possible. The benefit value of retailtainment could be enhanced by offering free product samples, promotional discounts and coupons, and highlighting safety actions taken by store personnel. As seen in the items listed in Table 1, these benefits are perceived as experientially attained.

Based on Hair et al.'s (2011) R^2 criterion of 0.20, the results about the effects of satisfaction with retailtainment as an independent variable in the proposed model are powerful for explaining both revisit intentions and word-of-mouth behavior. In particular, a closer look at the R^2 values of revisit intention (.91) and word-of-mouth (.77) show a significant proportion of the variance in the dependent variables is explained by the independent variable satisfaction with retailtainment.

In relation to the hypothesized moderating effects of high vs. low likelihood to use instore technologies, we created an aggregate measure of likelihood to use instore technologies scale items (see Table 1). We used the aggregate measure to create two groups in SPSS: high versus low likelihood to use instore technologies. We used each group to compute multi-group analysis in AMOS to determine the possible differences between high vs. low likelihood to use instore technologies (See Table 4). The chi-square difference test result from the multi-group analysis was significant with a p value of 0.00. The result is significant at $p < 0.05$.

As hypothesized, the result of the moderation analysis of likelihood to use instore technologies on the relationship between human interactivity-instore and satisfaction with retailtainment is stronger and significant for low (β=0.18, t=2.24, p=0.00) rather than for high (β= -0.06, t= -0.83, p=0.40) likelihood to use instore technologies. This finding implies that individuals with low likelihood to use instore

Table 4. Multigroup analysis: Low vs. High likelihood to use instore technologies.

		Low likelihood			High likelihood		
Paths		**Path Coefficients**	**t-values**	**p-values**	**Path Coefficients**	**t-values**	**p-values**
H1b	Human interactivity à Satisfaction	0.18	2.24	0.00	-0.06	-0.83	0.40
H2b	Benefit-value à Satisfaction	0.44	2.63	0.00	0.18	1.51	0.13
H3b	Enjoyment-value à Satisfaction	0.07	0.33	0.75	0.51	2.97	0.00
H4b	Uniqueness value à satisfaction	0.37	2.98	0.00	0.33	2.37	0.02
Variable		R^2			R^2		
Satisfaction		0.76			0.79		

technologies are more likely than individuals with high likelihood to use instore technologies to perceive strong levels of satisfaction with retailtainment. The strong levels of retailtainment satisfaction perceived by individuals with low likelihood to use instore technologies may be connected to their greater preference to gain tangible benefits from retailtainment events.

The results of the path coefficient in Table 4 show the interaction analysis of likelihood to use instore technologies on the relationships between benefit value and satisfaction with retailtainment: Low (β=0.44, t=2.63, p=0.00) vs. High (β= 0.18, t= 1.51, p=0.31); enjoyment value and satisfaction with retailtainment: Low (β=0.07, t=0.33, p=0.75) vs. High (β= 0.51, t= 2.97, p=0.00) and unique value and satisfaction with retailtainment: Low (β=0.37, t=2.98, p=0.00) vs. High (β= 0.33, t= 2.37, p=0.02). As anticipated, with the exception of enjoyment value, these results are stronger for consumers who are low on likelihood to use instore technologies compared to individuals who are high on likelihood to use instore technologies. Overall, with exception of H_{1a} and $H_{3b,}$ all hypothesized relationships in the proposed model were significant (H_{1b}, H_{2a}, H_{2b}, H_{3a}, H_{4a}, H_{4b}, H_5 and H_6 were supported).

DISCUSSION

This study contributes to the literature of perceived value and the emerging stream of research on consumer engagement by evaluating the interaction effects of consumers' likelihood to use instore technologies on the relationship between perceived retailtainment value and satisfaction with retailtainment. We find that perceived benefit, enjoyment, and unique values of retailtainment were significant in explicating satisfaction with retailtainment in a physical grocery store context. This finding is consistent with previous studies on the role of perceived value in predicting satisfaction. For instance, Sands et al. (2015) found that functional and hedonic values are important predictors of satisfaction with both education and entertainment focused retailtainment events. Previous studies show that benefits and unique value derived from instore product sampling campaigns and instore information events (Franke & Schreier, 2008; Hu & Jasper, 2006) positively affect satisfaction with retailtainment.

Surprisingly, our analysis concerning the relationship between human interactivity-instore and satisfaction with retailtainment was not significant, suggesting that consumers' ability to interact with store employees or others in the store does not necessarily lead to satisfaction with retailtainment. This contradicts the findings from previous studies (e.g., Merrilees & Miller, 2001) which suggest preferences for human interaction instore positively affect loyalty behavior.

We also find positive relationships between the independent variables (human interactivity-instore, benefits, and unique values) and the dependent variable satisfaction with retailtaiment are stronger for individuals with low, rather than high, likelihood to use instore technologies. We attribute this to the fact that current technologies in use in grocery stores are geared toward time and effort efficiencies rather than entertainment and experiential benefit value-oriented information. This also explains why, contrary to the hypothesized relationships, analyses revealed that the relationship between enjoyment value and satisfaction with retailtainment is stronger for individuals with high, rather than low, likelihood to use technologies.

Individuals with high likelihood to use instore technologies may attain a strong level of satisfaction from the enjoyment value of retailtainment due to their lack of knowledge about the tangible benefits of retailtainment events. This lack of knowledge probably stems from their currently limited interactions with store employees and product demonstrators – since these consumers are more interested in shopping efficiently and quickly. They have limited interaction with people who have the necessary expertise and knowledge to offer shoppers advice about the benefits of an ongoing retailtainment event (e.g., product sampling). Therefore, individuals with high likelihood to use instore technologies may construe or imagine occasional encounters with store employees and product demonstrators as fun rather than beneficial.

Managerial Implications

Based on our findings above, we know that physical retail store customers, whether they have a low or a high likelihood to use technology, derive greater satisfaction from retailtainment that they perceive to provide enjoyment and benefits in an experiential setting. We also know that human interactivity is not a significant contributor to satisfaction with retailtainment, especially for customers with high likelihood to use technology for whom satisfaction with retailtainment becomes significantly higher when they perceive enjoyment value in using technology.

These results indicate to us that retailtainment technologies, which provide enjoyment and perceived informative benefits in terms of experience with the consumption of products, are likely to increase satisfaction and improve loyalty as well as propensity to return to the store. Interestingly, human interaction is not a necessarily sought element, but interactive technologies seem likely to increase immersion in enjoyable shopping experiences.

Grocery retailers need to create new retailtainment experiences that are well adapted to the reality of contactless and no-touch customer experiences by leveraging the features of immersive technologies to facilitate enjoyable and benefit-providing shopping experiences. We refer to these technologies as retailtainment technologies.

Retailtainment technologies should facilitate instore immersive shopping experiences to give customers opportunities to experience the physical grocery store and provide prior experiences with the products they are likely to purchase in unique ways. We suggest instore use of interactive kiosks, computer tablets in aisles, in-app check out, instore use of the retailer website to shop & purchase, and click-and-collect technologies that are enhanced with touch-safe accessories, such as gloves and self-cleansing or self-replacing surfaces, will be helpful to improve satisfaction.

Retailers can deploy machine-like robots to connect with customers through their cellphones to offer information about new products and price information. A machine-like robot in the aisle of the store could have features that allow customers to use their cellphones to interact with store brands in a unique way. For example, Kroger Co., a big box store in the U.S., recently completed a test of A.I. powered retailtainment technologies that allow the products and the shelves in the grocery store to engage individual customers through their cellphones. The technology can offer customers recommendations customized to their dietary needs or dietary limitations. In addition, the technology is able to connect with the shopping lists on the customers' cellphones to electronically display dietary and pricing information, availability, and product coupons.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

The study's convenience sample of undergraduate university students may create bias as the sample is composed of young respondents who are usually more willing to use technology.

The generalizability of this study is limited by a number of factors including its use of a student sample, its survey questionnaire methodology and other weaknesses usually linked with survey research including study measures, and so on. While these study limitations affect the generalizability of the findings the limitations also offer opportunities for future research by employing different methodologies such as experiments in the field or laboratory and different measures. Future research should replicate this study with respondents of different ages and different technology self-efficacy.

REFERENCES

Abbott, M., Chiang, K. P., Hwang, Y. S., Paquin, J., & Zwick, D. (2000). The process of on-line store loyalty formation. *Advances in Consumer Research. Association for Consumer Research (U. S.)*, *27*, 145–150.

Babin, B. J., Darden, W. R., & Griffin, M. (1994). Work and/or fun: Measuring hedonic and utilitarian shopping value. *The Journal of Consumer Research*, *20*(4), 644–656. doi:10.1086/209376

Bagozzi, R. P., & Yi, Y. (1989). On the use of structural equation models in experimental designs. *JMR, Journal of Marketing Research*, *26*(3), 271–284. doi:10.1177/002224378902600302

Barsade, S. G. (2002). The ripple effect: Emotional contagion and its influence on group behavior. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *47*(4), 644–675. doi:10.2307/3094912

Beatty, S. E., Mayer, M., Coleman, J. E., Reynolds, K. E., & Lee, J. (1996). Customer-sales associate retail relationships. *Journal of Retailing*, *72*(3), 223–247. doi:10.1016/S0022-4359(96)90028-7

Bentler, P. M. (1990). Comparative fit indexes in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin*, *107*(2), 238–246. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.107.2.238 PMID:2320703

Berry, L. L., Seiders, K., & Grewal, D. (2002). Understanding service convenience. *Journal of Marketing*, *66*(3), 1–17. doi:10.1509/jmkg.66.3.1.18505

Bitner, M. J. (1992). Servicescapes: The impact of physical surroundings on customers and employees. *Journal of Marketing*, *56*(2), 57–71. doi:10.1177/002224299205600205

Booms, B. H., & Bitner, M. J. (1982). Marketing services by managing the environment. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, *23*(1), 35–40. doi:10.1177/001088048202300107

Collier, J. E., & Barnes, D. C. (2015). Self-service delight: Exploring the hedonic aspects of self-service. *Journal of Business Research*, *68*(5), 986–993. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2014.09.036

Davis, L., & Hodges, N. (2012). Consumer shopping value: An investigation of shopping trip value, in-store shopping value and retail format. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *19*(2), 229–239. doi:10.1016/j.jretconser.2012.01.004

Deighton, J., & Grayson, K. (1995). Marketing and seduction: Building exchange relationships by managing social consensus. *The Journal of Consumer Research*, *21*(4), 660–676. doi:10.1086/209426

Donovan, R. J., Rossiter, J. R., Marcoolyn, G., & Nesdale, A. (1994). Store atmosphere and purchasing behavior. *Journal of Retailing*, *70*(3), 283–294. doi:10.1016/0022-4359(94)90037-X

Falk, P., & Campbell, C. (Eds.). (1997). *The Shopping Experience*. Routledge. doi:10.4135/9781446216972

Florenthal, B., & Shoham, A. (2010). Four-mode channel interactivity concept and channel preferences. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *24*(1), 29–41. doi:10.1108/08876041011017871

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error: Algebra and statistics. *JMR, Journal of Marketing Research*, *18*(3), 382–388. doi:10.1177/002224378101800313

Franke, N., & Schreier, M. (2008). Product uniqueness as a driver of customer utility in mass customization. *Marketing Letters*, *19*(2), 93–107. doi:10.100711002-007-9029-7

Fry, J. N., Shaw, D. C., von Lanzenauer, C. H., & Dipchand, C. R. (1973). Customer loyalty to banks: A longitudinal study. *The Journal of Business*, *46*(4), 517–525. doi:10.1086/295575

Fulberg, P. (2003). Using sonic branding in the retail environment—An easy and effective way to create consumer brand loyalty while enhancing the in-store experience. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, *3*(2), 193–198. doi:10.1002/cb.132

Gelbrich, K., & Sattler, B. (2014). Anxiety, crowding, and time pressure in public self-service technology acceptance. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *28*(1), 82–94. doi:10.1108/JSM-02-2012-0051

Grewal, D., & Roggeveen, A. L. (2020). Understanding retail experiences and customer journey management. *Journal of Retailing*, *96*(1), 3–8. doi:10.1016/j.jretai.2020.02.002

Gummesson, E. (1998). Implementation requires a relationship marketing paradigm. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *26*(3), 242–249. doi:10.1177/0092070398263006

Hair, J. F. Jr, Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2011). PLS-SEM: Indeed a silver bullet. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, *19*(2), 139–151. doi:10.2753/MTP1069-6679190202

Hede, A. M., & Kellett, P. (2011). Marketing communications for special events: Analysing managerial practice, consumer perceptions and preferences. *European Journal of Marketing*, *45*(6), 987–1004. doi:10.1108/03090561111119930

Heeter, C. (2000). Interactivity in the context of designed experiences. *Journal of Interactive Advertising*, *1*(1), 3–14. doi:10.1080/15252019.2000.10722040

Hirschman, E. C. (1980). Innovativeness, novelty seeking, and consumer creativity. *The Journal of Consumer Research*, *7*(3), 283–295. doi:10.1086/208816

Holbrook, M. B. (1994). The nature of customer value: An axiology of services in the consumption experience. *Service Quality: New Directions in Theory and Practice*, *21*, 21–71. doi:10.4135/9781452229102.n2

Holbrook, M. B. (1999). *Consumer value: A framework for analysis and research*. Routledge.

Holbrook, M. B., & Hirschman, E. C. (1982). The experiential aspects of consumption: Consumer fantasies, feelings, and fun. *The Journal of Consumer Research*, *1*(2), 132–140. doi:10.1086/208906

Hooker, L. (2020). How can retailers thrive in a changing landscape? A review of 2019 and our expectations for 2020. *The Retailer* (winter edition), 28-29.

Hsu, M. H., Yen, C. H., Chiu, C. M., & Chang, C. M. (2006). A longitudinal investigation of continued online shopping behavior: An extension of the theory of planned behavior. *International Journal of Human-Computer Studies*, *64*(9), 889–904. doi:10.1016/j.ijhcs.2006.04.004

Hu, H., & Jasper, C. R. (2006). Social cues in the store environment and their impact on store image. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, *34*(1), 25–48. doi:10.1108/09590550610642800

Huizinga, J. (1955). *Homo ludens: A study of the play element inculture*. The Beacon Press. International Data Corporation.

Iacobucci, D., Ostrom, A., & Grayson, K. (1995). Distinguishing service quality and customer satisfaction: The voice of the consumer. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *4*(3), 277–303. doi:10.120715327663jcp0403_04

Iacopini, I., Petri, G., Barrat, A., & Latora, V. (2019). Simplicial models of social contagion. *Nature Communications*, *10*(1), 1–9. doi:10.103841467-019-10431-6 PMID:31171784

Jain, R., & Bagdare, S. (2009). Determinants of customer experience in new format retail stores. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, *5*(2), 34–44.

Jara, M., Vyt, D., Mevel, O., Morvan, T., & Morvan, N. (2018). Measuring customers benefits of click and collect. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *32*(4), 430–442. doi:10.1108/JSM-05-2017-0158

Kaltcheva, V. D., & Weitz, B. A. (2006). When should a retailer create an exciting store environment? *Journal of Marketing*, *70*(1), 107–118. doi:10.1509/jmkg.70.1.107.qxd

Kim, H. W., & Kankanhalli, A. (2009). Investigating user resistance to information systems implementation: A status quo bias perspective. *Management Information Systems Quarterly*, *33*(3), 567–582. doi:10.2307/20650309

Lee, H., Jang, Y., Kim, Y., Choi, H. M., & Ham, S. (2019). Consumers' prestige-seeking behavior in premium food markets: Application of the theory of the leisure class. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *77*, 260–269. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2018.07.005

Ligas, M., & Chaudhuri, A. (2012). The moderating roles of shopper experience and store type on the relationship between perceived merchandise value and willingness to pay a higher price. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *19*(2), 249–258. doi:10.1016/j.jretconser.2012.01.006

Mathwick, C., Malhotra, N., & Rigdon, E. (2001). Experiential value: Conceptualization, measurement and application in the catalog and internet shopping environment. *Journal of Retailing*, *77*(1), 39–56. doi:10.1016/S0022-4359(00)00045-2

Mehrabian, A., & Russell, J. A. (1974). *An approach to environmental psychology*. The Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Merrilees, B., & Miller, D. (2001). Superstore interactivity: A new self-service paradigm of retail service? *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, *29*(8/9), 379–389. doi:10.1108/09590550110396953

Oyedele, A., & Simpson, P. M. (2007). An empirical investigation of consumer control factors on intention to use selected self-service technologies. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, *18*(3), 287–306. doi:10.1108/09564230710751497

Pantano, E., & Vannucci, V. (2019). Who is innovating? An exploratory research of digital technologies diffusion in retail industry. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *49*, 297–304. doi:10.1016/j.jretconser.2019.01.019

Ridgway, N. M., Dawson, S. A., & Bloch, P. H. (1990). Pleasure and arousal in the marketplace: Interpersonal differences in approach-avoidance responses. *Marketing Letters*, *1*(2), 139–147. doi:10.1007/BF00435297

Sands, S., Oppewal, H., & Beverland, M. (2015). How in-store educational and entertaining events influence shopper satisfaction. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *23*, 9–20. doi:10.1016/j.jretconser.2014.11.004

Sheth, J. N., Newman, B. I., & Gross, B. L. (1991). Why we buy what we buy: A theory of consumption values. *Journal of Business Research*, *22*(2), 159–170. doi:10.1016/0148-2963(91)90050-8

Sweeney, J. C., & Soutar, G. N. (2001). Consumer perceived value: The development of a multiple item scale. *Journal of Retailing*, *77*(2), 203–220. doi:10.1016/S0022-4359(01)00041-0

Turley, L. W., & Milliman, R. E. (2000). Atmospheric effects on shopping behavior: A review of the experimental evidence. *Journal of Business Research*, *49*(2), 193–211. doi:10.1016/S0148-2963(99)00010-7

Van Rompay, T. J. L., Tanja-Dijkstra, K., Verhoeven, J. W. M., & van Es, A. F. (2012). On store design and consumer motivation: Spatial control and arousal in the retail context. *Environment and Behavior*, *44*(6), 800–820. doi:10.1177/0013916511407309

Veryzer, R. W. (1993). Aesthetic response and the influence of design principles on product preferences. In L. McAllister & R. Rothschild (Eds.), *Advances in consumer research* (Vol. 20, pp. 224–231). Association for Consumer Research.

Vieira, V. A., & Vaz Torres, C. (2014). The effect of motivational orientation over arousal-shopping response relationship. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *21*(2), 158–167. doi:10.1016/j.jretconser.2013.11.008

Woodruff, R. B., Cadotte, E. R., & Jenkins, R. L. (1983). Modeling consumer satisfaction processes using experience-based norms. *JMR, Journal of Marketing Research*, *20*(3), 296–304. doi:10.1177/002224378302000308

Xu, J., Shim, S., Lotz, S., & Almeida, D. (2004). Ethnic identity, socialization factors, and culture-specific consumption behavior. *Psychology and Marketing*, *21*(2), 93–112. doi:10.1002/mar.10117

Yalch, R. F., & Spangenberg, E. R. (2000). The effects of music in a` retail setting on real and perceived shopping times. *Journal of Business Research*, *49*(2), 139–147. doi:10.1016/S0148-2963(99)00003-X

Zahorik, A. J., & Rust, R. T. (1993). Customer satisfaction, customer retention, and market share. *Journal of Retailing*, *69*(2), 193–215. doi:10.1016/0022-4359(93)90003-2

Zeithaml, V. A., & Bitner, M. J. (2000). *Services marketing: Integrating customer focus across the firm* (2nd ed.). Irwin/McGraw-Hill.