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Tourist shopping habitat: Effects on emotions, shopping value and behaviours

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Abstract

Research and anecdotal evidence suggests that satisfaction from shopping is not necessarily derived from acquiring goods. In this context, the shopping environment itself may become part of the tourist's experience influencing subsequent shopping behaviours and evaluations. Exterior environment in shopping districts at destinations deserves attention in that macroclimate is the first set of cues normally seen by the tourist. If macroenvironment is not attractive and inviting, the rest of the in-store atmosphere may not matter. The environment of shopping locations at destination must be pleasing and induce approach behaviours for the retail sector to be successful. This research explored the relationships between the shopping environment and tourists' emotions, shopping values and approach behaviours. The emotional state and shopping value created by the shopping environment were found to influence enjoyment of shopping, willingness to talk to salespeople, revisit intentions, and tendency to spend more money and time than originally planned. Management implications are discussed.

Keywords: Tourist shopping habitat; Pleasure-arousal; Hedonic-utilitarian shopping value; Approach behaviour

1. Introduction

Shopping is one of the most pervasive leisure activities engaged in by tourists (Choi, Chan, & Wu, 1999; Snepenger, Murphy, O'Connell, & Gregg, 2003). It carries a higher priority for some tourists than sightseeing, recreation or any other holiday activities (Reisinger & Waryzack, 1996). Due to its economic, social and psychological benefits, creation of comfortable yet exciting shopping districts in order to induce customer desire to visit and extend their stay has become an important concern to authorities at tourist destinations (Jones, 1999; Lin, 2004; Yuksel, 2004). Reviewed literature suggests that customers are likely to be drawn to a shopping location offering a favourable climate, a high potential for social interaction, a perceived freedom from safety concerns, and a large selection of activities and merchandise (Bloch, Ridgway, & Dawson, 1994). Overall store environment has been suggested as a significant construct shaping customers' thinking, feeling and acting (Turley & Milliman, 2000; Wakefield & Baker, 1998). This is because customer's first impression is likely to be in part generated by the macroenvironment to which s/he exposed to (Wakefield & Baker, 1998; Wirtz & Bateson, 1999). Positive emotions evoked by shopping malls have been argued to influence several important outcomes such as increased time spent in the store, increased spending, increased unplanned purchasing and increased liking of the store (Jones, 1999). Thus, it is reasonable to expect that management of the more encompassing environment of a shopping district at tourist destinations should also influence affective states and behaviours of shopping tourists.

Despite its significance, research on tourist shopping behaviours, tourist responses to shopping districts and ways to improve their retail patronage whilst on holiday is surprisingly limited (Michon & Chebat, 2004; Wakefield & Baker, 1998). In contrast to the number of research on general retail management, attention has rarely been directed to shopping tourists' perceptions of exterior

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environment and their responses to shopping locations (Michon & Chebat, 2004). In particular, the links between tourists' perceptions of the shopping location, their emotional responses, perceived shopping values and approach behaviours whilst on holiday have not been well documented. The majority of previous studies have been conducted with customers in regional malls (Babin, Chebat, & Michon, 2004), and the effect of in-store environment on consumers' emotions has generally been examined. However, most studies did not measure consumer perceptions of macroenvironment that could have influenced subsequent behaviours. Understanding whether shopping tourists' can be induced to behave in certain ways based upon atmosphere of a shopping district should be beneficial to retail management at tourist destinations. This research therefore examines the extent to which perceptions of the shopping environment affect tourists' emotions, the perceived value of the shopping experience and approach behaviour. The paper is organised into four sections. The first section introduces general features of shopping locations at a tourist destination. Next section focuses on the hypothesised model and the main constructs tested in the study, and presents a review of literature on shopping behaviours, shopping emotions, and shopping values. The research methodology and analyses employed follow the second section. Results of the study are then discussed in the light of previous studies' findings, and implications and recommendations for future research are presented.

2. Tourist shopping habitat

Tourist shopping habitat (TSH) refers to the overall shopping location—the place where tourists hang around for various utilitarian and hedonic activities (Bloch et al., 1994). Unlike organised shopping malls, the TSH is an area for all kind of retailers, dominated by atmospheric inconsistency. This implies that colours, scent and noises from different and often small shops are intermingled. This unstructured environment, diversity, on-site business activities and different but friendly atmosphere becomes a highly unique and appealing attraction for shopping and experiencing the authenticity of native customs and culture (Hsieh & Chang, in press, p. 1). The retail mix in these areas not only includes boutiques, restaurants, bars, and gift stores but also areas for street vendors, and historical buildings and architecture (Whyte, 1980, cf. Snepenger et al., 2003, p. 568). Possibility of bargains, looking at exhibits, talking with other shoppers and shop assistants, socialising with friends, and browsing would increase entertaining capabilities of shopping at a tourist destination. Paying a reduced price can cause tourists to feel pride, excitement, and a sense of accomplishment (Cox, Cox, & Anderson, 2005). The freedom shoppers feel when they have no time pressures and no (or limited) budget constraints may lead to their overall sense of freedom which is associated with leisure experiences. Visitors may be task-oriented and buy products, services, but they may use the TSH for other leisure activities or simply for passing time (Bloch et al., 1994). In other words, visitors may have an extremely fun filled and entertaining shopping experience with or without making a purchase. Excitement gleaned from shopping activities may often be an intended goal (as opposed to product acquisition as a goal). Compared to shopping in malls, characterised by rare or no interactions with the salesperson prior to checkout line, shopping in TSH could be more interaction-intensive. Moreover, "In many instances, the shopping habitat is a social and recreational meeting place attracting international and domestic tourists, as well as, local people" (Michon, Chebat, & Turley, 2005, p. 884). While shopping, "consumers from different countries reveal their motivations, values, and lifestyles" (Snepenger et al., 2003, p. 568). There may be several motives for a single shopping trip, including the motives of diversion, self-gratification, learning about local traditions and new trends, and sensory stimulation (Tauber, 1972 cf. Jones, 1999). Overall, given its features, an exciting shopping habitat could be an antidote to frustrations experienced in other areas of the tourist product chain.

3. Environment and shopping behaviours

Previous research demonstrates that retail environment can be controlled by manipulating various cues, and in turn, store patrons behaviour can be affected (Babin et al., 2004; Kotler, 1974). Stimulus–Organism–Response (S–O–R) paradigm postulates that the environment is a stimulus (S) containing cues that combine to affect people's internal evaluations (O), which in turn create approach/avoidance responses (R) (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Drawing on the S–O–R, Mehrabian and Russell (1974) argue that all responses to an environment can be considered as *approach* or *avoidance behaviours*. *Approach behaviours* include all positive behaviours that might be directed at the environment; for example a desire to remain in a store and explore its offerings could be stated as approach behaviour. *Avoidance behaviours* reflect contrasting responses; that is, a desire to leave a store or not to browse represents avoidance behaviours (Spangenberg, Crowley, & Henderson, 1996). *Approach behaviours* are suggested by increased willingness to interact with others (including salespeople) in an environment, increased willingness to spend time and return to an environment, and an increased willingness to spend money. Individuals are expected to have greater approach behaviours in pleasant environments creating positive affects and greater avoidance behaviours in unpleasant environments creating negative affects (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974).

Shopping environment can be divided into two: in-store and out-store environments. Researchers have generally investigated aspects of in-store environment. This has produced a significant body of information describing various customer reactions caused by specific ambient cues. In a recent review of 60 experiments manipulated portions

of a store's complex atmosphere, Turley and Milliman (2000) note that each of these studies found some statistically significant relationship between atmospherics and shopping behaviour. For example, colour has been found to affect liking of the store and perceptions of the merchandise (Bellizzi, Crowley, & Hasty, 1983; Bellizzi & Hite, 1992). Clutter in the environment brought out negative effects on satisfaction and attributions made concerning services (Bitner, 1990). Crowding can change the use of in-store information, satisfaction and enjoyment of the shopping environment (Eroglu & Machleit, 1990). Increasing the tempo and intensity of in-store music has been shown to reduce time consumers spend in the store (Milliman, 1982), emotional responses to waiting in banks (Hui, Dube, & Chebat, 1997) and sales in restaurants (Milliman, 1986). Music manipulations were found to affect consumers' patience, emotional reactions and approach behaviours (Yalch & Spangenberg, 1990). Manipulating the odours in a shopping environment was found to influence consumers' purchase intentions and time spent-shopping (Spangenberg et al., 1996).

Previous studies have also shown that exterior environment would play an important role, both positive and negative, in customers' impression formation (Bitner, 1992; Kotler, 1974; Lin, 2004). That is, exterior environmental cues and physical components in a shopping location would help tourists form a holistic picture of the overall place. This mental picture will then stimulate an emotional and behavioural response. The shopping environment deserves attention, as the exterior climate (e.g., building architecture, the surrounding area, storefronts, activities, density, noise level, social temperature, etc.), is the first set of cues normally seen by a tourist. If these variables are not managed well, the rest of the atmosphere may not matter. Social affective value of shopping environment, and liveliness or animation, with surprises are argued to affect the visitor's overall impression and satisfaction (Jansen-Verbeke, 1991). Delivery of ambient leisure, which involves the creation and underpinning of a pleasant environment for shopping is suggested as a competitive strategy to attract more shopping tourists (Johnson, 1990, cf. Heung & Cheng, 2000).

Only a few studies however have examined the impact of the exterior environment of a shopping district on emotions and behaviours. Grossbart, Mittelstaedt, Curtis, and Rogers (1975 cf. Turley & Milliman, 2000) found that external attributes of a shopping district had an influence on the behaviour of retail customers. Other research examining the links between evaluations of the store environment as a whole and purchase behaviours has identified similar strong relationships. Adapting Fisher's (1974) Environmental Aesthetics Scale, Crowley (1993) and Spangenberg et al. (1996) studied two dimensions of environment: *affective* (attractive, relaxed, comfortable and good) and *activating environments* (lively, bright, motivating and interesting). Crowley (1993) and Spangenberg et al.'s (1996) research suggest a direct relationship between activating nature of the environment and customers' evaluations of the product in that environment and purchase intentions. In another study, a high-load (arousing) environment was found to produce approach behaviours, whereas high-load unpleasant environment produced avoidance behaviours, and a low-load environment was not activating enough to motivate any measurable approach/avoidance behaviours (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982). Evidence further suggests that physical elements matching in terms of their arousing nature create more pleasing combinations, leading to increased spending and higher satisfaction than do combinations comprised of an inappropriate arousal level (Mattila & Wirtz, 2001). Similarly, Babin et al. (2004) identified that when perceptual environmental appropriateness was diminished, customers reported lower positive affect, lower product quality ratings, lower perceptions of personal shopping value and fewer approach behaviours. Favourable perceptions of the mall environment as a whole were found to increase shopper's spending (Chebat & Michon, 2003).

The above review suggests that shopping habitat itself may become part of the shopper's experience and influence their evaluations and subsequent behaviours. To ascertain the extent to which the out-store environment affects shopping behaviours, we used Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) model, which posits that affect mediates the relationship between the perceptions of environment and an individuals' response to that environment. The underlying theoretical framework used in our study extends Mehrabian and Russell's work by incorporating the construct of tourist shopping value (Babin et al., 2004). Fig. 1 displays the theoretical model suggesting how environmental perceptions may influence shoppers' emotions, value perceptions and behaviours. Based on the above review, the following is offered:

H_{1a}. There is a direct positive relationship between environmental perceptions of the shopping location and tourist's approach behaviour.

4. Shopping emotions

"Environments influence behaviour in large part because they alter one's feelings" (Babin et al., 2004, p. 289). Mehrabian and Russell propose that three basic emotional states mediate approach–avoidance behaviours in environmental situations. These emotional responses, known by the acronym PAD, are Pleasure, Arousal and Dominance. Their model posits that any environment, including that of a TSH will produce an emotional state in an individual that can be characterised in terms of the three PAD dimensions (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982). *Pleasure–displeasure* refers to the degree to which the person feels good, joyful, happy, or satisfied in the situation. *Arousal–nonarousal* refers to the degree to which a person feels excited, stimulated, alert or active in the situation. *Dominance–submissiveness* refers to the extent to which the individual feels in control of, or free

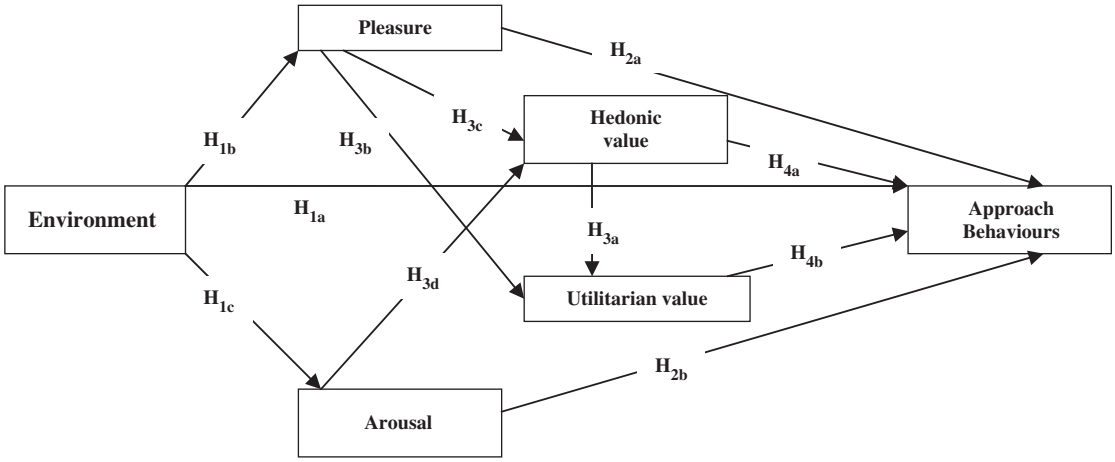

Fig. 1. Hypothesised model.

to act in, the situation. Donovan and Rossiter (1982) applied an abbreviated version of the PAD scale to retailing research. They found that pleasure–arousal dimensions were adequate to represent individual's emotional responses to a wide range of environments and shopping behaviours were not related to measures of Dominance. There has been a considerable consensus in respect to this bi-dimensional character of emotions (Pleasure–Arousal) in recent marketing research (Bigne, Andreu, & Gnoth, 2005). Emotions experienced while shopping has been shown to affect a variety of responses such as approach behaviour (Hui et al., 1997), spending levels (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982), retail preference and choice (Dawson, Bloch, & Ridgway, 1990), willingness to buy (Baker, Levy, & Grewal, 1992), and shopping satisfaction (Machleit & Mantel, 2001). Positive affect encourages shoppers to stay longer and interact with other employees (Babin & Darden, 1995), simplifies consumers' decision-making style (Babin, Darden, & Griffin, 1994), builds a positive mall image (Darden & Babin, 1994) and improves merchandise and service quality perceptions (Baker, Grewal, & Parasuraman, 1994; Chebat & Michon, 2003). Negative affect increases customers desire to leave (Chebat & Michon, 2003; Eroglu & Machleit, 1990):

H_{1b}. There is a direct positive relationship between environmental perceptions of the shopping location and pleasure.

H_{1c}. There is a direct positive relationship between environmental perceptions of the shopping location and arousal.

H_{2a}. Pleasure is related positively to approach behaviours. More pleasure is associated with greater desire to stay and interact within a shopping location.

H_{2b}. Arousal is related positively to approach behaviours. Greater arousal is associated with greater desire to stay and interact within a shopping location.

5. Shopping value

Shopping goes way beyond functional utility and task orientation (Bloch, Sherrell, & Ridgway, 1986) and provides "other experiential benefits and gratifications" (Michon et al., 2005, p. 884). Batra and Ahtola (1990, p. 159) suggest that "consumers purchase goods and services and perform consumption behaviour for two basic reasons: (1) consummatory affective (hedonic) gratification (from sensory attributes), and (2) instrumental, utilitarian reasons". Utilitarian value relates to whether the purchase goal of the shopping trip was accomplished, whereas hedonic value reflects the individuals' evaluation of the entertainment and experiential worth of the shopping trip (Eroglu, Machleit, & Barr, 2004). Taken together these two components represent a comprehensive picture of the value an individual derives from a shopping trip (Eroglu et al., 2004). These dimensions are not mutually exclusive (Babin et al., 1994). "On any particular shopping trip, a consumer may derive some level of each dimension from the trip and the level of each will likely vary from one trip to another" (Stoel, Wickliffe, & Lee, 2004, p. 1069).

Tourist shoppers may seek unique products and souvenirs and they may be concerned about the brand names and logos, product and package size, price, product attributes and location of stores (Gee, 1987 cf. Turner & Reisinger, 2001, p. 17). The range of goods purchased by tourists is large and it does not just consist of souvenirs and necessary personal items. It includes items such as clothes, jewellery, books, art and craft, duty-free goods and electronic goods (Turner & Reisinger, 2001). The items bought may differ from culture to culture and also between young and senior travellers (Kim & Littrell, 2001). Tourists may also view shopping experiences as entertainment or recreation without purchasing a product (Jones, 1999). Hence, they are expected to seek both utilitarian and hedonic benefits from a shopping, but to varying degrees. In addition to the utilitarian attributes offered by purchasing of a specific item (e.g., local carpet), the same

person may indulge in shopping such as to do something different to escape his/her daily tourist routine or to observe a living culture (e.g., hand-made carpet wowing). Consistent with this rationale, this study supports a positive relationship between hedonic and utilitarian shopping value (Babin et al., 2004):

H_{3a}. Hedonic shopping value is related positively to utilitarian shopping value. These two types of shopping value complement each other.

Environment may influence utilitarian and hedonic shopping value through pleasure and arousal (Babin et al., 2004). Tourists with positive feelings are expected to experience higher hedonic and utilitarian shopping values. This is because pleasure can facilitate task completion and enjoyment from the shopping activity. For example, "psychological experiments demonstrate that subjects with mildly positive moods are more efficient in completing simulated consumer choice tasks than are those with a less positive mood" (Isen, 1987, cf. Babin et al., 2004, p. 291):

H_{3b}. Pleasure is related positively to utilitarian shopping value. As pleasure increases so does the utilitarian value.

H_{3c}. Pleasure is related positively to hedonic shopping value. Increases in positive affect are associated with increases in hedonic shopping value.

H_{3d}. Arousal is related positively to hedonic shopping value. Increases in arousal are associated with increases in hedonic shopping value.

Pleasure and Arousal can directly influence shoppers' approach-avoidance behaviours and indirectly affect through hedonic and utilitarian shopping values (Babin & Attaway, 2000; Stoel et al., 2004). Consumers are more likely to return and spend a greater portion of their money with a retailer that provides relatively high utilitarian or hedonic shopping value (Babin & Attaway, 2000). Both the knowledge that a shopping task can be completed by interacting with a retailer and the gratification from the shopping experience itself motivate further interactions between a consumer and a retailer (Childres, Carr, Peck, & Carson, 2001). Thus shopping value is likely to be associated with increased approach behaviours whilst on holiday.

H_{4a}. Hedonic shopping value is related positively to approach behaviour. Greater perceived hedonic value creates desire to stay and interact.

H_{4b}. Utilitarian shopping value is related positively to approach behaviour. Greater perceived utilitarian value creates greater desire to stay and interact.

Although both hedonic and utilitarian benefits derived from shopping experience are important, hedonic values are likely to have a stronger impact on tourists approach behaviours than do utilitarian shopping values.

H_{4c}. The perceived hedonic shopping values have a stronger influence on approach behaviours than perceived utilitarian shopping values.

6. The study

A questionnaire in English was developed to measure the effects of environmental perceptions on shoppers' emotions, value perceptions and behaviours. We employed previously used scales in the measurement of the relevant constructs. The perceptions of the environment of the retail district were measured by eight items selected from Fisher's Environmental Aesthetic Quality Scale (1974). A five-point semantic differential adjective pairs operationalised environmental perception (tense/relaxed; uncomfortable/comfortable; depressing/cheerful; drab/colourful; boring/stimulating; unlively/lively; dull/bright; uninteresting/interesting). As with Crowley (1993) and Spangenberg et al.'s (1996) study, the items represent two dimensions: comfortable versus uncomfortable environment (i.e., tense/relaxed; uncomfortable/comfortable) and stimulating versus boring environment (i.e., depressing/cheerful; drab/colourful; boring/stimulating; unlively/lively; dull/bright; uninteresting/interesting). Donovan and Rossiter (1982), Bellizzi et al. (1983), Spangenberg et al. (1996), Mattila and Wirtz (2001), Chebat and Michon (2003), Ruiz, Chebat, and Hansen (2004) and Michon et al. (2005) adapted this scale to measure subjects' evaluation of the store environment as a whole. This paper will focus on the influence of stimulating/boring environment on tourists' emotions, perceived shopping value and behaviours. Comparative analysis between the effects of different types of environment will be conducted in another paper.

Five items represent approach-avoidance behaviour. A five-point strongly agree/strongly disagree format was used to measure these responses (I would return to this shopping location; This shopping location is a place where I would easily speak to a salesperson; I like this shopping location; this is kind of a place where I would spend more money than planned; This shopping location is a place where I might spend more time than planned) (derived from Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Ruiz et al., 2004). Numerous schemes for basic emotions have been proposed in the literature. The three typologies of emotions that marketers most often borrow are Izard's (1977) 10 fundamental emotions from his Differential Emotions Theory, Plutchik's (1980) eight basic emotion categories, and Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) Pleasure, Arousal, and Dominance dimensions of response. In this study emotions were assessed by eight items (adopted from Ruiz et al., 2004), representing the pleasure and arousal dimensions. Pleasure was measured with a five-point semantic differential scale, including items: happy–unhappy, pleased–annoyed, satisfied–unsatisfied, and contended–melancholic. Analogously, four bipolar items including negative and positive emotional states measured the arousal dimension: relaxed–stimulated, calm–excited, sleepy–wide awake; and

aroused–unaroused. The application of this abbreviated model is reported to be more convenient and at the same time its predictive and explanatory power seems to provide good external validity (Wirtz, 1994).

Personal shopping value was assessed by eight items taken from Babin et al. (1994), Babin and Attaway (2000) and Babin et al. (2004). The hedonic dimension is captured with the following five statements: "Shopping truly felt like an escape"; "Compared to other things I could have done, the time was well spent"; "I enjoyed being immersed in exciting new products"; "While shopping I felt a sense of adventure"; and "This shopping was truly a joy". Three items assess utilitarian shopping value. These were: "I accomplished just what I wanted to do in this shopping"; "I could not buy what I really needed"; and "While shopping, I found just the items I was looking for". Respondents replied using a five-point strongly agree–strongly disagree format based upon how well the items described their shopping experience in the shopping district of the town on that particular day. Demographic questions sought respondents age, gender, nationality, marital status, education level, occupation, family income, number of children in company, items bought, money spent on shopping and accommodation type.[1]

A pre-test was conducted with 30 tourists to check out items' wording, ease of filling out the questionnaire, and applicability of the questions (Heung & Cheng, 2000). Some modifications to the wordings of the statements were made as a result of the pre-test. Following the recommendation that the measurement should occur as close as possible in time and place to the shopping behaviour (Babin & Darden, 1995; Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Wakefield & Baker, 1998), the questionnaires were conducted with shopping tourists departing from the main shopping district through the historical gates. Using an intercept technique, trained researchers asked tourists to participate in the study as they exit the main shopping area of a town in southwest of Turkey. Thus, respondents' perceptions, emotions and behaviours were measured immediately after their shopping experience in the selected district. This was employed to minimise potential effects of memory on accurate recollection of the ambience, layout, design and the experience. Respondents were asked an initial screening question to include only the shopping tourists into the sample (Babin et al., 2004). Data were collected from tourists, who have done shopping on the day of the questionnaire administration, during peak hours (10 a.m.–18 p.m.) over the course of three weeks (Wakefield & Baker, 1998). Agreed participants were taken to the designated area (a desk, shade and banks to sit), given the form to be filled in on the spot and provided with refreshments as an incentive. Self-administered questionnaires were distributed to 400 tourists and 259 fully completed questionnaires were used in the analysis.

[1]In addition to the above constructs, the questionnaire measured quality evaluations by a three-item scale (Babin et al., 2004; Ruiz et al., 2004), atmospherics by a three-item scale (Babin et al., 2004; Ruiz et al., 2004), perceived shopping risk by a five-item scale (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998; Tsaur, Tzeng, & Wang, 1997), shopping satisfaction by a three-item scale (Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000), and future loyalty intentions by a five-item scale (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996). The interrelationship among these constructs is to be discussed in another paper.

7. Data analysis

Frequency distribution of the variables was conducted in order to identify the respondents' profile, and compute means and standard deviations for each variable measured in the study. Structural equation modelling (SEM) was utilised to empirically test the relationships between the constructs in this study. The SEM is developed to evaluate how well a proposed conceptual model that contains observed multiple indicators and hypothetical constructs explains or fits the collected data (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). The SEM procedure was an appropriate solution for the measurement of the proposed causal relationships among the unobserved constructs in this study that were set up on the basis of prior research and theory (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995; Reisinger & Turner, 1999; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). To test and estimate the hypothesised model, a two-step approach with an initial measurement model and a subsequent structural model was employed. Using AMOS 5, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was employed to validate the six-factor measurement model. The reliability of the measurement items was verified using the Cronbach's alpha. Following the verification of convergent and discriminant validity of the measurement model, the structural model was run to test the hypothesised relationships. The structural portion of the SEM allows for the testing of multiple equations with multiple dependent variables, provides parameter values (i.e., path coefficients) for each of the research hypotheses and determines their respective significance.

8. Results and discussion

Forty eight percent of the respondents were female and 57% of the all respondents were repeat visitors (Table 1). Of all the respondents 29% were single and 59% were married. Sixty seven percent of the respondents are currently employed, while 14% are retired and 10% are students. Of all the respondents, 19% reported an annual income of €50,000 or more, while 20% were earning below €20,000. The majority of respondents were not companied by children on the day of shopping (53%). Of all the respondents, the majority stayed in hotels with three or more stars (75%). The most preferred type of boarding was all inclusive (57%) and this is followed by bed and breakfast (18%), half board (15%) and full board (10%). English respondents occupied the largest share (40%), followed by Dutch (19%), Irish (11%), Belgian (7%), French (56), American (4%) and other nationalities, including German, Bulgarian, Russian, and Macedonian. The majority (22%) of the respondents reported to spent

Table 1
Demographic details

		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	116	48.1
	Female	125	51.9
Previsit	Been before	129	56.8
	First time	98	43.2
Age	18–24	39	15.7
	25–34	55	22.2
	35–44	52	21.0
	45–54	47	19.0
	55–64	38	15.3
	>65	17	6.9
Occupation	Employed	174	68.2
	Student	26	10.2
	Retired	38	14.9
	Unemployed	4	1.6
	Other	13	5.1
Income	<€20,000	41	19.8
	€20–29,000	36	17.4
	€30–39,000	59	28.5
	€40–49,000	32	15.5
	>€50,000	39	18.8
Children in company	None	138	53.3
	1	31	12.0
	2	59	22.8
	3 or more	18	6.9
Accommodation	1 star	1	0.5
	2 star	14	6.7
	3 star	74	35.2
	4 star	50	23.8
	5 star	71	33.8
Board	All-inclusive	109	57.7
	Full board	18	9.5
	Half-board	28	14.8
	B&B	34	18.0
Nationality	English	97	39.9
	Dutch	47	19.3
	Irish	26	10.7
	French	15	6.2
	Belgium	18	7.4
	American	9	3.7
	German	5	2.1
	Bulgarian	5	2.1
	Scottish	5	2.1
	Australian	4	1.6
	Ecuador	3	1.2
	Russian	2	0.8
Other (Indian, Greek, African, Romanian, Macedonian)		5	2.0

between €251 and 350 on their total shopping. The items bought are generally combinations of souvenir, garment, leather product, jeweller and footwear.

The six-factor measurement model was validated using a CFA. Before estimating the model, the reliability estimates of the measurement items was verified using the Cronbach's alpha to assess the internal consistency of the constructs in the proposed model. The alpha values range from 0.70 to 0.90 (see Table 2), exceeding the minimum hurdle of 0.7 (Hair et al., 1995). The results indicated that the items were reliable in measuring each construct. The standardised maximum likelihood (ML) loadings and fit statistics that resulted are provided in Table 2. The model χ^2 is 353.8 with 194 degrees of freedom ($p<0.001$). Because of the likely effect of large sample size on the χ^2 values, other fit indices were also selected to measure the fit of the tested model. Other indicators of the model's fit included a comparative fit index (CFI) of 0.99, normed-fit index (NFI) of 0.97, non-normed fit index (NNFI) of 0.98, parsimony normed fit index (PNFI) of 75 and a root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) of 0.05. Values of CFI, NFI, and NNFI range from zero to 1.00 with a value close to 1.00 indicating good fit (Bryne, 1998). The error measures should not exceed 0.1 and ideally lie between 0.05 and 0.08 given that at least some error can be expected (Turner & Reisinger, 2001). Given the large sample size and the number of measured items, the results of the measurements for environmental perceptions, pleasure-arousal dimensions, hedonic-utilitarian shopping values and approach behaviours showed a good model fit. Thus, the fit statistics suggest that the constructs are unidimensional and fit the data well (Childres et al., 2001). All indicator loadings for the constructs in the model were significant at 0.05 and the reliability estimates were adequate, showing convergent validity (Table 2). Discriminant validity was examined by the correlation of estimate between constructs with the variance extracted measure (Babin et al., 2004). All constructs meet this conservative test of discriminant validity, as the variance-extracted estimates from each construct exceed the squared correlation between each construct. This shows that each construct is statistically different from one another (Table 2).

A structural model with six constructs was estimated using ML. As a first step in assessing the hypothesised relationships, the structural equation model was evaluated by examining the (1) χ^2, (2) variance explained estimates and (3) fit indices. The χ^2 goodness of fit statistic for four degrees of freedom was 6.42, $p = 0.170$. The insignificant χ^2 suggests that the hypothesised model mirrors the pattern of covariance contained in the data. As Jöreskog and Sörbom (1993) note, the χ^2 should be regarded more as a measure of fit than as a strict test statistic. Thus we next turn to more complete examination of the fit indices following the recommendations in the literature. For the hypothesised model, the NNFI was 0.98 and the CFI was 0.99, which exceeds the standards recommended by Brown & Cudeck (1993). The RMSEA was 0.04, which is within the suggested standard by Hair et al. (1995). In looking at the variance explained for the structural equations, 0.46 of the variance in approach behaviours was explained by the hypothesised model. As a package these indicators are consistent in pointing an acceptable fit of the hypothesised model to the data.

Table 2
Confirmatory factor analysis results including standardized loading estimates

	Stimulating environment	Pleasure	Arousal	Approach	Hedonic	Utilitarian
Cheerful/depressing	0.534					
Colorful/drab	0.417					
Stimulating/boring	0.534					
Lively/unlively	0.582					
Bright/dull	0.542					
Interesting/uninteresting	0.620					
Happy/unhappy		0.684				
Pleased/annoyed		0.743				
Satisfied/unsatisfied		0.741				
Contended/melancholic		0.653				
Stimulated/relaxed			0.570			
Excited/calm			0.687			
Aroused/unaroused			0.610			
Sleepy/wide awake			0.514			
Interacting with the salespersons				0.355		
Liking				0.779		
Spending money				0.436		
Spending time				0.674		
Returning				0.782		
Time well spent					0.600	
Escape					0.585	
Joy					0.596	
Immerse in new products					0.479	
Adventure					0.397	
Buy items needed						0.532
Find items looked for						−0.629
Accomplish						0.655
Reliability	0.88	0.91	0.83	0.79	0.84	0.71
Variance	0.593	0.816	0.503	0.469	0.639	0.509

$\chi^2 = 353.8$
df = 194 ($p < 0.001$)
CFI = 0.99
NFI = 0.97
NNFI = 0.98
PNFI = 0.75
RMSEA = 0.057

Factor correlations

Environment	1.000					
Pleasure	0.710	1.000				
Arousal	0.722	0.751	1.000			
Approach	0.732	0.677	0.669	1.000		
Hedonic	0.525	0.733	0.636	0.694	1.000	
Utilitarian	−0.535	−0.592	−0.627	−0.597	−0.778	1.000

$\chi^2 = 6.42$
df = 4 ($p = .170$)
CFI = 0.99
NFI = 0.98
RMSEA = 0.04

Fig. 2 shows the standardised, theoretical paths linking perceived environment, emotions, perceived value and behaviours. H_1 suggests direct and indirect paths linking environmental perceptions and approach behaviours. H_{1a} suggests a direct path linking perceived environment and approach behaviour. This path is supported by a positive estimate of 0.19 ($t = 3.29$, $p < 0.001$). H_{1b} predicted a positive relationship between environmental perception and pleasure. This relationship is supported by the corresponding estimate of 0.47 ($t = 7.99$, $p < 0.001$). H_{1c}

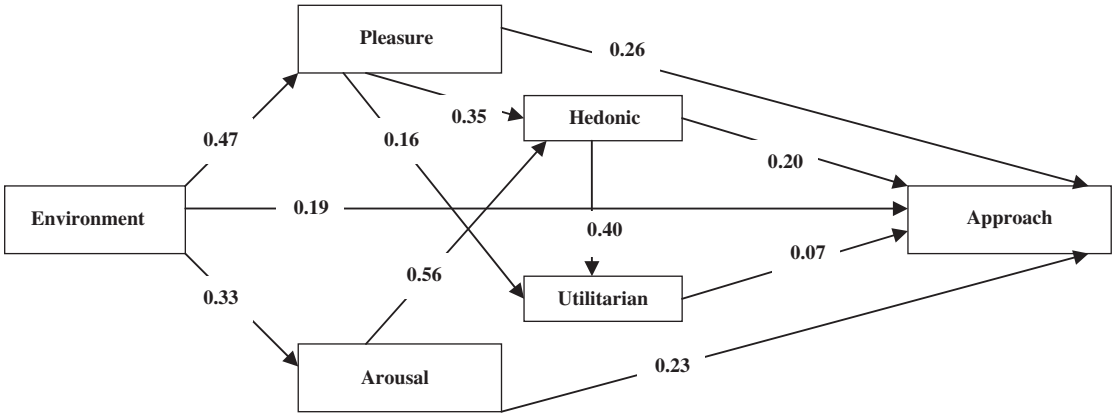

Fig. 2. Standardised theoretical path coefficients.

suggests a direct relationship between perceived environment and arousal. H_{1c} is supported by the positive estimate of 0.33 ($t = 5.33$, $p < 0.001$). Additionally taken together with H_{1b}–H_{1c}, this path suggests a significant indirect relationship between perceived environment and approach behaviour (0.28, $p < 0.001$).

The second set of hypotheses concern with direct and indirect effects of emotions and hedonic and utilitarian shopping value. H_{2a}, predicting that pleasure is associated with approach, is supported by a path estimate of 0.26 ($t = 4.11$, $p < 0.001$). The estimate for H_{2b} (0.23, $t = 4.14$, $p < 0.001$) supports the prediction, suggesting that a unit increase in arousal will result in a unit increase in approach behaviour. The estimate for H_{3a} (0.40, $t = 6.35$, $p < 0.001$) supports the prediction and suggests that hedonic shopping value is associated positively with utilitarian shopping value. H_{3c} predicts that pleasure is related positively to utilitarian shopping value. The result of this path supports a positive relationship between pleasure and utilitarian value (0.16, $t = 2.50$, $p = 0.012$). This estimate suggests that as pleasure increases so does the utilitarian value. H_{3b} predicts a positive relationship between pleasure and hedonic shopping value. The estimate for H_{3b} is 0.35 ($t = 7.35$, $p < 0.001$), suggesting that pleasure affects hedonic value directly. Likewise, the estimate for H_{3d} is 0.56 ($t = 11.79$, $p < 0.001$) indicating the existence of a strong direct effect of arousal on hedonic value.

The next set of hypotheses concerned respondents' shopping value perceptions and approach behaviours. Consistent with the prediction, H_{4a} suggests that hedonic shopping value (0.20, $t = 2.70$, $p = 0.007$) is related positively to approach behaviours. The hypothesised effect of utilitarian shopping value on approach behaviours however was not supported (H_{4b}, 0.07, $t = 1.28$, $p = 0.198$). Significant indirect relationships between environment perceptions and hedonic shopping value (0.37, $p < 0.001$), between environmental perception and utilitarian shopping value (0.21, $p < 0.001$) and between arousal and approach (0.12) were found. Furthermore, the estimate of the path between hedonic shopping value and approach behaviours (0.20, $p < 0.001$) supports the final hypothesis (H_{4c}) that the effect of hedonic shopping value on approach is greater than that of utilitarian value (Table 3).

Table 3
Standardized parameter estimates for structural model

Paths			Standardized estimate	t-value	Hypothesis
Environment	→	Approach	0.19	3.29	Supported
Environment	→	Pleasure	0.47	7.99	Supported
Environment	→	Arousal	0.33	5.33	Supported
Pleasure	→	Approach	0.26	4.11	Supported
Pleasure	→	Hedonic	0.35	7.35	Supported
Pleasure	→	Utilitarian	0.16	2.50	Supported
Arousal	→	Approach	0.23	4.14	Supported
Arousal	→	Hedonic	0.56	11.79	Supported
Hedonic	→	Utilitarian	0.40	6.35	Supported
Hedonic	→	Approach	0.20	2.70	Supported
Utilitarian	→	Approach	0.07	1.28	Not supported

9. Conclusion

Shopping is instrumental in tourism promotion, as it is a source of pleasure and excitement. During the limited time spent in a place, shopping is probably one of the easiest and best means of experiencing the local culture (Hsieh & Chang, in Press). Destination authorities should recognise the significance of creating appealing shopping districts, as tourists would prefer exciting shopping experience offered by nearby rival towns to weaker shopping districts. Giving managerial attention to exterior shopping environment is particularly important since it must be considered acceptable and pleasing before the interior of the shops is ever experienced. While the environment is part of the customer's overall evaluation of the shopping experience, there are limited empirical studies on shopping districts and their effect on shopping behaviours. This paper proposes environmental perception relating to shopping location as

an important construct shaping tourists thinking, feeling and acting. It is hypothesised that shopping environment influences shopping emotions, which then affects shopping values and approach behaviours. Study results are generally consistent with this supposition and show that environmental perceptions affect shopping emotions, values and behaviours. These findings are consistent with evidence in the general retail literature and add to the environmental psychology literature (Babin & Attaway, 2000; Babin et al., 2004; Childres et al., 2001; Stoel et al., 2004). Overall, this research clearly shows that shopping tourists may be induced to behave in certain manners based upon the appropriate generation of the shopping district environment.

The study suggests important direct results of environmental perceptions relating to the shopping location. Higher favourability of the environment with activating nature is associated with greater approach behaviours. Respondents in this study tend to show a high willingness to talk to salespeople, spend more time browsing and exploring the products, and spend more money than originally planned when the climate of TSH is perceived to be stimulating. This implies that destinations possessing shopping locations with dreary environments may be at a disadvantage when compared to more interesting environments of other nearby destinations. Dreary shopping districts may drive customers to other rival destinations. Results of the study suggest that favourable environmental climate is associated with customer emotions. It appears that macroenvironment-induced pleasure is a powerful determinant of approach behaviour. Similarly, macroenvironment-induced feelings of alertness and excitement (arousal) would increase the willingness to interact with the salesperson and the extent to which the individual spends beyond his or her planned level. However, it must be noted that inducement of arousal would only work positively in environments that are already pleasant and stimulating; arousal-inducement may have no or negative influence in unpleasant environment (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982).

The results also suggest important indirect outcomes. Consistent with the theoretical nature of emotion, pleasure-arousal dimensions affect relationships between environmental perception and all other constructs. This implies that environmental quality improves affect, which in turn helps create greater hedonic value and more approach behaviours. In contrast to hedonic shopping value-approach behaviour relationship, the path between utilitarian shopping value and approach behaviour is weaker and insignificant. This finding is consistent with Stoel et al.'s study (2004), who found that shopping trips providing utilitarian value do not necessarily lead to intentions to visit the mall in the future. This means that enjoyment from the shopping experience itself alone would motivate interactions between a tourist and a retailer. A tourist's quest for pleasurable shopping experience may be more significant than acquisition of products. Thus, higher hedonic shopping value brought about by positive affect would result in increased approach behaviours. Tourists who believe that the shopping district can provide them with fun, pleasurable and enjoyable shopping experience would feel that the experience is valuable, and therefore they are likely to return in the future. This suggests that investments in the fun and pleasurable aspects of shopping districts will pay off. While this result implies that retailers should induce fun and entertaining shopping experiences, it should be noted that tourists may not want entertaining shopping experiences on every shopping occasion, as this most assuredly result in a sensory overload. The shopping environment should make the shopper comfortable yet excited (Jones, 1999). Excitement and attraction should not be overdone to the point of irritation.

The positive association between pleasure and hedonic and utilitarian shopping values suggests that pleasure can facilitate task completion. Pleasure and Arousal appear to have a different effect on shopping values. Compared to pleasure, results suggest that arousal is the stronger determinant of hedonic shopping value.

Consistent with Babin et al.'s (2004) finding, the positive path coefficient between hedonic and utilitarian value indicates that an increase in one will result in an increase in the other. If customers are able to find the items that s/he is looking for (accomplishing the task of purchase), this will lead to enjoyment of the shopping. This finding is consistent with Babin et al. (1994) and Babin et al. (2004) who indicated that shopping experiences can indeed produce both utilitarian and shopping value. Measurement of hedonic and utilitarian shopping values can provide researcher and managers with practical approaches to modelling marketing problems. Measures of the hedonic and utilitarian shopping values enable marketers to test the effectiveness of their marketing efforts that stress experiential or functional positioning strategies. Previous research suggest that products/brands that are highly valued on hedonic dimension rather than the utilitarian dimension are better able to charge a price premium or engage in sales promotions (Voss, Spangenberg, & Grohmann, 2003). Thus, measures of these two dimensions may serve as input into pricing and sales promotion. Overall, stimulating shopping environments appear to evoke strong feelings within a customer, creating value and a desire to remain, interact and return to the environment.

10. Limitations and future research

The potential for shopping to develop into a tourism resource depends on the quality, attractiveness and safety of the environment involved rather than just on the supply of goods. There is a need to gain deeper understanding of the tourists' shopping behaviour and responses to shopping environments, as purchase behaviours of tourists as consumers may be different from the rational decision making and ordinary purchasing at home (Turner & Reisinger, 2001). For example, according to the Jafari's (1987 cf. Yuksel, 2004) model of tourist behaviour, tourists

are generally expected to shed the culture of their home environment and assume a tourist culture. They behave differently at destinations from their ordinary home environments, as they do not act according to their ordinary life culture while on holiday (Jafari, 1987). Motivations for engaging in different activities on holiday can change; services demanded may shift (Gartner, 1996 cf. Yuksel, 2004). Understanding sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction among retail customers throughout the entire purchase and consumption process is vital for developing defensive marketing strategies aimed at increased company profits through enhanced customer satisfaction (Torres, Summers, & Belleau, 2001, p. 206). Despite the marketers' best endeavours, approach behaviours can be determined by factors largely beyond the marketers' control. This means that in addition to the theoretical constructs investigated in this study, other such constructs as quality evaluations, shopping satisfaction and risk perceptions should be examined in future studies. Respondents' cultural background and demographics may have affected the present results. This study is limited, as it has not taken into effects of demographics on emotional and behavioural responses of customers. Reactions to shopping environments may not be universal. Different categories of customers may behave differently when presented with the same environmental stimulus. A highly arousing environment may produce certain responses in a teenage group of customers or a negative response in other groups of customers (older). Thus, the effects of demographics on environmental perceptions should be investigated in the future. The results are based on perceptions of a single shopping district. The perceptions could easily vary depending on shopping districts. Different environments may create different emotions and behavioural responses. Further studies comparing impacts of different environments (relaxing versus stimulating) on emotional and behavioural responses should be conducted. This study sought the impact of overall shopping environment and it is therefore limited in explaining what aspects contribute to the formation of this holistic view. Future studies on specific physical and social aspects of the macroenvironment (e.g., layouts, hard and soft quality of the physical environment, architecture, colours, density, social temperature, safety, etc.), should be undertaken to understand the relative contributions of these aspects to the formation of arousing and affective environments. We should note that emotions are context-specific, and numerous schemes for basic emotions have been proposed. The three typologies of emotions that researcher most often borrow are Izard's (1977) 10 fundamental emotions from his Differential Emotions Theory, Plutchik's (1980) eight basic emotion categories, and Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) Pleasure, Arousal, and Dominance dimensions of response. We have applied the abbreviated model of PAD which contains both negative and positive emotional states in bipolar form, as it was reported to be more convenient and at the same time its predictive and explanatory power seems to provide good external validity (Wirtz, 1994). We should however note that our knowledge of which emotional measure is most appropriate for use in shopping contexts is limited. Thus we suggest that tourist shopping emotions should be examined further to address more complex patterns of emotional response that often characterise such contemporary experience (sentimentality, affection, confidence). Overall, the results lend empirical support to the importance of generating an exciting shopping environment for retail sector to become successful.

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