

HAILERS: RETAIL SALESPeOPLE NEAR THE ENTRANCE OF THE STORE AND
SHOPPERS' APPROACH-AVOIDANCE REACTIONS

by

CAROLYN FINDLEY MUSGROVE

GEORGE R. FRANKE, COMMITTEE CO-CHAIR
KRISTY E. REYNOLDS, COMMITTEE CO-CHAIR

ALEX E. ELLINGER
MICHELE KACMAR
GLENN R. RICHEY
XIAO TONG

A DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in the Department of Management and Marketing
in the Graduate School of
The University of Alabama

TUSCALOOSA, ALABAMA

2011

ABSTRACT

This research examines a retail salesperson behavior that has been largely overlooked in the literature: retail salespeople standing and waiting for customers near the entrance of the store in retail centers, such as in traditional shopping malls, as well as a variety of other retail shopping contexts. These salespeople are referred to as “hailers.” The small amount of previous work in the area and theory suggest that this practice is a positive influence. However, qualitative interviews and quantitative results suggest the opposite. Many consumers feel uncomfortable with a salesperson near the entrance of a retail store because they think that the hailer is going to use high-pressure sales tactics.

The main study, which is grounded in approach-avoidance theory and emotional contagion theory, consists of two experiments that examine the effects of retail salespeople near the entrance of stores, as well as other environmental factors and salesperson characteristics. The first study manipulates store familiarity and retail density in addition to the presence of a retail salesperson. The second study focuses on particular characteristics of a salesperson present near the entrance and manipulates the salesperson’s demeanor and their level of activity. Each of the stimuli consists of a photograph and scenario combination.

The results of experiment one show that the presence of a hailer has a negative influence on consumers’ feelings of pleasure and arousal. Feelings of pleasure (and dominance) have a positive influence on approach attitudes and store patronage intentions, while arousal has an inverted-U shaped relationship with store patronage intentions.

The results from experiment two show that when a hailer must be present near the entrance of the retail store, a salesperson's positive demeanor has a positive influence on feelings of pleasure. In turn, pleasure has a positive relationship with approach attitudes and store patronage intentions. An unexpected interaction between salesperson demeanor and level of activity has a disordinal relationship with dominance. Further, dominance has a positive influence on store patronage intentions.

This research contributes to the domains of retail sales, atmospherics, approach-avoidance theory, and emotional contagion theory. The findings, managerial and academic implications, limitations, and future research are discussed.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

a	Cronbach's index of internal consistency
df	Degrees of freedom: number of values free to vary after certain restrictions have been placed on the data
F	Fisher's F ratio: A ration of two variances
M	Mean: the sum of a set of measurements divided by the number of measurements in the set
p	Probability associated with the occurrence under the null hypothesis of a value as extreme as or more extreme than the observed value
r	Pearson product-moment correlation
t	Computed value of t test
$<$	Less than
$=$	Equal to

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I thank several people for their support throughout the dissertation process and the entire doctoral program. First, I thank my family for their support. I am grateful to my daughter, Megan Mathewson, for sacrificing mother-daughter time so that I could work towards this goal. I really appreciate my husband, Michael Musgrove, and mother, Deborah Dunn, for their emotional support and child care assistance. I especially thank Michael for his editing skills and willingness to proofread. Second, I am extremely grateful to my dissertation co-chairs, Dr. George Franke and Dr. Kristy Reynolds. They both have been so wonderful. I will never be able to repay them for everything they have done for me and taught me through this dissertation, as well as throughout the doctoral program. Third, I am also very thankful to the members of the committee, Dr. Alex Ellinger, Dr. Glenn Richey, Dr. Micki Kacmar, and Dr. Michelle Tong, who gave valuable advice and input. Of the committee members, I especially thank Dr. Alex Ellinger for his support and mentorship throughout the doctoral program, classes, dissertation, and on-going projects. Finally, I thank the coordinator of my doctoral program, Dr. Sharon Beatty, for her direction and supervision throughout my time at the University of Alabama.

CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	ii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS	iv
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
I. INTRODUCTION	
a. Introduction	1
b. Contribution	2
c. Overview of Conceptual Model	4
d. Organization of the Dissertation	5
II. LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS	
a. Introduction	7
b. Retail Salespeople	7
c. Atmospherics	11
d. Approach-Avoidance Theory	17
e. Emotional Contagion Theory	22
III. EXPLORATORY RESEARCH AND MODEL DEVELOPMENT	
a. Overview	26
b. Qualitative Phase	26
c. Facebook	26

d. Retail Salesperson In-depth Interviews	29
e. Consumer In-depth Interviews	38
f. Quantitative Pretest 1	45
g. Quantitative Pretest 2	49
IV. HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT	
a. Introduction	54
b. Hypotheses and Rationales	56
c. Experiment One	56
d. Experiment Two	61
V. RESEARCH METHODS	
a. Research Design	65
b. Manipulation Development	67
c. Operationalization of the Constructs	69
d. Manipulated Variables	69
e. Measured Variables	79
f. Covariates	81
g. Manipulation Realism, and Demand Checks	82
h. Data Collection Procedures	85
i. Pilot Tests	85
j. Main Test	86
k. Conclusion	87
VI. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS	
a. Introduction	99

b. Pilot Test One Results	99
c. Experiment One of Pilot Test One	102
d. Experiment Two of Pilot Test One	113
e. Pilot Test Two Results	121
f. Main Test Results	130
g. Experiment One	133
h. Experiment Two	144
VII. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND FUTURE RESEARCH	
a. Introduction	156
b. Discussion of Findings of Experiment One	156
c. Discussion of Findings of Experiment Two	160
d. Academic Implications	163
e. Managerial Implications	167
f. Limitations and Future Research	169
g. Conclusion	169
REFERENCES	171
APPENDIX A	179
APPENDIX B	190

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1 Consumer Open-ended Responses via Facebook.....	27
Table 3.2 Retail Salesperson Interview Guide.....	30
Table 3.3 Consumer Interview Guide.....	38
Table 3.4 Pretest One Items.....	46
Table 3.5 Pretest One Results.....	48
Table 3.6 Pretest Two Items.....	49
Table 3.7 Pretest Two Results- Four Groups.....	51
Table 3.8 Pretest Two Results- Two Groups.....	53
Table 5.1 Measures in the Experimental Instrument.....	83
Table 6.1 Experiment One of Pilot Test One Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, Inter-Correlations, and Square-roots of the Average Variance Extracted.....	106
Table 6.2 Pilot One Experiment One Multivariate Analysis of Covariance Between-Subjects Effects.....	108
Table 6.3 Pilot One Experiment One Multiple Regression Results (Approach).....	110
Table 6.4 Pilot One Experiment One Multiple Regression Results (Patronage).....	110
Table 6.5 Structural Results for Pilot Test One Experiment One.....	112
Table 6.6 Pilot One Experiment Two of Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, Inter-Correlations, and Square-roots of the Average Variance Extracted.....	116

Table 6.7 Pilot One Experiment Two Multivariate Analysis of Covariance Between-Subjects Effects.....	117
Table 6.8 Pilot One Experiment Two Multiple Regression Results (Approach).....	118
Table 6.9 Pilot One Experiment Two Multiple Regression Results (Patronage).....	119
Table 6.10 Pilot Test One Experiment Two Structural Results.....	120
Table 6.11 Pilot Test Two Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, Inter-Correlations, and Square-roots of the Average Variance Extracted.....	125
Table 6.12 Pilot Two Experiment One Multiple Regression Results (Approach).....	127
Table 6.13 Pilot Two Experiment One Multiple Regression Results (Patronage).....	127
Table 6.14 Structural Results for Pilot Test Two.....	129
Table 6.15 Experiment One Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, Inter-Correlations, and Square-roots of the Average Variance Extracted.....	136
Table 6.16 Main Test Experiment One Multivariate Analysis of Covariance Between-Subjects Effects.....	137
Table 6.17 Main Test Experiment One Multiple Regression Results (Approach).....	140
Table 6.18 Main Test Experiment One Multiple Regression Results (Patronage).....	140
Table 6.19 Structural Results for Main Test Experiment One.....	142
Table 6.20 Experiment Two Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, Inter-Correlations, and Square-roots of the Average Variance Extracted.....	146
Table 6.21 Main Test Experiment Two Multivariate Analysis of Covariance Between-Subjects Effects.....	148
Table 6.22 Main Test Experiment Two Multiple Regression Results (Approach).....	150
Table 6.23 Main Test Experiment Two Multiple Regression Results (Patronage).....	150
Table 6.24 Structural Results for Experiment Two.....	152

Table 6.25 Summary of Multivariate and Lisrel Results for Pilot Test One, Pilot Test Two, and Main Test.....	155
-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	-----

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 Conceptual Model of the Main Tests.....	6
Figure 4 Conceptual Model of the Main Tests.....	55
Figure 5.1 Study 1: Store Characteristics.....	66
Figure 5.2 Study 2: Salesperson Characteristics.....	67
Figure 5.3 Examples of Photographic Manipulations.....	71
Figure 5.4 Simulation Interaction Graphs.....	88
Figure 6.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Experiment One of Pilot Test One.....	104
Figure 6.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Experiment Two of Pilot Test One.....	115
Figure 6.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Pilot Test Two.....	124
Figure 6.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Experiment One.....	135
Figure 6.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Experiment Two.....	145
Figure 6.6 Interaction of Salesperson Demeanor and Salesperson Activity on Dominance.....	149

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Retail salespeople play a critical role in customers' perceptions of the retail environment and retail experiences. They occupy a pivotal and boundary-spanning position for retailers, as they are the primary point of contact between a retailer and customers (Bell, Menguc, and Widing 2010). Westbrook (1981) named salespeople as the most influential component of overall retail store satisfaction. Retail salesperson behavior is a critical influence on the success or failure of a retailer because of its influence on consumer responses, including store patronage and purchase intentions (Darian, Tucci, and Wiman 2001), purchase decisions (Babin, Babin, and Boles 1999), perception of service quality (Mittal and Lassar 1996), and overall image of the retail store (Weitzl, Schwarzkopf, and Peach 1989). This study examines a particular retail salesperson behavior that has been largely overlooked in the literature: retail salespeople standing and waiting for customers near the entrance of the store in retail centers, such as in traditional shopping malls, and a variety of other retail shopping contexts. For purposes of this research, these retail salespeople are called "hailers."

There is an important difference between retail salespeople who greet customers at the entrance of the store, or hailers, and specifically assigned 'greeters,' based on their subsequent behavior. Once retail salespeople greet a customer, they attempt to continue the interaction, accompany the customer throughout the store, and attempt to influence the customer to make a

purchase. On the contrary, an employee who is a designated greeter simply says hello to customers as they enter, possibly points them in the direction of particular merchandise or a salesperson, watches for shoplifting, and physically remains near the entrance.

Theory and the small amount of previous research that incorporates, but does not focus on, retail salespeople greeting customers as they enter the store suggests that a retail salesperson's presence at the entrance of a store would be a positive influence. However, anecdotal evidence and initial exploratory results suggest the opposite. Many consumers feel uncomfortable with a hailer because they feel like the salesperson is waiting to use high pressure sales tactics on them. This sort of image can lead to negative outcomes for the retailer. More knowledge is needed to understand what conditions result in more or less favorable consumer emotions and behaviors in response to a retail salesperson waiting near the entrance of a retail store.

Contribution

This research makes contributions to multiple literatures in several ways. First, although a small number of studies in the retail sales and atmospherics literature incorporate some related aspects, no existing research specifically focuses on retail salespeople standing near the entrance of stores waiting for customers, or hailers. As discussed in Chapter III, the qualitative interviews and two quantitative pretests show that this activity is a fairly common practice. Some retailers even train and require their salespeople to stand within the first few feet near the entrance. The lack of research on this particular practice is surprising given the recognition of the importance of retail salespeople (Babin, Babin, and Boles 1999; Darian, Tucci, and Wiman 2001; Westbrook 1981). Thus, the primary contribution of this research is the examination of this potentially important retail sales strategy that has been largely overlooked in the retail sales literature.

Second, several authors make calls for research on how aspects of the salesperson and the interaction between the salesperson and the customer interact with the physical environment, or atmospheric variables. Specifically, Sharma and Stafford (2000) call for research on how salesperson availability might be coordinated with other factors of the retail environment to maximize persuasion. Similarly, in their study of salesperson characteristics and consumer emotion, Lee and Dubinsky (2003) propose that the complicated nature of interpersonal interaction and emotions in the consumption setting will remain a mystery unless it is considered along with the physical environment of the retail store. Bitner (1992) also calls for research to address the moderating effects of the environment on social interactions among customers and employees. This study answers these calls by examining how a salesperson, being immediately available at the entrance of a retail store, interacts with another atmospheric variable, retail density, and a contextual factor, store familiarity, in order to produce effects on consumer emotions and several customer responses (e.g. patronage intentions, attitudes) that are beneficial to the firm. This integration of sales and atmospherics makes a contribution to both streams of literature.

Third, this work addresses the calls that Babin, Babin, and Boles (1999) make for future research to study 1) the antecedents of attitude toward the salesperson in retail settings and 2) the effect of specific salesperson behaviors on a consumer's attitude toward the salesperson and the retailer. This study also answers these calls by examining the effects of several potential antecedents of consumer attitudes, including the focal retail salesperson behavior of standing near the entrance of a store in a mall.

Fourth, retail salespeople are also subsumed under the social, or human, dimension in atmospherics taxonomies. However, the social element of the environment has been largely

neglected in empirical research (Tombs and McColl-Kennedy 2003). This deficiency in the literature is highlighted by the fact that there has been a paradigm shift to service-dominant logic (Vargo and Lusch 2004) and its focus on co-creation of value that often includes an experiential factor with service providers (Bitner 1992; Tombs and McColl-Kennedy 2003). This research also seeks to answer these calls by empirically examining a social factor in the retail servicescape.

Fifth, this research also elaborates on approach-avoidance theory (Mehrabian and Russell 1974) by adding to the list of environmental stimuli. By doing so, this work also elaborates on the other retailing-specific or services-specific approach-avoidance conceptualizations and taxonomies of retailing stimuli that are drawn from Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) original theory, such as the work of Bitner (1992), Donovan and Rossiter (1981), Berman and Evans (1982), and Turley and Milliman (2000).

Sixth, since this work will be the first to focus on this particular retail sales strategy of retail salespeople standing near the entrance of retail stores, it will lay groundwork for future research in the area. Some potential avenues for future research could examine differences in types of shoppers or types of retail establishments. Personality characteristics of the customers as well as the salespeople could play interesting mediating or moderating roles. Future research is discussed in more depth in Chapter VII.

Overview of the Conceptual Model

Guided by Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) approach-avoidance theory, the proposed research examines how consumers emotionally and behaviorally react to the presence of a retail salesperson near the entrance of stores. Figure 1 displays the conceptual model for the two main studies. The basic process of the model for both study 1 and study 2 is that when a consumer is

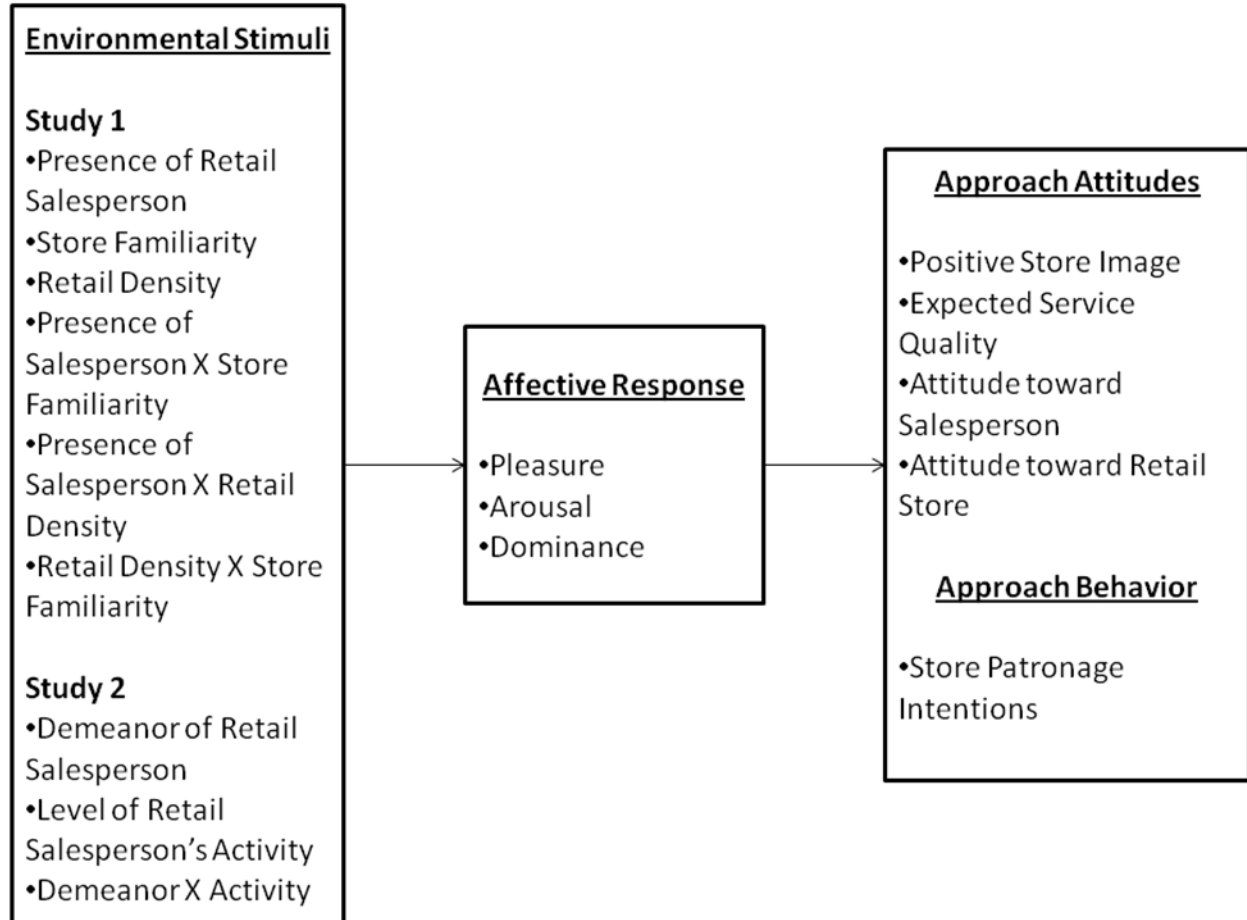
exposed to an environmental stimulus, or a combination of multiple stimuli, various levels of the three primary emotions are evoked (pleasure, arousal, and dominance). In turn, the consumers' emotional responses influence various approach attitudes and behaviors (positive store image, expected service quality, attitude toward the salesperson, attitude toward the retail store, and store patronage intentions).

While the focal independent variable is the retail salesperson at the entrance, this research also examines other environmental factors' interactions with retail salesperson presence, as well as characteristics of the retail salesperson. In the first experiment of the main study, in addition to the presence of a retail salesperson, store familiarity and retail density are also manipulated. The second experiment of the main study focuses on characteristics of a salesperson present near the entrance. In the second experiment, the salesperson's demeanor and level of activity are also manipulated. Two-way interactions are also investigated in each of the experiments.

Organization of the Dissertation

This section provides an overview of the five chapters that comprise this proposal. Chapter I provides an introduction to the topic area, the proposed contribution, and the conceptual model for the main test. Chapter II reviews the literature on retail salespeople and atmospherics as they relate to the current work, as well as the theoretical foundations of approach-avoidance theory and emotional contagion theory. Chapter III offers a discussion of qualitative and quantitative exploratory research that serves as a basis for the model development. Chapter IV theoretically develops the hypotheses relating to the model. Chapter V describes the research design and methodology for experiments one and two of the main study. Chapter VI provides the analysis and results of the two pilot tests and main study. Chapter VII offers a discussion of the results, limitations, and directions for future research.

Figure 1
Conceptual Model of the Main Tests



CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter reviews multiple streams of literature that are relevant to hikers. First, the chapter begins with a discussion of related literature on retail salespeople. Second, the chapter addresses relevant literature in the atmospherics stream. Third, the chapter reviews approach-avoidance theory, which provides the primary theoretical basis for the main studies. Lastly, the chapter discusses emotional contagion theory because it provides an additional theoretical basis for the second experiment of the main study. Tables including literature in these topic areas are available in Appendix A (retail salespeople) and Appendix B (atmospherics), however, the literature that is directly related to this study is reviewed in the text of this chapter.

Retail Salespeople

Many authors in the sales literature proclaim that retail salespeople play a crucial role in customers' reactions and other important consequences for the retailer. The way that retail and other service employees relate to customers plays a significant role in business success (Mittal and Lassar 1996). Salespeople greatly influence major retail purchase decisions (Babin, Babin, and Boles 1999). The strength of good salespeople constitutes one of the few remaining ways to achieve a competitive advantage in the retail industry (Sharma 2001). Because they may be the only personal contact with the retail establishment that customers have, the impressions that retail salespeople create are important to the retailer (Weitzel, Schwarzkopf, and Peach 1989).

Beatty, Mayer, Coleman, Reynolds, and Lee (1996) explicate how retail firms benefit from retail salespeople developing relationships with customers through repeated interactions.

Researchers have uncovered a variety of important strategic outcome variables that stem from customers' perceptions of retail salespeople. For example, Westbrook (1981) reports that satisfaction with store salespeople is the most influential component of overall retail store satisfaction. Other researchers show that customers' perceptions of a salesperson's attributes and relationship building behaviors drive customer satisfaction (van Dolen, Lemmink, de Ruyter, and de Jong 2002). Salesperson behavior ultimately influences customers' satisfaction with the salesperson, retailer, product, and manufacturer (Goff et al. 1997). Teams of retail salespeople that perform well may provide a competitive advantage by improving the overall image of the retailer (Babin, Babin, and Boles 1999; Goff, Boles, Bellenger, and Stojack 1997; Hartline and Ferrell 1996; Malhotra 1983). Consumers' perceptions of a salesperson also influence the image of a retail store as well as the store's products (Weitzel et al. 1989). Consumers' attitudes toward a retail salesperson influence purchase intentions through attitude toward the retailer (Babin, Babin, and Boles 1999; Darian, Tucci, and Wiman 2001). Mittal and Lassar (1996) find that personalization, or the social content of the interaction between retail salespeople and customers, significantly influences customer perceptions of overall service quality and patronage behavior. These effects are stronger for person-processing services than possession-processing.

Other research shows that various attributes of retail salespeople affect consumers' emotions and behaviors. Babin, Boles, and Darden (1995) find different salesperson categories that are associated with different emotions are activated in the minds of consumers when different salesperson characteristics are altered. Lee and Dubinsky (2003) propose that trustworthiness, expertise, friendliness, similarity, enthusiasm, and professional appearance

encourage customers' positive emotions, ultimately affecting satisfaction and purchase intent. Similarly, Guenzi, Johnson, and Cataido (2009) find that the trustworthiness of the salesperson leads to loyalty intentions and perceived value through trust in the store. Yoo, Park, and MacInnis (1998) report that salesperson service (as captured by knowledge, kindness, forcefulness, and appropriateness) has a significant effect on both positive and negative emotions of customers and an indirect effect on store attitude. Ponder, Lueg, and Williams (2006) also find that customers often seek salesperson assistance because they are helpful, knowledgeable, and friendly, but a potential drawback is that retail salespeople are sometimes pushy and pressure the customers. Hedrick, Beverland, and Oppewal (2004) propose that a retail salesperson's delivery has a direct positive relationship with patronage intentions. Darian, Wiman, and Tucci (2005) also examine the relative importance of various salesperson attributes. They find that both a salesperson's respect of the customer and prices compared to competitors are most important followed by a salesperson's friendliness and knowledge, and responsiveness.

The physical appearance of retail salespeople and other service employees is another area of research that is attracting attention. In their study of schema typicality of retail stores, Babin and Babin (2001) include a manipulation for employee appearance, in terms of either matching the local default expectations closely or not. They find that a salesperson's appearance has a significant effect on typicality. In turn, typicality has an indirect effect on patronage intentions, hedonic shopping value, and utilitarian shopping value through emotions such as excitement and discomfort. Similarly, Shao, Baker, and Wagner (2004) find that consumers' perceptions of appropriateness of service personnel's dress in the banking industry lead to higher service quality expectations and purchase intent. They also find that these effects are strengthened in the boundary conditions of low involvement and female subjects. Finally, through qualitative

methods, Kim, Lu, and Johnson (2009) find customers make associations between retail salesperson appearance and both positive and negative customer emotions, thoughts about the store image, and purchases.

While none of the sales literature specifically focuses on salespeople near the entrance of retail stores, salesperson availability is somewhat similar. Naylor and Frank (2000) report that customers report higher perceptions of overall value when the salesperson initiates contact than when the customer initiates contact or there is no contact. Perception of a salesperson's willingness to help is more influential on willingness to buy than perception of product quality (Sweeney, Soutar, and Johnson 1997). As part of a salesperson's customer orientation, a salesperson's availability to offer assistance is of utmost importance to customers (Sharma 2001; Williams and Seminerio 1985). Sharma and Stafford (2000) find that salesperson availability has a direct effect on credibility, persuasion, product evaluation, and buying intention. They also examine the difference in prestige and discount stores to find that a reduction in the number of retail salespeople does not affect buying intent for prestige stores, but an increase in the number of salespeople does increase buying intentions in discount stores. Likewise, Grewal, Baker, Levy and Voss (2003) find that prestige stores, with more visible salespeople available to offer assistance, produce reduced perceived wait time, which leads to increased store patronage.

In the piece of work that is closest to the study at hand, Darian et al. (2001) qualitatively find that in terms of salesperson availability, some customers prefer to be greeted immediately upon entry to a retail store and others feel that it is aggressive or overzealous, but almost all of their respondents feel it is important not to be pressured. However, as part of a conjoint analysis, respondents indicated that they are more likely to select a store where a salesperson immediately greets them as they enter over a store in which a salesperson is hard to find. While a few aspects

of Darian et al.'s (2001) study are similar to the current study, fundamental differences exist. Their study includes a greeting as a manipulation, but this aspect of the study receives only marginal attention. In the current study, retail salespeople are manipulated as standing a few feet inside of the entrance of the store. They appear poised to greet a customer, but have not yet done so. In addition, unlike the greeting in Darian et al.'s (2001) study, the retail salesperson's initial interaction with the customer at the entrance of the store is the focus of the current study. Also, their shopping context is moderately highly-priced items in a consumer electronics store, whereas the current study's context is a variety of types of retail stores in a traditional mall. Consumers often browse through malls and other types of retailing centers and can see whether a salesperson is near the entrance before deciding whether to enter the store, unlike free-standing stores where the customer has already decided to enter the store beforehand, and often cannot see inside the doorway from outside. Finally, Darian et al. (2001) note that their context involves extended decision making, which implies that customers may want to spend some time in the store before interacting with salespeople. In contrast, the current study will not necessarily involve an extended decision making context. Finally, these authors do not specifically examine the location of the salesperson relative to the entrance or if the salesperson is visible to the customers prior to entering the store. The current study specifically focuses on the retail entrance location with the salesperson clearly visible to customers as they shop through a retail center.

Atmospherics

Another body of literature that is related to the current study is atmospherics. Atmospheric variables, or stimuli in the retail environment, play an important role in retail service encounters (Chebat and Dube 2000; Grewal, Baker, Levy, and Voss 2003; Sharma and Stafford 2000; Turley and Milliman 2000). According to Bitner (1990), atmospheric planning

can make the difference between success and failure for a business (Bitner 1990). In short, the buying environment can directly influence purchasing behavior (De Mozota 1990).

Kotler (1973) introduces the idea of atmospherics into the literature. He notes that in-store environments have an effect on customers' perceptions, leading to their subsequent behaviors. He predicts that they will become the chief form of competition. According to Kotler (1973), customers perceive the atmospheric environment of a store through sensory cues, including: visual (i.e., lighting, color), aural (i.e., music), tactile (i.e., cleanliness), and olfactory (i.e., scent). The study of these facility-based effects is called by several names, such as atmospherics, shelf-space studies, environmental psychology, and servicescapes. A wide range of outcomes have been examined as consequences of atmospheric variables. Some of the most common dependent variables are sales, purchase behavior, time spent in the store, and approach-avoidance behaviors (Turley and Milliman 2000).

A wide variety of atmospheric variables are investigated in the literature. Turley and Milliman (2000) provide a thorough review of the atmospheric variables using a modified version of Berman and Evan's (1995) categorization as a framework. They extend the original four categories to include a human dimension. The first category, external variables, includes variables such as the storefront, marquee, entrances, display windows, building architecture, the surrounding area, and parking. Very little research exists in this category. Turley and Milliman (2000) point out that only four published articles examine the exterior of the store on buyer behavior, at the time that their review piece was published. In contrast, the second category, general interior variables, receives more attention in the literature than any other category. The general interior variables category includes variables such as flooring/carpeting, lighting, scents, music and other sounds, temperature, cleanliness, wall textures, and color usage. The third

category, layout and design, includes variables such as fixtures, allocation of floor space, product groupings, traffic flow, department locations, and allocations within departments. Turley and Milliman (2000) identify only three published studies in this category. The fourth category, point-of-purchase and decoration, includes variables such as product displays, point-of-purchase displays, posters, signs, cards, teletext messages, and wall decorations. Finally, the fifth category is human variables, which includes variables such as customer crowding or density, privacy, customer characteristics, personnel/employee characteristics, and employee uniforms. This category can be subcategorized into two areas of research: the influence of other shoppers and the influence of retail employees on shopping behavior. While research in the human variables category is somewhat limited, most of the attention focuses on the impact of other customers on shopping behavior, with an emphasis on shopper density and perceived crowding. Research on the impact of retail salespeople as an atmospheric variable is extremely limited.

Although researchers focus on many different topics within the atmospherics literature, the two atmospheric variables that are especially relevant to the current work are retail density, or crowding, and retail salespeople as an atmospheric influence. These areas are discussed in more detail in the following paragraphs.

Retail density, or crowding, is central to retail atmospherics, yet it is seldom taken into consideration (Michon, Chebat, and Turley 2005). Although many researchers use the terms consumer density, retail density, and crowding interchangeably, Stokols (1972) draws an important distinction between density and crowding. Density is a physical condition involving spatial limitation, as opposed to crowding which is a motivational or experiential state that is perceived by an individual. Density is a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for the perception of crowding. Social interference, restriction of movement, and other personal characteristics

influence individuals to perceive crowding. Hui and Bateson (1991) find that consumer density indirectly effects pleasure, as mediated by both perceived crowding and perceived control. Machleit, Eroglu, and Mantel (2000) focus on the complex relationship between perceived retail crowding and shopping satisfaction. They find that the negative relationship between both human and spatial crowding and shopping satisfaction is partially mediated by a variety of emotions. Further, they show that this decrease in shopping satisfaction associated with crowding is moderated by expectations of crowding, personal tolerance for crowding, and store type. As part of their study of atmospherics in Egyptian shopping malls, El Sayed, Farrag, and Belk (2003) find that behavior intentions and pleasure are significantly lower in conditions of crowdedness. Recently, Pan and Siemens (2010) examine the differences in the impact of retail density in goods versus service settings. They find that in a goods setting, there is an inverted U-shaped crowding effect on store attitudes and behavioral intentions. In a service setting, the relationship between retail crowding and outcome variables is linear, except in conditions of time pressure. Interestingly, they show that consumers have more favorable attitudes and expect to pay more as the level of crowding increases in service settings than in goods settings.

A recent trend in atmospherics research is to test multiple atmospheric variables simultaneously so that the interaction effects between the variables can be explored (Wakefield and Baker 1998). This approach has more external validity because consumers never encounter individual atmospheric variables. They process environmental cues holistically (Babin and Suter 2003) within the context of several other environmental cues simultaneously presenting themselves. Researchers are beginning to examine retail density and crowding in conjunction with other atmospheric variables. Eroglu, Machleit, and Chebat (2005) examine the main and interactive effects of retail density and music tempo. In regard to density, they find a main effect

on the total dollars spent. Consumers spend more money when there are higher levels of retail density. They also find an interactive effect of music tempo and retail density on hedonic and utilitarian shopping value. Both types of value are highest in conditions of moderate incongruity, or fast music with high density and slow music with low density. Similarly, Michon et al. (2005), jointly examine retail density and ambient odors. They find that ambient odors have a positive effect on consumers' perceptions of the mall environment and emotions only during times of medium retail density. This effect disappears under conditions of low or high retail density. Finally, Mattila and Wirtz (2008) report that the joint effects of perceived crowding and salesperson friendliness increase the likelihood of impulse purchasing.

According to Hoffman and Turley (2002), the interaction of the inanimate environment, contact personnel, and other customers is an important area of study. However, the social, or human, dimension of atmospherics is generally neglected in the literature, with the exception of several crowding, or retail density, studies (Chebat and Dube 2000; Turley and Milliman 2000). Very little is known about the role that employees play in the physical retail environment.

Particularly, no research in the atmospherics literature directly addresses the effects of a retail salesperson standing near the entrance of a retail store, but a small number of studies incorporate a retail salesperson or a salesperson greeting as a part of their stimuli. A set of papers that stems from a common video manipulation include a social factor as a prestige-image store environment. By using a video showing the experience of walking through a greeting card store, the prestige-image is manipulated by using a simultaneous combination of three cues: 1) three salespeople rather than one salesperson, 2) the salespeople wearing aprons versus not wearing aprons, and 3) one salesperson greeting the customer versus no greeting (Baker, Levy, and Grewal 1992; Baker, Grewal, and Parasuraman 1994; Baker, Parasuraman, Grewal, and Voss

2002; Grewal, Baker, Levy, and Voss 2003). These studies find a positive relationship between this prestige social factor and arousal, pleasure, perceptions of merchandise quality and service quality, and store patronage intentions. This set of studies is similar to the current study, in that a salesperson is present and greets the customer. However, since these characteristics are only part of the prestige-image manipulation, the individual effects of salesperson presence and the greeting cannot be examined. Unlike the current study, these studies do not focus on activity near the entrance of the store and the extent to which the salespeople are visible prior to entering the store is unspecified.

In another set of studies that includes a retail salesperson, the scenarios for both high- and low-personalized customer service conditions have a retail salesperson greeting the customer after entering the store as part of a longer sequence of events (Hu and Jasper 2006, 2007). However, since the greeting is included in both manipulations, the resulting data reveals no information based on the greeting itself.

Hedrick, Beverland, and Oppewal (2004) argue that relationships exist among the retail salesperson's delivery, store atmospheric cues, and patronage intentions. They propose that 1) a retail salesperson's delivery will have a direct positive relationship with patronage intentions, 2) store atmosphere cues will have a direct influence on customer's expectations of a retail salesperson's delivery, and 3) a retail salesperson's delivery will moderate the relationship between customer expectations of salesperson delivery and patronage intent. Later, these same authors test their ideas about retail salesperson and customer interactions with a scenario-based experiment. They find that there are significant differences in high and low level retail salesperson interaction, in that those who are in the higher interaction group had lower ratings of patronage intentions. The store atmosphere has a significant impact on customer expectations of

the retail salesperson, such that higher perceived ambience results in higher expectations of a retail salesperson's behavior, but not in higher salesperson credibility. This study highlights the significance of the relationship between store atmospherics and the retail salesperson interaction on repatronage intentions because atmospherics impact customers' expectations of a retail salesperson, which in turn influences customer satisfaction.

In summary, existing research on retail salespeople in the atmospherics literature is limited, leaving much to be investigated. The proposed study will contribute to filling the gap in the social dimension of the atmospherics literature by examining retail salespeople's behaviors, and their interactions with different atmospheric variables.

Approach-Avoidance Theory

Theoretical support for this study is drawn from Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) approach-avoidance theoretical framework that is also commonly referred to as Mehrabian and Russell's approach-avoidance theory, Mehrabian's theory of emotion, and the M-R model. It is based on the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) paradigm of environmental psychology. Within this theory, an environmental stimulus (S) arouses emotions in an organism (O) that consequently evoke behavioral responses (R). In this case, the focal stimulus is a hailer, the organism is the consumer and his or her evoked emotions, and the response can encompass a wide range of potential shopper behaviors. According to Mehrabian and Russell (1974), physical or social stimuli in the environment affect the emotional state of a person, which in turn elicits a behavioral response. In their model, both the environment (including sense modality variables and information rate) and personality characteristics that are associated with emotion are included as antecedents of the primary emotional responses. The model covers a wide range of stimuli, although it does not include a comprehensive taxonomy.

The three primary emotional responses that mediate the relationship between a stimulus and a behavioral response are pleasure, arousal, and dominance. These three emotions together describe practically any emotional response to a stimulus (Mehrabian 1980). Pleasure, arousal, and dominance are conceptualized as orthogonal. However, sometimes correlations exist among the emotions, especially between pleasure and arousal. Pleasure is a feeling state that is described by the degree to which a person feels good, joyful, happy, or satisfied in the situation. Arousal is a feeling state of being excited, stimulated, alert, frenzied, or active in a situation. Finally, dominance is the extent to which an individual feels in control of, influential, or free to act in the situation (Donovan and Rossiter 1982; Ezech and Harris 2007; Mehrabian and Russell 1974).

The behavioral responses that result from the three primary emotions compose two broad groups comprised of approach and avoidance responses. Mehrabian and Russell (1974) label all of the responses as behaviors, regardless of whether they are behaviors, emotions, or cognitions. Approach-avoidance behaviors are the “physical movement toward, or away from, an environment or stimulus, degree of attention, exploration, favorable attitudes such as verbally or nonverbally expressed preference or liking, approach to a task (the level of performance), and approach to another person (affiliation)” (Mehrabian and Russell 1974, p. 96). Specifically in a retailing context, approach behaviors include a willingness or desire to move towards, stay in, explore, interact with, perform in, and return to an environment. Avoidance behaviors include deteriorated performance, dissatisfaction, anxiety, boredom, unfriendliness, and a desire to leave the environment (Donovan and Rossiter 1982).

Feelings of pleasure are associated with approach behaviors. An important implication is that pleasure may be produced by the object or person being approached. This associated approach is not contingent on the approach behavior itself. Instead, approach is simply due to

pleasing characteristics that are associated with a particular environment or stimulus. The pleasure-approach relationship may be understood in terms of reinforcement (Skinner 1961), as pleasure-eliciting stimuli are positively reinforcing. Pleasure is a sufficient, but not necessary, condition for positive reinforcement and approach behaviors (Mehrabian and Russell 1974).

According to approach-avoidance theory, feelings of arousal have an inverted U-shaped relationship with approach and avoidance responses. Approach behaviors, such as physical approach, preference, positive attitudes, and exploration, are most likely at moderate levels of arousal. Extremely high or low levels of arousal are associated with avoidance behaviors (Mehrabian and Russell 1974). Thus, if a stimulus influences a very low amount of arousal, then it is boring. On the other hand, if a stimulus creates too much excitement or anxiety and is too arousing, then it could be stressful. In either case, too little or too much arousal produces avoidance responses.

Feelings of dominance are associated with approach behaviors. Conversely, submissiveness is associated with avoidance behaviors (Donovan, Rossiter, Marcolyn, and Nesdale 1994; Mehrabian and Russell 1974). Therefore, if people feel that they are in control of their situation and have freedom to act in the environment as they choose, then they will have approach responses. Dominance receives the least attention of the three emotional dimensions in the retail literature and there have been some equivocal findings. For example, Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) theory predicts that feelings of dominance are associated with approach. However, Mehrabian and Russell (1974) find the opposite in an empirical test of their theory in their initial book. Dominance has been marginalized or even dropped in many studies (Donovan and Rossiter 1982; Russell and Pratt 1980). However, Biggers and Rankis (1983) explain that in Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) original work, the range of responses is restricted. They show

that dominance is actually the preferred state, meaning individuals approach dominance eliciting situations, and they suggest that dominance be included in future research.

Donovan and Rossiter (1982, p. 37) extend Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) approach-avoidance theory to retail environments. They provide a response taxonomy to describe approach and avoidance behaviors in a retail setting:

1. The desire to physically stay in (approach) or leave (avoidance) the environment: related to store patronage intentions.
2. The willingness to explore the environment (approach) or tendency to remain inanimate with the surroundings (avoidance): related to the degree of in-store searching and the range of merchandise to which the customer allows himself or herself to be exposed.
3. The desire to communicate with others in the store (approach) or tendency to avoid any interaction with others (avoidance): related to the interaction with the sales staff and other customers.
4. The degree of enhancement (approach) or hindrance (avoidance) that the environment gives to solving problems: related to satisfaction and repeat shopping frequency, as well as the amount of time and money spent in the store.

Of Donovan and Rossiter's (1982) four aspects of approach-avoidance in retail settings, the first and third responses have the most relevance to this study. First, physical approach or avoidance relates to store patronage. Also, the desire to communicate approach or avoidance relates to the consumers' responses to, and interactions with, a retail salesperson at the entrance of a store. They find that pleasure and arousal relate particularly well to consumer behaviors in retail settings, but dominance has much less predictive power. Specifically, pleasure is a determinant of approach behaviors in retail stores, such as spending behavior. Arousal, or store-induced alertness or excitement often due to lighting, music, or other atmospheric stimuli, increases time spent in the store and willingness to interact with personnel.

Bitner (1992) further expands the approach-avoidance framework for retail and other service settings in her development of a framework for understanding environment-user relationships in service organizations that is referred to as the servicescape model. The

servicescape model builds on previous approach-avoidance theory by adding a taxonomy of environmental stimuli that trigger the emotional responses. The stimulus variables in Bitner's (1992) conceptual model are categorized into three environmental dimensions: 1) ambient conditions, 2) space/function, and 3) signs, symbols, and artifacts. Also, the model incorporates service employees as an important part of understanding how consumers relate to their environment. However, in Bitner's model, employees are not considered as an environmental stimulus, as they are in the present work. Instead, environmental stimuli influence employees' approach and avoidance responses in a way that parallels customers' responses.

The proposed research will build on Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) approach-avoidance theory, as well as its subsequent extensions into retailing, in a number of ways. First, this research will apply approach-avoidance theory to focus on a specific previously unexplored environmental stimulus, hailers, answering calls to explore additional environmental stimuli (Mehrabian and Russell 1974). Second, this research will elaborate on Bitner's (1992) taxonomies of factors that drive approach-avoidance behaviors by investigating a social dimension in general, as suggested by Turley and Milliman (2000) and Tombs and McColl-Kennedy (2003). Third, this research investigates multiple environmental factors and their interactions with the presence of a retail salesperson at the entrance of stores, answering several calls (Bitner 1992; Lee and Dubinsky 2003; Sharma and Stafford 2000). Fourth, most of the previous research focuses on single variables in isolation and more knowledge is needed on how environmental stimuli interact with each other (Michon, Chebat, and Turley 2005). Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) theory discusses interactions between pleasure, arousal, and dominance, but does not address interactions among different environmental stimuli. Finally, this study will consider dominance in the emotional responses to environmental stimuli. Dominance has been

marginalized or excluded from much empirical and theory-building research since Donovan and Rossiter's (1982) introduction of approach-avoidance theory to the retailing literature and finding of no strong effects for dominance.

Emotional Contagion Theory

The theory of emotional contagion provides a secondary theoretical basis for the hypotheses in the second experiment in the main study. Emotional contagion is "the tendency to automatically mimic and synchronize expressions, vocalizations, postures, and movements with those of another person's and consequently, to converge emotionally" (Hatfield, Cacioppo, and Rapson 1994, pp. 153-154). According to this theory, people mimic what they observe in others continuously and unconsciously. Hatfield et al.'s (1994) emotional contagion theory is also known as primitive emotional contagion because of the automatic and unconscious aspect of human reactions to other's emotional displays. People's subjective emotional experience is continuously influenced by the activation of and feedback from various types of mimicry. Therefore, people tend to 'catch' the emotions of other people with whom they interact. The awareness of emotional contagion has implications for a variety of areas of interpersonal communication (Hatfield, Cacioppo, and Rapson 1993; Hatfield et al. 1994). Thus, in terms of the context of the present study, emotional contagion theory suggests that customers' perceptions are influenced by the emotions of retail salespeople with whom they interact. If the retail salespeople are happy, then the customers should also become happy. Alternately, if the salespeople appear unhappy or as if they do not want to be in the store environment, then customers should feel similarly.

Researchers produce mixed findings over the existence of primitive emotional contagion. For example, contrary to their expectations, Hennig-Thurau, Groth, Paul, and Gremler (2006)

find that the extent of smiling by service employees in a faux video store did not influence customer emotions after a service experience, although there is a positive effect on customer-employee rapport. However, they find that authenticity of the employee's emotional display does have a significant effect on customer positive affect. They suggest that primitive emotion contagion is more likely in the early phases of service encounters. In the context of the current work, the interaction between the customers and the retail salesperson near the entrance of the store takes place in the early stages of the service encounter, so the principles of primitive emotional contagion should hold. Conversely, several other authors find sufficient evidence of mimicry to support the concept of primitive emotional contagion. For example, Barger and Grandey's (2006) findings support facial mimicry effects, as the strength of an employee's smile has a direct positive effect on customers' own smile strength, service encounter satisfaction, and service quality appraisal. In their study of the effects of threat and stress, Gump and Kulik (1997) also find evidence of behavioral mimicry of facial expressions in emotional contagion.

Several researchers employ emotional contagion theory to explain how retail and service employees' displays of emotion influence important strategic outcomes for customers and the firm. Pugh (2001) establishes a direct positive relationship between employees displaying positive emotions and customer affect and customer perceptions of service quality. Tsai (2001) shows that positive emotional displays influence customer purchase decisions, customer willingness to return to the store, and positive word-of-mouth. Wang (2009) demonstrates that service personnel-displayed emotion hierarchically influences consumers' emotions, satisfaction with service personnel, brand attitude, and patronage intention. Sharma and Levy (2003) establish a positive relationship between retail salespeople's affect toward customers and their

sales performance. Sharma (1999) finds that if customers perceive that salespeople have positive affect toward them, then they experience enhanced message processing and persuasion.

Furthermore, several researchers examine the boundary conditions and intervening mechanisms of the relationship between employee emotional displays and customer reactions. For example, Howard and Gengler (2001) find that the emotional contagion effects associated with smiling can create a positive attitudinal product bias, mediated through facial mimicry. As mentioned above, Hennig-Thurau et al. (2006) find that the authenticity of the smile serves as a boundary condition for the effects of employee smiling on customer reactions. Some research investigates salesperson individual differences in the effectiveness of emotional contagion. For example, Sharma and Levy (2001) find that older and female salespeople demonstrate higher levels of affect that translates to better sales performance. Verbeke (1997) finds individual differences in salespeople, such that those who are sensitive to the emotions of others in combination with being emotionally sensitive themselves are likely to have better performance. Tsai and Huang (2002) build on Tsai's (2001) study by demonstrating that the influence of employee affective delivery on customers' willingness to return to the store and pass positive comments to others is mediated by customer in-store positive moods and perceived friendliness. They also find that employee affective delivery has an indirect influence on customer behavioral intentions through time spent in the store. Finally, Sönderland and Rosengren (2010) test the effects of emotional contagion of both happy and unhappy service workers (rather than happy versus neutral) on customers under conditions of poor and good technical service. They find that smiling improves customer's satisfaction only if there is good technical service quality.

In summary, several studies suggest that emotional contagion operates through salespeople and other service employees smiling and displaying positive emotions to influence

the emotions of customers, as well as several strategically important outcome variables. The theory of emotional contagion (Hatfield et al. 1994) provides a theoretical basis for the hypotheses in the second main study that concerns the demeanor of a salesperson standing near the entrance of a retail store. This study builds on this stream of literature by demonstrating another context in which emotional contagion could influence retail salesperson-customer interactions. Furthermore, the current work answers calls for further investigation into variables that may moderate the effects of emotional contagion (Pugh 2001; Sönderland and Rosengren 2010).

CHAPTER III

EXPLORATORY RESEARCH

Overview

Because hailers have not been the focus of previous retail sales or atmospherics research, I begin with an exploratory approach. The exploratory research discussed in this chapter includes three phases: one multiple-step qualitative phase and two scenario-based, experimental quantitative pretests. Each subsequent study was designed to build on its predecessor. The results of these studies serve as the basis for the present research study.

Qualitative Phase

The first phase of the exploratory research is qualitative. By using inductive, qualitative methods, ideas and variables that may be related to consumers' reactions to hailers in retail stores emerge and can be used to inform later quantitative steps in the research (Strauss and Corbin 1998). First, consumers provide preliminary feedback on their impressions via an online social network, Facebook. Next, to gain deeper insight into the consumer-retail salesperson interaction, 33 in-depth interviews are conducted with retail salespeople (16) and consumers (17). The in-depth interview method is appropriate when seeking to understand a phenomenon that has yet to be extensively explored (Lincoln and Guba 1985; Strauss and Corbin 1998).

Facebook

Initially, informal observation reveals that while many retail stores in traditional malls position a salesperson near their entrance, many consumers have negative reactions to their presence. In order to get a preliminary idea of how consumers feel about this practice, consumers

are asked for their opinions via a status update on the online social network, Facebook. A status update allows a Facebook member to broadcast a few lines of script to the newsfeed pages of their network of friends. Seventeen consumers participate in this step. Please see Table 3.1 for their complete comments. The respondents voice mixed feelings. While some think that the salesperson's presence is an indication of good customer service, other people generally dislike a retail salesperson at the entrance of stores. They feel intimidated, expect to be harassed, and avoid the situation. Interview guides are developed on the basis of the insights gained from these comments, for use in the subsequent in-depth interviews conducted with retail salespeople and consumers.

Table 3.1
Consumer Open-ended Responses via Facebook

Question: When you are shopping in a mall, and you see a salesperson standing at the door of the store waiting for customers..... How do you feel about that? Do you want to go in the store more or less? Why? What kind of impression does that give you? etc...

- I hate it. I feel like I am going to get harassed if I go in. I think it's much more effective to have someone at the counter (after you've bought something) thanking you for your visit and asking if you've gotten everything you need...
- Unless I HAVE to go in I'll pass by. If I go in, I'll look up for a moment and say hello but I'll move quickly by him/her. I don't have a problem with the person at all. In fact I feel for these people because they are following the store's marketing plan. Which, now that I think about it, probably is the reason why I'm polite and don't completely disregard them. Don't you love doing research on Facebook? I've tried to take advantage of it before. Good luck!
- 1) Its intimidating because I think they are going to harass me with questions if I go in the store.
2) It makes me think that since no one else is apparently in the store, then maybe their products are no good so I shouldn't bother to go in.
- It depends on if I need something from the store. I tend to ignore the salesperson if I do go in or just say hi and keep walking. If I do not need anything from the store, then I generally would not go into the store. In terms of impressions, I tend to not worry about the salesperson but just getting whatever it is I need at that point in time.

- I want to punch them in the face. LOL
- I can only speak about the sales people I've seen and here near an army base where there are 52000 soldiers at any time half who have probably just got back from overseas with lots of money to blow. The people standing in the door ways only look for us. They don't bother the civilians only soldiers because we are careless with our money sometimes. ... They know if they can lure us in they most likely will get a sale. So me personally I try to avoid eye contact at all costs. Once they see your eyes it's like a lion with prey on its mind and they will bother you to the point of hitting them to get to another store.
- I certainly don't feel threatened. Usually a salesperson asks, "is there anything I can help you find?"... Hey, everyone needs a job and all we have to say is, "No thanks. I'm browsing." (That is usually what I do anyway as I love to shop anyway. I go to certain stores because I like what they sell, and, if the mgt needs their salesperson to "hang around" at the door, that does not bother me at all.
- I'm such a focused shopper, I normally just nod, say no thanks, and charge after what ever it is I'm there to get. I don't give the greeter a second thought
- I want to go in the store less... I am not big on having people get in my face and try to push products. If I have to go in the store I usually just ignore them and get what I want.
- It makes me want to go in less. There is a very VERY fine line between being helpful and harassing. Let me get in to the store, give me a few minutes to look around, come ask me if I need any help or let me know of any promotions. If I say I'm good thanks, please for the love of God, LET IT BE! So yeah, when they circle the door like vultures, I get a little wary and will probably not go in unless there is something in there I HAVE to get.
- It would to me depend greatly on the context. Are they luring me in with food?
- LESS!!! I think that if I go in there I'm going to get high-pressure sales. And that the merchandise is going to be dollar-store crap.
- a couple of random thoughts – (1) it depends...if the salesperson tries to hand me a sales flier and will not take no for an answer, and (2) you have to look at this from another point of view – loss prevention, right? Wal-Mart does it every day. My counter question: Do you feel any more/less emotional about the reason why the person is standing there if she/he could be you're a grandparent? =)
- I agree with [the previous comment]. There are a lot of variables. One thing I would look at is their attitude/body language. Are they welcoming and encouraging or pushy or irritated to be there or acting as security? It also depends on my issues of the day, am I overly sensitive that day or feeling outgoing? Am I rushed or am I just going in ... Read More to browse? On an average day with nothing in particular going on with me it would probably make me a bit less likely to want to go in but I would probably go anyway.

- Agreed. I don't like feeling strong-armed before I even enter the store!
- I don't feel intimidated by salespeople because I don't have any problem telling them that I don't need their help. The only thought I'd have about them standing there is that they are probably a decent employee and more productive standing there available right away rather slouching in the countertop.
- It depends. Sometimes when I go by Abercrombie and Fitch, especially on Saturdays, they have a male model with a twelve-pack standing there posing in nothing but a pair of jeans. Then I like to stop and stare. And sometimes drool a little (but I normally can catch it in time). But other than that, I think it depends on if I'm actually going to buy something or if I'm just browsing. If I'm definitely buying something, I find myself smiling and saying hi back, but if I'm just browsing, I tend to guiltily avoid them as if I'm going to disappoint once they find out I'm just looking.

Retail Salesperson In-depth Interviews

The retail salespeople are recruited from a traditional indoor mall (University Mall, Tuscaloosa, Alabama), as well as experienced salespeople in upper-level marketing courses to serve as respondents. For the retail salespeople's interviews (who are recruited from the mall) took place in the stores after the salespeople were verbally asked for their participation. The retail salespeople, whose participation is solicited during class, give their interviews in a conference room on campus. The tape-recorded interviews last approximately fifteen to thirty minutes each. Of the sixteen retail salespeople, ten of the respondents work in various clothing or apparel stores, two work in shoe stores, one works in a video game store, one works in an accessory and jewelry store, one works in a perfume store, and one works in an outdoor equipment store. Two of the respondents are managers, one is an assistant manager, and the others are employees, but all of them serve customers in the capacity of a retail salesperson. Six of the interviewees are male and ten of them are female. Twelve of the respondents are in their twenties, two are in their thirties, and two are in their forties. Based on guidelines by Strauss and Corbin (1998), open-coding methods are used to identify concepts with common properties and dimensions. Then, data are

clustered into categories and subcategories to develop themes. The goal of these interviews is to uncover general information from the retail salesperson perspective, about the practice of standing near the retail store entrance, customers' responses, and variables that may moderate the relationship. During the in-depth interviews, the retail salespeople discuss how commonly retail salespeople stand near the entrance of their stores and the existence and effectiveness of store policies for engaging in the practice, the salesperson's behavior while near the entrance, various reactions that consumers have to this practice, situational characteristics, customer characteristics, and salesperson characteristics that make a difference in consumer reactions. Please see Table 3.2 for the interview guide.

Table 3.2
Retail Salesperson Interview Guide

1. Do you ever wait by the door for customers to enter so that you can approach them? Why or why not? (make sure to phrase the rest of the questions in terms of their answer)
 2. Does your company have any policies, guidelines, or training about waiting near the entrance for customers?
 3. How appropriate do you feel those policies (or the lack of) are?
 4. How effective do you feel these policies (or the lack of) are for increasing sales?
 5. Under what situations do you think it would be positive to wait for customers at the entrance?
 6. Under what situations do you think it would be negative to wait for customers at the entrance?
- If the retail salesperson does stand by the door:
7. What types of reactions do you get when you approach customers as they enter the store?
 8. Please estimate the proportion of customers that have a favorable and an unfavorable response to this behavior.
 9. Please tell a story about a time you did this and got a very positive reaction from the customer.
 10. Please tell a story about a time you did this and got a very negative reaction from the customer.
 11. Can you think of any more stories about approaching customers at the door?
- All retail salespeople:

12. Is there anything else you'd like to add?

Store policies. Nearly every respondent in the sample often stands near the entrance of the store, with the exception of one retail salesperson who stands behind a counter in a very small store. Several of the retail salespeople specifically mention written store policy to stand near the entrance of the store, although many more indicate that the manager gives verbal instructions to do so. Some salespeople come to consider being near the entrance as part of the store culture. Some retail stores have designated greeters who are required to stay within several feet of the entrance and greet and direct customers to merchandise or other retail salespeople further in the store. Again, these designated greeters are not the same as regular retail salespeople because they only welcome the customer and give directions to a part of the store or an actual retail salesperson.

We were always supposed to have someone in the front, when you walk in, just a few feet from the door. (Men and women's clothing, male)

Yes, actually, they have a policy about greeting everybody. If you are folding clothes or whatever, you have to greet customers within like thirty seconds. It was in our Educational Booklet. (Women's clothing, female)

We don't formally have a policy, but the manager encourages it, and talked about it during our training, it is more of a cultural thing. (Women's shoes, male)

When you come in, you get assigned a certain position in the store, and there is Fashion First, and you'll be assigned to stand in the front of the store, and it's your job to greet the customers when they come in and direct them to the destination in the store where they need to go to. The rule is that you must greet the customers within five seconds of them coming in the door. That was one of the things we learned in our orientation, to stand near the door to greet customers. (Children's clothes specialty store, female)

Generally, the retail salespeople feel that the practice and policies about waiting for the customers at the entrance are appropriate and effective. They name several benefits. Most of the respondents say that their presence provides customer service by making the customer feel

welcome to the store. Many of the retail salespeople feel that this practice increases sales, especially through initiating an interaction with browsers. Finally, several of the respondents discuss how being near the entrance is an effective form of loss prevention. Shoplifters are discouraged because the salesperson near the entrance can monitor for theft as well as providing service to customers.

When you walk into the store, you want to set the vibe for the store, and, you know, when we have somebody there just inside the store who says hello to you and asks how are you doing, then I make you feel welcome to the store, you know, then you might want give it more of chance to stay longer and buy more (Video games, male)

It was easier to convert a sale from a window shopper if you identify who was on the bubble of going on, or who might go ahead and buy something if you get out there and say hello and that sort of thing. (Women's shoes, male)

It keeps an eye on the front of the store. A big thing with us managers is shoplifting, and we have to make sure our associates are aware of anybody that could be able to shoplift. If we stay in the front of the store we can keep an eye on the front corners of the store. (Women's clothing, female, store manager)

However, some of the retail salespeople are somewhat resistant to the idea of having to stand near the entrance of the store. They sometimes feel uncomfortable because they are concerned that the customers may feel pressured or annoyed. However, these retail salespeople are still required to engage in this practice because of written or verbal store policies.

There were a few times when I felt uncomfortable, because most people walking in the door don't want to be bombarded... I don't like to be harassed when I shop, so I feel it is a little forceful. (Men and women's clothing, female)

Honestly, we don't really like doing it that much, but we have to because the boss watches us on the video camera...he wants to make sure the customers are satisfied...we have to talk to them within a certain time of them being in the store, but it really just ticks some of them off. (Outdoor gear, male)

Salesperson behavior. The retail salespeople also discuss exactly where they stand relative to the door and what they do while standing there, at an operational level. Respondents report standing in various locations relative to the doorway. The majority of the respondents

stand within several feet of the entrance, but several salespeople position themselves directly in the doorway and just outside the doorway. Half of the respondents mention that they try to keep busy near the entrance of the store by working on inventory, rather than simply standing near the doorway idly. They feel that customers are more likely to come in to the store and feel more comfortable when they are busy doing some task nearby. This sends the message that assistance is available, but not forced on the customer. Other aspects of respondents' communication with customers include telling them about promotions and smiling.

It depends on the day. Sometimes, if it is slow, I'll actually go outside and, like, bring people in, and it actually makes the difference in whether we make the day or don't make the day. (Men and women's shoes, male)

We stand just right inside the entrance, because all the stores are laid out so there is a display just inside the door and we stand near that display, about four or five feet in. (Women's clothes, female)

We have three tables at the front, and we will fold those tables and make eye contact with them. We are always usually doing something. We try not to just stand there because then I think customers might be overwhelmed if they walk up and like three people standing there saying 'how are you!' (laughs). So if you are folding something and look up and speak to them when they enter it is much better. (Women's clothes, female)

Positive consumer reactions. When asked about a time that their customer had a very positive response, the retail salespeople report three main categories of positive consumer reactions: friendliness, appreciativeness, and purchasing. The most commonly mentioned positive customer response is to be friendly to the salesperson, as they acknowledge their greeting, smile, and talk to the salesperson. Several other respondents talk about how some customers, who appreciate being greeted, engage the salespeople in lengthy conversations and interaction.

One time, a lady came in and she wanted a backpack but didn't know what kind she wanted, and you have to be fitted for them and there are a lot of brands and features. Sometimes, customers are shy to come up and say that they don't know what they are talking about. She appreciated the greeting and help. (Outdoor gear, male)

About a third of the respondents talk about a time that when they greeted a particular customer, the customer needed considerable assistance and went on to make a large purchase. Generally, these customers have purchase intentions, but do not know what particular product would suit their needs, as in the case of purchasing for other people.

There was one time, there was a window shopper and she was on the border of coming into the shop from the mall and looking at the displays. So, I went and talked with her and once she got in, she went on some sort of binge or something, and bought like six pairs of shoes. So that was good. (Women's shoes, male)

Although several of the respondents feel that their presence has no effect on store patronage, several other salespeople feel that being near the entrance creates a pleasant shopping environment an opportunity to draw in browsers and convert them to customers.

If you are showing them that it is an open environment, and they feel welcome to come in, then they are more likely to come in and enjoy their experience. Whereas if you don't give any customer service and you don't speak to the customer when they come in the door, then they might feel it is an uncomfortable environment and you didn't make them feel welcome, and they might not come back. (Children's clothes specialty store, female)

Negative consumer reactions. Likewise, the respondents also discuss negative reactions they've experienced when standing near the entrance of the store. Almost every retail salesperson reports that many customers regularly ignore them and walk right past them, despite their greeting. Another common negative response is when the customers acknowledge the presence of the salesperson, but then say that they are just looking. These customers do not want any assistance, although they may still be polite.

You speak to them and right off the bat, they are like, I'm just looking, don't bother me I'm just looking. (Men and women's shoes, male)

Sometimes they'll speak to you and sometimes they'll just walk right past you and not acknowledge that you said anything to them... and you can tell that they heard you...But, I try not to take it personally because people might be in a rush and not want to be bothered that day...They aren't actually mean to you, but they just ignore you. (Children's clothes specialty store, female)

A smaller number of customers who do not want any assistance from the salesperson become annoyed and may even rudely tell the salesperson to leave them alone. One respondent discusses how customers will even avoid entering the store if they see someone at the door.

A lot of people get really annoyed, and they are like no, and even if there is something they wanted anyways, they might have a negative reaction, because you are being kind of pushy... people don't like someone right in their face (Men and women's clothing, female)

I've actually seen people walk by two or three times, and then wait until we are helping someone else to come in the store, I think it is kind of weird. (Outdoor gear, male)

Situational characteristics. The retail salespeople also discuss different situations in which they think it is better or worse for them to be near the entrance. Interestingly, the respondents mentioned retail density, or the presence of other customers, as both a positive and negative factor. Many respondents feel that when the store is busy with other customers, then potential customers have a positive response to a salesperson near the entrance because the store seems more desirable to others and there is assistance immediately available to them. However, a few salespeople say that when the store is busy, then there is no time to be standing near the entrance because that would mean neglecting the customers already in the store.

If we are all busy with other customers... it usually encourages the customer to come on in because they see a nice smiling face of an employee waiting there to help them with all their needs. (Women's clothes, female, store manager)

If you have traffic in the store, then you simply don't have time for it. That could be detrimental. (Women's shoes, male)

In the same fashion, several respondents mention holiday shopping times as important to have someone near the entrance to help customers because during those times the stores are crowded and the shoppers are often stressed. They believe their availability to offer service helps to ease that stress. Finally, while several of the respondents think standing near the entrance as

always positive, several other retail salespeople discuss the type of store as a potential moderator, but without a consistent direction. Several different types of stores are mentioned as a good for standing near the entrance, including large department stores, big-box stores, high-end stores, and smaller stores. Conversely, other respondents say that department stores and smaller stores are not very good types of stores for standing near the entrance. Store type seems to play a role, although that role is somewhat ambiguous.

Customer characteristics. Many of the respondents mention that their interaction with customers at the entrance of the store depends on the customers themselves. Although there is general agreement that there are differences among customers, the respondents are somewhat unclear on exactly what the differences are. Several salespeople say that some customers simply desire more attention and assistance than others, or attribute the difference to the customer's mood.

It depends on the customer, some people want to be left alone to shop, and some people want that attention. (Men and women's shoes, male)

The most discussed individual characteristic is gender. Several respondents say that females are much more receptive to the salesperson greeting them at the entrance. Men are much less likely to want assistance. However, one salesperson talks about how males have a better response when they are with a female.

Some people, you will ask them how they are doing and they will just ignore you...and it is mainly most the time guys, women are mostly thankful. Now it is different if a female comes in with a male, but usually if it is just a male.....he doesn't respond that well to a greet and a pitch. (Men and women's clothes, male)

Salesperson characteristics. Finally, the salespeople discuss characteristics of themselves that can make a difference in the way customers perceive them standing near the entrance of the retail store. The most commonly mentioned theme is for the salesperson to have a smile and a

positive attitude. Those salespeople that seem happy to be there and ready to help are more likely to elicit positive responses from customers. Several of them also discuss that having a casual demeanor is helpful because the customers feel less overwhelmed. Further, the level of sincerity, tone of voice, and the content of what the salesperson says to the customers make a difference in the customers' responses.

Definitely, the attitude of the people of working, the positive people always have higher sales...I mean friendlier and more helpful. (Men and women's clothes, female)

If you look like you don't want to be bothered, then they don't want to be bothered. You just have to look like you are happy and you want to be there. (Men and women's shoes, male)

The sincerity of how you sound when you say it. Like, if you sound like you really do want to know if you can help them with something, or you really want to know how they are doing, then they are more likely to speak back to you or feel welcome, instead of you doing it as a robot, you know, just saying it because you have to. (Children's clothes specialty store, female)

Other factors that they briefly mention include the salesperson's dress, attractiveness, gender, race, whether the salesperson works on commission, and whether there are one or two salespeople near the entrance. For example,

We don't work on commission, so there is not that push. We just try to make customers feel at ease and they just know that we are here if they need us. (Men and women's clothes, female, assistant manager)

These interviews with retail salespeople provide insights into store policies, salespeople's behavior, consumers' reactions from the salespeople's perspective, and a variety of potential moderators. The findings of these interviews inform the subsequent consumer interviews, quantitative pretests, and main experiment.

Consumer In-depth Interviews

The next phase of the qualitative stage is in-depth interviews with consumers. The interviews last approximately fifteen to twenty minutes each. The seven consumers that serve as

respondents are recruited from upper-level marketing courses. The respondents consist of seven males and ten females, all of whom are in their twenties. The objective of this set of interviews is to explore, from the consumer perspective, customers' reactions to retail salespeople standing near the entrance of a retail store and to uncover variables that could potentially moderate how the customers respond to the salesperson. As with the retail salespeople interviews, open coding is used to draw out themes through the identification of categories and subcategories (Strauss and Corbin 1998). Many of the themes parallel the themes in the retail salespeople interviews, which provides some triangulation of the ideas. Please see Table 3.3 for the interview guide.

Table 3.3
Consumer Interview Guide

Think about a time when you were shopping in a mall and you saw a salesperson standing in the entrance of a retail store.

1. What sort of impression does that give you?
2. What does that make you think of the retail store?
3. What does that make you think of the salesperson?
4. Do you feel more or less inclined to enter that store? Why?
5. How does it make you feel if you enter the store and the salesperson immediately begins speaking to you?
6. What types of things would make a difference in your reaction to the salesperson? The store? The shopping experience as a whole?
 - a. Does it matter what kind of store it is? In what way?
 - b. Does it matter what the salesperson looks like? How?
 - c. Does it matter if the person is a designated greeter (Wal-Mart) vs. a salesperson?
 - d. Does it matter if the salesperson is offering free samples? Why?
 - e. Does it matter if the retail store is busy with other customers or empty?
7. What (else) would your reaction depend on? (keep asking this)
8. Under what (other) situations would you feel differently? (repeat)
9. Some retail stores' policies dictate that the salesperson should wait near the door for customers, how do you feel about that?
10. Is there anything else you'd like to add?

Consumer reactions. Consumers discuss both positive and negative reactions to encountering a retail salesperson at the entrance of a store. Roughly half of the respondents feel

their presence is an indicator that the salesperson intends to provide customer service. Several respondents feel these salespeople are willing or anxious to help customers and are just doing their jobs. A couple of respondents report that having a salesperson available to offer assistance as they enter the store makes them feel important.

Overall, it gives a good impression because they seem anxious to help you when you come in, it seems like their customer service is top notch. It makes me think it is a good quality store. (male)

It gives me an impression that they are willing to help you, and they want to sell to you and they are devoted to customer service. (female)

However, even many of the consumers who describe this practice as customer service still mention that it is bothersome. Many of the consumers in the sample have strong negative feelings about retail salespeople waiting near the entrance of stores. Many of the respondents talk about feeling bothered, annoyed, attacked, overwhelmed, or bombarded by a salesperson near the entrance. They feel that the salesperson is going to hassle them and use high pressure sales tactics. Several mention that they usually do not want to be stopped, but will be polite if the salesperson greets them. A common response is for the customers to say they do not need assistance and they are just looking.

I don't like it if they are standing near the entrance, like at [store] they are always standing there, and before you even get into the store, they are saying hi to you and can they help you, before you even get into the store! And then if you go into the store, they are attacking you and won't leave you alone. It is kind of annoying to me. They stand just a little bit inside the entrance and if you go in, they are right on you. (female)

I saw them there and I thought they would follow me around the store the whole time. I'd feel like they are going to attack or kind of bombard me or something. (female)

A variety of responses in terms of patronage intentions are described by the respondents. While some of the consumers say that a salesperson's presence does not influence their choice to patronize the retail store, many of the consumers feel that their presence is a major determinant

of whether they enter the store. The majority of the respondents in this sample say that they are less likely to enter the store unless there is something specific that they really need if a salesperson is standing near the entrance. Sometimes, they will enter the store, but still try to avoid the salesperson. Conversely, a few of the customers say that they are more inclined to enter retail stores if a salesperson is present near the entrance to provide service. In the retail salesperson interviews, the salespeople usually talk about customers who ignore them as the most typical negative consumer response. It appears that the salespeople may not be fully aware of a worse reaction of some customers: deciding to not patronize the store when they see the salesperson standing there.

That would make me think that I was going to be hassled if I go there and I probably make me not even want to go in. It will be like, I walk in there and they will immediately pressure me to buy things...It makes me think the salesperson is working on commission. (female)

I'll try to go around to the other side of the entrance...or if multiple people are walking in, I will try to make my way around the other person so that they get called on first...I just feel like I don't want to sit there and talk to them for ten minutes. (female)

I feel more inclined to enter the store because I really like to get help finding what I want. I usually go to boutiques and specialty stores because they do help you and stand by the door. (female)

Situational characteristics. The consumers also discuss some situational characteristics that play a role in how they view retail salespeople near the entrance of stores. Almost every respondent agrees that samples are very positive, and that they have a much better attitude toward a salesperson who is offering them something for free. However, a limitation on the samples is consumers' positive feelings may not extend to samples in the form of product demonstrations, such as lotion and perfume.

I would be more inclined to stop and hear what they have to say if they are going to give me something, as opposed to just stopping me and telling me something. (male)

Echoing a finding in retail salespeople interviews, most of the consumers feel that retail density, or the presence of other customers in the store, plays a role in how they perceive a retail salesperson near the entrance of a store. Also consistent with the retail salespeople, there is not a consensus on whether retail density is positive or negative. Some of the respondents say that some retail density is positive because it shows that others like the store and they feel the salesperson will not focus exclusively on them when there are other customers to divide their attention. Some people will not patronize the store if they feel it is too crowded, regardless of whether a salesperson is present or not.

I like there to be some customers, and like a good environment, so you are not so bombarded by salespeople trying to get their commission and trying to sign you up for credit cards. (female)

I think that if you notice that the store is busy, then that is a good sign because it draws a lot of interest and there is a reason to be in there versus it being empty, I think, well you aren't getting any business, then why would I look. (female)

If it is busy, I will probably walk by and come back later. If it was a mall or something, I would probably just cruise on. (male)

The respondents also mention the type of store, in terms of familiarity with the store and being a high-end store, as situational characteristics that make a difference in their opinions of retail salespeople near the entrance. Several of the respondents have more positive feelings towards the salespeople if the store is new to them. If the store is familiar to the consumers, then they are more likely to be bothered by a salesperson in the door because they already know their way around and usually need less assistance. Several respondents also mention that they expect to see a salesperson available to provide customer service at the entrance for high-end stores.

It makes a difference if it is like a new store, and I've really never been there, I would kind of like them to maybe help me out. But, if it is a store that I've already been to and I already kind of know my way around, I don't want them to bother me. (male)

If you are in a high-end store, like a Neiman Marcus or Bloomingdale's, I think those are more expensive purchases, so they should really specialize in customer service. (female)

Customer characteristics. Unlike the retail salespeople, the consumers are much less likely to name characteristics of themselves as potential moderator variables. A few respondents mention that they appreciate a salesperson being available to help them if they do not have much time and need expedited service. Similarly, other consumers suggest that whether they know what they are looking for or they are browsing might make a difference in their perception of the salesperson. Those who know what they want may be less likely to want or need service from a salesperson. Finally, some of the consumers acknowledge that their own mood during the shopping trip plays a role in the interaction.

If I was in a hurry or something, I would like to have somebody there to point me in the right direction (male)

Usually when I walk into a store, I already know what I am looking for, and I would probably approach the associate myself, and I would rather do that than have them asking me 'can I help you, can I help you.' (female)

If I am having a bad day, it is my personal mood. That is what it depends on a lot of time. Like, if I am in a bad mood, then I might not like shopping. (female)

Salesperson characteristics. The respondents discuss several characteristics of the retail salesperson that make a difference in how consumers perceive them. These characteristics are divided into characteristics that can be judged visually and those that require interaction. Visually, the appearance of the salespeople's demeanor, their physical appearance, and where they stand physically in relation to the entrance of the store are part of the first category. Like the salespeople interviews, almost every consumer talks about the salesperson's demeanor, in terms of whether they look like they want to be there or not. Consumers definitely prefer salespeople who are smiling and appear friendly.

It depends on their emotions, or mood. If someone was cheerful and helpful and positive before you walk into the store, compared to if someone were monotone or boring, you kind of get in a bad mood before you walk in... I don't want someone who is just acting like they have to be there. (male)

If they have someone smiling and looking friendly, then it makes a good impression, but if they look disinterested, then not really. (female)

Although most of the respondents say that the salesperson's individual physical attractiveness does not play a role, several consumers mentioned that the salespeople should have a neat appearance. If the store is a clothing store, consumers expect to see the salesperson wearing the apparel that the store carries. A few of the male consumers, however, say that they will enter a retail store based on whether the salesperson at the front of the store is an attractive female.

You are going to want your better looking person in the front, definitely not someone really ugly. (male)

If she was a good looking, attractive girl, I would slow down a little bit for her and be more inclined to go in. (male)

Finally, practically all the respondents agree that the best location relative to the door for a salesperson is a few feet inside the store. This position seems to create a more welcoming environment without seeming threatening or predatory. When salespeople stand directly in the doorway or a few feet outside the entrance, they give the impression of being too aggressive and pushy.

I think it is better if they are in the inside the door, because if they are standing outside the door...I feel like it is kind of overwhelming and intimidating. But, if they are inside the store a little, then they are welcoming. (female)

I think right inside the door would be better, because if the salesperson is right in the door or too far outside the door, it almost seems like they are begging for business. But if they are close to the door, but inside, then it comes off like, oh, they are just working and doing their jobs and greeting people as they come in the door. (female)

I don't think they should be outside of the door or like right in the doorway, but if they are at like the first table or display within say ten feet, then that is okay. (female)

The second category of salesperson characteristics that the respondents say could make a difference in their perceptions cannot be assessed visually. Instead, these characteristics require some degree of interaction. Several of the respondents mention that if salespeople work on commission, then they are much more aggressive and pushy in their approach. This theme is interesting because consumers often have little way of knowing whether or not a particular store pays their salespeople on commission, but standing near the entrance gives that impression.

If I see them standing near the entrance it makes me think they work on commission and that they have to sell to you. (female)

Many of the consumers also discuss that what the salespeople actually says and how their delivery makes a difference in consumer perceptions. Several respondents mention that it is better if the salesperson does not talk very much. Many consumers prefer for a salesperson to welcome them to the store, but then leave them alone rather than going into a sales pitch of all the current promotions. However, if the salesperson is going to give information after saying hello, respondents much prefer information on promotions and sales rather than general information. Several respondents mention that they prefer the salesperson make their presence known, but let the customers look around the store for a while before approaching them.

If they just greeted me and said 'hi, how are you' instead of like forcing sales on me....just be there if you need help and not in your face, it would make it a much more positive experience. (female)

If they say 'hello' and 'welcome to the [store],' that is fine. But, I don't like when they are like 'what can we help you find? We have a special on coats, on scarves' like argh! I can just find it myself, thanks. I don't like that. Then I feel like I am being pestered... It is better if they are just friendly and available to give help, but not coming on too strong. (female)

If they were maybe letting me know of some type of sale or something, that would make me feel happy, as opposed to just giving me some general type of information. (male)

In summary, the consumer interviews bring further insight into how customers perceive and react to retail salespeople at the entrance of store. Further, the respondents suggest several potential moderators of this practice and important retail outcomes, including situational, customer, and salesperson characteristics. These interviews with consumers, along with the other two parts of the qualitative phase of the exploratory research, provide the basis for the quantitative pretesting phase of exploratory research.

Quantitative Pretest 1

The emergent themes from the qualitative phase inform the first quantitative pretest. A recurring theme from the qualitative interviews is that the precise location of the retail salesperson makes a difference to consumers. This step focuses on what difference the particular location where the retail salesperson stands makes and what variables might serve as moderators. Location is explored with three conditions manipulated by a brief scenario: a few feet inside the entrance, directly in the entrance, and a few feet outside the entrance. Subjects in each condition answer items on how common and noticeable the behavior is, as well as their impression and intention to enter the store. Subjects also answer items based on emergent situational and salesperson characteristics from the qualitative interviews. (Please see Table 3.4 for the items on the instrument). A group of two hundred sixty-four upper-level undergraduate marketing students from several different classes serve as the subjects for the first pretest.

Table 3.4 Pretest One Items

In a traditional indoor shopping mall (e.g. University Mall or Galleria), salespeople sometimes stand near the entrance of the retail store and wait for customers.

Please circle the answer that best fits your feelings about a salesperson standing a few feet outside the entrance of the retail store.

1. How likely is it that you would **notice** a salesperson standing **a few feet outside** the entrance of a retail store?
2. **How common** do you think it is for a salesperson to be standing **a few feet outside** the entrance of retail store?
3. What sort of **impression** does a salesperson standing **a few feet outside** the entrance of a retail store give you in general?
4. How likely are you to **enter** a retail store (that carries products that interest you), if there is a salesperson **a few feet outside** the entrance of a retail store?

In regard to the salesperson standing a few feet outside the entrance, please circle the option to indicate whether your impression is more positive or negative if:

Situation Characteristics

5. The store is 'high-end'
6. If you have never been to the store before.
7. If there are several other customers in the store.
8. If it is a holiday shopping time.

Salesperson Characteristics

9. The salesperson is dressed nicely.
10. If the salesperson is physically attractive.
11. If the salesperson is smiling.
12. If the salesperson seems to be happy about being there.

Imagine you decide to enter the store. Is your impression more negative or positive if:

13. If the salesperson gives you information on a sale.
14. If the salesperson gives you lots of general information.
15. If the salesperson greets you, but then lets you look around on your own.
16. If the salesperson is offering free samples.

Demographics

17. What is your sex?
18. Have you ever worked in retail store?
19. Have you ever worked in a retail store **in a traditional shopping mall**?

The results of this initial exploratory pretest show some significance. Using location of the salesperson as the manipulated independent variable and controlling for gender, whether the subject worked in retail, and whether the subject worked in retail in a mall, multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) is conducted. These last two control variables are included because interviewees with retail experience in malls generally have more favorable attitudes toward

standing near the entrance of stores. First, the omnibus effects are examined, using Wilks' Lambda as the criterion. One covariate, gender ($F_{(16, 235)}=2.58, p < .01$), and the manipulation, location ($F_{(32, 470)}=2.15, p < .001$), have significant omnibus effects. Examination of the between-subjects effects shows that gender (coded as female) has a significant direct effect on it making a difference if the salesperson is physically attractive ($F_{(1, 250)}= 8.65, p < .01$), gives general information ($F_{(1, 250)}= 4.70, p < .05$), and greets customers quickly but then lets them look around on their own ($F_{(1, 250)}=11.63, p = .001$). These findings indicate that gender is an appropriate control variable for this study. In terms of the independent variable, there is a significant difference for how common subjects think the particular location of the retail salesperson is ($F_{(2, 250)}= 12.11, p < .001$). There is a significant difference between locations for implications for impression if the store is high-end ($F_{(2, 250)}= 7.79, p < .01$). Please see Table 3.5 for the between-subjects results.

Table 3.5
Pretest One Results

<i>Between-Subjects Effects for Multivariate Analysis of Covariance - Pretest 1</i>				
Dependent Variable	F(2,193)	<i>p</i> -value	partial eta ²	Observed Power
Noticeable	2.996	0.052	0.023	0.578
Common	12.108	0.000	0.088	0.995
Impression	2.355	0.097	0.018	0.474
Store Patronage	2.258	0.107	0.018	0.457
High-End Store	7.790	0.001	0.059	0.949
Novel Store	2.983	0.052	0.023	0.576
Other Customers Present	0.058	0.944	0.000	0.059
Holiday	0.650	0.523	0.050	0.158
Salesperson Dressed Nicely	0.145	0.865	0.001	0.072
Salesperson Attractive	0.016	0.984	0.000	0.052
Salesperson Smiling	1.100	0.334	0.009	0.242
Salesperson Happy	1.013	0.364	0.008	0.226
Gives Sale Info	0.197	0.822	0.002	0.080
Gives General Info	2.409	0.092	0.019	0.483
Greets, but then lets look	0.179	0.836	0.001	0.078
Offers Sample	1.257	0.286	0.010	0.272

Note: The independent variable is location of the retail salesperson (3 groups).

Scheffe post hoc test post hoc tests show that there is a significant difference between each of the three locations in terms of how noticeable consumers feel salesperson are when standing near the entrance of a retail store, there is a significant difference between outside and directly in ($p < .05$) ($M_{\text{directly in}} = 6.02$, $M_{\text{outside}} = 5.46$). In terms of how common consumers feel it is for a salesperson to stand at the entrance, significant differences exist between inside and outside ($p < .001$), and between directly in and outside ($p < .01$) ($M_{\text{inside}} = 4.44$, $M_{\text{directly in}} = 3.94$, $M_{\text{outside}} = 3.37$). For how impression is impacted if the retail store is high-end, the post hoc tests show that there is a significant difference between inside and outside ($p < .000$) ($M_{\text{inside}} = 5.20$, $M_{\text{outside}} = 4.28$). Differences ($p < .05$) in terms of impact on impression when the store is novel are also observed among standing inside the entrance ($M = 4.76$) and outside the entrance ($M =$

4.21). Unfortunately, in this pretest, most of the variables are not significantly impacted by whether the salesperson is a few feet inside, directly in, or a few feet outside the entrance of the store.

Quantitative Pretest 2

The second pretest builds on the first because it includes a condition in which there is no retail salesperson present near the entrance. A brief scenario is also used as the stimulus in this pretest. Some of the dependent variables from the first pretest (noticeable, common, impression, store patronage, impact on preference if the store is high-end, and impact on the impression if the store is novel) are included, as well as the impact on impression if the shopper has plenty of time to shop and the impact on impression if the shopper is looking for a specific item. The same control variables as the first pretest are also included. Please see Table 3.6 for the items. Three hundred and thirteen undergraduate students in lower-level marketing courses serve as the subjects for this pretest. None of the students in this pretest sample are overlapping with the upper-level students from the first pretest or the qualitative phase.

Table 3.6
Pretest Two Items

In a traditional indoor shopping mall (e.g., University Mall or Galleria), salespeople sometimes stand near the entrance of the retail store and wait for customers.

Please circle the answer that best fits your feelings about a salesperson standing a few feet outside the entrance of the retail store.

1. How likely is it that you would **notice** a salesperson standing **a few feet outside** the entrance of a retail store?
2. **How common** do you think it is for a salesperson to be standing **a few feet outside** the entrance of retail store?
3. What sort of **impression** does a salesperson standing **a few feet outside** the entrance of a retail store give you in general?
4. How likely are you to **enter** a retail store (that carries products that interest you), if there is a salesperson **a few feet outside** the entrance of a retail store?

In regard to the salesperson standing a few feet outside the entrance, please circle the option to indicate whether your impression is more positive or more negative if:

Situation Characteristics

5. If you have plenty of time to shop.
6. If you are looking for a specific item.
7. If the store is 'high-end'.
8. If you have never been to the store before.
9. If there are several other customers in the store.

Demographics

10. What is your sex? (circle one).
11. Have you ever worked in a retail store?
12. Have you ever worked in a retail store **in a traditional shopping mall**?

First, to compare with pretest one, multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) is conducted, using location as the independent variable and including the same control variables. The omnibus effects, using Wilks' Lambda as the criterion are significant for location ($F_{(27, 862)} = 9.41, p < .01$), but none of the control variables have a significant effect. There are several significant relationships. Based on the location of the salesperson, there are significant differences in being noticeable ($F_{(3, 303)} = 37.28, p < .001$), being common ($F_{(3, 303)} = 8.25, p < .001$), store patronage ($F_{(3, 303)} = 13.04, p < .001$), impact on impression if the subject is looking for a specific item ($F_{(3, 303)} = 17.027, p < .001$), impact on impression if the store is high-end ($F_{(3, 303)} = 9.10, p < .001$), and impact on impression if the store is novel to the subject ($F_{(3, 303)} = 9.97, p < .001$). Please see Table 3.7 below for the between-subject effects.

Table 3.7
Pretest Two Results- Four Groups

<i>Between-Subjects Effects for Multivariate Analysis of Covariance - Pretest 2</i>				
Dependent Variable	F(3,303)	p- value	partial eta ²	Observed Power
Noticeable	37.276	0.000	0.270	1.000
Common	8.249	0.000	0.076	0.992
Impression	1.152	0.328	0.011	0.309
Store Patronage	13.039	0.000	0.114	1.000
Plenty of Time to Shop	0.645	0.586	0.006	0.185
Looking for a Specific Item	17.027	0.000	0.144	1.000
High-End Store	9.104	0.000	0.083	0.996
Novel Store	9.966	0.000	0.090	0.998
Crowdedness	1.371	0.253	0.013	0.364

Note: The independent variable is location of the retail salesperson (4 groups).

Post hoc analyses, using the Scheffe post hoc test, are used to examine the mean differences because there are more than two groups. For the measure of how noticeable the salesperson condition is, absent ($M = 3.55$) is significantly lower ($p < .001$) than from the other three locations ($M_{\text{outside}} = 5.23$, $M_{\text{directly in}} = 5.81$, $M_{\text{inside}} = 5.72$), although there are no significant differences among the other conditions. For how common it is for each location, there are significant differences between inside ($M = 4.52$) and outside ($M = 3.49$, $p < .001$) and inside and directly in ($M = 3.88$, $p < .05$). There are no significant differences between absent ($M = 4.17$) and the other conditions, or between directly in and outside. For store patronage, interestingly absent ($M = 5.90$) has a significantly higher mean ($p < .001$) than any of the salesperson being present conditions ($M_{\text{outside}} = 4.50$, $M_{\text{directly in}} = 4.95$, $M_{\text{inside}} = 5.16$). The only other significant difference between the conditions is that inside is significantly higher on store patronage than outside ($p < .05$). For impact on impression if the subject is looking for a specific item, absent ($M = 3.56$) is significantly lower ($p < .001$) than all of the other conditions ($M_{\text{outside}} = 5.00$, $M_{\text{directly in}} = 5.31$, $M_{\text{inside}} = 5.21$). The salesperson being present conditions are not

significantly different from each other. For impact on impression if the store is high-end, again absent ($M = 3.62$) is significantly lower ($p < .01$) than all of the other conditions ($M_{\text{outside}} = 4.71$, $M_{\text{directly in}} = 4.81$, $M_{\text{inside}} = 4.82$), and the other conditions are not significantly different from each other. Finally, for impact on impression if the store is novel to the subject, once again, absent ($M = 3.70$) is significantly lower ($p < .01$) than all of the other conditions ($M_{\text{outside}} = 4.65$, $M_{\text{directly in}} = 4.62$, $M_{\text{inside}} = 5.01$), and the other conditions are not significantly different from each other.

The pattern of results implies that the most marked differences lie between a salesperson being absent or present. Therefore, the data are recoded into these two categories and examined to see if the results follow the same pattern. MANCOVA is used, with the same dependent and control variables. The omnibus effects are significant for presence ($F_{(9, 297)} = 27.11$, $p < .01$), but none of the control variables have a significant effect. The results from the between-subjects effects have the same pattern as the findings with four location conditions, except there is no longer a significant difference in how common presence or absence of a salesperson is. Please see Table 3.8 for the between-subjects effects. Based on the salesperson's presence, there are significant differences in being noticeable ($F_{(1, 305)} = 103.33$, $p < .001$, $M_{\text{present}} = 5.58$, $M_{\text{absent}} = 3.54$), store patronage ($F_{(1, 305)} = 52.02$, $p < .001$, $M_{\text{present}} = 4.87$, $M_{\text{absent}} = 5.89$), impact on impression if the subject is looking for a specific item ($F_{(1, 305)} = 49.98$, $p < .001$, $M_{\text{present}} = 5.17$, $M_{\text{absent}} = 3.57$), impact on impression if the store is high-end ($F_{(1, 305)} = 27.248$, $p < .001$, $M_{\text{present}} = 4.78$, $M_{\text{absent}} = 3.64$), and impact on impression if the store is novel to the subject ($F_{(1, 305)} = 26.59$, $p < .001$, $M_{\text{present}} = 4.76$, $M_{\text{absent}} = 3.70$). Please see Table 3.8 for the between-subjects for the results. These tests demonstrate that using two levels of salesperson location (present versus absent) performs just as well as four groups. Also, subjects find that the two groups are similar in

terms of being common. Thus, only these two conditions (i.e., present/absent) are incorporated moving forward.

Table 3.8
Pretest Two Results- Two Groups

<i>Between-Subjects Effects for Multivariate Analysis of Covariance - Pretest 2</i>				
Dependent Variable	F(1,305)	p- value	partial eta ²	Observed Power
Noticeable	103.329	0.000	0.253	1.000
Common	1.105	0.294	0.004	0.182
Impression	0.272	0.602	0.001	0.082
Store Patronage	27.748	0.000	0.083	1.000
Plenty of Time to Shop	0.464	0.496	0.002	0.104
Looking for a Specific Item	49.977	0.000	0.141	1.000
High-End Store	27.248	0.000	0.082	0.999
Novel Store	26.594	0.000	0.080	0.999
Crowdedness	3.371	0.067	0.011	0.449

Note: The independent variable is presence of the retail salesperson (2 groups).

In summary, the exploratory phase of this research examines the practice of retail salespeople standing near the entrance of stores through a variety of methods. The qualitative phase includes an open-ended exploration on a social network, in-depth interviews with retail salespeople, and in-depth interviews with consumers. The quantitative phase includes two scenario-based, experimental pretests. The findings from all the stages in the exploratory phase inform the development of the two experiments that make up the main study.

CHAPTER IV

HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

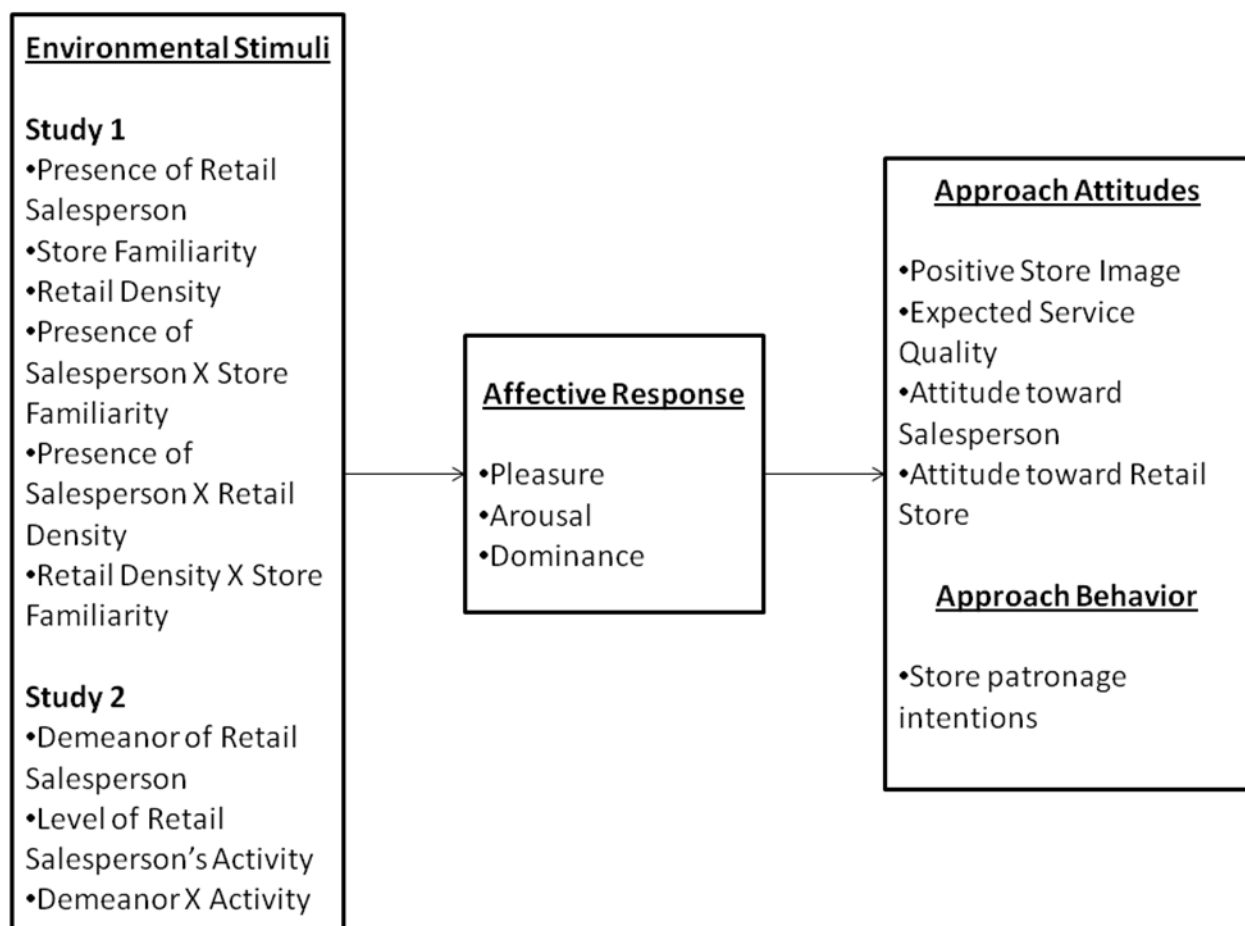
Introduction

This chapter develops and theoretically supports the hypotheses to be tested in both experiments of the main study. Theoretical support for the hypotheses in both experiments primarily comes from approach-avoidance theory, but some support for the second experiment also comes from emotional contagion theory. Findings in previous literature and the emergent results from the qualitative and exploratory quantitative pretests provide additional support for the hypotheses.

The conceptual model in Figure 4 depicts the hypotheses to be tested in both experiments of the main study. The conceptualization is primarily based on the stimulus-organism-response model from environmental psychology and adapted from Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) approach-avoidance model. In this model, several environmental stimuli and the two-way interactions between them serve as exogenous variables that influence the three primary emotions: pleasure, arousal, and dominance. The stimuli in the first study consist of easily observable store characteristics: the presence of a retail salesperson near the entrance of the store (hailer), store familiarity, and retail density. The stimuli in the second study involve behavioral characteristics of a retail salesperson who is present near the entrance of the store: the retail salesperson's demeanor and the retail salesperson's level of activity. The hypotheses in both studies follow the same conceptual path to the endogenous variables through the primary emotions. According to Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) original conceptualization, the three

primary emotions are orthogonal. The hypotheses in this chapter are grounded in approach-avoidance theory's assumption of orthogonality, however, high correlations would render some of the following hypotheses consistent, whereas they would function as competing hypotheses. In turn, the three primary emotions influence consumers' approach attitudes and behavior. The forms of approach are positive store image, expected service quality, attitude toward the salesperson, attitude toward the retail store, and store patronage intentions. As shown in Figure 4, these forms of approach conceptually are actually attitudes, with the exception of store patronage intentions.

Figure 4
Conceptual Model of the Main Tests



Hypotheses and Rationales

Experiment One

Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) approach-avoidance theory explains that environmental stimuli evoke three primary emotional responses (pleasure, arousal, and dominance) which mediate the relationship between the stimuli and approach and avoidance behaviors. The first six hypotheses are based on this premise of stimuli-influencing emotional responses.

The presence of a retail salesperson, or hailer, near the entrance of a store may be viewed as a stimulus because it is an additional element in the environment that the customer visually senses and with which the customer may interact. Previous research shows that retail salespeople influence consumers' emotions. For example, Babin, Babin, and Boles (1995) show that various types of salespeople elicit different consumer emotions. Approach-avoidance theory (Mehrabian and Russell 1974) suggests that the spatial arrangement of persons in social settings has an effect on pleasure because being in a condition of immediacy (being nearby) produces liking and subsequent affiliative behaviors. Such a stimulus may also produce arousal for shoppers. Hu and Jasper (2006) find evidence that shoppers experience increased pleasure and arousal in store environments with more social cues. Retail salespeople are part of the social component of shopping environments (Baker et al. 1994; Milliman and Turley 2000; Grewal et al. 2003). Finally, theory suggests there are limits to the positive effect of immediacy. People react less favorably to immediacy with strangers or forced immediacy because it reduces their feelings of dominance. A limited amount of evidence in the existing literature indicates that consumers sometimes feel intimidated by salespeople, especially when the salespeople are aggressive or pushy (Darian et al. 2001; Ponder et al. 2006). Retail salespeople (usually strangers to the customer) who position themselves at a store entrance are forcing their presence on the potential

customers, thus decreasing their freedom, or dominance. Therefore, based on findings in previous research and as suggested by approach-avoidance theory, I hypothesize the following:

H1: The presence of a salesperson at the entrance of a retail store has a positive relationship with a) pleasure and b) arousal, and a negative relationship with c) dominance.

A contextual characteristic that may play a role in influencing the three primary emotions is store familiarity (McGoldrick and Pieros 1998). When individuals are exposed to an object or place on repeated occasions, they often develop more positive attitudes toward the object or place due to the mere exposure effect (Kunst-Wilson and Zajonc 1980; Zajonc 1968; Zajonc and Markus 1982). Ray and Chiagouris (2009) show that store familiarity directly influences both affect and store loyalty. Cornelius, Natter, and Faure (2010) directly manipulate the store familiarity by using national versus regional stores. They show that store familiarity moderates the image spillover effects from storefront displays to retail stores, such that higher store familiarity produces fewer spillover effects than lower store familiarity. Many previous studies screen out subjects who are familiar with the store, which produces a gap in the knowledge regarding its effects (Broekemier, Marquardt, and Gentry 2008; Donovan, Rossiter, Marcoolyn, and Nesdale 1994). However, several researchers in the atmospherics literature indicate that familiarity in terms of music does have an effect on shoppers' emotions (Bailey and Areni 2006; Yalch and Spangenberg 2000). According to approach-avoidance theory, the increased immediacy that is implicit in familiarity is associated with increased pleasure. However, Mehrabian and Russell (1974) also say that familiarity with a stimulus (the retail store in this case) is associated with decreased arousal and subsequent approach behavior over time. Approach-avoidance theory also asserts that dominance relates to territoriality as well. When people are in a familiar environment, they have a higher sense of dominance. Thus, as suggested

by previous research and approach-avoidance theory:

H2: Familiarity with the retail store has a positive relationship with a) pleasure, a negative relationship with b) arousal, and a positive relationship with c) dominance.

An atmospheric variable that may be related to the three primary emotions is retail density, or crowding. Machleit et al. (2000) find a negative relationship between pleasure and both human crowding and spatial crowding, as well as a negative relationship between arousal and spatial crowding. Similarly, El Sayed et al. (2003) find a negative relationship between pleasure and crowding. Finally Hui and Bateson (1991) show that consumer density has a negative indirect effect on pleasure. According to approach-avoidance theory, crowding is usually associated with too much immediacy and therefore reduced pleasure. The presence of more people in the environment should increase arousal because they represent visual sensory information in a person's surroundings. Dominance is associated with freedom of choice and movement. Crowding, or retail density, restricts freedom and control and thus reduces feelings of dominance. Therefore, as predicted by previous work and approach-avoidance theory:

H3: Retail density has a negative relationship with a) pleasure, a positive relationship with b) arousal, and a negative relationship with c) dominance.

Consumers do not experience environmental stimuli in a vacuum. Instead, they are exposed to many of them simultaneously and process them holistically (Michon, Chebat, and Turley 2005). Therefore, interaction effects are expected among the three stimulus variables described above. Concerning salesperson presence and familiarity with the store, pleasure should be increased due to both the immediacy of the salesperson and familiarity with the store (and possibly the salesperson) producing liking. Also, when a salesperson is present at a familiar store, a stimulus is introduced, so more arousal is expected than if no salesperson is present. However, lower dominance is expected because there is restricted freedom of choice, since the

customer must negotiate the salesperson's presence in order to enter the store. Therefore, in accordance with approach-avoidance theory, I hypothesize that:

H4: The presence of a salesperson at the entrance of a retail store and the level of familiarity interact, such that:

H4a: While high store familiarity is always associated with higher levels of pleasure than low store familiarity, when a salesperson is present, high store familiarity's relationship with pleasure is increased more than when the salesperson is absent.

H4b: While high store familiarity is always associated with lower levels of arousal than low store familiarity, when a salesperson is present, high store familiarity's relationship with arousal is increased more than when a salesperson is absent.

H4c: While high store familiarity is always associated with higher levels of dominance than low store familiarity, when a salesperson is present, low store familiarity's relationship with dominance is reduced more than when a salesperson is absent.

Another possible interaction pertains to retail density and familiarity of the store. When a store is more crowded, the positive effects of familiarity on pleasure and dominance should be reduced because of forced immediacy and the reduced freedom of movement and choice that are associated with crowds, although higher familiarity should still produce more pleasure and dominance than if the customer has low familiarity with the store. There also should be a stronger relationship with arousal because of more people in the environment serving as stimuli. Therefore:

H5: The level of familiarity with the retail store and the level of retail density interact, such that:

H5a: While higher store familiarity is always associated with higher levels of pleasure than low familiarity, when there is high retail density, low store familiarity's relationship with pleasure is reduced more than when there is low retail density.

H5b: While high store familiarity is always associated with lower levels of arousal than low familiarity, when there is high retail density, high store familiarity's relationship with arousal is increased more than when there is low retail density.

H5c: While high store familiarity is always associated with higher levels of dominance, when there is high retail density, low store familiarity's relationship with dominance is reduced more than when there is low retail density.

A third expected two-way interaction involves the presence of a salesperson and the level of retail density. When there are larger crowds in a store, a salesperson near the entrance should

increase pleasure for the customer because the combination of cues may create the impression of the salesperson's ability to offer customer service despite the apparent popularity of the store.

The combination of multiple stimuli should increase arousal. Also, while the presence of a retail salesperson near the entrance reduces feelings of dominance because of forced immediacy, an available salesperson should increase feelings of dominance when the store is crowded because the salesperson's availability to help provides more freedom of choice that may otherwise be restricted by the crowd, so that the reduction in dominance due to the crowding is less severe than if the salesperson is absent.

H6: The presence of a salesperson at the entrance of a retail store and the level of retail density interact, such that:

H6a: While high retail density is always associated with lower levels of pleasure than low retail density, when a salesperson is present, high retail density's relationship with pleasure is increased more than when a salesperson is absent.

H6b: While higher retail density is always associated with higher levels of arousal than low retail density, when a salesperson is present, high retail density's relationship with arousal is increased more than when a salesperson is absent.

H6c: While high retail density is always associated with lower levels of dominance than low retail density, when a salesperson is present, low retail density's relationship with dominance is decreased more than when a salesperson is absent.

The following three hypotheses relate to the part of Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) approach-avoidance theory which involves the relationships of the three primary emotions with a range of approach behaviors and avoidance behaviors. As discussed in Chapter II, approach-avoidance theory says that pleasure and dominance have positive relationships with, and arousal has an inverted U-shaped relationship with, approach behaviors. When people find a stimulus to be pleasurable, they desire greater proximity. Likewise, when people feel that they are in control of an environment, or dominant, they are more comfortable approaching the situation. Also, when a stimulus is boring, having too little arousal-producing qualities, or overstimulating, producing too much arousal, then people move away from or avoid the situation entirely. On the

other hand, environments that provide a moderate amount of arousal are more attractive. These relationships are established in Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) initial empirical tests of their theory, as well as Donovan and Rossiter's (1982) subsequent introduction of approach-avoidance theory into retailing. Thus, according to approach-avoidance theory:

H7: Pleasure is positively related to approach behaviors, including: a) positive store image, b) expected service quality, c) attitude toward salesperson, d) attitude toward retail store, and e) store patronage intentions.

H8: Arousal has an inverted U-shaped relationship with approach behaviors, including: a) positive store image, b) expected service quality, c) attitude toward salesperson, d) attitude toward retail store, and e) store patronage intentions.

H9: Dominance is positively related to approach behaviors, including: a) positive store image, b) expected service quality, c) attitude toward salesperson, d) attitude toward retail store, and e) store patronage intentions.

Experiment Two

As proposed in hypothesis one, the mere presence of a hailer should be a source of arousal. As such, the next hypotheses focus only on pleasure and dominance. Again, the first three hypotheses of this study are driven by approach-avoidance theory's (Mehrabian and Russell 1974) prediction that environmental stimuli influence the primary emotions, which in turn influence approach and avoidance behaviors. Emotional contagion theory (Hatfield et al. 1994) also provides theoretical support for the second study.

The general demeanor of the retail salesperson standing near the entrance of a retail store is one salesperson characteristic that may influence consumers' perceptions. Pugh (2000) finds a direct link between employees' displayed emotions and customer affect. Likewise, Wang (2009) shows that consumers' emotions are influenced by the emotions that service employees display. Approach-avoidance theory suggests that when people are friendly, feelings of pleasure are produced and immediacy and affiliation are encouraged. Furthermore, the theory of emotional

contagion (Hatfield et al. 1994) states that people automatically mimic others in a variety of ways, including facial expressions, posture, and movements. This mimicry actually results in transference of emotion from one person to another. Therefore, a salesperson who is smiling and appears happy should produce more pleasure than a salesperson who does not appear happy. Therefore, in accordance with previous work, approach-avoidance theory, and emotional contagion theory:

H10: A more positive demeanor of a retail salesperson near the entrance of a retail store has a positive relationship with pleasure.

Another retail salesperson characteristic that may play a role is the salesperson's level of activity in terms of whether the hailer is idly standing near the entrance of the store waiting for customers to arrive or else performing work-related duties while waiting near the entrance for customers. If a retail salesperson has a higher level of activity by doing some other task than only being available to assist customers, then approach-avoidance suggests less pleasure will be produced because the spatial arrangement is such that the salesperson and customer are less likely to be facing one another. Previous research also supports the notion that customers have more favorable responses to salesperson availability (Darian et al. 2001; Sharma and Stafford 2000; Sharma 2001). However, a retail salesperson who is near the entrance but is keeping busy performing other tasks should be less intimidating to consumers than a salesperson who is simply waiting near the entrance for the customers. Conversely, the inactive salesperson makes it clear that he or she will force immediacy if the customer ventures in the store, reducing the customer's feelings of dominance. Some retail salespeople in the qualitative interview stage mention that they often will refold the same item of clothing near the front of the store throughout the day so that they are near the entrance of the store, but do not appear to be specifically waiting for customers to come in. Therefore, in alignment with approach-avoidance theory:

H11: A higher level of activity of a retail salesperson near the entrance of a retail store has a negative relationship with a) pleasure and a positive relationship with b) dominance.

It is likely that there is an interaction between the demeanor and the level of activity of a retail salesperson near the entrance of a retail store. Both approach-avoidance and emotional contagion theories suggest that friendliness, or a happy demeanor, is associated with higher levels of pleasure than a salesperson with a negative demeanor. However, if a happy retail salesperson is busy doing some task near the entrance of the store (high activity) then the theory suggests there will be less pleasure than if the salesperson is standing near the entrance (low activity), because the spatial arrangement would have less immediacy and be less likely to be face-to-face. So, the combination of a salesperson without a happy demeanor with a higher level of activity (and thus reduced availability to the customer) should produce a stronger negative effect than if the salesperson has a happy demeanor. Also, when a salesperson has a more positive demeanor, high activity should increase dominance because the immediacy would not be forced (as with low activity), but the happy demeanor indicates that customer service (and implied immediacy) is available if the consumer chooses it, versus if a salesperson is not near the entrance.

H12: The demeanor of the retail salesperson and the level of activity of the salesperson interact, such that:

H12a: While a happy demeanor is always associated with a higher level of pleasure than a bored demeanor, when the salesperson has a high level of activity, the salesperson's unhappy demeanor's relationship with pleasure decreases more than when there is a low level of activity.

H12b: While a happy demeanor is always associated with a higher level of dominance than a bored demeanor, when the salesperson has a high level of activity, the salesperson's happy demeanor's relationship with dominance increases more than when there is a low level of activity.

The following two hypotheses replicate hypotheses from the first study. However, they are necessary in order to have mediation in the model for the second study. Only pleasure and

dominance are examined, as the variables in this second study imply that a retail salesperson is present to serve as a stimulus for arousal.

H13: Pleasure is positively related to approach behaviors, including: a) positive store image, b) expected service quality, c) attitude toward salesperson, d) attitude toward retail store, and e) store patronage intentions.

H14: Dominance is positively related to approach behaviors, including: a) positive store image, b) expected service quality, c) attitude toward salesperson, d) attitude toward retail store, and e) store patronage intentions.

CHAPTER V

RESEARCH METHOD

Research Design

Theory and insights from the qualitative and quantitative pretests lay the groundwork for the main study. Some of the emergent variables from the exploratory research stage, that appear to play a role in the consumer-retail salesperson interaction, logically necessitate the assumption that a retail salesperson be present. Therefore, the main test is divided into two experiments that examine the effects of hangers as an atmospheric variable, as well as other store and salesperson characteristics, on consumers' emotional responses and their approach and avoidance behaviors in retailing. Experiment one manipulates several retail store characteristics. Experiment two operates under the assumption of the presence of a retail salesperson and focuses on the retail salesperson's characteristics that produce more favorable consumer responses. Both experiments use a full factorial between-subjects design, in which the main effects and second order interaction effects are examined. The methodology includes manipulations of several variables through the use of both scenarios and photographs. To ensure that the experiments would run smoothly and to make any necessary modifications before the main data collections, two pilot studies are conducted among students. Scenarios and photo manipulations are relatively common in the literature, with some using combinations of images and scenarios (Baker et al. 1994; Cornelius et al. 2010; Grewal et al. 2003; Hedrick et al. 2007; Hu and Jasper 2007).

The focus of experiment one of the main test is store characteristics. It consists of a 2 (Presence of retail salesperson: present v. absent) X 2 (Store familiarity: novel v. familiar) X 2

(Retail density: other customers present v. other customers absent) full factorial between-subjects design. This design results in 8 possible combinations of the stimuli, although the number of actual stimuli is exponentially greater due to the use of various storefronts and salespeople. Salesperson presence and retail density are manipulated photographically and store familiarity is manipulated with an accompanying scenario. The levels of salesperson presence are one retail salesperson near the entrance of the store versus no salesperson at all. The levels of store familiarity are that the store is familiar to the customer versus the store is brand-new to the customer. The levels of retail density are other shoppers in the background of the store versus no other shoppers. Please see Figure 5.1 for a figure of the design.

Figure 5.1
Study 1: Store Characteristics

2 (Presence: Present v. Absent) X 2 (Novelty of store: Novel v. Familiar) X 2 (Retail Density: Other customers present v. Other customers absent)

SALESPERSON PRESENT		SALESPERSON ABSENT	
Customers Present		Customers Absent	
Novel		Novel	
Familiar		Familiar	

The focus of experiment two of the main test is retail salesperson characteristics. A fundamental difference in this study and the first is that this study always has a salesperson present near the entrance of the retail store. This study employs a 2 (Demeanor: smiling v. not smiling) X 2 (Activity: standing v. active) full factorial between-subjects design. This design results in four possible combinations of the stimuli, but there are many versions of the stimuli given the use of multiple storefronts and salespeople. Similar to the first main study, salesperson demeanor and salesperson activity are manipulated photographically. The levels of demeanor are

either the salesperson smiling or not smiling. The levels of activity are the salesperson standing idly near the door versus the salesperson arranging merchandise near the door. Please see Figure 5.2 for a figure of the design.

Figure 5.2
Study 2: Salesperson Characteristics

2 (Demeanor: Smiling v. Not smiling) X 2 (Activity: Standing v. Active)

	Smiling	Not Smiling
Standing		
Active		

In the main test, subjects begin either experiment one or two by reading a brief scenario and then viewing a photographic depiction of a retail storefront that represents a particular combination of the manipulated variables. Then, they answer a series of measures for the three primary emotions (pleasure, arousal, and dominance), which serve as mediators in the model. Next, the subjects answer measures for the dependent variables: store image, store patronage intentions, expected service quality, attitude toward the salesperson, and attitude toward the retail store. Finally, the subjects answer measures on covariates, manipulation checks, a realism check, and a demand check.

Manipulation Development

The stimuli for both experiments in the main test are photographs of retail storefronts accompanied by brief scenarios. Experiment one and two together make up twelve cells. Store familiarity, from experiment one, is the only factor manipulated in the scenario. The scenarios were pretested with students in exchange for extra credit in two pilot tests, which included a manipulation check for store familiarity and realism. As will be shown in the results section, the

reason that two pilot tests were necessary is that the manipulation check fails in experiment one. The operationalization of the scenarios is discussed below.

As the other four of the five independent variables are visually manipulated, eight different photographic combinations of variables are required. To control for any effect of personal appearance characteristics of an individual retail salesperson appearing in the image that are extraneous to our study, the particular salesperson seen in a stimulus is randomized. Seven different models pose as hikers in the manipulations. The models are six graduate students and one undergraduate student. Three of the models are males and four are female, and their ages range from early twenties to early forties. Three of the models are Caucasian, two are African-American, one is Hispanic, and one is South Korean. Furthermore, to control any effect due to a particular storefront or type of store, the storefront is randomized. Five different storefronts at University Mall, in Tuscaloosa, AL, are used. Two shoe stores (Sports Additions and Journey's), two gift and collectibles stores (Things Remembered Gifts and Bob's Cards and Collectibles), and one hat store (HS Hat Shack) participate in the manipulation development. However, none of the names of the stores are visible in the photographs, in order to avoid a possible confound with the store familiarity manipulation. Permission to take the photographs is granted by the mall management and a manager at each individual store.

Each of the seven models posed for each of the eight combinations of poses in each of the five storefronts (including both experiments where a salesperson is present). There are a resulting 280 possible combinations of models, storefronts, and cells. Because the professional photographer took many additional photographs as extras, the raw file of photographic combinations contains over 500 images. The photographs were initially screened by three independent referees for realism and clarity of the manipulation (e.g., whether or not the

salesperson is clearly smiling). Disputes over acceptability were verbally resolved, resulting in the elimination of some of the photographs. During the pilot testing, the photographs were subjected to checks for how common the subject finds the scene, how realistic the subject finds the scene, and a manipulation check for salesperson demeanor.

When combined with the scenario manipulation in the first experiment, there are 280 different possible photograph/scenario combinations that could be randomly assigned as the stimulus for each subject. In the second experiment, all of the manipulations are photographic, resulting in 140 different possible photographs that could serve as a stimulus.

Operationalization of the Constructs

Manipulated Variables

As previously mentioned, familiarity with the store is the only manipulated variable in the scenario that accompanies the photographic manipulations in experiment one. In experiment two, all of the variables are manipulated photographically. Therefore, the subjects in experiment two all have the same accompanying scenario that is the same as in experiment one except for the last sentence. All of the scenarios tell the subjects, “Imagine that you are browsing in a mall by yourself and you have plenty of time for shopping. As you are walking through the mall, you come across the store in this photograph. You see a salesperson wearing a white shirt in the store.” The scenario ends at this point for the subjects in experiment two because it has no scenario manipulation. If the subject is in experiment one, then the subject reads one of two sentences based on the store familiarity condition. If the subject is in the high store familiarity condition then the sentence says, “Assume that this is a store that you are familiar with and that you have shopped in many times before.” If the subject is in the condition with low store

familiarity (or novelty) then the subject reads, “Assume that this is a store that you are not familiar with and that you have never shopped in before.”

The remainder of the independent variables in experiment one and the variables in experiment two are manipulated photographically. Retail salesperson presence is manipulated by a randomly assigned model standing a few feet inside the doorway of a randomly assigned retail store versus no model being near the entrance. Retail density is manipulated by other models who are dressed in street clothes and are browsing in the store versus no other customers in the store. In the photographs, three graduate students wearing casual street clothes pose as other customers in the background. Of these models, one is a Caucasian male in his thirties, another is a Caucasian female in her twenties, and the third one is a South Korean female in her twenties. For experiment two, demeanor is manipulated with facial expression and posture, so that a happy retail salesperson is portrayed as smiling and upright, while an unhappy, or bored, salesperson is portrayed as not smiling and having poor posture. Activity is manipulated by whether the salesperson model is simply standing versus if they are keeping active. Appearing busy or active is operationalized as the retail salesperson straightening merchandise while he or she is standing near the entrance. Sample photographs for each of the cells in the experimental design are available in Figure 5.3.

Figure 5.3
Examples of Photographic Manipulations

Experiment One

Salesperson Absent/Other Customers Absent



Salesperson Present/Other Customers Absent



Salesperson Absent/Other Customers Present



Salesperson Present/Other Customers Present



Experiment Two

Salesperson Standing/Smiling



Salesperson Standing/Not Smiling



Salesperson Active/Smiling



Salesperson Active/Not Smiling



Measured Variables

Several variables are measured after the subjects view the scenarios and photographic manipulations. Both studies measure the same dependent variables, which are representative of approach attitudes (store image, expected service quality, attitude toward salesperson, and attitude toward retail store) and behaviors (store patronage intentions). The three primary emotions, pleasure, arousal, and dominance are also measured and included as mediators in the model, as suggested by Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) approach-avoidance theory. The items of the measured variables are available in Table 5.1.

Several approach attitudes are measured as dependent variables, including store image expected service quality, attitude toward the store, and attitude toward the salesperson. Store image is measured using the store image, or store atmosphere, scale that is developed by Baker et al. 1994, and later used in Grewal et al. (2003). This scale measures the degree to which a customer holds positive perceptions of a retail store. It is a four-item, seven-point Likert scale, anchored by strongly disagree and strongly agree. Expected service quality is measured using an established scale developed by Baker et al. (1994) and also used in Baker et al. (2002). This scale is also called a service quality inferences scale and a service quality of the store's employees scale. This scale draws inspiration from the responsiveness and empathy dimensions of the SERVQUAL scales (Parasuraman, Berry, and Zeithaml 1991). Attitude toward retail store is measured with a general attitude toward the company scale (Goldsmith, Lafferty, and Newell 2001). This scale has also been called 'liking' by Becker-Olson (2003) and 'attitude toward the sponsor' by Rodgers (2004). This scale assesses a person's general opinion of a company or retailer. The items for this scale are semantic differential items and are measured on a seven-point scale. The lead-in statement of this scale is modified from "my overall impression of the _____ company is:" to "my overall impression of this retail store is:." Likewise, attitude toward

the retail salesperson is measured with a modified version of this scale to gauge the subjects' general opinion of the retail salespeople in a store. Again, the items in this scale are assessed with a seven-point Likert scale, anchored by strongly disagree and strongly agree.

The focal dependent approach behavior, store patronage intentions, is measured using an established behavioral intentions measure that is utilized in several previous studies (Day and Stafford 1997; Kukar-Kinney and Walters 2003; Stafford 1996; Wakefield and Baker 1998). This three-item semantic differential scale measures the stated inclination of a person to engage in a particular activity; store patronage in this case. The subjects answer these items on a seven-point scale. The subjects rate how likely, probable, and possible it is that they will enter the retail store that they view in their manipulation.

Pleasure, arousal, and dominance, the three primary emotions from Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) approach and avoidance theory, serve as mediating variables in the model. Pleasure is measured by seven items that are adapted by Donovan and Rossiter (1982) from Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) original scale development, which they include in their book that introduces approach-avoidance theory. Pleasure is the emotional reaction associated with pleasant and happy feelings. Raghunathan and Irwin (2001) use this scale as a measure of mood. The use of this pleasure scale is widespread (Aylesworth and MacKenzie 1998; Bateson and Hui 1992; Donovan et al. 1994; Wirtz, Matilla, and Tan 2000). The subjects are asked to rate their emotions according to how the storefront image and scenario manipulation make them feel on a series of seven-point semantic differential items.

A second emotion in Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) theory is arousal. Arousal describes the degree to which subjects' senses are heightened, alerted, or excited. This measure of arousal that is adapted by Donovan and Rossiter (1982) from Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) original

work is also used extensively in previous research (Donovan et al. 1994; Fisher and Dubé 2005; Mattila and Wirtz 2001; Olney, Holbrook, and Batra 1991; Wirtz et al. 2000). Similar to the pleasure scale, the subjects indicate their arousal by rating their emotions on a series of seven-point semantic differential items.

The third of Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) primary emotions is dominance. Dominance is the degree to which subjects feel in control of a situation and free to make choices. Of the three emotions, dominance receives considerably less attention in the literature compared to pleasure and arousal. After Donovan and Rossiter (1982) found that dominance had a weaker effect than the other two primary emotions, many researchers began to omit dominance in their studies (Donovan et al. 1994), although a small amount of research does include dominance with some adaptation of Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) original scale (Biggers and Rankis 1983; Gilboa and Rafaeli 2003; Machleit and Eroglu 2000). The subjects are asked to indicate their emotions in regard to dominance using seven-point scales drawn from the original approach-avoidance theory (Mehrabian and Russell 1974).

Covariates

This study uses several variables as covariates so that their effects are not confounded with the results. Because the qualitative interviews suggest that previous experience working in retail or in a mall may have an effect on consumers' perceptions of retail salespeople, a one-item control measure is included for whether the subject has any retail work experience. Gender and age are also collected to avoid any extraneous effects due to these demographic variables and to assess the representativeness of the sample. Customers have more positive evaluations of salespeople who appear to be like themselves, consistent with the theory of homophily (Jones, Moore, Stanaland, and Wyatt 1998). Therefore, the gender combinations of the retail salesperson

model and the subject are used to form either a matched or unmatched designation for each pair and examined for possible inclusion as covariates.

Manipulation, Realism and Demand Checks

Finally, the subjects complete a series of checks of the experimental design as part of their participation. To test the store familiarity manipulation from the first experiment, subjects are asked whether the scenario that they read indicates that they are familiar with the retail store in their image, on a seven-point scale anchored with strongly disagree and strongly agree. In the second experiment, to test whether the subjects notice the smiling condition of the salesperson, a manipulation check asks the subjects to estimate the emotion of the retail salesperson in their version of the manipulation. To accomplish this, subjects complete an affective response measure (Elliot and Devine 1994; Spangenberg, Sprott, Grohmann, and Smith 2003) which is modified so that it is oriented toward the salesperson. The subjects assess several items regarding how they perceive that the retail salesperson in their manipulation feels. These seven-point semantic differential items are anchored with strongly disagree and strongly agree. The presence of a retail salesperson and other customers in the store (retail density) in the first experiment and whether the salesperson is standing idly or active near the entrance do not need perceptual manipulation checks because these are dichotomous variables and inquiring about them would reveal the purpose of the study as well as create demand effects. Furthermore, the subjects complete a seven-point semantic differential item anchored with extremely unrealistic and extremely realistic to indicate their perceived realism of the scenario and photographic manipulation. Lastly, a demand check is included at the end of the instrument in the form of an open-ended question that asks the subjects what they believe the purpose of the study is. The

responses of any subject who guesses the real purpose are removed from the dataset because his or her responses might be contaminated by demand effects.

Table 5.1
Measures in the Experimental Instrument

Measured Variables

Store Image

(strongly disagree / strongly agree)

1. This store would be a pleasant place to shop.
2. The store has a pleasant atmosphere.
3. This store is clean.
4. The store is attractive

Store Patronage Intentions

Please evaluate the following statement: I would enter this store.

1. unlikely / likely
2. improbable / probable
3. impossible / possible

Expected Service Quality

Please evaluate the following statements: (strongly disagree / strongly agree)

1. Customers could expect to be treated well in this store.
2. Employees of this store could be expected to give customers personal attention.
3. This store's employees would be willing to help customers.
4. This store would offer high-quality service.
5. Employees of this store would not be too busy to respond to customers' requests promptly.
6. It would be realistic to expect prompt service from employees of this store.

Attitude toward the retail store

My overall impression of this retail store is:

1. good / bad
2. favorable / unfavorable
3. satisfactory / unsatisfactory
4. negative / positive
5. disliked / liked

Attitude toward the retail salesperson

My overall impression of the retail salesperson is:

1. good / bad
2. favorable / unfavorable
3. satisfactory / unsatisfactory
4. negative / positive

5. disliked / liked

Pleasure

Rate your emotions according to the way the scenario and photo make you feel.

1. happy / unhappy
2. pleased / annoyed
3. satisfied / unsatisfied
4. contented / melancholic
5. hopeful / despairing
6. relaxed / bored
7. joyful / not joyful

Arousal

Rate your emotions according to the way the scenario and photo make you feel.

1. stimulated / relaxed
2. excited / calm
3. frenzied / sluggish
4. jittery / dull
5. wide-awake / sleepy
6. aroused / unaroused

Dominance

Rate your emotions according to the way the scenario and photo make you feel.

1. controlling / controlled
2. influential / influenced
3. in control / cared-for
4. important / awed
5. dominant / submissive
6. autonomous / guided

Covariates**Retail Experience**

1. Have you ever worked in retail? (yes / no)

Subject Demographics

1. Gender (female / male)
2. Age (enter a whole number)
3. Ethnicity (Caucasian / African American / Asian / Hispanic / Other)

Manipulation Checks**Store Familiarity Check (experiment one)**

1. This scenario is about a familiar store. (strongly disagree / strongly agree)

Salesperson Demeanor Check (experiment two)

The salesperson in the photograph appears to feel: (strongly disagree / strongly agree)

1. good
2. happy
3. optimistic
4. friendly

Common Check

1. The scene in the photograph above is common. (extremely uncommon/extremely common)

Realism Check

1. This scenario and photograph are realistic (strongly disagree / strongly agree)

Demand Check

1. What is the purpose of this study? (open-ended)

Data Collection Procedures

Pilot Tests

Before launching the main study data collection, two pilot tests were performed. In the original proposal, only one pilot test was planned. However, as will be shown in the next chapter, while the manipulation check for salesperson demeanor (experiment two) passes, the manipulation check for store familiarity (experiment one) fails in the first pilot test. Therefore, the store familiarity manipulation in the scenario is strengthened by using underlining and bold font and experiment one is retested in a second pilot test.

The subjects of the pilot tests were undergraduate students who received extra credit for their participation. The subjects accessed the experiment through an online research-hosting website, Qualtrics. In each of the pilot tests, subjects go to the instrument online through a URL to Qualtrics, where each subject is randomly assigned to a storefront photograph and scenario combination. Finally, the subjects respond to the measured variables.

The pilot tests accomplish several goals. First, they help to test the questionnaire and identify any typographic or grammatical errors that could be problematic for the main data

collection. Second, the psychometric properties of the scales used in the study are tested. Third, the results from the pilot tests can serve as a manipulation check of the stimuli.

Main Test

The sample is drawn from adult U.S. members of an online panel, Opinionology (formerly Western Watts). This market research service maintains online panels of millions of potential respondents who answer surveys in exchange for points from the online panel's program, which are worth cash and other prizes. They guarantee that their samples are nationally representative. Opinionology also closely monitors the participation patterns of the panel members and removes questionable respondents from the panel. The panel members are sent an email invitation to solicit their participation in the study. The email contains a URL that they follow in order to participate. The URL leads to the experimental instrument that is hosted on Qualtrics. Initially, a soft launch is used, which means that only about ten percent of the data is collected in order to ensure that the data collection is going as planned and the manipulations are working. Once it is clear that everything is going well, then the data collection resumes until the desired sample size is met.

In order to calculate the appropriate sample size for the main study, data were simulated using a random number generator. Then, effect sizes for each of the relationships were estimated based on available previous literature, theory, logic, and the exploratory pretests. These estimated effect sizes were entered into the simulation which produced a series of regression equations. Different sample sizes were tested to find out how many data points are necessary to achieve statistical significance. Ultimately, a sample size of 300 subjects was determined to be sufficient for significant results in either experiment. Further, the interaction terms from the

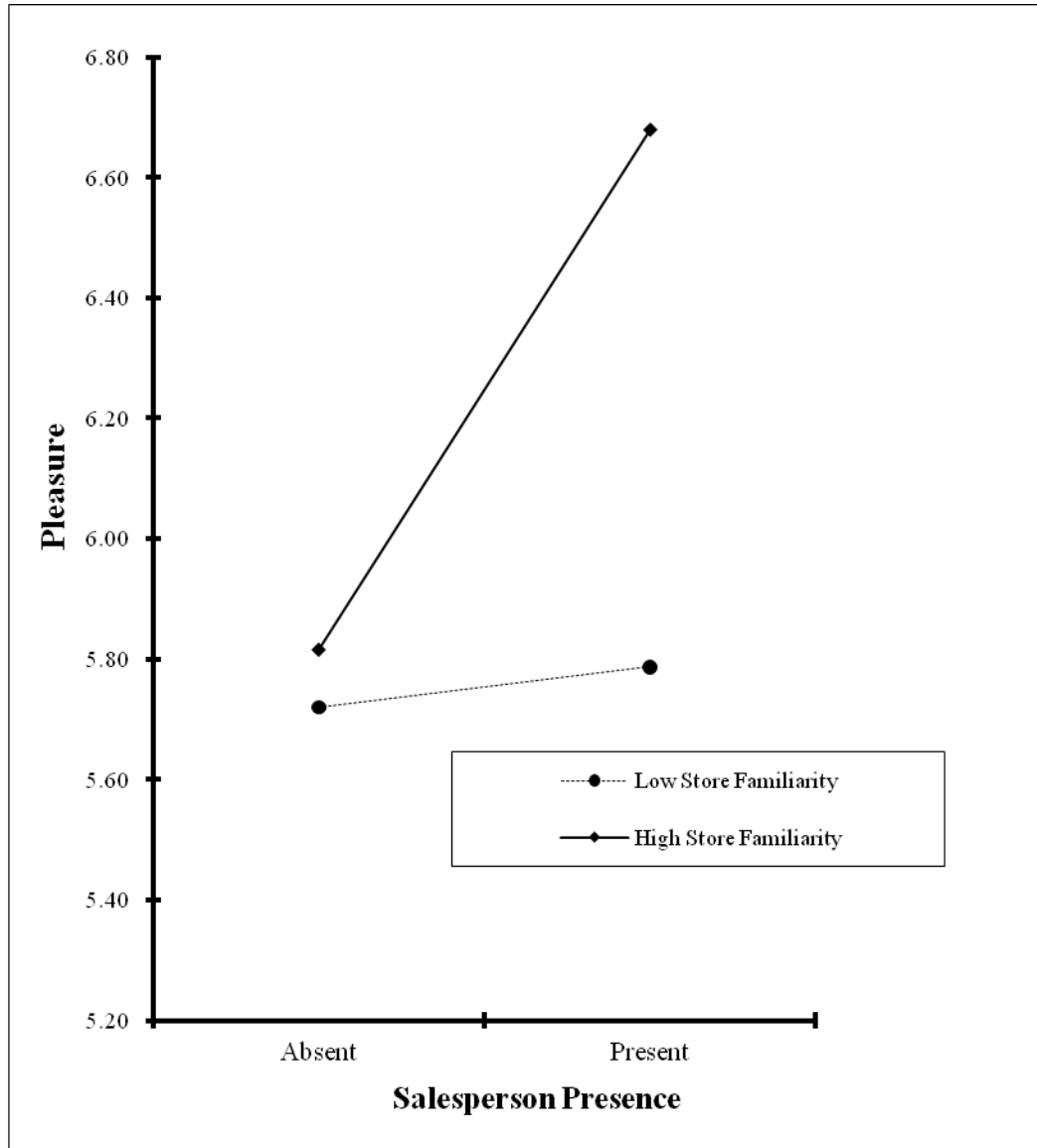
simulated data were graphed to visually show a representation of the expected pattern of results. The interaction graphs are available in Figure 5.4.

Conclusion

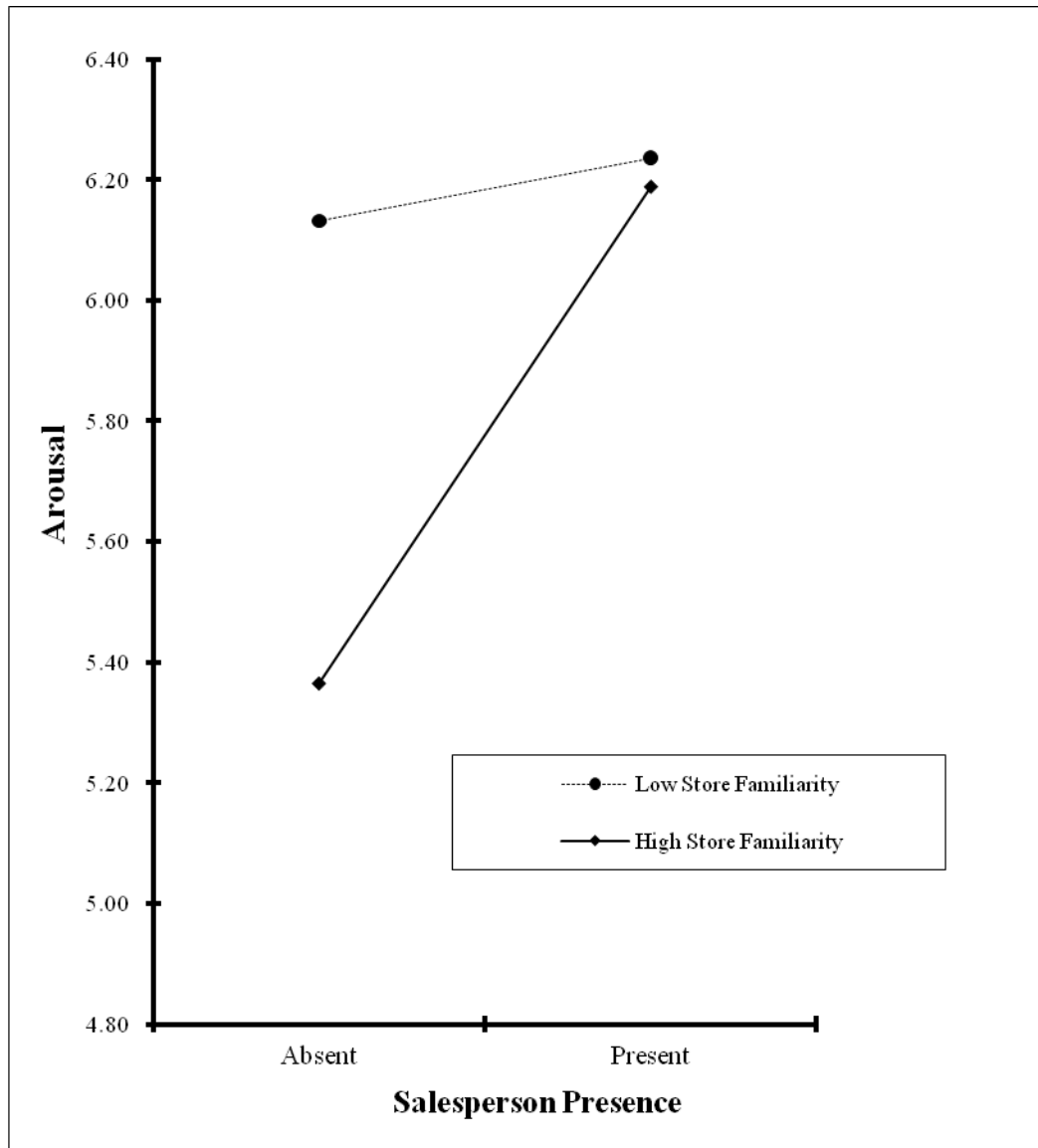
To summarize the proposed methodology followed for the main study, a full factorial between-subjects experimental design is adopted. The first experiment in the main study photographically manipulates the presence of a retail salesperson near the entrance of the store and retail density (the presence of other customers in the store). Store familiarity is also manipulated in the first experiment through use of a scenario. The second experiment of the main study photographically manipulates the demeanor and activity level of the retail salesperson. The three primary emotions in Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) approach-avoidance theory, several approach responses, covariates, manipulation checks, a realism check, and a demand check are measured. After conducting two pilot tests with a student sample, the main data collection is conducted through an online survey panel, Opinionology.

Figure 5.4
Simulation Interaction Graphs

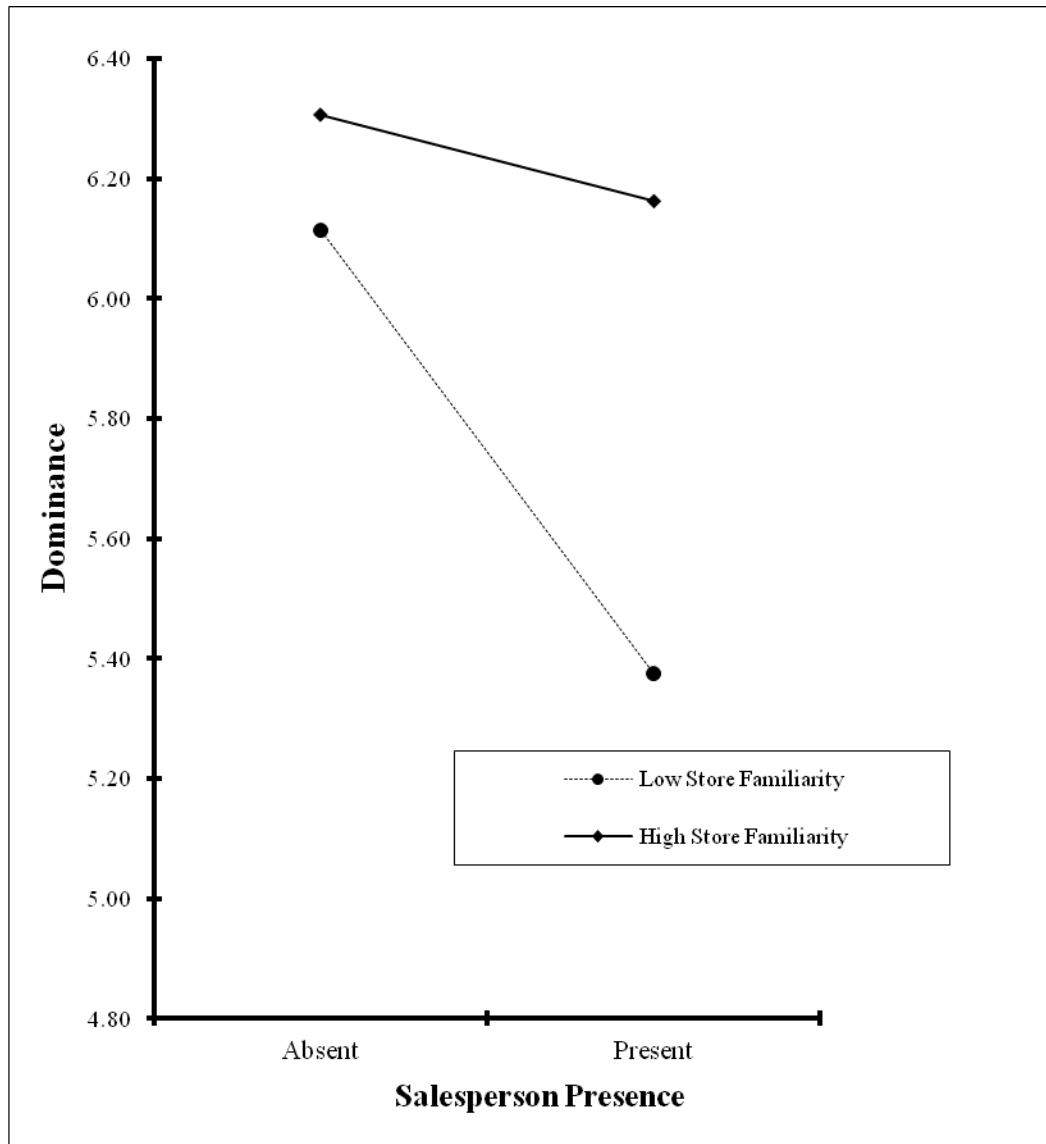
H4a: Salesperson Presence X Store Familiarity on Pleasure (hypothesized result)



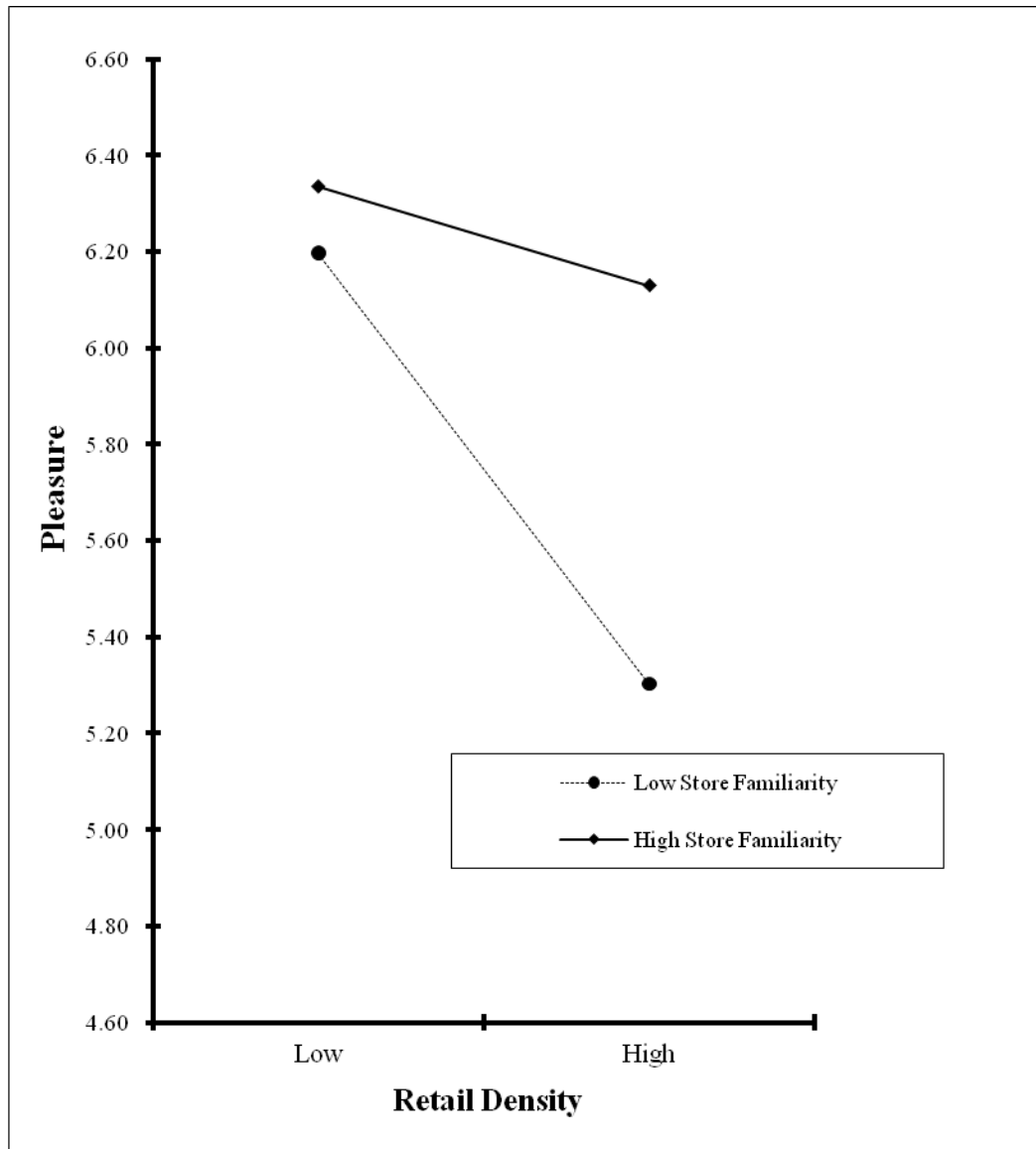
H4b: Salesperson Presence X Store Familiarity on Arousal (hypothesized result)



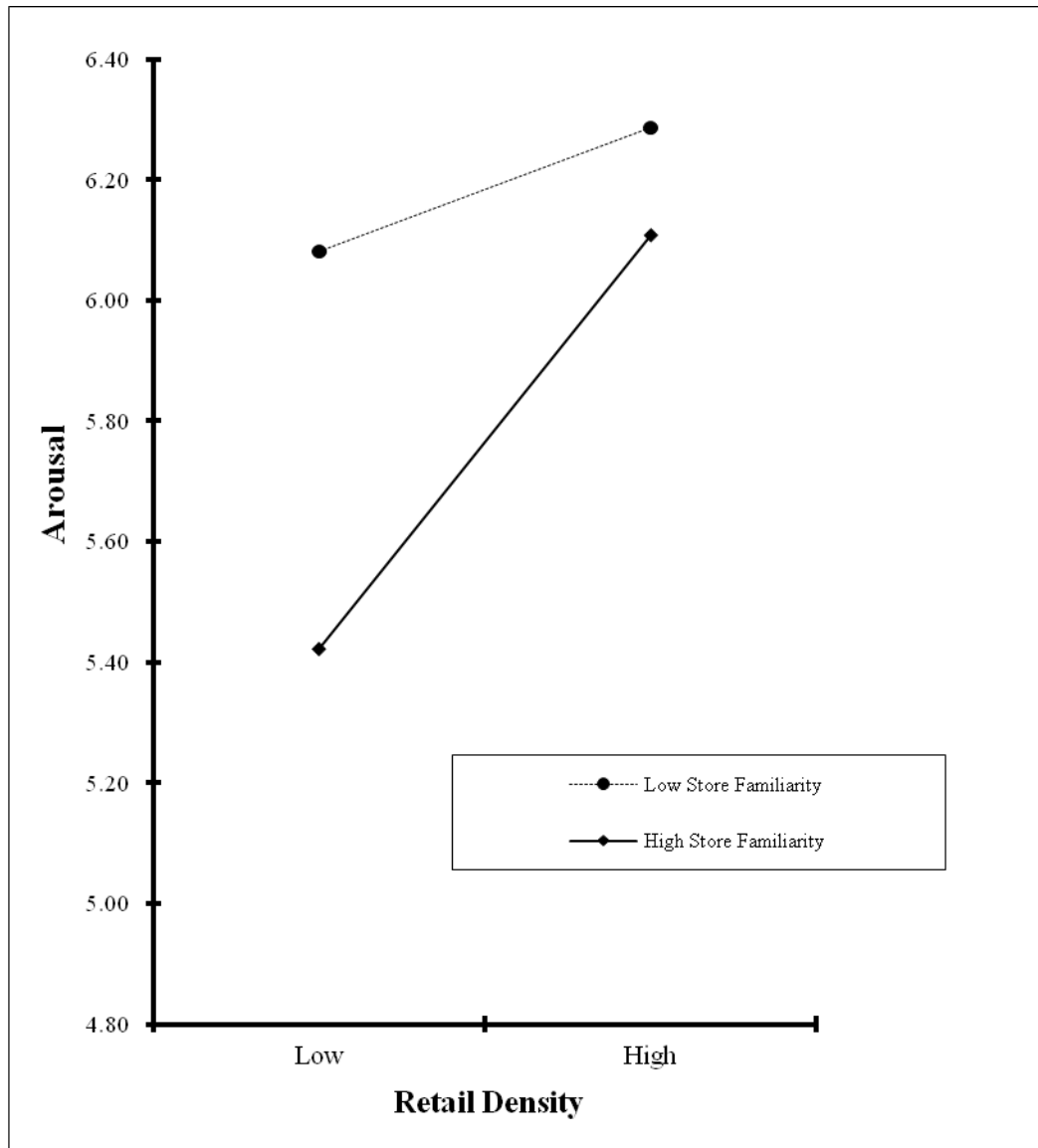
H4c: Salesperson Presence X Store Familiarity on Dominance (hypothesized result)



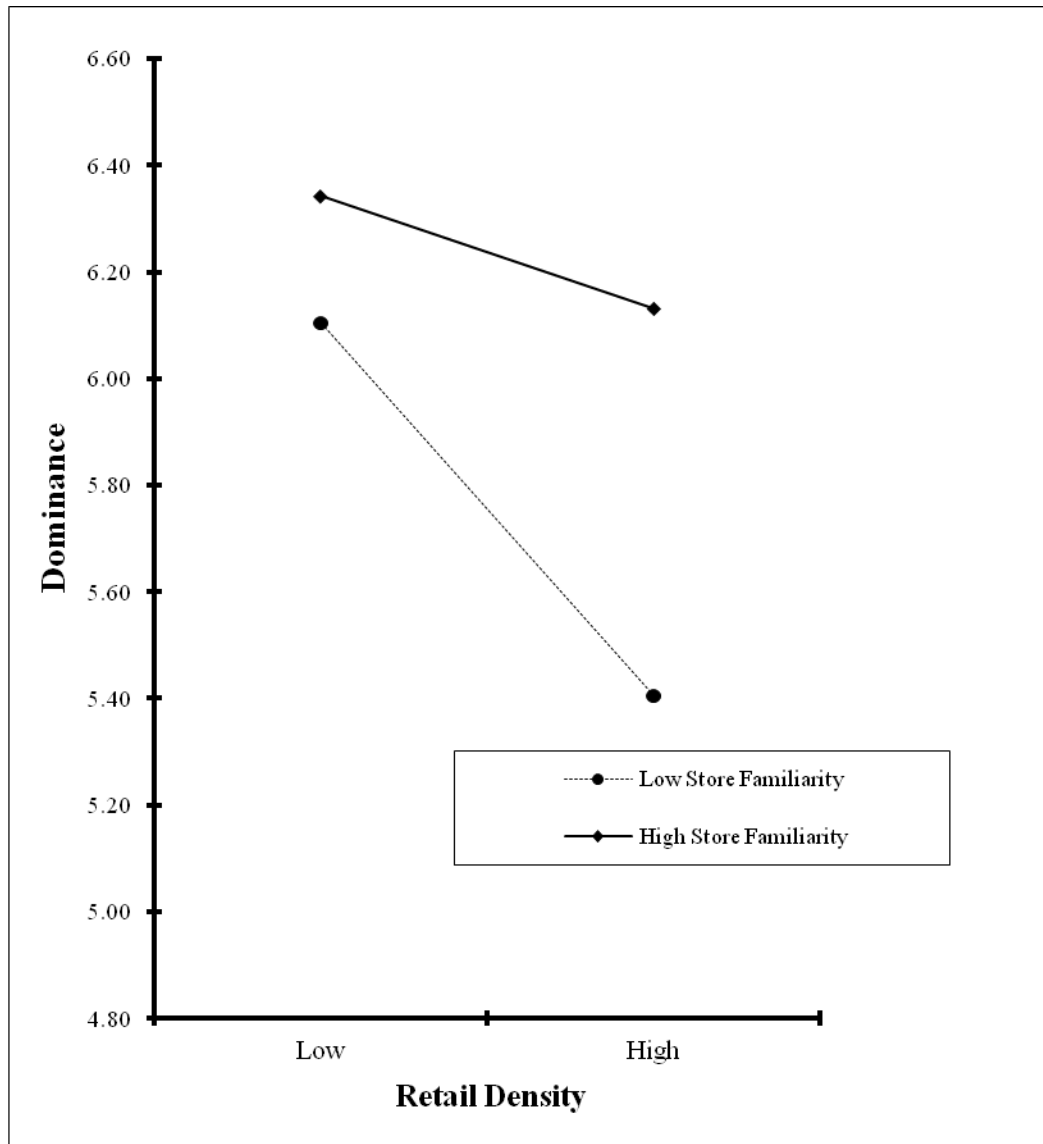
H5a: Retail Density X Store Familiarity on Pleasure (hypothesized result)



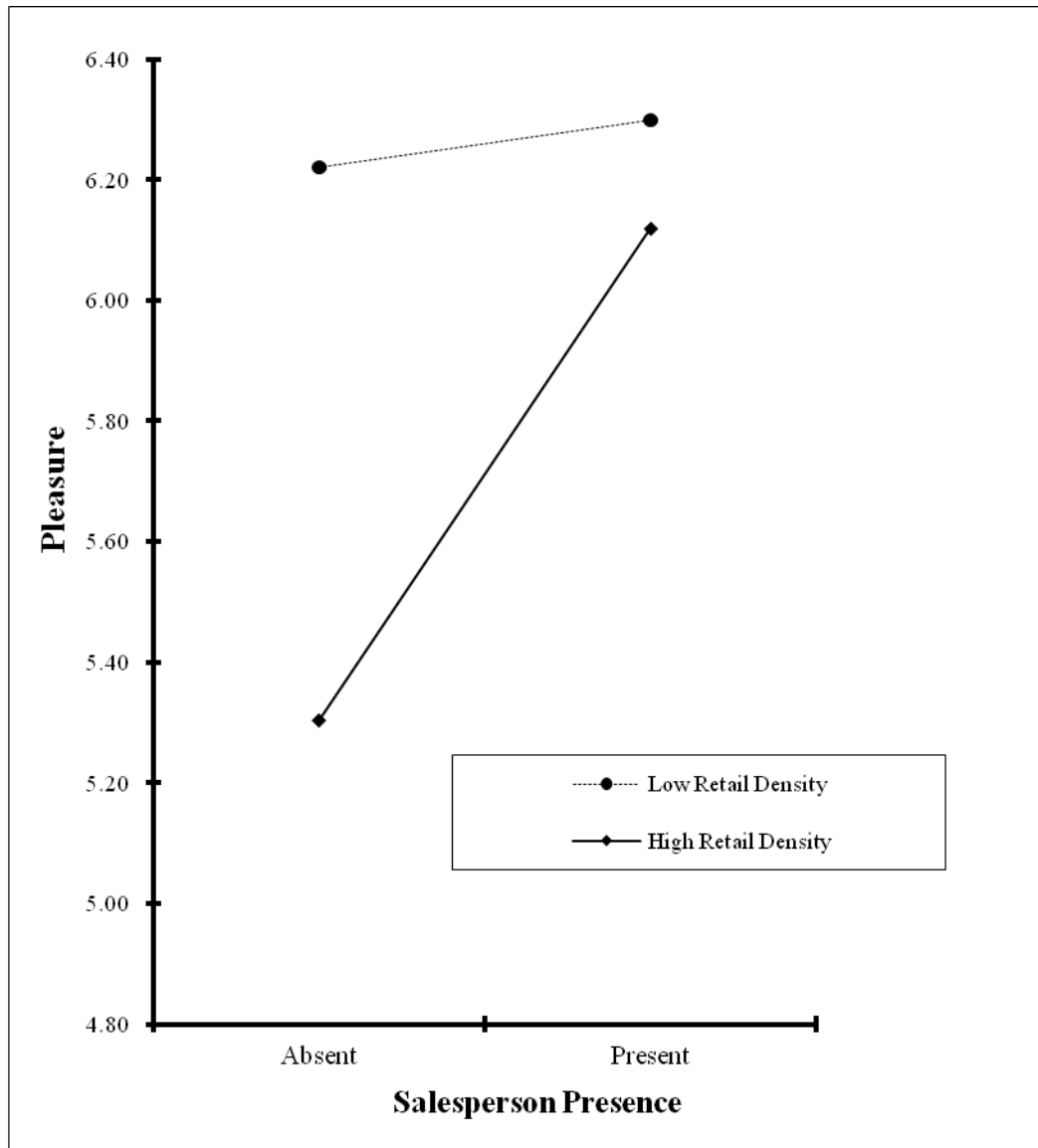
H5b: Retail Density X Store Familiarity on Arousal (hypothesized result)



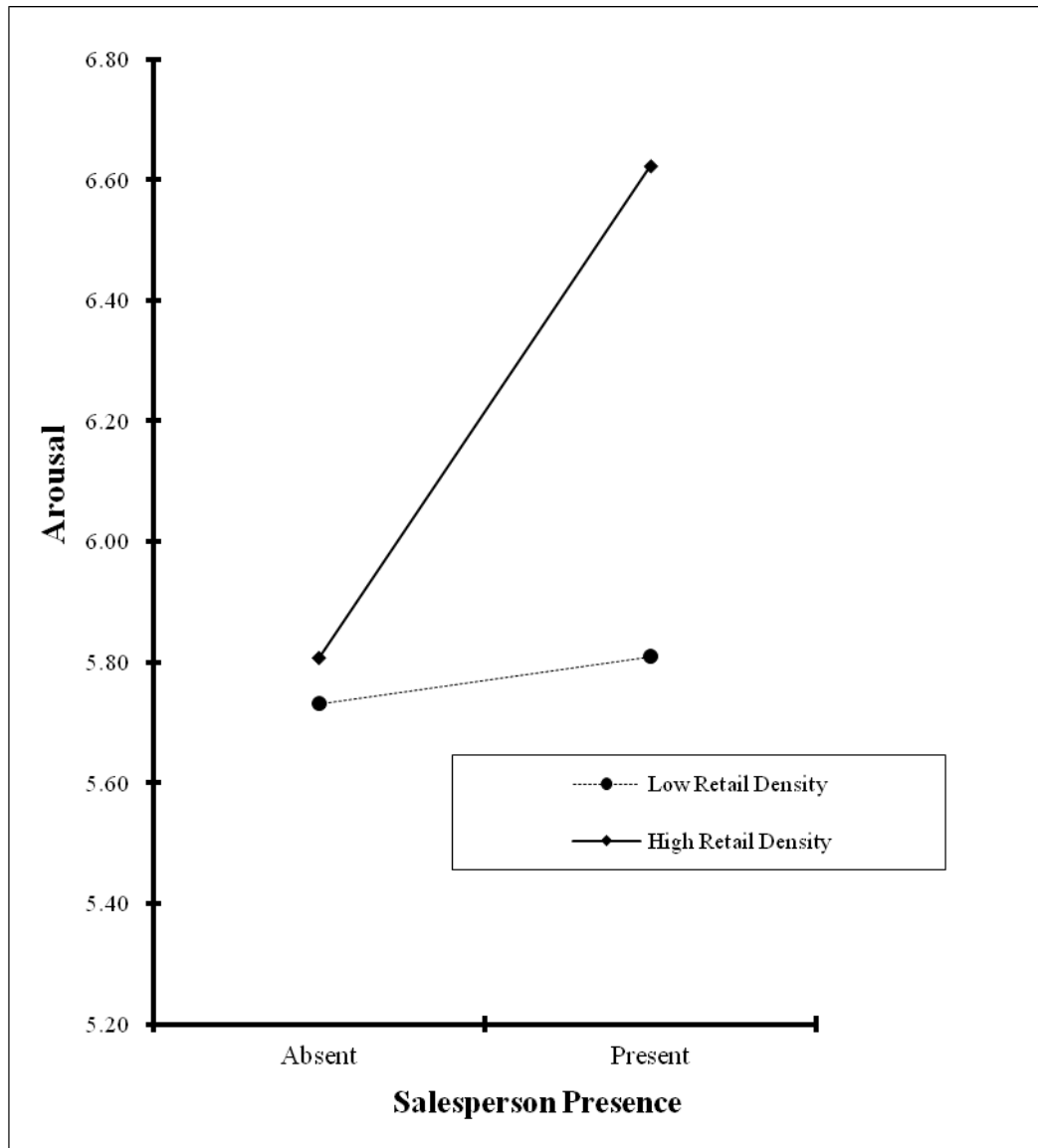
H5c: Retail Density X Store Familiarity on Dominance (hypothesized result)



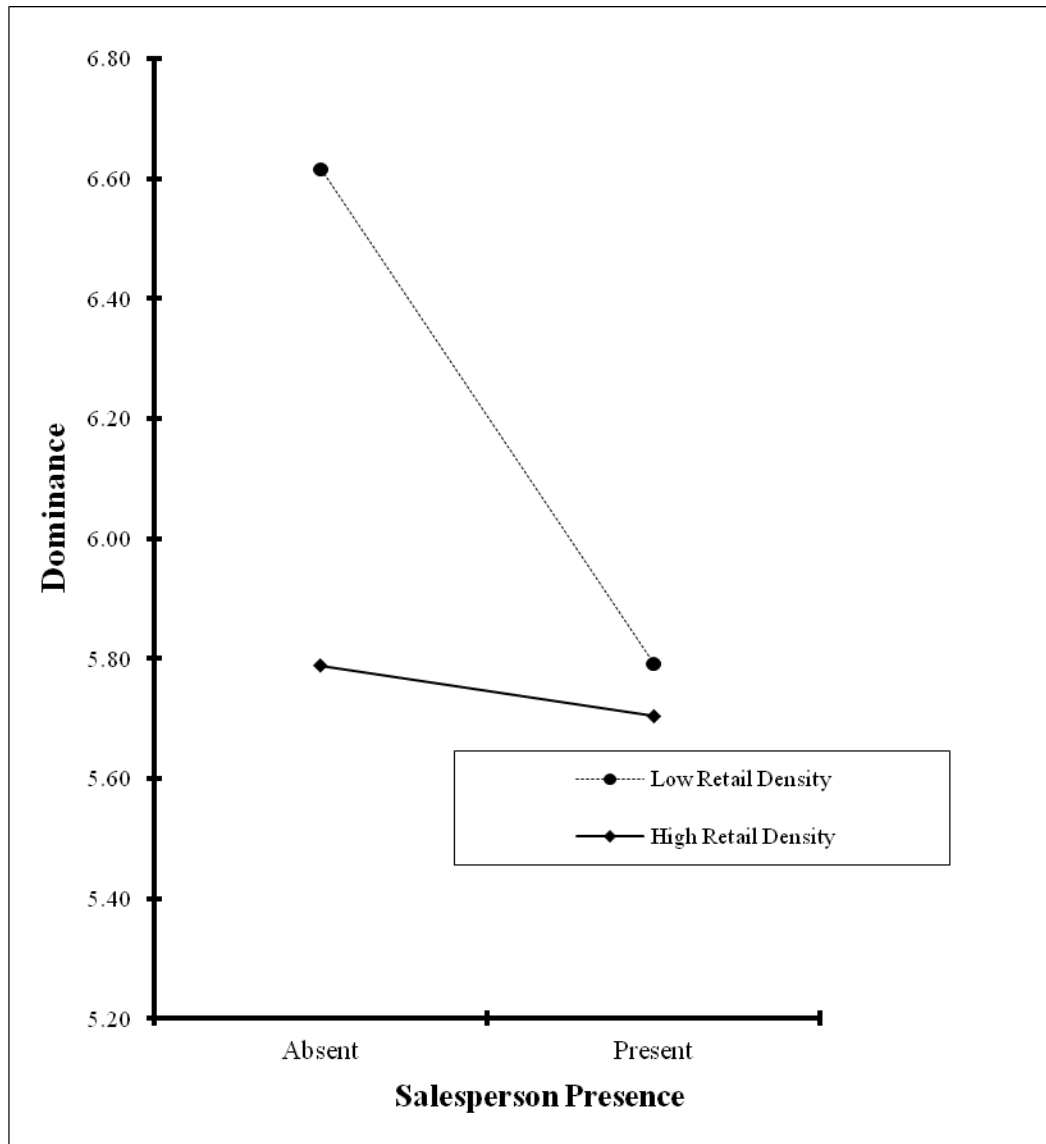
H6a: Salesperson Presence X Retail Density on Pleasure (hypothesized result)



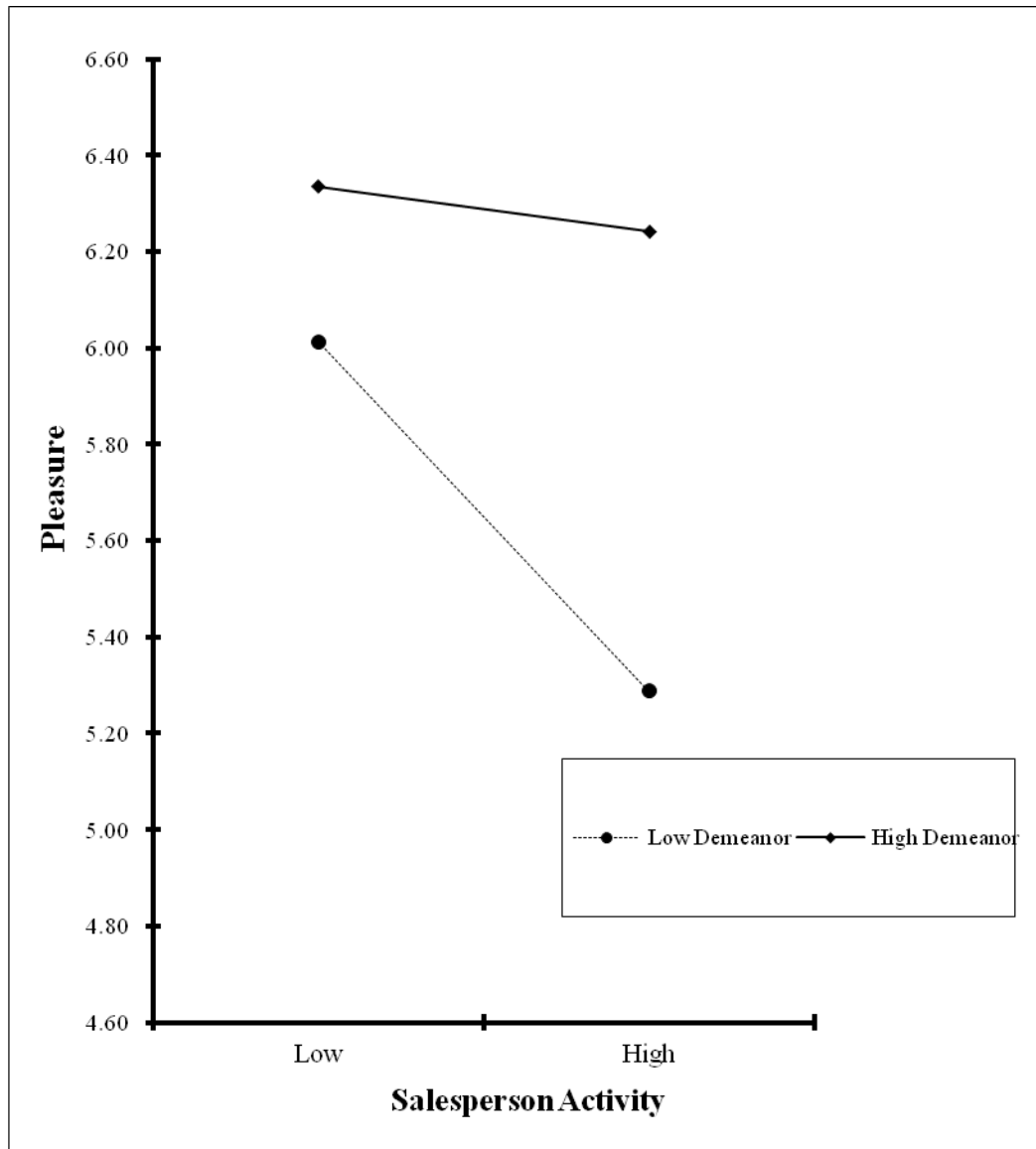
H6b: Salesperson Presence X Retail Density on Arousal (hypothesized result)



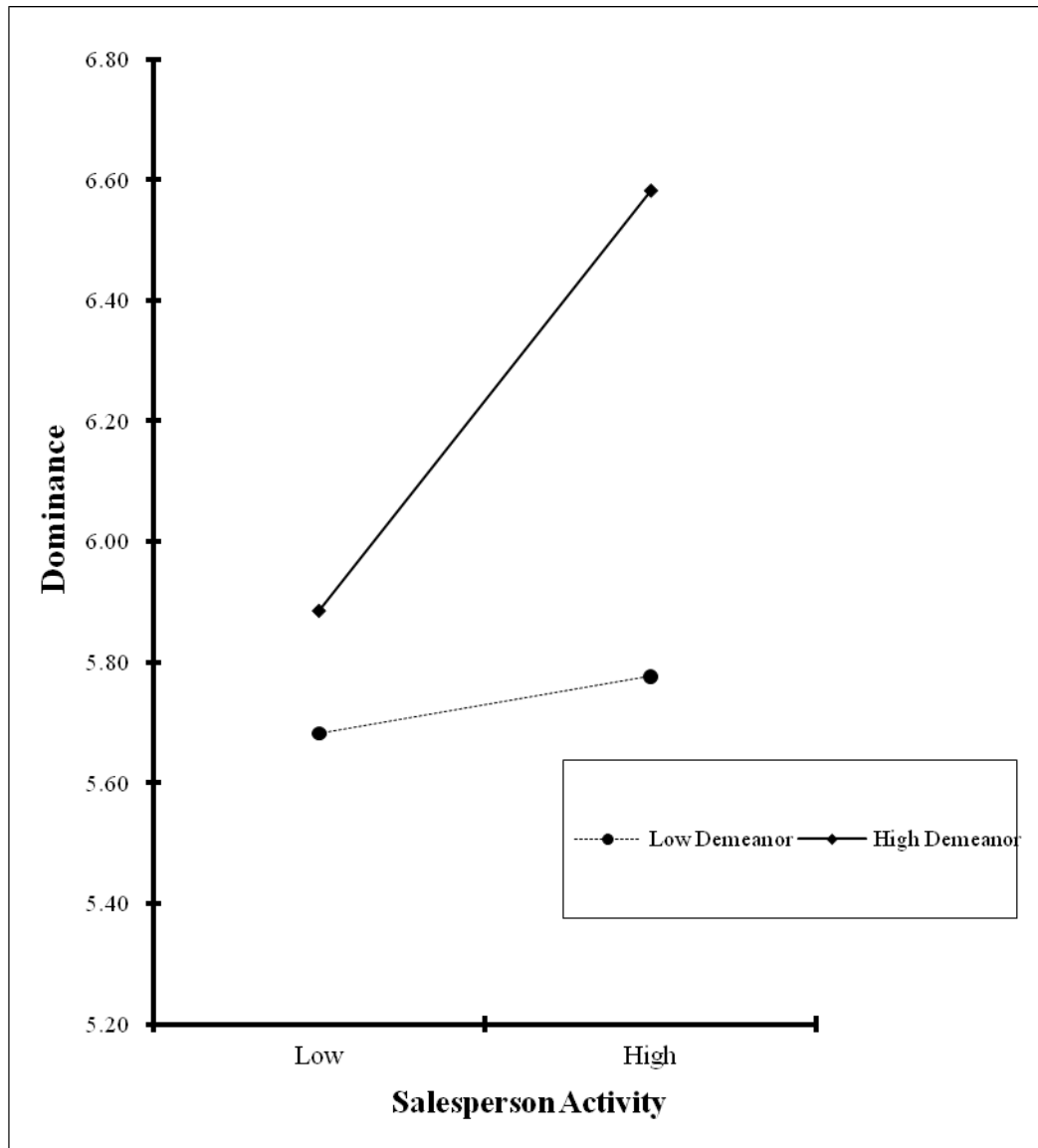
H6c: Salesperson Presence X Retail Density on Dominance (hypothesized result)



H12a: Salesperson Activity X Salesperson Demeanor on Pleasure (hypothesized result)



H12b: Salesperson Activity X Salesperson Demeanor on Dominance (hypothesized result)



CHAPTER VI

DATA ANALYSES AND RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the two pilot tests and the main study. Each of the datasets is analyzed in a similar manner. In both experiments of the main study and in the pilot tests, confirmatory factor analysis is used to ensure that the model has good fit. The scales are checked for acceptable levels of reliability, validity, and item loadings. Checks for how realistic and common the scenes in the photographs are to the subjects as well as manipulation checks are performed. The data are analyzed in multiple ways. First, the first and second sections of the proposed model are tested separately, using multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) for the stimuli to mediator section, and multiple regression for the mediator to approach outcomes section. Second, a structural equation model is used to examine the entire model simultaneously. Advantages exist to each approach. MANCOVA is used to test the hypotheses with categorical variables and interactions. Multiple regression is used to test the predicted linear effects of pleasure and dominance and curvilinear effect of arousal on approach attitudes and behavior. Also, these two piecemeal approaches to analyzing the model take the control variables into consideration. Finally, the structural equation model has the advantage of testing the model in its entirety, while accounting for measurement error.

Pilot Test One Results

Subjects in the first pretest were recruited from undergraduate marketing classes in exchange for extra credit. The students were given a URL in order to access the instrument

online. They could also recruit another subject in order to receive additional extra credit. After deleting incomplete responses and those in which the subject failed the demand check, 569 usable responses remain from an initial pool of 577 subjects. 287 subjects participated in experiment one and 282 subjects participated in experiment two. In both experiments, the majority of the subjects are female (experiment 1: 62.6%; experiment 2: 57.9%). Due to the students recruiting additional subjects who are often older than the traditional college age, the mean age in years of the subjects is 24.48 and 24.54 for experiments one and two, respectively. However, the modal age for both experiments is 20 years of age. Roughly 20% of the sample for each experiment is over 25 years of age. The majority of the subjects are Caucasian (experiment 1: 78.1%; experiment 2: 81.8%). African-Americans account for 12.0% and 11.6% of the subjects in experiments one and two, respectively. Each of the Native American, Asian, Hispanic, and 'Other' groups represent less than 5% of the sample in either experiment. Finally, 45.3% and 45.0% of the subjects in experiments one and two have some experience working in the retail industry.

Both experiment one and experiment two are included in the first pilot test. The results for each experiment are discussed below. As in the main data collection, the subjects answer the measures that are provided in Table 5.1. The particular storefront and salesperson (if in the salesperson presence condition) that subjects see is randomized in order to mitigate any effect of a particular store or salesperson. As a check for the existence of an effect due to either the particular salesperson or storefront, each is entered into a separate multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) with the primary emotions, approach attitudes, and store patronage intentions as the dependent variables for experiments one and two. For experiment one, using Wilks' Lambda as the criterion, the salesperson does not have a significant omnibus effect ($F_{(25, 486)} = 1.43, p = ns$),

but the storefront does have a significant omnibus effect ($F_{(20, 923)} = 2.19, p < .01$). Examination of the between-subjects effects for the storefront shows that the particular storefront has a significant effect on approach attitudes ($F_{(4, 282)} = 3.16, p < .05$) and store patronage intentions ($F_{(4, 282)} = 3.19, p < .05$), but does not have a significant effect on pleasure, arousal, or dominance. For experiment two, using Wilks' Lambda as the criterion, neither the particular salesperson ($F_{(20, 820)} = 0.76, p = ns$) nor storefront ($F_{(16, 837)} = 1.276, p = ns$) has significant omnibus effects. Therefore, dummy variables for the storefronts are created and used as covariates in experiment one, but not experiment two.

Likewise, the gender and race combinations of the retail salesperson model and the subject are used to form either a matched or unmatched designation for each pair. According to the theory of homophily (Jones, Moore, Stanaland, and Wyatt 1998), prior research shows that customers may have more positive evaluations of salespeople who appear to be like themselves in both gender and race. Therefore, gender match and race match are investigated as possible covariates. Each of the match variables is entered into a separate multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) with the primary emotions, approach attitudes, and store patronage intentions as the dependent variables for experiments one and two. For experiment one, using Wilks' Lambda as the criterion, the gender match does not have a significant omnibus effect ($F_{(5, 137)} = .341, p = ns$), but the race match does have a significant omnibus effect ($F_{(5, 137)} = 3.69, p < .01$). Examination of the between-subjects effects for race match shows that having a matching race combination between the salesperson and the subject has a significant effect on approach attitudes ($F_{(1, 143)} = 12.42, p < .01$), store patronage intentions ($F_{(1, 143)} = 6.36, p < .05$), and pleasure ($F_{(1, 143)} = 6.36, p < .01$), but does not have a significant effect on arousal or dominance. For experiment two, using Wilks' Lambda as the criterion, neither the particular gender match

($F_{(5, 274)} = .318, p = ns$) nor race match ($F_{(5, 275)} = .974, p = ns$) has significant omnibus effects.

Thus, gender match is not an issue in the data for experiment one or two of pilot test one, but race match has an influence in the data for experiment one. However, because one of the manipulated factors in experiment one is salesperson presence, race match has missing values for half of the data that is in the salesperson absence condition. So, inclusion of race match as a covariate in the analysis results in the generation of no coefficients for presence or any interaction term that involves presence. As shown in the subsequent pilot test and the main test, the significance of race match is specific to only the pilot one dataset. Because the effect for race match does not persist in the other datasets and its inclusion in the MANCOVA model prevents the generation of interpretable coefficients, a racial bias for experiment one of pilot two is recognized as a limitation of this dataset.

Experiment One of Pilot Test One

Three factors are manipulated in experiment one: salesperson presence, store familiarity, and retail density. The first part of the model includes paths from these stimuli to the three primary emotional mediators (pleasure, arousal, and dominance). The second part of the model includes paths from these three variables to the dependent approach variables. In the conceptual model, the approach responses are divided into approach attitudes and one approach behavior: store patronage intentions. The approach attitudes (store image, expected service quality, attitude toward the store and attitude toward the salesperson) are highly correlated and they have generally consistent relationships with the predictor variables. Thus, analyzing them separately is redundant. The approach attitudes variables are combined into one higher-order construct, with the exception of attitude toward the store. Although attitude toward the store exhibits the same pattern of results as the other reflective indicators of approach attitude, it is dropped from the

analyses in order to maintain acceptable discriminant validity. Store patronage intentions remains as a separate dependent variable because it is a behavioral intention rather than an attitude.

In order to determine whether the scenario manipulation for store familiarity (described in Chapter V) is effective, the subjects answer an item on whether the store in the scenario is familiar or unfamiliar to them. Unfortunately, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) shows that this manipulation check failed ($F_{(1,285)} = .004$, $p = ns$, $M_{\text{familiar}} = 3.63$, $M_{\text{novel}} = 3.62$). Therefore, the familiarity factor is excluded from further analysis in this pilot test, but is modified and re-tested in the second pilot test.

Checks are also performed for the realism of the scenario and photograph, as well as how common the scene in the photograph is to the subjects. One sample t-tests are used to compare the means of these responses to the midpoint of the scale. The results show that the subjects find the photograph to be realistic ($t = 20.70$, $p < .001$, $M = 3.98/5.00$), the scenario to be realistic ($t = 17.48$, $p < .001$, $M = 3.85/5.00$), and the scene to be common ($t = 14.78$, $p < .001$, $M = 3.77/5.00$).

Next, a confirmatory factor analysis using LISREL 8.51 is conducted in order to test the measurement model to make sure that individual items load on their intended factors. Three of the arousal items are dropped because their loadings and contribution to reliability are lower than the other items. The path diagram is shown in Figure 6.1. Each of the items loads significantly on the intended construct ($t \geq 12.12$). This analysis shows acceptable levels of fit for the hypothesized seven-factor model ($\chi^2 (133) = 274.11$, $p < .01$), the mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is .06, the non-normed fit index (NNFI) is 0.94, the comparative fit index (CFI) is 0.96, and the standardized RMR is .04.

Figure 6.1
Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Experiment One of Pilot Test One

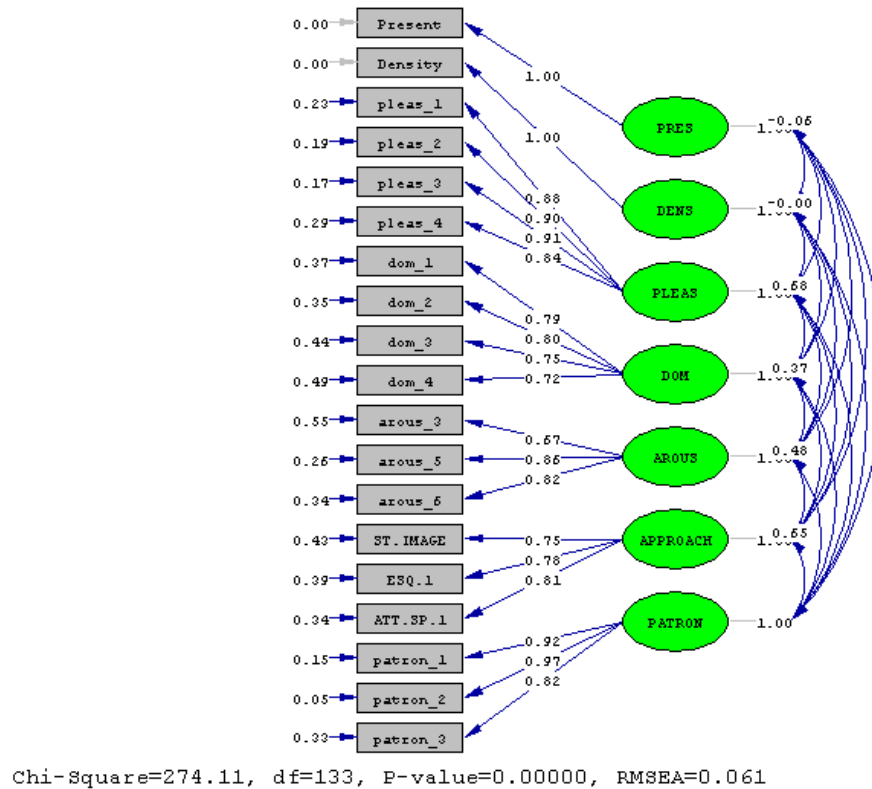


Table 6.1 displays the means, standard deviations, inter-construct correlations, alpha reliabilities, and the square roots of the average variance extracted for experiment one. Construct reliability is evaluated using Cronbach's alpha (along the diagonals of Table 6.1). All of the multi-item measures exhibit acceptable levels of reliability. The minimum coefficient alpha is .82, which is higher than the minimum recommended level of .70 (Nunnally and Bernstein 1994).

To evaluate discriminant validity, Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggest a comparison between the average variance extracted (AVE) for each factor and the variance shared between the constructs. The square roots of the average variance extracted are shown along the diagonals

of Table 6.1. As shown, the square roots of the average variance extracted exceed the corresponding correlations in the same row and column. This illustrates that the amount of variance within the scales is greater than the amount of covariance between any two of the variables.

Table 6.1 Experiment One of Pilot Test One**Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, Inter-Correlations, and Square-roots of the Average Variance Extracted**

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Present	0.50	0.50							
2. Density	0.49	0.50	0.06						
3. Pleasure	3.39	0.91	-0.20 **	-0.14 **	(.93/.91)				
4. Dominance	3.14	0.81	-0.11 *	-0.23 **	0.47 **	(.85/.77)			
5. Arousal	2.96	0.85	-0.20 **	-0.08	0.57 **	0.33 **	(.82/.79)		
6. Approach Attitudes	3.62	0.73	-0.13 *	-0.04	0.69 **	0.35 **	0.44 **	(.83/.77)	
7. Patronage Intentions	3.45	1.22	-0.06	0.01	0.64 **	0.32 **	0.44 **	0.58 **	(.93/.91)

Note. $N = 287$ for all correlations.

() = Diagonal entries are coefficient alpha reliability estimates and the square roots of the average variance extracted.

* = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$, one-tailed.

As previously mentioned, multiple methods are used to examine the hypotheses. MANCOVA is used to test the first half of the conceptual model, with the exception of the hypotheses involving store familiarity due to the failed manipulation check. Controlling for retail experience, age, gender, and dummy variables for the particular storefront, this test examines the effects of salesperson presence and retail density on the three primary emotions. The omnibus effects are examined, using Wilks' Lambda as the criterion. Three covariates, age ($F_{(3, 273)} = 3.10$, $p < .05$), store one ($F_{(2, 273)} = 3.74$, $p < .05$) and store two ($F_{(3, 273)} = 2.89$, $p < .05$), and the two manipulations, salesperson presence ($F_{(3, 273)} = 5.11$, $p < .01$) and retail density ($F_{(3, 273)} = 5.42$, $p < .01$), have significant omnibus effects. The interaction of salesperson presence and retail density does not have significant omnibus effect, and provides no support for H6a-c.

Table 6.2 displays the results of the MANCOVA. Examination of the between-subjects effects shows that age has a significant effect on dominance ($F_{(1, 275)} = 8.17$, $p < .01$). Gender (coded as female) has a significant effect on pleasure ($F_{(1, 275)} = 3.85$, $p \leq .05$) and dominance ($F_{(1, 275)} = 6.21$, $p < .05$). Finally, store three has a significant effect on arousal ($F_{(1, 275)} = 4.12$, $p < .05$). None of the other covariates has a significant effect, but these findings indicate that age, gender, and storefront are appropriate control variables for this study. In terms of the independent variables, both salesperson presence and retail density have significant direct effects. Salesperson presence has a significant effect on pleasure ($F_{(1, 275)} = 12.77$, $p < .001$, $M_{\text{present}} = 3.20$, $M_{\text{absent}} = 3.57$) and arousal ($F_{(1, 275)} = 11.15$, $p < .01$, $M_{\text{present}} = 2.80$, $M_{\text{absent}} = 3.13$), but not on dominance. However, these effects are in the opposite direction from the hypotheses that are grounded in approach-avoidance theory. So, Hypotheses H1a-c are not supported. Retail density has a significant effect on pleasure ($F_{(1, 275)} = 5.17$, $p < .01$, $M_{\text{high}} = 3.26$, $M_{\text{low}} = 3.51$) and dominance ($F_{(1, 275)} = 15.77$, $p < .001$, $M_{\text{high}} = 2.95$, $M_{\text{low}} = 3.32$), in support of H3a and H3c.

However, H3b is not supported, as retail density does not have a significant effect on arousal.

Finally, H2a-c, H4a-c, and H5a-c, are not supported by this data because they involve store familiarity and could not be examined due to the failed manipulation check.

Table 6.2 Pilot One Experiment One Multivariate Analysis of Covariance Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Intercept	Pleasure	1	265.144	349.931	0.000
Intercept	Arousal	1	152.012	369.740	0.000
Intercept	Dominance	1	273.736	464.917	0.000
Retail Experience	Pleasure	1	1.256	1.657	0.199
Retail Experience	Arousal	1	0.216	0.320	0.572
Retail Experience	Dominance	1	0.428	0.727	0.395
Age	Pleasure	1	2.787	3.678	0.056
Age	Arousal	1	2.301	3.389	0.067
Age	Dominance	1	4.809	8.168	0.005
Gender	Pleasure	1	2.915	3.847	0.051
Gender	Arousal	1	0.195	1.341	0.248
Gender	Dominance	1	0.708	6.209	0.013
Store 1	Pleasure	1	2.735	3.609	0.059
Store 1	Arousal	1	0.708	0.288	0.592
Store 1	Dominance	1	0.195	1.203	0.274
Store 2	Pleasure	1	2.121	2.799	0.095
Store 2	Arousal	1	0.816	1.202	0.274
Store 2	Dominance	1	0.278	0.473	0.492
Store 3	Pleasure	1	0.000	0.000	0.985
Store 3	Arousal	1	2.798	4.122	0.043
Store 3	Dominance	1	0.082	0.139	0.710
Store 4	Pleasure	1	1.687	2.226	0.137
Store 4	Arousal	1	0.455	0.670	0.414
Store 4	Dominance	1	0.080	0.137	0.712
Salesperson Presence	Pleasure	1	9.674	12.768	0.000
Salesperson Presence	Arousal	1	7.568	11.147	0.001
Salesperson Presence	Dominance	1	1.617	2.746	0.099
Retail Density	Pleasure	1	3.914	5.166	0.024
Retail Density	Arousal	1	0.725	15.774	0.302
Retail Density	Dominance	1	9.287	1.068	0.000
Salesperson Presence X Retail Density	Pleasure	1	1.903	2.512	0.114
Salesperson Presence X Retail Density	Arousal	1	0.074	0.074	0.742

Salesperson Presence X Retail Density	Dominance	1	0.536	0.536	0.341
Error	Pleasure	275	0.758		
Error	Arousal	275	0.589		
Error	Dominance	275	0.679		
Total	Pleasure	286			
Total	Arousal	286			
Total	Dominance	286			

Note: N = 287, significant values are in bold-faced.

The second half of the conceptual model from the three primary emotions (pleasure, arousal, and dominance) to the dependent variables is tested using two multiple regression equations. In each regression equation, retail experience, age, gender, and dummy variables for the particular storefront serve as covariates. The independent variables are centered prior to analysis and a quadratic term is created in order to test for the hypothesized curvilinear effect of arousal on the two dependent variables, approach attitudes and store patronage intentions. In each of the regression models, the covariates are entered, followed by the three primary emotions and a quadratic term for arousal. The results of the regressions are displayed in Table 6.3 and 6.4. For approach attitudes, the overall model is significant ($F_{(11,274)} = 25.69, p < .001$) and explains 50.8% of the variance. None of the covariates are significant, with the exception of store one ($B = .250, p < .01$). There is a significant effect for pleasure ($B = .499, p < .001$) on approach attitudes, but dominance and arousal do not reach significance. Thus, the data support H7a-c, but provide no support for H8a-c and H9a-c. For store patronage intentions, the overall model is significant ($F_{(11,274)} = 20.67, p < .001$) and explains 45.3% of the variance. Of the covariates, gender (coded as female) ($B = -0.297, p < .001$) and store four ($B = .364, p < .05$) are significant. Of the independent variables, only pleasure significantly predicts store patronage intentions ($B = .750, p < .001$), while arousal and dominance do not have a significant effect. Similarly, these data support H7e, but not H8e or H9e.

Table 6.3 Pilot One Experiment One Multiple Regression Results

Dependent Variable: Approach Attitudes				
Variables	Unstandardized B	Standardized Beta	t	p
Retail Experience	-0.046	-0.032	-0.675	0.500
Age	-0.001	-0.018	-0.408	0.684
Gender	0.107	0.071	1.544	0.124
Store 1	0.25	0.127	2.27	0.024
Store 2	-0.039	-0.021	-0.364	0.716
Store 3	-0.014	-0.009	-0.146	0.884
Store 4	0.039	0.022	0.382	0.703
Pleasure	0.499	0.623	10.892	0.000
Dominance	0.048	0.053	1.062	0.289
Arousal	0.061	0.071	1.339	0.182
Arousal Squared	0.032	0.045	1.032	0.303

Note: N = 287, R-squared = .508, significant values are in bold-faced.

Table 6.4 Pilot One Experiment One Multiple Regression Results

Dependent Variable: Store Patronage Intentions				
Variables	Unstandardized B	Standardized Beta	t	p
Retail Experience	0.01	0.004	0.088	0.930
Age	0.005	0.039	0.844	0.400
Gender	-0.297	-0.118	-2.431	0.016
Store 1	-0.012	-0.004	-0.06	0.953
Store 2	0.224	0.070	1.182	0.238
Store 3	-0.131	-0.047	-0.755	0.451
Store 4	0.364	0.125	2.028	0.044
Pleasure	0.75	0.559	9.271	0.000
Dominance	-0.003	-0.002	-0.044	0.965
Arousal	0.154	0.106	1.902	0.058
Arousal Squared	0.028	0.023	0.512	0.609

Note: N = 287, R-squared = .453, significant values are in bold-faced.

Finally, the entire conceptual model is tested simultaneously using a structural equation model on LISREL 8.51. This analysis accounts for measurement error and neatly summarizes the findings. The structural error terms in the PSI matrix are allowed to correlate between the three emotions (pleasure, arousal, and dominance) as they are likely related in ways that are not

completely explained by this model. Also, the indicators in the λ -y matrix with the highest loading on the appropriate construct are fixed to one. In addition, a beta path is estimated between approach attitudes and store patronage intentions. This relationship between attitudes and behavioral intentions is consistent with Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action. Overall, the model shows an acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2(139) = 285.59$ $p < .01$), the RMSEA is .06, the NNFI is 0.95, the CFI is 0.96, and the standardized RMR is .05.

The structural results of the analysis are shown in Table 6.5. Salesperson presence has a significant negative effect on pleasure (H1a) and arousal (H1b), but does not have a significant effect on dominance (H1c). Although these findings are not surprising given the qualitative results, the direction of the results is contrary to approach-avoidance theory and the corresponding hypotheses. Therefore, H1a-c is not supported. The store familiarity hypotheses (H2) are not included in the model due to the failed manipulation check. Retail density has a significant negative effect on pleasure (H3a) and dominance (H3c), but not arousal (H3b). Thus, H3a and H3c are supported, but H3b is not. Pleasure has a significant positive relationship with approach attitudes (H7a-c) and store patronage intentions (H7e), giving support to these hypotheses. The effects of arousal on approach attitudes (H8a-c) and store patronage intentions (H8e) are not significant. Likewise, the effects of dominance on approach attitudes (H9a-c) and store patronage intentions (H9e) are not significant. Thus, hypotheses H8 and H9 are not supported.

Several significant effects exist in the model other than those that are specifically hypothesized. A positive relationship between approach attitudes and store patronage intentions is significant. In addition, salesperson presence and retail density both have significant negative indirect effects on approach intentions and store patronage intentions. Finally, the effects of the

two factors and three primary emotions on the individual constructs that are indicators of approach attitudes are given to illustrate that the same pattern of results holds for the higher-order construct and its indicators.

Table 6.5 Structural Results for Pilot Test One Experiment One

Hypothesized Effects		Unstd. Coeff.	Std. Coeff.	t	p
H1a	Salesperson Presence → Pleasure	-0.17	-0.19	-3.22	0.001
H1b	Salesperson Presence → Arousal	-0.18	-0.21	-3.26	0.001
H1c	Salesperson Presence → Dominance	-0.08	-0.09	-1.50	0.134
H3a	Retail Density → Pleasure	-0.11	-0.13	-2.11	0.035
H3b	Retail Density → Arousal	-0.06	-0.07	-1.12	0.263
H3c	Retail Density → Dominance	-0.19	-0.24	-3.73	0.000
H7a-c	Pleasure → Approach Attitudes	0.67	0.75	8.89	0.000
H7e	Pleasure → Store Patronage Intentions	0.43	0.64	3.81	0.000
H8a-c	Arousal → Approach Attitudes	0.04	0.05	0.62	0.535
H8e	Arousal → Store Patronage Intentions	0.05	0.06	0.62	0.535
H9a-c	Dominance → Approach Attitudes	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.968
H9e	Dominance → Store Patronage Intentions	0.01	0.01	0.08	0.936
Other Effects					
	Approach Attitudes → Store Patronage Intentions	0.37	0.31	3.25	0.001
	Salesperson Presence → Approach Attitudes	-0.13	-0.15	-3.21	0.001
	Salesperson Presence → Store Patronage Intentions	-0.13	-0.13	-3.25	0.001
	Retail Density → Approach Attitudes	-0.08	-0.10	-2.05	0.040
	Retail Density → Store Patronage Intentions	-0.08	-0.09	-2.05	0.040
	Pleasure → Store Image	0.63	0.57	8.55	0.000
	Pleasure → Expected Service Quality	0.65	0.59	8.72	0.000
	Pleasure → Attitude to the Salesperson	0.67	0.61	8.89	0.000
	Arousal → Store Image	0.04	0.03	0.62	0.535

Arousal → Expected Service Quality	0.04	0.04	0.62	0.535
Arousal → Attitude to the Salesperson	0.04	0.04	0.62	0.535
Dominance → Store Image	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.968
Dominance → Expected Service Quality	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.968
Dominance → Attitude to the Salesperson	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.968
Salesperson Presence → Store Image	-0.12	-0.12	-3.20	0.001
Salesperson Presence → Expected Service Quality	-0.12	-0.12	-3.21	0.001
Salesperson Presence → Attitude to the Salesperson	-0.13	-0.13	-3.21	0.001
Retail Density → Store Image	-0.07	-0.07	-2.05	0.040
Retail Density → Expected Service Quality	-0.08	-0.08	-2.05	0.040
Retail Density → Attitude to the Salesperson	-0.08	-0.08	-2.05	0.040

Note: N = 287, SMCs: Pleasure = .06, Dominance = .07, Arousal = .05, Approach = .62, Patronage .50, significant relationships are in bold-face.

Experiment Two of Pilot Test One

Recall that two factors are manipulated in experiment two: salesperson demeanor and the level of salesperson activity. The first part of the model includes paths from these stimuli to the two of the primary emotional mediators (pleasure and dominance). The second part of the model includes paths from these two variables to the dependent approach variables. As in the first experiment of this pilot test, the approach attitude variables are combined into one overall construct, with the exception of attitude toward the store. Although attitude toward the store exhibits the same pattern of results as the other reflective indicators of approach attitude, it is dropped from the analyses in order to maintain acceptable discriminant validity. Store patronage intentions remains as a separate dependent variable because it is a behavioral intention rather than an attitude.

In order to determine whether the photographic manipulation for salesperson demeanor (smiling versus not smiling) is effective, the subjects rate several items on their perceptions of

the particular salesperson that they see in their randomly assigned stimulus (see Table 5.1). An ANOVA shows that this manipulation check is successful ($F_{(1,285)}=167.97, p < .001, M_{\text{smiling}} = 4.16, M_{\text{not smiling}} = 2.70$).

Checks are also performed for the realism of the scenario and photograph, as well as how common the scene in the photograph is to the subjects. One sample t-tests are used to compare the means of these responses to the midpoint of the scale. The results show that the subjects find the photograph to be realistic ($t = 20.82, p < .001, M = 3.99/5.00$), the scenario to be realistic ($t = 22.22, p < .001, M = 3.99/5.00$), and the scene to be common ($t = 13.55, p < .001, M = 3.76/5.00$).

Next, a confirmatory factor analysis using LISREL 8.51 is conducted in order to test the measurement model to ensure that individual items load on their intended factors. Three of the arousal items are dropped because their loadings and contribution to reliability are lower than the other items. The path diagram is shown in Figure 6.2. Each of the items loads significantly on the intended construct ($t > 10.50$). This analysis shows acceptable levels of fit for the hypothesized six-factor model ($\chi^2(91) = 202.98, p < .01$), the RMSEA is .07, the NNFI is 0.94, the CFI is 0.96, and the standardized RMR is .05.

Figure 6.2
Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Experiment Two of Pilot Test One

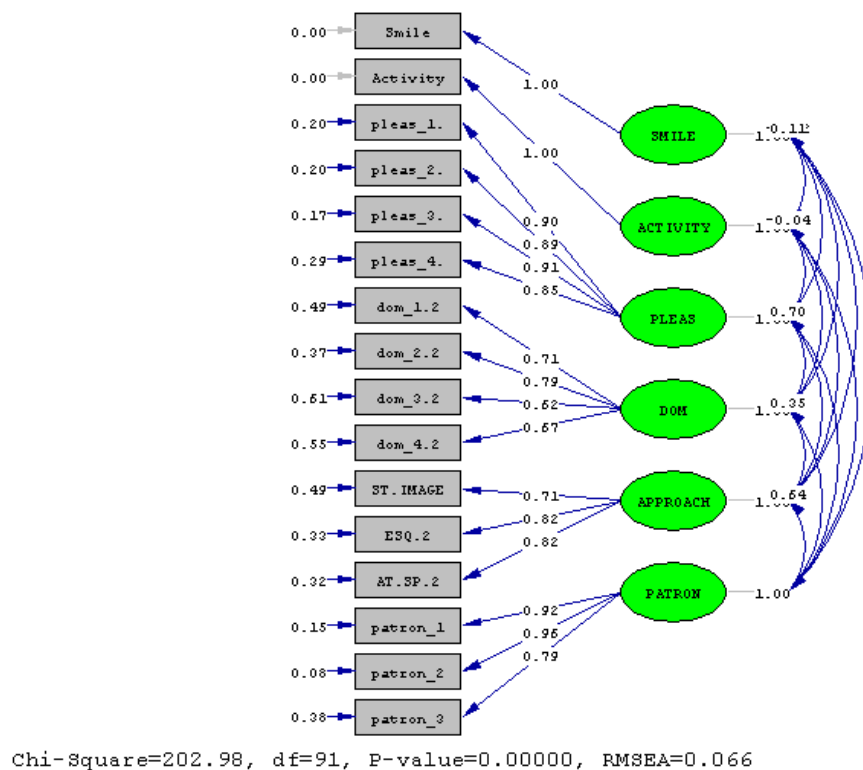


Table 6.6 displays the means, standard deviations, inter-construct correlations, alpha reliabilities, and the square roots of the average variance extracted for experiment two. Construct reliability is evaluated using Cronbach's alpha (along the diagonals of Table 6.6). All of the multi-item measures exhibit acceptable levels of reliability. The minimum coefficient alpha is .79.

To demonstrate discriminant validity, the square roots of the average variance extracted are shown along the diagonals of Table 6.6 (Fornell and Larcker 1981). As shown, the square roots of the average variance extracted exceed the corresponding correlations in the same row and column, which illustrates that the amount of variance within the scales is greater than the amount of covariance between any two of the variables.

Table 6.6 Experiment Two of Pilot Test One
Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, Inter-Correlations, and Square-roots of the Average Variance Extracted

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Smile	0.46	0.50						
2. Activity	0.47	0.50	-0.08					
3. Pleasure	3.47	0.91	0.29 **	0.04	(.94/.89)			
4. Dominance	3.14	0.70	-0.02	-0.06	0.38 **	(.79/.70)		
5. Approach Attitudes	3.75	0.78	0.31 **	0.03	0.75 **	0.23 **	(.81/.79)	
6. Patronage Intentions	3.59	1.16	0.12 *	-0.04	0.67 **	0.30 **	0.60 **	(.91/.89)

Note. $N = 282$ for all correlations.

() = Diagonal entries are coefficient alpha reliability estimates and the square roots of the average variance extracted.

* = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$, one-tailed.

As previously mentioned, multiple methods are used to examine the hypotheses.

MANCOVA is used to test the first half of the conceptual model. Controlling for retail experience, age, and gender, this test examines the effects of salesperson demeanor and salesperson activity on two of the primary emotions. The omnibus effects are examined, using Wilks' Lambda as the criterion. Only salesperson demeanor ($F_{(2, 272)} = 17.076, p < .001$) has a significant omnibus effect. None of the covariates, salesperson activity, or the interaction have a significant omnibus effect, which means that H11a, H11b, H12a and H12b are not supported. Examination of the between-subjects effects shows that salesperson demeanor has a significant effect on pleasure ($F_{(1, 273)} = 25.63, p < .001, M_{\text{smiling}} = 3.22, M_{\text{not smiling}} = 3.75$), which provides support for H10. Please see Table 6.7 for the between-subjects results.

Table 6.7 Pilot One Experiment Two Multivariate Analysis of Covariance Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Intercept	Pleasure	1	391.879	511.124	0.000
Intercept	Dominance	1	322.747	656.601	0.000
Retail Experience	Pleasure	1	0.127	0.166	0.684
Retail Experience	Dominance	1	0.021	0.043	0.836
Age	Pleasure	1	0.396	0.517	0.473
Age	Dominance	1	1.911	3.888	0.050
Gender	Pleasure	1	1.845	2.406	0.122
Gender	Dominance	1	0.350	0.711	0.400
Salesperson Demeanor	Pleasure	1	19.653	25.633	0.000
Salesperson Demeanor	Dominance	1	0.141	0.287	0.593
Salesperson Activity	Pleasure	1	0.740	0.965	0.327
Salesperson Activity	Dominance	1	0.177	0.359	0.549
Salesperson Demeanor X Salesperson Activity	Pleasure	1	0.358	0.467	0.495
Salesperson Demeanor X Salesperson Activity	Dominance	1	1.251	2.544	0.112
Error	Pleasure	273	0.767		
Error	Dominance	273	0.492		
Total	Pleasure	280			
Total	Dominance	280			

Note: N = 282, significant values are in bold-faced.

The second half of the conceptual model from the two emotions, pleasure and dominance, to the two dependent variables, approach attitudes and store patronage intentions, is tested using two multiple regression equations. In each regression equation, retail experience, age, and gender serve as covariates. In each of the regression models, the covariates are entered, followed by the predictors. Please see Tables 6.8 and 6.9 for the results. For approach attitudes, the overall model is significant ($F_{(5,274)} = 74.82, p < .001$) and explains 57.7% of the variance. None of the covariates are significant. There is a significant effect for pleasure ($B = .670, p < .001$) on approach attitudes, but dominance does not reach significance. So, H13a-c is supported, but H14a-c is not supported. For store patronage intentions, the overall model is significant ($F_{(5,274)} = 46.39, p < .001$) and explains 45.8% of the variance. None of the covariates are significant, with the exception of gender (coded as female) ($B = -.236, p < .05$). Of the independent variables, only pleasure significantly predicts store patronage intentions ($B = .801, p < .001$), while dominance does not have a significant effect. Thus, H13e is supported, but H14e is not supported.

Table 6.8 Pilot One Experiment Two Multiple Regression Results

Dependent Variable: Approach Attitudes				
Variables	Unstandardized B	Standardized Beta	t	p
Retail Experience	-0.080	-0.051	-1.260	0.209
Age	-0.002	-0.024	-0.598	0.550
Gender	0.028	0.018	0.425	0.671
Pleasure	0.670	0.781	18.278	0.000
Dominance	-0.081	-0.073	-1.703	0.090

Note: N = 282, R-squared = .577, significant values are in bold-faced.

Table 6.9 Pilot One Experiment Two Multiple Regression Results

Dependent Variable: Store Patronage Intentions				
Variables	Unstandardized B	Standardized Beta	t	p
Retail Experience	0.080	0.034	0.748	0.455
Age	-0.003	-0.026	-0.570	0.569
Gender	-0.236	-0.101	-2.141	0.033
Pleasure	0.801	0.631	13.038	0.000
Dominance	0.108	0.066	1.355	0.177

Note: N = 282, R-squared = .458, significant values are in bold-faced.

Finally, the entire conceptual model for experiment two is tested simultaneously using a structural equation model on LISREL 8.51. This analysis accounts for measurement error and neatly summarizes the findings. The structural error terms in the PSI matrix are allowed to correlate between pleasure and dominance, as they are likely related in ways that are not completely explained by this model. Also, the indicators in the λ -y matrix with the highest loading on the appropriate construct are fixed to one. In addition, a beta path is estimated between approach attitudes and store patronage intentions, as is consistent with Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action. Overall, the model shows an acceptable fit to the data (χ^2 (98) = 448.60 $p < .01$), the RMSEA is .08, the NNFI is 0.93, the CFI is 0.94, and the standardized RMR is .05.

The structural results of the analysis are shown in Table 6.10. A positive salesperson demeanor has a positive significant effect on pleasure, in support of H10. The salesperson's level of activity did not have a significant effect on pleasure (H11a) or dominance (H11b). Therefore, H11a and H11b are not supported. Pleasure has positive significant relationships with approach attitudes (H13a-c) and store patronage intentions (H13e). Thus, H13a-c and H13e is supported. Dominance has a negative significant relationship with approach attitudes (H14a-c). However, the direction of this relationship is in contrast to the positive hypothesized relationship, so H14a-

c is not supported. H14e is also not supported as there is not a significant relationship between dominance and store patronage intentions.

Several significant effects exist in the model other than those that are specifically hypothesized. A positive salesperson demeanor has a positive significant indirect effect on approach attitudes and store patronage intention, but salesperson activity does not have a significant relationship with either dependent variable. Finally, the effects of the two factors and two emotions on the individual constructs that are indicators of approach attitudes are given to illustrate that the same pattern of results holds for the overall construct and its indicators. Pleasure and a positive salesperson demeanor have positive significant relationships, dominance has a negative significant relationship, and salesperson activity has no significant relationship with store image, expected service quality, and attitude to the salesperson.

Table 6.10 Structural Results for Pilot Test One Experiment Two

Hypothesized Effects		Unstd. Coeff.	Std. Coeff.	t	p
H10	Salesperson Demeanor → Pleasure	0.29	0.32	6.00	0.000
H11a	Salesperson Activity → Pleasure	0.05	0.06	1.01	0.312
H11b	Salesperson Activity → Dominance	-0.05	-0.07	-1.02	0.308
H13a-c	Pleasure → Approach Attitudes	0.81	0.91	13.72	0.000
H13e	Pleasure → Store Patronage Intentions	0.50	0.48	3.65	0.000
H14a-c	Dominance → Approach Attitudes	-0.13	-0.12	-2.19	0.029
H14e	Dominance → Store Patronage Intentions	0.09	0.08	1.24	0.215
Other Effects					
	Approach Attitudes → Store Patronage Intentions	0.26	0.22	1.76	0.078
	Salesperson Demeanor → Approach Attitudes	0.24	0.29	5.67	0.000
	Salesperson Demeanor → Store Patronage Intentions	0.21	0.22	5.46	0.000
	Salesperson Activity → Approach Attitudes	0.05	0.06	1.23	0.219

Salesperson Activity → Store Patronage Intentions	0.04	0.04	0.88	0.379
Pleasure → Store Image	0.73	0.67	12.13	0.000
Pleasure → Expected Service Quality	0.80	0.74	13.60	0.000
Pleasure → Attitude to the Salesperson	0.81	0.74	13.72	0.000
Dominance → Store Image	-0.11	-0.09	-2.18	0.029
Dominance → Expected Service Quality	-0.13	-0.10	-2.18	0.029
Dominance → Attitude to the Salesperson	-0.13	-0.10	-2.19	0.029
Salesperson Demeanor → Store Image	0.21	0.21	5.53	0.000
Salesperson Demeanor → Expected Service Quality	0.23	0.23	5.66	0.000
Salesperson Demeanor → Attitude to the Salesperson	0.24	0.24	5.67	0.000
Salesperson Activity → Store Image	0.05	0.05	1.23	0.219
Salesperson Activity → Expected Service Quality	0.05	0.05	1.23	0.219
Salesperson Activity → Attitude to the Salesperson	0.05	0.05	1.23	0.219

Note: N = 282, SMCs: Pleasure = .10, Dominance = .00, Approach = .74, Patronage .51, significant relationships are in bold-face.

Pilot Test Two Results

A second pilot test of experiment one is conducted because the manipulation check for store familiarity failed in the first pilot test. In a similar manner to the first pretest, subjects in the second pretest are recruited from undergraduate marketing classes in exchange for extra credit. The students are given a URL in order to access the instrument online. They could also recruit another subject in order to receive additional extra credit. After deleting incomplete responses and those in which the subject failed the demand check, 429 usable responses remain from an initial pool of 433 subjects. The majority of the subjects in this pilot test are male (53.8%). Due to the students recruiting additional subjects who are often older than traditional college age, the mean age in years of the subjects is 23.29. However, the modal age is 21 years. Roughly 10% of the sample is over 25 years of age. The majority of the subjects are Caucasian (86.2%). African-Americans account for 7.2% of the subjects. Each of the Native American, Asian, Hispanic, and

‘Other’ groups represent less than 5% of the sample. Finally, 47.3% of the subjects have some experience working in the retail industry.

As in the main data collection and first pilot test, the subjects answer the measures that are laid out in Table 5.1. The particular storefront and salesperson (if in the salesperson presence condition) that subjects see is randomized in order to mitigate any effect of a particular store or salesperson. As a check for the existence of an effect due to either the particular salesperson or storefront, each is entered into a separate MANOVA with the primary emotions, approach attitudes, and store patronage intentions as the dependent variables for experiment one and two. Using Wilks’ Lambda as the criterion, the salesperson did not have a significant omnibus effect ($F_{(30, 774)} = 1.04, p = ns$), but the storefront did have a significant omnibus effect ($F_{(20, 923)} = 3.05, p < .001$). Examination of the between-subjects effects for the storefront shows that the particular storefront has a significant effect on approach attitudes ($F_{(4, 424)} = 5.55, p < .001$), store patronage intentions ($F_{(4, 424)} = 7.91, p < .001$), and pleasure ($F_{(4, 424)} = 2.49, p < .05$), but does not have a significant effect on arousal or dominance. Therefore, dummy variables for the storefronts are created and used as covariates in this experiment.

Similar to the first pilot test, gender match and race match are investigated as possible covariates. So, the gender and race combinations of the retail salesperson model and the subject are used to form either a matched or unmatched designation for each pair. Each of the match variables is entered into a separate multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) with the primary emotions, approach attitudes, and store patronage intentions as the dependent variables. Using Wilks’ Lambda as the criterion, neither gender match ($F_{(5, 198)} = .583, p = ns$) nor race match ($F_{(5, 198)} = .549, p = ns$) have a significant omnibus effect. Therefore, gender match and race match are not issues in the data for this experiment.

Three factors are manipulated in experiment one: salesperson presence, store familiarity, and retail density. The first part of the model includes paths from these stimuli to the three primary emotional mediators (pleasure, arousal, and dominance). The second part of the model includes paths from these three variables to the dependent approach variables. In the conceptual model, the approach responses are divided into approach attitudes and one approach behavior: store patronage intentions. As in the first pilot test, the approach attitudes variables are combined into one overall construct, with the exception of attitude toward the store. Although attitude toward the store exhibits the same pattern of results as the other reflective indicators of approach attitude, it is dropped from the analyses in order to maintain acceptable discriminant validity. Store patronage intentions remains as a separate dependent variable because it is a behavioral intention rather than an attitude.

Several checks are performed prior to the main analysis. In order to determine whether the scenario manipulation for store familiarity is effective, the subjects answer an item on whether the store in the scenario is familiar to them. Fortunately, an ANOVA shows that this manipulation check passes ($F_{(1,427)} = 8.75, p < .01, M_{\text{familiar}} = 3.62, M_{\text{novel}} = 3.32$). Checks are also performed for the realism of the scenario and photograph, as well as how common the scene in the photograph is to the subjects. One sample t-tests are used to compare the means of these responses to the midpoint of the scale. The results show that the subjects find the photograph to be realistic ($t = 18.36, p < .001, M = 3.86/5.00$), the scenario to be realistic ($t = 22.46, p < .001, M = 3.72/5.00$), and the scene to be common ($t = 17.44, p < .001, M = 3.72/5.00$).

Next, a confirmatory factor analysis using LISREL 8.51 is conducted in order to test the measurement model to ensure that individual items load on their intended factors. Three of the arousal items are dropped because their loadings and contribution to reliability are lower than the

other items. The path diagram is shown in Figure 6.3. Each of the items loads significantly on the intended construct ($t \geq 16.27$). This analysis shows acceptable levels of fit for the hypothesized eight-factor model ($\chi^2(145) = 341.49$ $p < .01$), the RMSEA is .06, the NNFI is 0.94, the CFI is 0.96, and the standardized RMR is .04.

Figure 6.3
Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Pilot Test Two

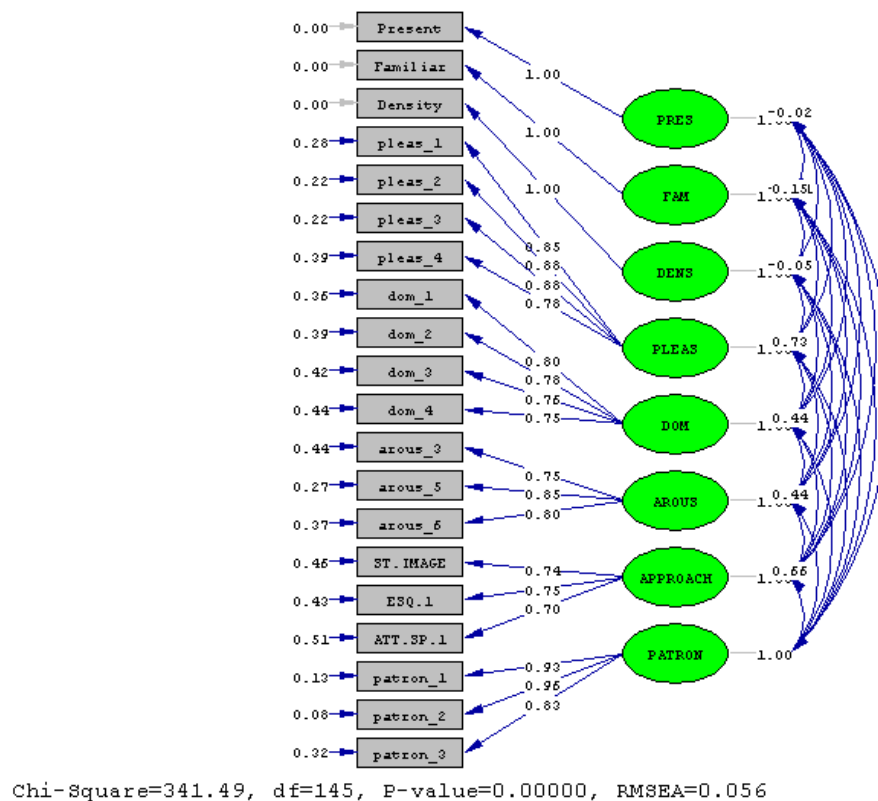


Table 6.11 displays the means, standard deviations, inter-construct correlations, alpha reliabilities, and the square roots of the average variance extracted for pilot test two. Construct reliability is evaluated using Cronbach's alpha (along the diagonals of Table 6.11). All of the multi-item measures exhibit acceptable levels of reliability. The minimum coefficient alpha is .76. Fornell and Larcker's (1981) test demonstrates discriminant validity as shown by the square roots of the average variance explained on the diagonals of Table 6.11.

Table 6.11 Pilot Test Two
Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, Inter-Correlations, and Square-roots of the Average Variance Extracted

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8					
1. Present	0.48	0.50													
2. Familiar	0.50	0.50	0.02												
3. Density	0.52	0.50	0.07	-0.01											
4. Pleasure	3.44	0.87	-0.07	0.06	-0.07	(.91/.85)									
5. Dominance	3.18	0.79	0.02	0.05	0.03	0.45	**	(.86/.77)							
6. Arousal	3.06	0.86	-0.08	*	0.07	-0.06	0.53	**	0.51	**	(.84/.80)				
7. Approach Attitudes	3.57	0.70	-0.16	**	-0.01	-0.15	**	0.63	**	0.40	**	(.76/.73)			
8. Patronage Intentions	3.54	1.12	-0.02		**	-0.05	0.69	**	0.39	**	0.40	**	0.58	**	(.93/.91)

Note. $N = 429$ for all correlations.

() = Diagonal entries are coefficient alpha reliability estimates and the square roots of the average variance extracted.

* = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$, one-tailed.

MANCOVA is used to test the first half of the conceptual model. Controlling for retail experience, age, gender, and dummy variables for the particular storefront, this test examines the effects of salesperson presence, store familiarity, and retail density on the three primary emotions. The omnibus effects are examined first, using Wilks' Lambda as the criterion and only one covariate, store four is significant ($F_{(3,411)} = 3.650, p < .05$). Unfortunately, none of the other covariates, factors, or interactions have significant omnibus effects. For illustrative purposes, the omnibus tests for salesperson presence ($F_{(3,411)} = 1.80, p = .146$), store familiarity ($F_{(3,411)} = .889, p = .447$), and retail density ($F_{(3,411)} = 30.48, p = .214$) are not significant. Therefore, the between-subjects effects cannot be interpreted and the data in the second pilot test do not support any of Hypotheses 1-6.

The second half of the conceptual model from the three primary emotions, pleasure, arousal, and dominance, to the dependent variables is tested using two multiple regression equations. In each regression equation, retail experience, age, gender, and dummy variables for the particular storefront serve as covariates. The independent variables are centered prior to analysis and a quadratic term is created in order to test for the hypothesized curvilinear effect of arousal on the two dependent variables, approach attitudes and store patronage intentions. In each of the regression models, the covariates are entered, followed by the three primary emotions and a quadratic term for arousal. Please see Tables 6.12 and 6.13 for the results. For approach attitudes, the overall model is significant ($F_{(11,416)} = 30.48, p < .001$) and explains 44.6% of the variance. None of the covariates are significant, with the exception of store four ($B = .247, p < .01$). There is a significant effect for pleasure ($B = .417, p < .001$) and dominance ($B = .087, p < .001$) on approach attitudes, but the quadratic term for arousal does not reach significance. Therefore, H7a-c and H9a-c, but not H8a-c, are supported by this data. For store patronage

intentions, the overall model is significant ($F_{(11,416)} = 40.63, p < .001$) and explains 51.8% of the variance. Of the covariates, only store one ($B = -.209, p < .05$) and store four ($B = .366, p < .01$) are significant. Of the independent variables, pleasure ($B = .826, p < .001$) and dominance ($B = .145, p < .05$) significantly predict store patronage intentions, while arousal does not have a significant effect. Thus, H7e and H9e receive support, but H8e does not.

Table 6.12 Pilot Two Experiment One Multiple Regression Results

Dependent Variable: Approach Attitudes				
Variables	Unstandardized B	Standardized Beta	t	p
Retail Experience	0.049	0.035	0.918	0.359
Age	-0.005	-0.050	-1.358	0.175
Gender	0.066	0.048	1.252	0.211
Store 1	0.143	0.080	1.768	0.078
Store 2	0.019	0.012	0.253	0.801
Store 3	-0.008	-0.004	-0.096	0.923
Store 4	0.247	0.141	3.093	0.002
Pleasure	0.416	0.518	11.494	0.000
Dominance	0.087	0.099	2.227	0.026
Arousal	0.074	0.092	1.924	0.055
Arousal Squared	0.020	0.032	0.843	0.399

Note: N = 429, R-squared = .446, significant values are in bold-faced.

Table 6.13 Pilot Two Experiment One Multiple Regression Results

Dependent Variable: Store Patronage Intentions				
Variables	Unstandardized B	Standardized Beta	t	p
Retail Experience	0.020	0.009	0.256	0.798
Age	0.006	0.038	1.098	0.273
Gender	0.077	0.034	0.972	0.332
Store 1	-0.290	-0.100	-2.377	0.018
Store 2	0.149	0.055	1.293	0.197
Store 3	0.049	0.017	0.403	0.687
Store 4	0.366	0.130	3.057	0.002
Pleasure	0.826	0.639	15.200	0.000
Dominance	0.145	0.102	2.453	0.015
Arousal	-0.022	-0.017	-0.381	0.703
Arousal Squared	-0.050	-0.050	-1.429	0.154

Note: N = 429, R-squared = .518, significant values are in bold-faced.

Finally, the entire conceptual model is tested simultaneously using a structural equation model on LISREL 8.51. This analysis accounts for measurement error and neatly summarizes the findings. The structural error terms in the PSI matrix are allowed to correlate between the three emotions (pleasure, arousal, and dominance) as they are likely related in ways that are not completely explained by this model. Also, the indicators in the λ -y matrix with the highest loading on the appropriate construct are fixed to one. Like the previous analyses, a beta path is estimated between approach attitudes and store patronage intentions. Overall, the model shows an acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2 (154) = 372.85, p < .01$), the RMSEA is .06, the NNFI is 0.94, the CFI is 0.95, and the standardized RMR is .05.

The structural results of the analysis are shown in Table 6.14. None of the manipulations for salesperson presence, store familiarity, or retail density have a significant effect on any of the three primary emotions, leading H1-H3 to be not supported. Pleasure has a significant positive relationship with approach attitudes (H7a-c) and store patronage intentions (H7e), giving support to these hypotheses. Arousal does not have a significant effect on approach attitudes (H8a-c) or store patronage intentions (H8e). Thus, H8a-c and H8e are not supported. Dominance does have a positive significant effect on approach attitudes (H9a-c), but not on store patronage intentions (H9e). Thus, H9a-c is supported, but H9e is not.

A number of significant effects exist in the model other than those that are specifically hypothesized. A positive relationship between approach attitudes and store patronage intentions is significant, as is consistent with Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action. The effects of the two factors and three primary emotions on the individual constructs that are indicators of approach attitudes are given to illustrate that the same pattern of results holds for

the higher-order construct and its indicators. Both pleasure and dominance have a significant effect on store image, expected service quality, and attitude to the salesperson.

Table 6.14 Structural Results for Pilot Test Two

Hypothesized Effects		Unstd. Coeff.	Std. Coeff.	t	p
H1a	Salesperson Presence → Pleasure	-0.07	-0.08	-1.55	0.121
H1b	Salesperson Presence → Arousal	-0.08	-0.09	-1.80	0.072
H1c	Salesperson Presence → Dominance	0.01	0.01	0.23	0.818
H2a	Store Familiarity → Pleasure	0.07	0.07	1.49	0.136
H2b	Store Familiarity → Arousal	0.06	0.07	1.27	0.204
H2c	Store Familiarity → Dominance	0.04	0.05	1.05	0.294
H3a	Retail Density → Pleasure	-0.06	-0.07	-1.42	0.156
H3b	Retail Density → Arousal	-0.06	-0.07	-1.28	0.201
H3c	Retail Density → Dominance	0.02	0.03	0.51	0.610
H7a-c	Pleasure → Approach Attitudes	0.56	0.65	9.79	0.000
H7e	Pleasure → Store Patronage Intentions	0.58	0.54	7.44	0.000
H8a-c	Arousal → Approach Attitudes	0.05	0.06	0.85	0.395
H8e	Arousal → Store Patronage Intentions	-0.06	-0.05	-0.93	0.352
H9a-c	Dominance → Approach Attitudes	0.10	0.13	2.07	0.038
H9e	Dominance → Store Patronage Intentions	0.12	0.08	1.60	0.110
Other Effects					
	Approach Attitudes → Store Patronage Intentions	0.30	0.24	3.26	0.001
	Salesperson Presence → Approach Attitudes	-0.04	-0.05	-1.41	0.159
	Salesperson Presence → Store Patronage Intentions	-0.05	-0.05	-1.31	0.190
	Store Familiarity → Approach Attitudes	0.04	0.06	1.56	0.119
	Store Familiarity → Store Patronage Intentions	0.05	0.06	1.51	0.131
	Retail Density → Approach Attitudes	-0.04	-0.05	-1.22	0.222
	Retail Density → Store Patronage Intentions	-0.04	-0.04	-1.18	0.238

Pleasure → Store Image	0.54	0.47	9.59	0.000
Pleasure → Expected Service Quality	0.56	0.49	9.79	0.000
Pleasure → Attitude to the Salesperson	0.52	0.46	9.42	0.000
Arousal → Store Image	0.05	0.04	0.85	0.395
Arousal → Expected Service Quality	0.05	0.04	0.85	0.395
Arousal → Attitude to the Salesperson	0.05	0.04	0.85	0.395
Dominance → Store Image	0.12	0.09	2.07	0.038
Dominance → Expected Service Quality	0.12	0.10	2.07	0.038
Dominance → Attitude to the Salesperson	0.11	0.09	2.07	0.038
Salesperson Presence → Store Image	-0.04	-0.04	-1.41	0.159
Salesperson Presence → Expected Service Quality	-0.04	-0.04	-1.41	0.159
Salesperson Presence → Attitude to the Salesperson	-0.04	-0.04	-1.41	0.159
Store Familiarity → Store Image	0.04	0.04	1.56	0.119
Store Familiarity → Expected Service Quality	0.04	0.04	1.56	0.119
Store Familiarity → Attitude to the Salesperson	0.04	0.04	1.56	0.119
Retail Density → Store Image	-0.03	-0.03	-1.22	0.222
Retail Density → Expected Service Quality	-0.04	-0.04	-1.22	0.222
Retail Density → Attitude to the Salesperson	-0.03	-0.03	-1.22	0.222

Note: N = 429, SMCs: Pleasure = .02, Dominance = .00, Arousal = .02, Approach = .58, Patronage .56, significant relationships are in bold-faced.

The purpose of conducting a second pilot test is to make sure that the store familiarity scenario manipulation is functioning. While very few of the hypotheses are significant in this dataset, the main purpose is achieved because the manipulation check for store familiarity shows that the subjects who are told that they are familiar with the store in the photograph rated the store as significantly more familiar than those who are told that they have never been to the store in the picture before. Therefore, this pilot study is considered a success and the main data collection proceeds.

Main Test Results

To collect additional data for the main test, subjects were recruited by using an online survey panel, Opinionology (formerly Western Wats). The experimental instrument is still hosted on Qualtrics, but Opinionology sends the URL to their panel members. Those who participate are given an incentive through Opinionology's points rewards system.

After deleting incomplete responses and those in which the subject failed the demand check, 811 usable responses remained from an initial pool of 820 subjects. Of these, 564 subjects participated in experiment one and 265 subjects participated in experiment two. The instrument for experiment one in pilot test two is identical to the instrument used for experiment one in the panel dataset. Likewise, the instrument for experiment two in pilot test one and the instrument for experiment two in the panel dataset are identical. The only real difference in the pilot test datasets and the panel dataset is that the mean age is higher for the panel data, which is due to the pilot data being collected through undergraduates. Therefore, age is included as a covariate and the datasets are combined for the main analysis.

Using the combined datasets from the pilot tests and the Opinionology panel, experiment one has a total of 975 subjects and experiment two has a total of 547 subjects. In both experiments, close to half of the subjects are female (experiment 1: 48.4%; experiment 2: 56.7%). The mean age in years of the subjects is 35.95 and 34.23 for experiment one and two respectively. In experiment one, the modal age is 21 years of age and the median is 26 years of age. The modal age for experiment two is 20 years of age and the median is 25 years of age. In both experiments, roughly 50% of the sample is over 25 years of age. The majority of the subjects are Caucasian (experiment 1: 75.4%; experiment 2: 74.2%). African-Americans account for 11.4% and 14.1% of the subjects in experiment one and two respectively. Each of the Native

American, Asian, Hispanic, and ‘Other’ groups represent less than 6% of the sample each in either experiment. Finally, 47.4% and 50.5% of the subjects in experiments one and two have some experience working in the retail industry.

The subjects answered the measures that are given in Table 5.1. The particular storefront and salesperson (if in the salesperson presence condition) that subjects saw was randomized in order to mitigate any effect of a particular store or salesperson. As a check for the existence of an effect due to either the particular salesperson or storefront, each is entered into a separate MANOVA with the primary emotions, approach attitudes, and store patronage intentions as the dependent variables for experiments one and two. For experiment one, using Wilks’ Lambda as the criterion, the salesperson did not have a significant omnibus effect ($F_{(35, 4053)} = 1.10, p = ns$), but the storefront did have a significant omnibus effect ($F_{(20, 3025)} = 5.36, p < .001$). Examination of the between-subjects effects for the storefront shows that the particular storefront has a significant effect on pleasure ($F_{(4, 970)} = 7.22, p < .001$), approach attitudes ($F_{(4, 970)} = 14.59, p < .001$), and store patronage intentions ($F_{(4, 970)} = 6.96, p < .001$), but does not have a significant effect on arousal or dominance. Similarly, for experiment two, using Wilks’ Lambda as the criterion, the salesperson did not have a significant omnibus effect ($F_{(24, 1875)} = 0.79, p = ns$), but the storefront did have a significant omnibus effect ($F_{(16, 1647)} = 2.38, p < .01$). Examination of the between-subjects effects for the storefront shows that the particular storefront has a significant effect on approach attitudes ($F_{(4, 542)} = 3.05, p < .05$), and store patronage intentions ($F_{(4, 542)} = 2.48, p < .05$), but does not have a significant effect on pleasure, arousal, or dominance. Therefore, dummy variables for the storefronts are created and used as covariates in both experiment one and two.

Similar to the two pilot tests, gender match and race match are investigated as possible covariates. The gender and race combinations of the retail salesperson model and the subject are used to form either a matched or unmatched designation for each pair and entered into a separate MANOVA with the primary emotions, approach attitudes, and store patronage intentions as the dependent variables. For experiment one, using Wilks' Lambda as the criterion, neither gender match ($F_{(10, 1936)} = 1.55, p = ns$) nor race match ($F_{(5, 472)} = .896, p = ns$) has a significant omnibus effect. For experiment two, using Wilks' Lambda as the criterion, neither gender match ($F_{(8, 1082)} = .447, p = ns$) nor race match ($F_{(4, 259)} = .684, p = ns$) has a significant omnibus effect. Therefore, gender match and race match are not issues in this dataset for experiment one or experiment two.

Experiment One

Three factors are manipulated in experiment one: salesperson presence, store familiarity, and retail density. The first part of the model includes paths from these stimuli to the three primary emotional mediators (pleasure, arousal, and dominance). The second part of the model includes paths from these three variables to the dependent approach variables. As in the pilot tests, the approach attitude variables are combined into one overall construct, with the exception of attitude toward the store. Although attitude toward the store exhibits the same pattern of results as the other reflective indicators of approach attitude, it is dropped from the analyses in order to maintain acceptable discriminant validity. Store patronage intentions remains as a separate dependent variable because it is a behavioral intention rather than an attitude.

Several checks of the data are performed prior to testing the hypotheses. In order to determine whether the scenario manipulation for store familiarity is effective, the subjects answer an item on whether the store in the scenario is familiar to them. Fortunately, an ANOVA

shows that this manipulation check passes ($F_{(1,973)} = 52.97, p < .001, M_{\text{familiar}} = 3.60, M_{\text{novel}} = 3.13$). Checks are also performed for the realism of the scenario and photograph, as well as how common the scene in the photograph is to the subjects. One sample t-tests are used to compare the means of these responses to the midpoint of the scale. The results show that the subjects find the photograph to be realistic ($t = 35.82, p < .001, 3.89/5.00$), the scenario to be realistic ($t = 31.23, p < .001, M = 3.78$), and the scene to be common ($t = 22.43, p < .001, M = 3.63/5.00$).

Next, a confirmatory factor analysis using LISREL 8.51 is conducted in order to test the measurement model to ensure that individual items load on their intended factors. Three of the arousal items are dropped because their loadings and contribution to reliability are lower than the other items. The path diagram is shown in Figure 6.4. Each of the items loads significantly on the intended construct ($t \geq 23.39$). This analysis shows acceptable levels of fit for the hypothesized eight-factor model ($\chi^2 (145) = 608.51, p < .01$), the RMSEA is .06, the NNFI is 0.95, the CFI is 0.96, and the standardized RMR is .04.

Figure 6.4
Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Experiment One

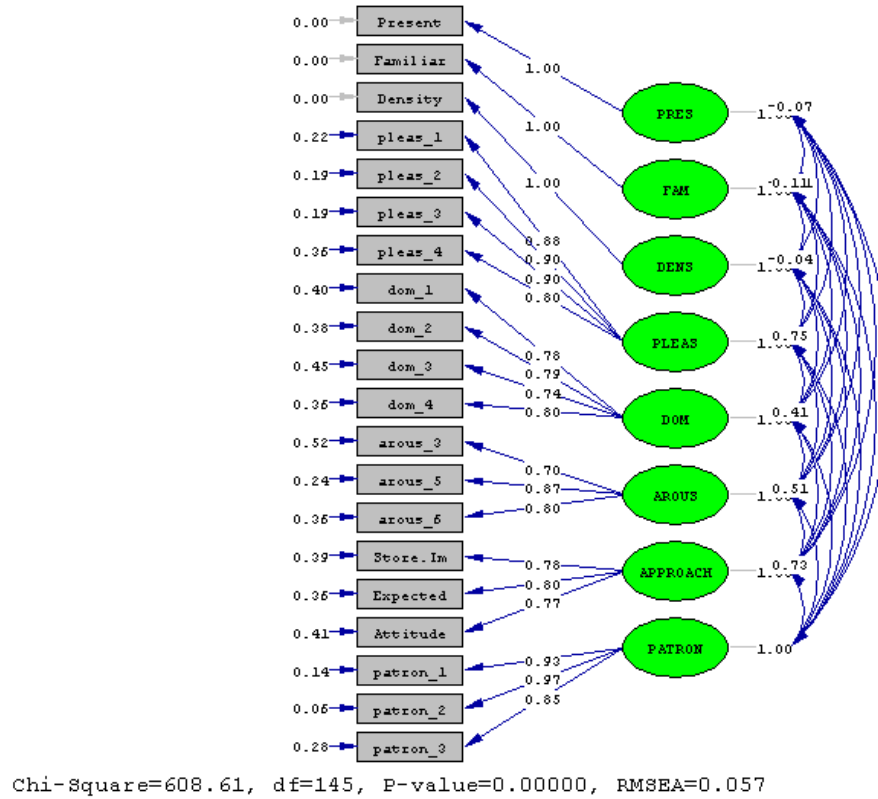


Table 6.15 displays the means, standard deviations, inter-construct correlations, alpha reliabilities, and the square roots of the average variance extracted for experiment one. Construct reliability is evaluated using Cronbach's alpha (along the diagonals of Table 6.15). All of the multi-item measures exhibit acceptable levels of reliability. The minimum coefficient alpha is .83. Discriminant validity in this data is also acceptable, as evidenced by the square roots of the average variance extracted along the diagonals of Table 6.15 (Fornell and Larcker 1981).

Table 6.15 Experiment One Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, Inter-Correlations, and Square-roots of the Average Variance Extracted

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8							
1. Present	0.49	0.50															
2. Familiar	0.50	0.50	0.00														
3. Density	0.50	0.50	0.06	*	-0.01												
4. Pleasure	3.49	0.88	-0.11	**	0.06	-0.05	*	(.93/.87)									
5. Dominance	3.17	0.78	-0.04		0.06	*	-0.02	0.43	**	(.86/.78)							
6. Arousal	3.10	0.83	-0.08	**	0.05		-0.05	0.57	**	0.48	(.83/.79)						
7. Approach Attitudes	3.66	0.73	-0.11	**	0.05	*	-0.11	**	0.71	**	0.38	**	0.45	(.80/.82)			
8. Patronage Intentions	3.62	1.13	-0.07	*	0.10	**	-0.05		0.72	**	0.37	**	0.46	**	0.67	**	(.93/.92)

Note. $N = 975$ for all correlations.

() = Diagonal entries are coefficient alpha reliability estimates and the square roots of the average variance extracted.

* = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$, one-tailed.

As previously mentioned, multiple methods are used to examine the hypotheses. MANCOVA is used to test the first half of the conceptual model. Controlling for retail experience, age, gender, and dummy variables for the particular storefront, this test examines the effects of salesperson presence, store familiarity, retail density on the three primary emotions. The omnibus effects are examined, using Wilks' Lambda as the criterion. Two covariates, store one ($F_{(3, 954)} = 6.88, p < .001$) and store four ($F_{(3, 954)} = 7.30, p < .001$), and the manipulation for salesperson presence ($F_{(3, 954)} = 3.88, p < .05$) have significant omnibus effects. Store familiarity, retail density, and the all of interactions do not have significant omnibus effects, making the between-subjects effects for those variables uninterpretable and providing no support for H2, H3, H4, H5, or H6.

Examination of the between-subjects effects for the covariates shows that store one has a significant effect on pleasure ($F_{(1, 956)} = 10.95, p < .01$), and store four has a significant effect on pleasure ($F_{(1, 956)} = 9.19, p < .001$). Salesperson presence has significant direct effects on pleasure ($F_{(1, 956)} = 10.81, p < .01, M_{\text{present}} = 3.39, M_{\text{absent}} = 3.58$) and arousal ($F_{(1, 956)} = 5.55, p < .05, M_{\text{present}} = 3.03, M_{\text{absent}} = 3.16$), but not for dominance. However, these effects are in the opposite direction from the hypotheses that are grounded in approach-avoidance theory. So, Hypotheses H1a-c are not supported. Please see Table 6.16 for the between subjects results.

Table 6.16 Main Test Experiment One Multivariate Analysis of Covariance Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Intercept	Pleasure	1	1050.192	1393.872	0.000
Intercept	Arousal	1	917.032	1347.450	0.000
Intercept	Dominance	1	978.717	1609.314	0.000
Retail Experience	Pleasure	1	0.608	0.807	0.369
Retail Experience	Arousal	1	3.689	5.420	0.020
Retail Experience	Dominance	1	0.759	1.248	0.264

Age	Pleasure	1	0.347	0.461	0.497
Age	Arousal	1	0.802	1.178	0.278
Age	Dominance	1	1.389	2.285	0.131
Gender	Pleasure	1	2.305	3.059	0.081
Gender	Arousal	1	0.950	1.396	0.238
Gender	Dominance	1	0.267	0.439	0.508
Store 1	Pleasure	1	8.257	10.959	0.001
Store 1	Arousal	1	0.214	0.314	0.575
Store 1	Dominance	1	0.038	0.062	0.803
Store 2	Pleasure	1	0.182	0.241	0.623
Store 2	Arousal	1	0.882	1.296	0.255
Store 2	Dominance	1	0.206	0.339	0.560
Store 3	Pleasure	1	0.046	0.061	0.806
Store 3	Arousal	1	1.292	1.899	0.169
Store 3	Dominance	1	0.701	1.153	0.283
Store 4	Pleasure	1	6.923	9.189	0.003
Store 4	Arousal	1	0.642	0.943	0.332
Store 4	Dominance	1	1.554	2.556	0.110
Salesperson Presence	Pleasure	1	8.148	10.815	0.001
Salesperson Presence	Arousal	1	3.776	5.549	0.019
Salesperson Presence	Dominance	1	0.580	0.954	0.329
Store Familiarity	Pleasure	1	2.246	2.982	0.085
Store Familiarity	Arousal	1	2.197	3.229	0.073
Store Familiarity	Dominance	1	1.626	2.674	0.102
Retail Density	Pleasure	1	1.605	2.130	0.145
Retail Density	Arousal	1	1.407	2.067	0.151
Retail Density	Dominance	1	0.182	0.299	0.585
Salesperson Presence X Store Familiarity	Pleasure	1	0.005	0.006	0.937
Salesperson Presence X Store Familiarity	Arousal	1	0.379	0.557	0.455
Salesperson Presence X Store Familiarity	Dominance	1	0.001	0.002	0.966
Salesperson Presence X Retail Density	Pleasure	1	0.606	0.805	0.370
Salesperson Presence X Retail Density	Arousal	1	1.600	2.351	0.126
Salesperson Presence X Retail Density	Dominance	1	0.088	0.144	0.705
Store Familiarity X Retail Density	Pleasure	1	0.135	0.180	0.672
Store Familiarity X Retail Density	Arousal	1	0.055	0.080	0.777
Store Familiarity X Retail Density	Dominance	1	0.120	0.197	0.657
Three-way interaction	Pleasure	1	0.099	0.132	0.716
Three-way interaction	Arousal	1	0.361	0.531	0.467
Three-way interaction	Dominance	1	0.017	0.028	0.868

Error	Pleasure	956	0.753		
Error	Arousal	956	0.681		
Error	Dominance	956	0.608		
Total	Pleasure	971			
Total	Arousal	971			
Total	Dominance	971			

Note: Significant values are in bold-faced.

The second half of the conceptual model from the three primary emotions, pleasure, arousal, and dominance, to the dependent variables is tested using two multiple regression equations. In each regression equation, retail experience, age, gender, and dummy variables for the particular storefront serve as covariates. The independent variables are centered prior to analysis and a quadratic term is created in order to test for the hypothesized curvilinear effect of arousal on the two dependent variables, approach attitudes and store patronage intentions. In each of the regression models, the covariates are entered, followed by the three primary emotions and a quadratic term for arousal. Please see Tables 6.17 and 6.18 for the results. For approach attitudes, the overall model is significant ($F_{(11,959)} = 99.97, p < .001$) and explains 53.4% of the variance. None of the covariates are significant, with the exception of store one ($B = .173, p < .001$) and store four ($B = .231, p < .001$). There is a significant effect for pleasure ($B = .526, p < .001$) and dominance ($B = .069, p < .01$) on approach attitudes, but the quadratic term for arousal does not reach significance. Thus, the data support H7a-c and H9a-c, but provide no support for H8a-c. For store patronage intentions, the overall model is significant ($F_{(11,959)} = 103.37, p < .001$) and explains 54.2% of the variance. Of the covariates, age ($B = .003, p < .05$) and store four ($B = .258, p < .01$) are significant. Of the independent variables, pleasure ($B = .526, p < .01$), dominance ($B = .069, p < .01$), and the quadratic term for arousal ($B = -.078, p < .01$) significantly predict store patronage intentions, in support of H7e, H8e, and H9e.

Table 6.17 Main Test Experiment One Multiple Regression Results

Dependent Variable: Approach Attitudes				
Variables	Unstandardized B	Standardized Beta	t	p
Retail Experience	-0.020	-0.014	-0.610	0.542
Age	0.002	0.054	2.451	0.014
Gender	0.039	0.027	1.195	0.232
Store 1	0.173	0.093	3.342	0.001
Store 2	0.055	0.030	1.072	0.284
Store 3	0.077	0.042	1.514	0.130
Store 4	0.231	0.130	4.615	0.000
Pleasure	0.526	0.634	22.633	0.000
Dominance	0.069	0.073	2.798	0.005
Arousal	0.049	0.055	1.929	0.054
Arousal Squared	-0.009	-0.013	-0.597	0.550

Note: N = 975, R-squared = .534, significant values are in bold-faced.

Table 6.18 Main Test Experiment One Multiple Regression Results

Dependent Variable: Store Patronage Intentions				
Variables	Unstandardized B	Standardized Beta	t	p
Retail Experience	-0.048	-0.021	-0.951	0.342
Age	0.003	0.047	2.143	0.032
Gender	-0.009	-0.004	-0.186	0.853
Store 1	-0.097	-0.033	-1.219	0.223
Store 2	0.081	0.028	1.038	0.299
Store 3	0.050	0.018	0.647	0.518
Store 4	0.258	0.094	3.382	0.001
Pleasure	0.850	0.665	23.979	0.000
Dominance	0.085	0.059	2.277	0.023
Arousal	0.061	0.045	1.568	0.117
Arousal Squared	-0.078	-0.077	-3.437	0.001

Note: N = 975, R-squared = .542, significant values are in bold-faced.

Finally, the entire conceptual model is tested simultaneously using a structural equation model on LISREL 8.51. This analysis accounts for measurement error and neatly summarizes the findings. The structural error terms in the PSI matrix are allowed to correlate between the three emotions (pleasure, arousal, and dominance) as they are likely related in ways that are not completely explained by this model. Also, the indicators in the λ -y matrix with the highest loading on the appropriate construct are fixed to one. In addition, a beta path is estimated between approach attitudes and store patronage intentions. This relationship between attitudes and behavioral intentions is consistent with Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action. Overall, the model shows an acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2(154) = 625.51, p < .01$), the RMSEA is .06, the NNFI is 0.95, the CFI is 0.96, and the standardized RMR is .04.

The structural results of the analysis are shown in Table 6.19. Salesperson presence has a significant negative effect on pleasure (H1a) and arousal (H1b), but does not have a significant effect on dominance (H1c). Because the direction of the results is contrary to approach-avoidance theory and the corresponding hypotheses, H1a-c is not supported. Store familiarity has a significant positive effect on pleasure (H2a), but not arousal and dominance (H2b-c). Therefore, this model supports H2a, but does not support H2b or H2c. Retail density does not have a significant effect on pleasure (H3a), arousal (H3b), or dominance (H3c). Thus, H3a-c are not supported. Pleasure has a significant positive relationship with approach attitudes (H7a-c) and store patronage intentions (H7e), giving support to these hypotheses. The effects of arousal on approach attitudes (H8a-c) and store patronage intentions (H8e) are not significant. Dominance has a significant positive effect on approach attitudes (H9a-c), but not store patronage intentions (H9e). Thus, H9a-c are supported, but H9e is not supported.

Several significant effects exist in the model other than those that are specifically hypothesized. A positive relationship between approach attitudes and store patronage intentions is significant. In addition, salesperson presence has significant negative indirect effects on approach intentions and store patronage intentions. Similarly, store familiarity has significant positive indirect effects on approach attitudes and store patronage intentions. Finally, the effects of the three factors and three primary emotions on the individual constructs that are indicators of approach attitudes are given to illustrate that the same pattern of results holds for the higher-order construct and its indicators.

Table 6.19 Structural Results for Main Test Experiment One

Hypothesized Effects		Unstd. Coeff.	Std. Coeff.	t	p
H1a	Salesperson Presence → Pleasure	-0.10	-0.11	-3.42	0.001
H1b	Salesperson Presence → Arousal	-0.08	-0.10	-2.77	0.006
H1c	Salesperson Presence → Dominance	-0.03	-0.04	-1.25	0.211
H2a	Store Familiarity → Pleasure	0.06	0.07	2.18	0.029
H2b	Store Familiarity → Arousal	0.05	0.06	1.60	0.110
H2c	Store Familiarity → Dominance	0.05	0.06	1.79	0.073
H3a	Retail Density → Pleasure	-0.05	-0.06	-1.71	0.087
H3b	Retail Density → Arousal	-0.04	-0.05	-1.40	0.162
H3c	Retail Density → Dominance	-0.01	-0.01	-0.39	0.697
H7a-c	Pleasure → Approach Attitudes	0.68	0.76	18.35	0.000
H7e	Pleasure → Store Patronage Intentions	0.49	0.46	8.82	0.000
H8a-c	Arousal → Approach Attitudes	0.07	0.02	0.51	0.610
H8e	Arousal → Store Patronage Intentions	0.02	0.03	0.70	0.484
H9a-c	Dominance → Approach Attitudes	0.07	0.07	2.02	0.043
H9e	Dominance → Store Patronage Intentions	0.03	0.02	0.71	0.478
Other Effects					
	Approach Attitudes → Store Patronage Intentions	0.40	0.33	6.54	0.000

Salesperson Presence → Approach Attitudes	-0.07	-0.07	-3.38	0.001
Salesperson Presence → Store Patronage Intentions	-0.08	-0.08	-3.41	0.001
Store Familiarity → Approach Attitudes	0.05	0.05	2.25	0.024
Store Familiarity → Store Patronage Intentions	0.05	0.05	2.24	0.025
Retail Density → Approach Attitudes	-0.03	-0.04	-1.68	0.093
Retail Density → Store Patronage Intentions	-0.04	-0.04	-1.70	0.089
Pleasure → Store Image	0.66	0.66	18.04	0.000
Pleasure → Expected Service Quality	0.68	0.68	18.35	0.000
Pleasure → Attitude to the Salesperson	0.65	0.65	17.79	0.000
Arousal → Store Image	0.02	0.02	0.51	0.610
Arousal → Expected Service Quality	0.02	0.02	0.51	0.610
Arousal → Attitude to the Salesperson	0.02	0.02	0.51	0.610
Dominance → Store Image	0.07	0.07	2.02	0.043
Dominance → Expected Service Quality	0.07	0.07	2.02	0.043
Dominance → Attitude to the Salesperson	0.07	0.07	2.02	0.043
Salesperson Presence → Store Image	-0.07	-0.07	-3.38	0.001
Salesperson Presence → Expected Service Quality	-0.07	-0.07	-3.38	0.001
Salesperson Presence → Attitude to the Salesperson	-0.07	-0.07	-3.37	0.001
Store Familiarity → Store Image	0.05	0.05	2.25	0.024
Store Familiarity → Expected Service Quality	0.05	0.05	2.25	0.024
Store Familiarity → Attitude to the Salesperson	0.05	0.05	2.25	0.024
Retail Density → Store Image	-0.03	-0.03	-1.68	0.093
Retail Density → Expected Service Quality	-0.04	-0.04	-1.68	0.093
Retail Density → Attitude to the Salesperson	-0.03	-0.03	-1.68	0.093

Note: N = 975, SMCs: Pleasure = .02, Dominance = .01, Arousal = .02, Approach = .66, Patronage .61, significant relationships are in bold-faced.

Experiment Two

Two factors are manipulated in experiment two: salesperson demeanor and the level of salesperson activity. The first part of the model includes paths from these stimuli to two of the primary emotional mediators (pleasure and dominance). The second part of the model includes paths from these two variables to the dependent approach variables. Like the previous analyses, approach attitudes variables are combined into one overall construct, with the exception of attitude toward the store. Although attitude toward the store exhibits the same pattern of results as the other reflective indicators of approach attitude, it is dropped from the analyses in order to maintain acceptable discriminant validity. Store patronage intentions remains as a separate dependent variable because it is a behavioral intention rather than an attitude.

In order to determine whether the photographic manipulation for salesperson demeanor (smiling versus not smiling) is effective, the subjects rated several items on their perceptions of the particular salesperson that they saw in their randomly assigned stimulus (see Table 5.1). An ANOVA shows that this manipulation check is successful ($F_{(1,545)} = 217.42, p < .001, M_{\text{smiling}} = 4.17, M_{\text{not smiling}} = 2.95$).

Checks are also performed for the realism of the scenario and photograph, as well as how common the scene in the photograph is to the subjects. One sample t-tests are used to compare the means of these responses to the midpoint of the scale. The results show that the subjects find the photograph to be realistic ($t = 29.90, p < .001, M = 3.98/5.00$), the scenario to be realistic ($t = 30.32, p < .001, M = 3.95$), and the scene to be common ($t = 17.21, p < .001, M = 3.68$).

Next, a confirmatory factor analysis using LISREL 8.51 is conducted in order to test the measurement model to ensure that individual items load on their intended factors. Three of the arousal items are dropped because their loadings and contribution to reliability are lower than the

other items. The path diagram is shown in Figure 6.5. Each of the items loads significantly on the intended construct ($t \geq 15.58$). This analysis yields acceptable levels of overall fit for the hypothesized six-factor model ($\chi^2(91) = 288.52, p < .01$), the RMSEA is .06, the NNFI is 0.95, the CFI is 0.96, and the standardized RMR is .04.

Figure 6.5
Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Experiment Two

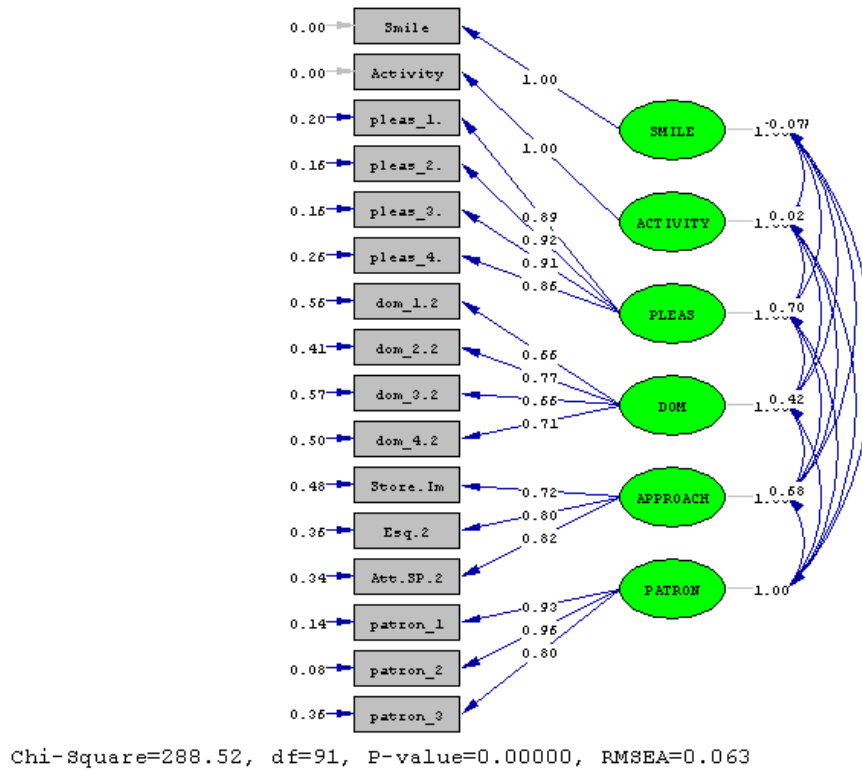


Table 6.20 displays the means, standard deviations, inter-construct correlations, alpha reliabilities, and the square roots of the average variance extracted for experiment one. Construct reliability is evaluated using Cronbach's alpha (along the diagonals of Table 6.20). All of the multi-item measures exhibit acceptable levels of reliability. The minimum coefficient alpha is .77. Discriminant validity is demonstrated by square roots of the average variance extracted that are shown along the diagonals of Table 6.20 (Fornell and Larcker 1981).

Table 6.20 Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, Inter-Correlations, and Square-roots of the Average Variance Extracted

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Smile	0.48	0.50						
2. Activity	0.49	0.50	-0.09 *					
3. Pleasure	3.50	0.93	0.20 **	0.04	(.94/.90)			
4. Dominance	3.16	0.72	0.01	0.01	0.45 **	(.79/.70)		
5. Approach Attitudes	3.76	0.76	0.20 **	0.04	0.74 **	0.31 **	(.77/.78)	
6. Patronage Intentions	3.61	1.16	0.07	0.02	0.67 **	0.36 **	0.62 **	(.92/.90)

Note. $N = 547$ for all correlations.

() = Diagonal entries are coefficient alpha reliability estimates and the square roots of the average variance extracted.

* = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$, one-tailed.

MANCOVA is used to test the first half of the conceptual model. Controlling for retail experience, age, gender, and the particular storefront, this test examines the effects of salesperson demeanor and salesperson activity on two of the primary emotions, pleasure and dominance. First, the omnibus effects are examined, using Wilks' Lambda as the criterion. Of the covariates, store one ($F_{(2, 529)} = 5.38, p < .01$), store two ($F_{(2, 529)} = 3.45, p < .05$), and store four ($F_{(2, 529)} = 6.18, p < .01$) have a significant omnibus effect. Also, the manipulation for salesperson demeanor ($F_{(2, 529)} = 18.41, p < .001$) and the interaction term for salesperson demeanor and salesperson activity ($F_{(2, 529)} = 3.05, p < .01$) are significant. Unfortunately, the omnibus effects for salesperson activity are not significant, so H11a and H11b are not supported.

Please see Table 6.21 for the between-subjects effects. Examination of the between-subjects effects shows that store one has a significant relationship with pleasure ($F_{(1, 530)} = 9.404, p < .01$), store two has a significant relationship with pleasure ($F_{(2, 530)} = 5.747, p < .05$) and dominance ($F_{(2, 530)} = 4.200, p < .05$), and store four has a significant relationship with pleasure ($F_{(2, 530)} = 12.639, p < .01$). Of the independent variables, salesperson demeanor has a significant effect on pleasure ($F_{(1, 530)} = 28.639, p < .001, M_{\text{smiling}} = 3.72, M_{\text{not smiling}} = 3.29$), giving support to H10. The interaction between salesperson demeanor and salesperson activity has a significant effect on dominance ($F_{(2, 530)} = 4.429, p < .05$), but not for pleasure. Please see Figure 6.6 for a graph of this interaction. While the interaction term is significant, the hypotheses predict an ordinal interaction and the graph in Figure 6.6 shows that this interaction is unexpectedly disordinal, which means that the two lines in the graph cross over one another. In other words, salesperson demeanor has a positive relationship with the dominance for one level of salesperson activity and a negative relationship with dominance for the other level of salesperson activity.

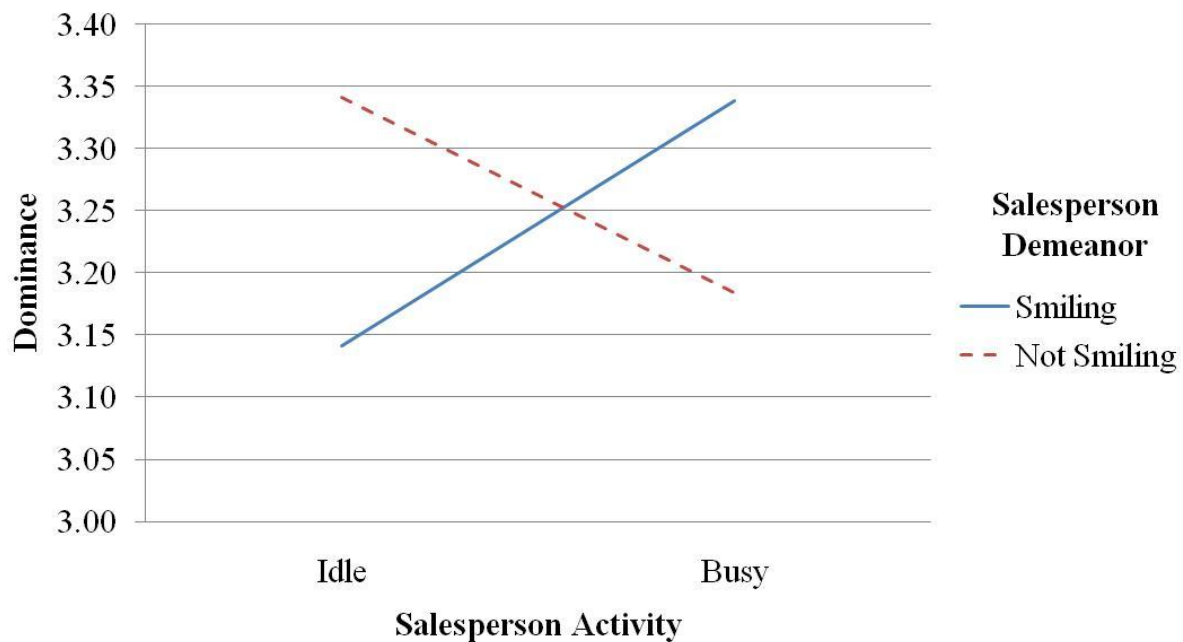
Thus, although H12b has a significant result, it is not in the hypothesized direction. So, hypotheses H12a and H12b are not supported.

Table 6.21 Main Test Experiment Two Multivariate Analysis of Covariance Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Intercept	Pleasure	1	570.886	701.242	0.000
Intercept	Dominance	1	514.256	1019.041	0.000
Retail Experience	Pleasure	1	0.426	0.524	0.470
Retail Experience	Dominance	1	0.105	0.208	0.649
Age	Pleasure	1	0.032	0.040	0.842
Age	Dominance	1	1.469	2.911	0.089
Gender	Pleasure	1	0.858	1.054	0.305
Gender	Dominance	1	0.106	0.210	0.647
Store 1	Pleasure	1	7.656	9.404	0.002
Store 1	Dominance	1	0.060	0.119	0.731
Store 2	Pleasure	1	4.679	5.747	0.017
Store 2	Dominance	1	2.119	4.200	0.041
Store 3	Pleasure	1	0.331	0.407	0.524
Store 3	Dominance	1	1.149	2.276	0.132
Store 4	Pleasure	1	9.996	12.279	0.000
Store 4	Dominance	1	1.779	3.526	0.061
Salesperson Demeanor	Pleasure	1	23.315	28.639	0.000
Salesperson Demeanor	Dominance	1	0.009	0.017	0.897
Salesperson Activity	Pleasure	1	1.285	1.579	0.209
Salesperson Activity	Dominance	1	0.111	0.220	0.639
Salesperson Demeanor X Salesperson Activity	Pleasure	1	0.032	0.039	0.843
Salesperson Demeanor X Salesperson Activity	Dominance	1	2.235	4.429	0.036
Error	Pleasure	530	0.814		
Error	Dominance	530	0.505		
Total	Pleasure	541			
Total	Dominance	541			

Note: Significant values are in bold-faced.

Figure 6.6 Interaction of Salesperson Demeanor and Salesperson Activity on Dominance



The second half of the conceptual model from the two emotions, pleasure and dominance, to the two dependent variables, approach attitudes and store patronage intentions, is tested using two multiple regression equations. In each regression equation, retail experience, age, and gender serve as covariates. Please see Tables 6.22 and 6.23 for the results of these regressions. For approach attitudes, the overall model is significant ($F_{(9,531)} = 71.490, p < .001$) and explains 54.8% of the variance. None of the covariates are significant in this regression. There is a significant effect for pleasure ($B = .614, p < .001$) on approach attitudes, but dominance does not reach significance. Therefore, H13a-c is supported, but H14a-c is not supported. For store patronage intentions, the overall model is significant ($F_{(9,531)} = 51.283, p < .001$) and explains 46.5% of the variance. Of the covariates, store one ($B = -.315, p < .05$) is significant. Of the independent variables, pleasure ($B = .794, p < .001$) and dominance ($B = .107, p < .01$) significantly predict store patronage intentions, in support of H13e and H14e.

Table 6.22 Main Test Experiment Two Multiple Regression Results

Dependent Variable: Approach Attitudes				
Variables	Unstandardized B	Standardized Beta	t	p
Retail Experience	-0.059	-0.038	-1.286	0.199
Age	0.000	0.003	0.110	0.913
Gender	0.001	0.001	0.023	0.982
Store 1	0.085	0.044	1.223	0.222
Store 2	0.019	0.010	0.266	0.790
Store 3	0.098	0.052	1.430	0.153
Store 4	0.050	0.026	0.705	0.481
Pleasure	0.614	0.747	22.710	0.000
Dominance	-0.031	-0.029	-0.897	0.370

Note: N = 547, R-squared = .548, significant values are in bold-faced.

Table 6.23 Main Test Experiment Two Multiple Regression Results

Dependent Variable: Store Patronage Intentions				
Variables	Unstandardized B	Standardized Beta	t	p
Retail Experience	0.064	0.014	0.426	0.670
Age	-0.003	-0.053	-1.583	0.114
Gender	-0.166	-0.065	-1.942	0.053
Store 1	-0.315	-0.094	-2.295	0.020
Store 2	-0.044	-0.010	-0.248	0.804
Store 3	-0.100	-0.040	-0.967	0.334
Store 4	0.002	0.025	0.596	0.551
Pleasure	0.794	0.582	15.892	0.000
Dominance	0.107	0.106	2.915	0.004

Note: N = 547, R-squared = .465, significant values are in bold-faced.

Finally, the entire conceptual model for experiment two is tested simultaneously using a structural equation model on LISREL 8.51. This analysis accounts for measurement error and neatly summarizes the findings. The structural error terms in the PSI matrix are allowed to correlate between pleasure and dominance, as they are likely related in ways that are not completely explained by this model. Also, the indicators in the λ -y matrix with the highest loading on the appropriate construct are fixed to one. In addition, a beta path is estimated

between approach attitudes and store patronage intentions. Overall, the model shows an acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2(98) = 306.11, p < .01$), the RMSEA is .06, the NNFI is 0.95, the CFI is 0.96, and the standardized RMR is .04.

The structural results of the analysis are shown in Table 6.24. A positive salesperson demeanor has a positive significant effect on pleasure, in support of H10. The salesperson's level of activity did not have a significant effect on pleasure (H11a) or dominance (H11b). Therefore, H11a and H11b are not supported. Pleasure has positive significant relationships with approach attitudes (H13a-c) and store patronage intentions (H13e). Thus, H13a-c and H13e are supported. Dominance has a positive significant relationship with store patronage intentions (H14e), but does not have a significant relationship with approach attitudes (H14a-c). Therefore, H14e is supported, but H14a-c is not supported.

Several significant effects exist in the model other than those that are specifically hypothesized. A positive relationship between approach attitudes and store patronage intentions is significant, as is consistent with Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action. A positive salesperson demeanor has a positive significant indirect effect on approach attitudes and store patronage intention, but salesperson activity does not have a significant relationship with either dependent variable. Finally, the effects of the two factors and two emotions on the individual constructs that are indicators of approach attitudes are given to illustrate that the same pattern of results holds for the higher-order construct and its indicators. Pleasure and a positive salesperson demeanor have positive significant relationships, while dominance and salesperson activity has no significant relationship with store image, expected service quality, and attitude to the salesperson.

Table 6.24 Structural Results for Main Test Experiment Two

Hypothesized Effects		Unstd. Coeff.	Std. Coeff.	t	p
H10	Salesperson Demeanor → Pleasure	0.19	0.20	5.35	0.000
H11a	Salesperson Activity → Pleasure	0.05	0.06	1.39	0.165
H11b	Salesperson Activity → Dominance	0.01	0.01	0.19	0.849
H13a-c	Pleasure → Approach Attitudes	0.76	0.86	17.47	0.000
H13e	Pleasure → Store Patronage Intentions	0.40	0.38	4.62	0.000
H14a-c	Dominance → Approach Attitudes	-0.07	-0.06	-1.42	0.156
H14e	Dominance → Store Patronage Intentions	0.11	0.09	1.98	0.048
Other Effects					
	Approach Attitudes → Store Patronage Intentions	0.38	0.32	4.06	0.000
	Salesperson Demeanor → Approach Attitudes	0.14	0.14	5.18	0.000
	Salesperson Demeanor → Store Patronage Intentions	0.13	0.13	5.10	0.000
	Salesperson Activity → Approach Attitudes	0.04	0.05	1.42	0.156
	Salesperson Activity → Store Patronage Intentions	0.04	0.04	1.33	0.184
	Pleasure → Store Image	0.68	0.68	15.68	0.000
	Pleasure → Expected Service Quality	0.75	0.75	17.29	0.000
	Pleasure → Attitude to the Salesperson	0.76	0.76	17.47	0.000
	Dominance → Store Image	-0.06	-0.06	-1.41	0.159
	Dominance → Expected Service Quality	-0.07	-0.07	-1.42	0.156
	Dominance → Attitude to the Salesperson	-0.07	-0.07	-1.42	0.156
	Salesperson Demeanor → Store Image	0.13	0.13	5.13	0.000
	Salesperson Demeanor → Expected Service Quality	0.14	0.14	5.18	0.000
	Salesperson Demeanor → Attitude to the Salesperson	0.14	0.14	5.18	0.000
	Salesperson Activity → Store Image	0.04	0.04	1.42	0.156
	Salesperson Activity → Expected Service Quality	0.04	0.04	1.42	0.156
	Salesperson Activity → Attitude to the Salesperson	0.04	0.04	1.42	0.156

Note: N = 547, SMCs: Pleasure = .04, Dominance = .00, Approach = .69, Patronage .52, significant relationships are in bold-faced.

In summary, through the use of various methods, each of the hypotheses is tested multiple times throughout the two pilot tests and the main test. The pattern of results is largely consistent. However, there are some small differences that could be explained in various ways. Each of the models, whether it is MANCOVA, multiple regression, or structural equation model, differs from the others in some way. The MANCOVA and multiple regression models include several covariates, interaction terms, and sometimes a quadratic term, but require several different models to examine the conceptual model. The structural equation models in LISREL do not consider the covariates, interactions, or curvilinear effects, but they do account for measurement error and allow for simultaneous examination of the first and second halves of the conceptual model for each experiment. Advantages and drawbacks exist for each approach. For ease of comprehension, please see Table 6.25 for a summary of the results from each of the tests.

Table 6.25 Summary of Multivariate and Lisrel Results for Pilot Test One, Pilot Test Two, and Main

	Pilot 1		Pilot 2		Main Test	
H	Multivariate	Lisrel	Multivariate	Lisrel	Multivariate	Lisrel
Experiment One						
H1a	NS sig-wrong direct.	NS sig-wrong direct.	NS	NS	NS sig-wrong direct.	NS sig-wrong direct.
H1b	NS sig-wrong direct.	NS sig-wrong direct.	NS	NS	NS sig-wrong direct.	NS sig-wrong direct.
H1c	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
H2a	not tested	not tested	NS	NS	NS	SUPPORTED
H2b	not tested	not tested	NS	NS	NS	NS
H2c	not tested	not tested	NS	NS	NS	NS
H3a	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED	NS	NS	NS	NS
H3b	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
H3c	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED	NS	NS	NS	NS
H4a-c	not tested	not tested	NS	not tested-inter.	NS	not tested-inter.
H5a-c	not tested	not tested	NS	not tested-inter.	NS	not tested-inter.
H6a-c	NS	not tested-inter.	NS	not tested-inter.	NS	not tested-inter.
H7a-c	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED
H7e	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED
H8a-c	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
H8e	NS	NS	NS	NS	SUPPORTED	NS
H9a-c	NS	NS	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED
H9e	NS	NS	SUPPORTED	NS	SUPPORTED	NS
Experiment Two						
H10	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED	not tested	not tested	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED
H11a	NS	NS	not tested	not tested	NS	NS
H11b	NS	NS	not tested	not tested	NS	NS
H12a	NS	not tested-inter.	not tested	not tested	NS	not tested-inter.
H12b	NS	not tested-inter.	not tested	not tested	NS sig-wrong direct.	not tested-inter.
H13a-c	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED	not tested	not tested	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED
H13e	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED	not tested	not tested	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED
H14a-c	NS	NS	not tested	not tested	NS	NS
H14e	NS	NS	not tested	not tested	SUPPORTED	SUPPORTED

CHAPTER VII

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Introduction

The primary purpose of this chapter is to discuss the findings contained in Chapter VI. The implications of these findings are then discussed from both academic and managerial perspectives. Finally, limitations of the study are examined along with possible avenues for future research.

Discussion of Findings of Experiment One

While several of the hypotheses are not supported, the results of experiment one still provide some interesting and important information. The presence of a hailer, or retail salesperson near the entrance of a retail store, is the central focus of this dissertation, as well as the focal manipulation in experiment one. The results of the main test, as well as the results of pilot test one, show that the presence of a retail salesperson near the entrance of a retail store has a significantly negative effect on customers' pleasure and arousal. This finding is contrary to the hypotheses that are based on approach-avoidance theory (Mehrabian and Russell 1974). However, this negative effect of the hailer is not surprising considering the results of the qualitative interviews. Many consumers have feelings of disdain toward these salespeople, often likening them to vultures. Consistent with this negative finding, previous work by Hedrick et al. (2004) find that customers who have more interaction with retail salespeople have lower ratings of positive outcomes, such as patronage intentions. The result of hypothesis one is in contrast to

several instances of previous research in both the sales and atmospherics literature. For instance, the previous work in salesperson availability suggests that when retail salespeople initiate contact with customers, customers have the favorable response of increased value perceptions (Naylor and Frank 2000). Also in contrast, Darian et al. (2001) find that customers have a more positive response when salespeople immediately greet them upon entry than if the customers have to search for the retail salesperson. But, these assertions assume that the customers actually want assistance from a salesperson. Often, customers would rather be left alone to browse and shop on their own. In terms of the atmospherics literature, this finding also contrasts the set of articles which stem from the common dataset that includes a salesperson greeting the customer as part of a larger prestige- image factor (Baker et al. 1992; Baker et al. 1994; Baker et al. 2002; Grewal et al. 2003). These studies find a positive relationship between the prestige-image factor and pleasure, arousal, and other positive outcomes. This set of studies substantially differs from the current study because the customer has already made the decision to enter the store. Each of these instances in the previous sales and atmospherics literature that contrast the results of hypothesis one can be explained by differences in the situation. None of them specifically examine customers' feelings or perceptions of when the retail salesperson is visibly waiting for customers from the exterior of the storefront. In each of the related studies, the position of the salesperson in relation to the entrance to the store is not as prominent as it is in the current work. In fact, Ponder et al. (2006) and Darian et al. (2001) both concede that a potential drawback of retail salesperson availability is that the salespeople could be perceived as aggressive or pushy.

The second manipulation in experiment one, store familiarity receives little to no support. In the main test and pilot test two, the multivariate results do not provide support for any of the related hypotheses, for store familiarity. Upon consideration, while the manipulation check for

store familiarity in the scenarios is significant, it may be difficult to simulate true store familiarity by simply telling subjects that they are familiar or unfamiliar with a store. In the real world, customers with high store familiarity would have a history of experiences and memories upon which they would draw. Also, by telling a subject that the store is familiar and they have been there several times before, there is an implication that the customers have enough of a positive attitude and experience with the store that they would make repeated visits. However, in contrast to the nonsignificant results, store familiarity has a positive relationship with pleasure in the structural equation model in the main test. This deviation can be attributed to the differences in the two types of models. The multivariate results include covariates, while the structural equation modeling results test multiple parts of the model simultaneously and account for measurement error. However, the positive relationship found in the structural equation model is consistent with approach-avoidance theory (Mehrabian and Russell 1974) and with the mere-exposure-effect (Kunst-Wilson and Zajonc 1980) in that the repeated exposure that is implicit in familiarity should lead to increased pleasure.

For retail density, the related hypotheses are not supported in the main test or pilot test two. However, consistent with approach-avoidance theory, both the multivariate and structural equation model results in pilot test one show that retail density has a negative relationship with pleasure and dominance. This effect on pleasure is consistent with several instances in the previous literature where a negative relationship between retail density, or crowding, and pleasure is found (El Sayed et al. 2003; Hui and Bateson 1991; Machleit et al. 2000). A possible explanation for why these significant results are found in the first pilot test but not in the second pilot or main test is found in a recent study by Pan and Siemens (2011) which shows that the effects of retail density differ based on the context. They find that in a goods-based setting, retail

density has actually has a curvilinear effect, while retail density has a linear relationship in a service setting. While there is an element of service involved in the current research, the storefronts in the manipulations are largely representative of goods-based settings. The manipulation for density in the current work only has two conditions: other customers present or other customers absent. Unfortunately, the curvilinear relationship that Pan and Siemens (2011) find cannot be tested with only a dichotomous manipulation.

In terms of the effects of the three primary emotions on approach attitudes and an approach behavior, store patronage intentions, the hypotheses have mixed support. The hypotheses involving the effects of pleasure on approach attitudes and store patronage intentions are supported in both the pilot tests and the main test. These results are consistent with approach-avoidance theory (Mehrabian and Russell 1974). They also make intuitive sense because when they feel positive feelings, people would naturally want to approach, or move closer, to the source of those positive feelings. The hypotheses involving the curvilinear effects of arousal on the approach attitudes and patronage intentions are not supported in either pilot test one or two, which is contrary to approach-avoidance theory (Mehrabian and Russell 1974). The structural equation models show that there is not a linear effect either. However, consistent with approach-avoidance theory, the multiple regression results in the main test demonstrate that the quadratic term for arousal is significant for store patronage intentions, but not for approach attitudes. The negative coefficient reflects an inverted-U shaped relationship for arousal with store patronage intentions. Thus, a moderate amount of arousal is optimal for customers to have the maximum amount of store patronage intentions. If the situation is deemed too boring, then the customers will not want to enter. However, if the situation is deemed too stimulating, the customers will be overwhelmed and not want to enter either. Finally, the hypotheses involving dominance also

have mixed support. In pilot test one, none of the dominance hypotheses are supported, in contrast to approach-avoidance theory (Mehrabian and Russell 1974). But the multivariate results in pilot test two and the main test show that dominance does have a significant positive relationship with approach attitudes and store patronage intentions. People are more attracted when they feel dominant, or in control, of their own environments. The structural equation models from pilot test two and the main test also support the relationship between dominance and approach attitudes, but not store patronage intentions. Again, this difference between the multivariate results and the structural equation model results may be attributed to the differences in the models, in terms of covariates, simultaneous testing, and the accounting of measurement error. Lastly, another possible reason for the results' departure from the predictions of approach-avoidance theory (Mehrabian and Russell 1974) is that the three emotions do not behave as they are conceptualized in the theory. Mehrabian and Russell (1974) conceptualize the three primary emotions to be orthogonal, although they recognize that sometimes small correlations exist, particularly for pleasure and arousal. However, as can be seen in the correlation matrices from both pilot tests and as indicated by the modification indices in the psi matrix of the structural equation models, the emotions are not orthogonal in these datasets. Instead, the three emotions are highly correlated.

Discussion of Findings of Experiment Two

As with experiment one, experiment two yields mixed and interesting results. Hypothesis 10 predicts that a positive salesperson demeanor, in terms of smiling or not smiling, leads to increased pleasure. This relationship is supported in both the datasets for pilot test one and the main test (pilot test two did not test experiment two). Thus, when the hailer appears to be happy, then potential customers are influenced to also feel happy. This finding is consistent with both

approach-avoidance theory (Mehrabian and Russell 1974) and emotional contagion theory (Hatfield et al. 1994). This finding is also consistent with several instances of previous research. For example, Hennig-Thurau et al. (2006) suggest that primitive emotional contagion (in the form of smiling) is most pervasive in the early stages of service encounters, as is the case when customers see a storefront with a retail salesperson near the entrance. These findings are also consistent with the work of Pugh (2000), who finds a direct link between employees' displayed emotions and customer affect, and Wang (2009), who shows that consumers' emotions are influenced by the emotions that service employees display.

The other manipulation in experiment two is the retail salesperson's level of activity, in terms of whether the retail salesperson is standing idly near the entrance of the store or performing work-related activities such as straightening merchandise while near the entrance of the store. Unfortunately, the salesperson's level of activity is not a significant predictor of pleasure or dominance in either pilot test one or the main test. These findings are divergent from the qualitative interviews and approach-avoidance theory (Mehrabian and Russell 1974). The idea of keeping up another activity while physically near the entrance is an emergent theme from the qualitative interviews. Several retail salespeople feel that if they are even superficially busy with another task while they wait near the entrance of the store, then they are available to offer assistance, but in a less intimidating way than if they were just standing idly. Approach-avoidance theory suggests that by keeping busy, the hailer would give less feelings of forced immediacy. These unsupported results suggest that some retail salespeople's tactic of keeping their activity level up is ineffective in making a difference in consumers' feelings. When consumers notice a retail salesperson near the entrance of a store they may imagine that the salesperson will interact with them as soon as they enter the store. The fact that the salesperson

may be straightening the merchandise is irrelevant because consumers know that the salesperson could easily stop straightening in order to offer assistance or make a sale.

In a departure from the results from pilot test one, a significant interaction between the salesperson's demeanor and the salesperson's level of activity exists on dominance. However, the direction of this interaction is not as hypothesized. The hypothesized interaction is ordinal, but the resulting interaction is disordinal. The graph of the disordinal interaction is displayed in Figure 6.6. The interpretation of this interaction is as follows: When a retail salesperson has a positive demeanor (smiling), consumers feel more dominance if the retail salesperson appears busy with an activity than if he or she is just standing idly near the entrance of the store with a smiling at the potential customers. However, when a retail salesperson has a less positive demeanor (not smiling), consumers feel more dominance if the salesperson is waiting idly than if the salesperson is staying busy with another activity while near the entrance. This finding is logical because if a retail salesperson is simply standing near the entrance smiling at potential customers, then the feelings that the salesperson will immediately apply high-pressure sales tactics may be magnified and potential customers may feel less control, or dominance, over the situation. If the smiling salesperson is keeping busy, he or she may appear pleasantly available, but not positioned to accost a potential customer. Further, if a non-smiling salesperson is engaged in a higher level of activity, then the salesperson may appear too busy and unavailable to offer service if the customer wants assistance. Potential customers may experience a decreased sense of control over the situation if they feel that they would have to disturb an unfriendly and busy salesperson in order to receive assistance. On the other hand, if a salesperson is idly standing near the entrance and not smiling, the potential customer may feel more dominant in the situation because the salesperson is available to offer assistance, but he or she is not overzealous.

The idle hailer who is not smiling may simply appear bored, just as many people might expect of someone who stands near the entrance of a retail store for extended periods of time. Although this particular disordinal interaction is not anticipated or hypothesized, precedents for interactions of salespeople's emotional displays and other factors on customer reactions exist in the literature. For example, Hennig-Thurau et al. (2006) find that the authenticity of the smile serves as a boundary condition for the effect of employee smiling on customer reactions. Sönderland and Rosengren (2010) find that smiling by service employees improves customer satisfaction only under the condition that there is good technical service quality.

Finally, the hypotheses in experiment two that concern the primary emotions' effects on pleasure and dominance in experiment two have mixed results. In terms of pleasure, in both pilot test one and the main test, pleasure has a positive relationship with approach attitudes and patronage intentions, just as predicted by approach-avoidance theory (Mehrabian and Russell 1974). These results are intuitively appealing because people are attracted by things that elicit positive feelings. For dominance, the prediction that increased feelings of dominance will lead to approach attitudes is not supported in either pilot test one or the main test, in contrast to approach-avoidance theory. The hypothesis that dominance predicts store patronage intentions is supported in the main test data, but not in the pilot test data. This result for the main test is consistent with approach-avoidance theory (Mehrabian and Russell 1974). A possible explanation for why the results from pilot test one and the main test differ is that the main test has a much larger sample size than the pilot test, which provides more power to detect effects that would otherwise not be significant in a smaller sample.

Academic Implications

This research has four academic contributions. First, the primary contribution of this research is the examination of a largely overlooked retail strategy which builds upon existing

literature in the retail sales and atmospheric areas of research. A few studies incorporate some aspects of the current research, but no prior work in retail sales or atmospheric literature specifically examines retail salespeople standing near the entrance of stores. The practical dearth of research on this topic is surprising, considering that both the qualitative and quantitative results indicate that this is a fairly common practice, and the importance of retail salespeople is widely recognized (Babin, Babin, and Boles 1999; Darian, Tucci, and Wiman 2001; Westbrook 1981). Since this research is the first to focus on this particular retail sales strategy of salespeople standing near the entrance of retail stores, it lays the groundwork for future research in the area.

Second, this research elaborates on approach-avoidance theory (Mehrabian and Russell 1974) by adding to the list of environmental stimuli. By doing so, this work also expounds on other retailing-specific or services-specific approach-avoidance conceptualizations and taxonomies of retailing stimuli that are based on Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) original theory, such as the work of Bitner (1992), Donovan and Rossiter (1981), Berman and Evans (1982), and Turley and Milliman (2000).

A third academic contribution is the inclusion of dominance in experiment one and experiment two. Ever since Donovan and Rossiter's (1982) early conclusion that dominance does not have a substantial effect and that pleasure and arousal cover most situations in marketing. Much of the previous work which uses approach-avoidance theory (Mehrabian and Russell 1974) omits dominance. However, other researchers debate Donovan and Rossiter's (1982) assertion (Biggers and Rankis 1983). This exclusion of dominance in much of the previous research may have resulted in potentially meaningful findings being overlooked. By incorporating dominance, this study contributes to the knowledge base on its causes and effects. While most cases where dominance is the dependent variable in this research are not significant

as suggested would be the case by Donovan and Rossiter (1982), the one significant interaction involves dominance as the outcome. Further, the results also give support to approach-avoidance theory's prediction that dominance has a positive relationship with approach attitudes and behaviors.

Fourth, this research answers several calls for further research in the previous retail sales and atmospheric literature. Specifically, Sharma and Stafford (2000) call for research as to how salesperson availability may be coordinated with other factors of the retail environment in order to maximize persuasion. Similarly, in their study of salesperson characteristics and consumer emotion, Lee and Dubinsky (2003) propose that the complicated nature of interpersonal interaction and emotions in the consumption setting will remain a mystery unless it is considered along with the physical environment of the retail store. Bitner (1992) also calls for research that addresses the moderating effects of the environment on social interactions among customers and employees. Finally, Tombs and McColl-Kennedy (2003) and Turley and Milliman (2000) make calls for more research on the social, or human, dimension in the atmospherics literature. This research answers these calls by examining how a salesperson who is immediately available at the entrance of a retail store interacts with another atmospheric variable, retail density, and a contextual factor, store familiarity, in order to produce effects on consumer emotions and several customer responses (e.g. patronage intentions, attitudes) that are beneficial to the firm.

Managerial Implications

This research which focuses on hangers, or retail salespeople who stand near the entrance of stores and wait for customers, has substantial implications for managers and retail organizations. The qualitative interviews with retail salespeople and managers, as well as the quantitative results, indicate that this practice is very common. Often, stores have a written

policy stating that a salesperson must remain within a certain number of feet from the entrance to greet customers and provide better service as they enter and to serve as a deterrent for shoplifters. More often, though, managers give their retail salespeople verbal instructions to be present near the entrance of the store.

The finding in this research with the greatest managerial implications is that positioning a retail salesperson near the entrance of the store is viewed negatively by potential customers. The intent of this practice is to provide better customer service and increase sales, but positioning hangers near the entrance may actually have the opposite effect. Instead, having a salesperson present at the entrance of the retail store produces negative feelings for potential customers and influences many customers to decide against patronizing the store. Thus, the presence of a hanger at the entrance of a store may defeat the retailer's primary goal of making sales by reducing positive approach attitudes and the likelihood that customers will even enter the store.

While some of the effect sizes of the relationships in this research are small, small effects may nevertheless be able to create a sizable influence over many repetitions (Abelson 1985). Each time a potential customer encounters a store front; he or she forms emotions and opinions, and decides whether or not to enter the store. Thus, small effects on any single visit can turn into big differences over many repetitions. Therefore, salespeople should do anything possible that could increase the odds of a particular customer entering the store, including not standing near the entrance of the retail store.

Given the situation that a hanger must be near the entrance of a retail store, such as in a context where shoplifting is pervasive, experiment two provides some guidance as to how the salesperson could behave in order to achieve a more positive reaction from potential customers. The results show that hangers who have a positive demeanor increase consumers' pleasure and

that pleasure increases approach attitudes and store patronage intentions. So, although it seems simple thing to do, a hailer generally maintaining a positive attitude could make a big difference over time. However, the interaction effect between smiling and salesperson demeanor on dominance shows that smiling is not always the best way for hailers to entice customers.

Often, employees are instructed to keep busy by straightening merchandise while waiting for customers near the entrance of the store, resulting in some retail salespeople repeating virtually meaningless tasks throughout the day. For example, one retail salesperson talks about how she re-folds the same shirt throughout the day to appear to be busy while she waits near the entrance for customers. Simply keeping busy is not enough to make a difference in customers' responses. However, the interaction effect of salesperson demeanor and the salesperson's level of activity on dominance suggests that if a retail salesperson is near the entrance of the store, a more positive outcome may be achieved by smiling while keeping busy. By doing so, the salesperson is available to help but is not intimidating to potential customers. Salespeople who only idly stand near the entrance and grin at potential customers may be off-putting because the salesperson gives the appearance of being prepared to immediately launch a high-pressure sales pitch, when many customers would prefer to be able to browse at their leisure.

Limitations and Future Research

This dissertation has generated several implications for both theory and practice. However, like all research, these findings must be tempered by their limitations. Several limitations are recognized and various related and unrelated recommendations for future research are offered.

One limitation of this research is associated with the method by which the data are collected. The instrument for the two experiments is hosted online. The subjects are given a URL

to the survey either by their instructor of an undergraduate class, an undergraduate student, or an email from an online panel to which they belong. The subjects then access the URL at the time and place of their convenience to view the stimuli and answer the items. Because of this method, the subjects participate at a wide variety of times of day and in a wide variety of locations, where many different distractions could be present. One might argue that this introduces an element of randomness, but it also gives up a certain degree of control which would be afforded if the experiments were conducted in a controlled environment. However, it would be difficult to test a nationally-representative sample in a particular physical location. Future iterations of this project may benefit from using an in-house laboratory.

Another limitation is that the variable created for race match in pilot one experiment one has a significant effect. Fortunately, neither race match nor gender match has an effect in any of the other experiments or datasets. This effect indicates that there is a racial bias in that part of the data. However, that bias could not be controlled while also obtaining statistics for the salesperson presence manipulation, since the race match variable has missing values for all of the salesperson absent conditions. Future research that includes present/absent condition should be designed in a way that accounts for this issue. Additionally, the majority of the sample is Caucasian. Future work could include a higher proportion of minority ethnic groups.

A third limitation is that the instrument does not include an item that asks about geographic location. While the panel data from Opinionology is guaranteed to be nationally representative, the pilot tests used students of the University of Alabama and other people that they recruit as the subjects. Therefore, due to the method of data collection, a disproportionately high number of the subjects come from Alabama in the combined datasets. This information would have been a useful control variable. Future work should include an item for geographic

location because hailers may be perceived differently in regions whose cultures include an emphasis on friendliness or sociability.

Besides geographic location, several other contextual variables offer opportunities for future research. As suggested by the qualitative findings, differences in consumers' feelings about a retail salesperson near the entrance of a store may exist depending on whether the context is regular shopping occasion or during a holiday shopping period. During the holidays, shoppers are often under stress to find gifts and may welcome the increased salesperson availability. Likewise, if the shopping context involves the purchase of high-technology products, customers may be more welcoming of a salesperson near the entrance, especially if they have little product knowledge. Similarly, the results may differ depending on whether the store is a luxury or discount store, where shoppers' expectations of the level of available service are differ.

A final opportunity for future research involves characteristics of the customers that could play a mediating or moderating role in the relationships found in this research. Some possible variables that emerge from the qualitative data are differing shopping motivations, shoppers' transient mood, and different personality traits, such as trait anxiety, extroversion, sociability, arousal-seeking, and decisiveness.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this research produces interesting results that have implications for both theory and practice. Hailers' practice of standing near the entrance of retail stores is has a negative effect on consumers' pleasure, and ultimate attitudes and behaviors. In general, smiling produces pleasurable feelings for consumers. However, an interaction between smiling and salesperson activity has a significant relationship with dominance. Consumers feel more

dominant, or in control of the situation, if a smiling salesperson is engaged some activity (e.g. straightening merchandise) than if the hailer is simply standing near the entrance with a grin glued on his or her face. This research contributes to multiple literatures, including retail salespeople, atmospherics, and service. Theoretically, this work tests and extends approach-avoidance theory and emotional contagion theory. The findings provide actionable suggestions for retail managers and retail employees in practice.

REFERENCES

- Abelson, Robert P. (1985). "A variance explanation paradox: When a little is a lot," *Psychological Bulletin*, 97 (1), 129-133.
- Babin, Barry J. and Babin, Laurie (2001). "Seeking something different? A model of schema typicality, consumer affect, purchase intentions, and perceived shopping value," *Journal of Business Research*, 54 (2), 89-96.
- Babin, Laurie A., Babin, Barry J, and Boles, James S. (1999). "The effects of consumer perceptions of the salesperson, product and dealer on purchase intentions," *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 6 (2), 91-97.
- Bailey, Nicole and Areni, Charles S. (2006). "When a few minutes sound like a lifetime: Does atmospheric music expand or contract perceived time?," *Journal of Retailing*, 82 (3), 189-202.
- Baker, Julie (1987) "The role of the environment in marketing services', in J. Shanahan (ed.) *The Services Challenge: Integrating for Competitive Advantage*, pp. 79–84. Chicago, IL: American Marketing Association.
- Baker, Julie, Grewal, Dhruv, and Parasuraman, A. (1994). "The influence of store environment on quality inferences and store image," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 22 (4), 328-339.
- Baker, Julie, Levy, Michael, and Grewal, Dhruv (1992). "An experimental approach to making retail store environmental decisions," *Journal of Retailing*, 68 (4), 445-460.
- Baker, Julie, Parasuraman, A., Grewal, Dhruv, and Voss, Glenn B. (2002). "The influence of multiple store environment cues on perceived merchandise value and patronage intentions," *Journal of Marketing*, 66 (April) 120-141.
- Beatty, Sharon E., Mayer, Morris, Coleman, James E., and Lee, Jungki (1996). "Customer-sales associate retail relationships," *Journal of Retailing*, 72 (3), 223-147.
- Belk, Russell W. (1975). "Situational variables and consumer behavior," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 2 (December), 157–164.
- Berman, Barry, and Evans, Joel R. (1995). *Retail Management: A Strategic Approach*, 6th Edition, Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Beverland, Michael, Lim, Elison, A.C., Morrison, Michael, Terziovski, Mile (2006). "In-store music and consumer-brand relationships: Relational transformation following experiences of (mis)fit," *Journal of Business Research*, 59 (9), 982-989.

- Biggers, Thompson and Rankis, Olaf E. (1983). "Dominance-submissiveness as an effective response to situations and as a predictor of approach-avoidance," *Social Behavior and Personality*, 11 (2), 61-69.
- Bitner, Mary Jo (1990). "Evaluating service encounters: The effects of physical surroundings and employee responses," *Journal of Marketing*, 54 (April), 69–82.
- Bitner, Mary Jo (1992) "Servicescapes: the impact of physical surroundings on customers and employees," *Journal of Marketing*, 56 (April), 57–71.
- Chebat, Jean-Charles, and Dube, Laurette (2000). "Evolution and challenges facing retail atmospherics: The apprentice sorcerer is dying," *Journal of Business Research*, 49 (2), 89-90.
- Cornelius, Britta, Natter, Martin, and Faure, Corinne (2010). "How storefront displays influence retail store image," *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 17 (2), 143-151.
- Cronin, Joseph J. Jr. (2003). "Looking back to see forward in services marketing: Some ideas to consider," *Managing Service Quality*, 13 (5), 332-337.
- Darian, Jean C., Tucci, Louis A., and Wiman Alan R. (2001). "Perceived salesperson service attributes and retail patronage intentions," *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 29 (5), 205-213.
- Darian, Jean C., Wiman, Alan R., and Tucci, Louis A. (2004). "Retail patronage intentions: The relative importance of perceived prices and salesperson service attributes," *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 12 (1), 15-23.
- Dawson, Scott, Bloch, Peter H., and Ridgway, Nancy M. (1990). "Shopping motives, emotional states, and retail outcomes," *Journal of Retailing*, 66 (4), 408-427.
- De Mozota, Brigitte B. (1990). 'Design as a strategic marketing tool', in M. Oakley (ed.), *Design Management*, 73–84, Cambridge, MA: Blackwell Reference.
- Donovan, Robert J. and Rossiter, John R. (1982). "Store Atmosphere: An environmental psychology approach," *Journal of Retailing*, 5 (1), 34-57.
- Donovan, Robert J, Rossiter, John R., Marcoolyn, Gilian, and Nesdale, Andrew (1994). "Store atmosphere and purchasing behavior," *Journal of Retailing*, 70 (3), 283-294.
- El Sayed, Ismail M., Farrag, Dalia A., and Belk, Russell (2003). "The effects of physical surroundings on Egyptian consumers' emotional states and buying intentions," *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 16 (1), 5-27.

- Eroglu, Sevgin A., Machleit, Karen A., and Chebat, Jean-Charles (2005). "The interaction of retail density and music tempo: Effects on shopper responses," *Psychology & Marketing*, 22 (7, July), 577-589.
- Ezeh, Chris and Harris, Lloyd (2007). "Servicescape research: A review and research agenda," *The Marketing Review*, 7 (1), 59-78.
- Feinberg, Richard A., Sheffler, Brent, Meoli, Jennifer, and Rummel, Amy (1989). "There's something social happening at the mall," *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 4 (1), 49-63.
- Fishbein, Martin and Ajzen, Icek (1975). *Belief, Attitude, Intention, and Behavior: An Introduction to Theory and Research*, Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Gagliano, Kathryn B. and Hathcote, Jan (1994). "Customer expectations and perceptions of service quality in retail apparel specialty stores," *Journal of Services Marketing*, 8 (1), 60-69.
- Garlin, Francine V. and Owen, Katherine (2006). "Setting the tone with the tune: A meta-analytic review of the effects of background music in retail settings," *Journal of Business Research*, 59 (6), 755-7654.
- Gardner, Meryl P. and Siomkos (1986). "Toward a methodology for assessing effects of in-store atmospherics," in Richard J. Lutz ed., *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 13, Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research, 27-31.
- Gilboa, Shaked and Rafaeli, Anat (2003). "Store environment, emotions and approach behavior: Applying environmental aesthetics to retailing," *International Review of Retail Distribution and consumer Research*, 13 (2), 195-211.
- Goff, Brent G., Boles, James S., Bellenger, Danny N., and Stojack, Carrie (1997). "The influence of salesperson selling behaviors on customer satisfaction with products," *Journal of Retailing*, 73 (2, Summer), 171-183.
- Grewal, Dhruv, Baker, Julie, Levy, Michael, and Voss, Glenn (2003). "The effects of wait expectations and store atmosphere evaluations on patronage intentions in service-intensive retail stores," *Journal of Retailing*, 79 (4), 259-268.
- Guenzi, Paolo, Johnson, Michael D., and Castaldo, Sandro (2009). "A comprehensive model of customer trust in two retail stores," *Journal of Service Management*, 20 (3), 290-316.
- Hartline, Michael D. and Jones, Keith C. (1996), "Employee performance cues in a hotel service environment: influence on perceived service quality, value, and word-of-mouth intentions," *Journal of Business Research*, 35 (3), 207-215.

- Hedrick, Natalie, Oppewal, Harmen, and Beverland, Michael (2007). "Store atmosphere effects on customer perceptions of the retail sales person," *Proceedings of Association for Consumer Research*, 96-97.
- Hedrick, Natalie, Beverland, Michael, and Oppewal, Harmen (2004). "The impact of retail salespeople and store atmospherics on patronage intentions," *Proceedings of Australian and New Zealand Marketing Academy*, 1-8.
- Hoffman, K. Douglas and Turley, L.W. (2002). "Atmospherics, service encounters and consumer decision making: An integrative perspective," *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 10 (3), 33-47.
- Hu, Haiyan and Jasper, Cynthia (2006). "Social cues in the store environment and their impact on store image," *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 34 (1), 25-48.
- Hu, Haiyan and Jasper, Cynthia (2007). "A cross-cultural examination of the effects of social perception styles on store image formation," *Journal of Business Research*, 60 (3), 222-230.
- Hui, Michael K. and Bateson, John E.G. (1991). "Perceived control and the effects of crowding and consumer choice on the service experience," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 18 (September), 174-184.
- Jiang, Ying and Wang, Cheng Lu (2006). "The impact of affect on service quality and satisfaction: The moderation of service contexts," *Journal of Services Marketing*, 20 (4), 211-218.
- Keillor, Bruce, Parker R. Stephen, and Pettijohn, Charles E. (2000). "Relationship-oriented Characteristics and Individual Salesperson Performance," *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 15 (1), 7-22.
- Kim, Jae-Eun, Ju, Hae Won, and Johnson, Kim K.P. (2009). "Sales associates' appearance: Links to consumers' emotions, store image, and purchases," *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 16 (5), 407-413.
- Kotler, Philip (1973). "Atmospherics as a marketing tool," *Journal of Retailing*, 49 (4), 48-64.
- Lee, Sanghyun and Dubinsky, Alan J. (2003). "Influence of salesperson characteristics and customer emotion on retail dyadic relationships," *The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research*, 13 (1, January), 21-36.
- Machleit, Karen A. and Eroglu, Sevgin A. (2000). "Describing and measuring emotional response to shopping experience," *Journal of Business Research*, 49 (2), 101-111.

- Machleit, Karen A., Eroglu, Sevgin A., Mantel, Susan P. (2000). "Perceived retail crowding and shopping satisfaction: What modifies this relationship?," *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 9 (1), 29-42.
- Malhotra, Naresh K. (1983) "A threshold model of store choice," *Journal of Retailing*, 59 (2), 3-21.
- Mattila, Anna S. and Wirtz, Jochen (2001). "Congruency of scent and music as a driver of in-store evaluations and behavior," *Journal of Retailing*, 77 (22), 273-289.
- Mattila, Anna S. and Wirtz, Jochen (2008). "The role of store environmental stimulation and social factors on impulse purchasing," *Journal of Services Marketing*, 22 (7), 562-567.
- Mehrabian, Albert and Russell, James A. (1974). *An Approach to Environmental Psychology*, The MIT Press: Cambridge, Massachusetts
- Mehrabian, Albert (1980). *Public Places and Private Spaces*, Basic Books Inc. Publishers: New York.
- Michon, Richard and Chebat, Jean-Charles (2005). "Reaching out for mall shoppers: Shopping value, mall atmosphere and approach behaviors," *Proceedings of ASAC 2005*, Toronto, Ontario, 114.
- Michon, Richard and Chebat, Jean-Charles (2008). "Breaking open the consumer behavior black box: SEM and retail atmospheric manipulations," *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 16 (4, Fall), 299-307.
- Michon, Richard, Chebat, Jean-Charles, Turley, L.W. (2005). "Mall atmospherics: The interaction effects of the mall environment on shopping behavior," *Journal of Business Research*, 58 (5), 576-583.
- Mittal, Banwari, and Lassar Walfried (1996). "The role of personalization in service encounters," *Journal of Retailing*, 72 (1), 95-109.
- Morrin, Maureen and Chebat, Jean-Charles (2005). "Person-place congruency: The interactive effects of shopper style and atmospherics on consumer expenditures," *Journal of Service Research*, 8 (2), 181-191.
- Naylor, Gillian and Frank, Kimberly E. (2000). "The impact of retail sales force responsiveness on consumers' perceptions of value," *Journal of Services Marketing*, 14 (4), 310-322.
- Pan, Yue and Siemens, Jennifer C. (2011). "The differential effects of retail density: An investigation of good versus service setting," *Journal of Business Research*, 64 (2), 105-112.

- Ponder, Nicole, Lueg, Jason E., and Williams, Zachary (2006). "Salesperson assistance versus self-service in retailing: Are they both a matter of convenience?," *Marketing Management Journal*, 16 (1), 72-87.
- Puccinelli, Nancy M., Goodstein, Ronald C., Grewal, Dhruv, Price, Robert, Raghubir, Priya, and Stewart, David (2009). "Customer Experience Management in Retailing: Understanding the Buying Process," *Journal of Retailing*, 85 (1), 15-30.
- Ray, Ipshita and Larry Chiagouris (2009). "Customer retention: Examining the roles of store affect and store loyalty as mediators in the management of retail strategies," *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, 17 (1, February), 1-20.
- Russell, James A. and Pratt, Geraldine A. (1980). 'Description of the affective quality attributed to environments', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 38 (2), 311-22.
- Sharma, Arun (2001). "Consumer decision-making, salespeople's adaptive selling and retail performance," *Journal of Business Research*, 54 (2), 125-129.
- Sharma, Arun and Levy, Michael (1995). "Categorization of customers by retail salespeople," *Journal of Retailing*, 71 (1), 71-81.
- Sharma, Arun and Stafford, Thomas F. (2000). "The effect of retail atmospherics on customers' perceptions of salespeople and customer persuasion: An empirical investigation," *Journal of Business Research*, 49 (2), 183-191.
- Sherman, Elaine, Mathur, Anil, and Smith, Ruth B. (1997). "Store environment and consumer purchase behavior: Mediating role of consumer emotions," *Psychology & Marketing*, 14 (4), 361-378.
- Skinner, B.F. (1961). *Cumulative record*, Enlarged ed., New York: Appleton-Century Crofts.
- Solomon, Michael R., Surprenant, Carol, Czepiel, John A., and Gutman, Evelyn G. (1985). "A role theory perspective on dyadic interactions: The service encounter," *Journal of Marketing*, 49 (1), 99-111.
- Spangenberg, Eric R., Crowley, Ayn E., and Henderson, Pamela W. (1996). "Improving the store environment: Do olfactory cues affect evaluations and behaviors?," *Journal of Marketing*, 60, (April) 67-80.
- Stanforth, Nancy F. and Lennon, Sharron J. (1997). "The effects of customer expectations and store policies on retail salesperson service, satisfaction, and patronage," *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, 15 (2), 115-124.
- Stokols, Daniel (1972). "On the distinction between density and crowding," *Psychological Review*, 79 (3) 275-277.

- Summers, Teresa A. and Hebert, Paulette R. (2001). "Shedding some light on store atmospherics influence of illumination on consumer behavior," *Journal of Business Research*, 54 (2), 145-150.
- Sweeney, Jillian C., Soutar, Geoffrey N., and Johnson, Lester W. (1997). "Retail service quality and perceived value," *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 4 (1), 39-48.
- Tombs, Alastair and McColl-Kennedy, Janet R. (2003). "Social-servicescape conceptual model," *Marketing Theory*, 3 (4), 447-475.
- Turley, L.W. and Chebat, Jean-Charles (2002). "Linking retail strategy, atmospheric design, and shopping behavior," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 18 (1), 125-144.
- Turley, L.W. and Milliman, Ronald E. (2000). "Atmospheric effects on shopping behavior: A Review of the experimental evidence," *Journal of Business Research*, 49 (2), 193-211.
- Vargo, Stephen L., and Robert F. Lusch (2004). "Evolving to a New Dominant Logic for Marketing," *Journal of Marketing*, 68 (January), 1-17.
- Wakefield, Kirk L. and Blodgett, Jeffrey G. (1996). "The effect of the servicescape on customers' behavioural intentions in leisure service settings", *Journal of Services Marketing*, 10 (6) 45-61.
- Weitz, Barton A. (1981). "Effectiveness in sales interactions: A contingency framework," *Journal of Marketing*, 45 (Winter), 85-103.
- Weitzel, William, Schwarzkopf, Albert B. and Peach, E. Brian (1989). "The influence of employee perceptions of customer service on retail store sales," *Journal of Retailing*, 65 (1), 25-39.
- Westbrook, Robert A. (1981). "Sources of consumer satisfaction with retail outlets," *Journal of Retailing*, 57 (3), 68-85.
- Williams Alvin J. and Seminerio John (1985). "What buyers like from salesmen," *Industrial Marketing Management*, 14 (May), 75- 78.
- Williams, Kaylene C. and Spiro, Rosann L. (1985). "Communication style in the salesperson-customer dyad," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 22 (November), 434-442.
- Yalch, Richard F. and Spangenberg, Eric R. (2000). "The effects of music in a retail setting on real and perceived shopping times," *Journal of Business Research*, 49 (2), 139-147.
- Yoo, Changjo, Park, Jonghee, and MacInnis, Deborah J. (1998). "Effects of store characteristics and in-store emotional experiences on store attitude," *Journal of Business Research*, 42 (3), 253-263.

Zemke, Dina Marie V. and Shoemaker, Stowe (2007). "Scent across a crowded room: Exploring the effect of ambient scent on social interactions," *Hospitality Management*, 26 (4), 927-940.

Appendix A: Table of Studies Related to Retail Salespeople

Kim, Ju, & Johnson	2009	Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services	Sales Associate's Appearance: Links to Consumers' Emotions, Store Image, and Purchases	S-O-R paradigm	Qualitative study of how salesperson appearance impacts consumer emotions, thoughts about the store image, and purchases. Findings show that it is important for the salesperson to look professional. Also, a fit between the salesperson clothes and the store's merchandise is important.
Guenzi, Johnson, & Cataido	2009	Journal of Service Management	A Comprehensive Model of Customer Trust in Two Retail Stores	--	Salesperson trustworthiness leads to trust in salesperson, which leads to overall store trust, which predicts perceived value and loyalty intentions.
Ponder, Lueg, & Williams	2006	Marketing Management Journal	Salesperson Assistance Versus Self-service in Retailing: Are They Both a Matter of Convenience	Risk-taking theory	Qualitative study using critical incident technique. Findings show that convenience is either a motivation or benefit for both salesperson assistance and self-service. Motivations, benefits, and drawbacks are presented for each style. Relevant to this study, some benefits of salesperson assistance are that they are helpful, knowledgeable, and friendly. A drawback is that they are sometimes pushy and apply pressure.

Darian, Wiman, & Tucci	2004	Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services	Retail Patronage Intentions: The Relative Importance of Perceived Prices and Salesperson Service Attributes	--	Used conjoint analysis to investigate the importance of various salesperson attributes. Findings show that salesperson's respect or the customer and prices compared to competitors was most important, followed by salesperson's friendliness and knowledge, and finally responsiveness.
Lee & Dubinsky	2003	International Journal of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research	Influence of Salesperson Characteristics and Customer Emotion on Retail Dyadic Relationships	Cognitive Structure of Emotions, and Model of Cognitive-Motivational-Emotive System-- both assume that emotional responses are a function of a cognitive appraisal of internal and situational conditions	Conceptual paper, examines salesperson precursors and store consequences of customer emotions. Salesperson attributes, such as trustworthiness, expertise, friendliness, similarity, enthusiasm, and professional appearance encourage customers' positive emotions, ultimately affecting satisfaction and purchase intent

Darian, Tucci & Wiman	2001	International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management	Perceived Salesperson Service Attributes and Retail Patronage Intentions	--	Includes a qualitative study, survey, and a conjoint study. Qualitative results show that some people like and some dislike being greeted on entry. Conjoint analysis shows that people are more likely to patronize a store with higher salesperson availability (greeting immediately).
Babin & Babin	2001	Journal of Business Research	Seeking Something Different? A Model of Schema Typicality Consumer Affect, Purchase Intentions, and Perceived Shopping Value	Categorization (psychology theory)	Examined how salesperson appearance, store location, store name affect consumers' perceived typicality. Salesperson appearance had a significant effect on typicality. In turn, typicality had an indirect effect on patronage intentions, hedonic value, and utilitarian value, through emotions.

Sharma	2001	Journal of Business Research	Consumer Decision-making, Salespeople's Adaptive Selling and Retail Performance	Persuasion Knowledge Model (PKM)- consumers' knowledge contains persuasion elements (topic, persuasion, & agent knowledge Also, Signaling Theory (signaling cues suggests the importance of SP's behavior on consumer persuasion & perceptions of retailer and products	Conceptual paper discusses role of salespeople in consumer decision making & suggests strategies. Salesperson's customer orientation consists of empathy, affect, and availability. Availability is most related to this study, and it is ranked as very important to customers and increases persuasion.
--------	------	------------------------------	---------------------------------------------------------------------------------	----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

Sharma & Stafford	2000	Journal of Business Research	The Effect of Retail Atmospherics on Customers' Perceptions of Salespeople and Customer Persuasion: An Empirical Investigation	Priming Research-- consumer judgments & decisions are influenced by single cues AND combinations of related cues.... Source credibility	Perceptions of salespeople and persuasion are impacted by atmospheric variables. Experiment manipulated prestige vs. discount ambiance and salesperson availability- Salespeople at prestige store have higher credibility & persuasion. For Prestige ambiance stores- reduction in number of retail salespeople does not affect buying intent. For Discount ambiance stores- increase in number of salespeople sig increases buying intentions.
Naylor & Frank	2000	Journal of Services Marketing	The Impact of Retail Sales Force Responsiveness on Consumers' Perceptions of Value	--	3 (responsiveness: noncontact, customer-initiated contact, salesperson initiated contact) X 2 (value measures: benefits given costs, overall value compared to other retailers. Also looks at service failure. Lowest perceptions of retail experience and overall value are when there is no contact or when the customer initiated contact. Highest perceptions are when the salesperson initiated contact.
Keillor, Parker, & Pettijohn	2000	Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing	Relationship-Oriented Characteristics and Individual Salesperson Performance	selling orientation- customer orientation	Examines individual salespersons' relational selling characteristics and performance. Positive relationship exists between customer orientation and actual performance measured by average annual sales.

Babin, Babin, & Boles	1999	J of Retailing and Consumer Services	The Effects of Consumer Perceptions of the Salesperson, Product, and Dealer on purchase intentions	--	Attitude toward the product had a direct effect on purchase intentions and not on attitude toward the retailer. Relationship between attitude toward salesperson and purchase intentions was mediated by attitude toward the retailer -- suggests that salesperson behavior is CRITICAL for success
Yoo, Park, & MacInnis	1998	Journal of Business Research	Effects of Store Characteristics and In-Store Emotional Experiences on Store Attitude	M-R approach-avoidance	Perceived product assortment & perceived value of the merchandise lead to more positive in-store emotions. There is no relationship between store location and in-store emotions. In-store emotions affect store attitudes. Product assortment, product value, salesperson's service, after sale service, store facilities and store atmosphere exert an indirect effect on store attitudes through their mediational effect on in-store emotions. Location has a direct effect on store attitudes that is independent of in-store emotions.
Goff, Boles, Bellenger, & Stojack	1997	Journal of Retailing	The influence of salesperson selling behaviors on customer satisfaction with products	Selling orientation-customer orientation	SOCO influences customer satisfaction with the salesperson, dealer, product and manufacturer.

Stanforth & Lennon	1997	Clothing and Textiles Research Journal	The Effects of Customer Expectations and Store Policies on Retail Salesperson Service, Satisfaction, and Patronage	--	2X2 experiment. Subjects viewed slides of store interior, listened to tape of salesperson resolving a problem according to store policy. Dependent variables: satisfaction and patronage intent "dissatisfaction with salesperson service may be the result of policies instituted by management which fail to meet customer expectations"
Mittal & Lassar	1996	Journal of Retailing	The Role of Personalization in Service Encounters	--	Personalization, or the social content of interaction between retail salespeople and customers (warm and personal), has a significant influence on customer perceptions of overall service quality and patronage behavior. The influence is greater for person-processing service than for possession-processing service. Further, they create SERVQUAL-P measure that incorporates personalization into SERVQUAL, and performs at least as well, and better in person-processing context.

Beatty, Mayer, Coleman, Reynolds, & Lee	1996	Journal of Retailing	Customer-Sales Associate Retail Relationships	--	Qualitative study of the relationships between retail sales associates and customers. Relationship enhancement model is developed that includes 1) commitment and orientation to customer service by top management and employees, 2) augmented personal service and team playing by employees, 3) repeat customer-employee interactions based on trust, friendship, and functionality, and 4) development of customer loyalty to the sales associate and firm, and employee reinforcement and loyalty to the company and customer.
-----------------------------------------	------	----------------------	-----------------------------------------------	----	-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

Sharma & Levy	1995	Journal of Retailing	Categorization of Customers by Retail Salespeople	Categorization (psychology theory)	Examines retail salespeople's categorization of customers and then examines differences among salespeople based on the manner in which they classify the customers. The main two categories of customers are those who need sales assistance and those who are looking for specific products. There were three clusters of salespeople, need based categorizers, decision styles categorizers, and training based categorizers. The need based categorizers have the best performance, but decision styles based categorizers had the highest adaptive selling.
Gagliano & Hathcote	1994	Journal of Services Marketing	Customer Expectations and Perceptions of Service Quality in Retail Apparel Specialty Stores	--	Factor analyzed SERVQUAL to come up with 4 dimensions (personal attention, reliability, tangibles, & convenience), found race differences for convenience, and marital and income differences for reliability

Williams & Spiro	1985	Journal of Marketing Research	Communication Style in the Salesperson-Customer Dyad	Sheth's Communication Paradigm aka model of buyer-seller interaction (task-oriented, interaction oriented, self oriented	Tested communication styles of salespeople & customers. Found that the customer's (C) communication style explains more variance in sales than salesperson (SP), or SP&C combined. In C model, task and interactive styles lead to sales. In SP model, self oriented hinders sales. In SP&C model, combination of both interactive SP and C leads to sales.
Solomon, Surprenant, Czepiel, & Gutman	1985	Journal of Marketing	A Role Theory Perspective on Dyadic Interactions: The Service Encounter	Role theory	Extends role theory into marketing to develop a framework and propositions regarding the dyadic interactions between customers and service providers, which are an important determinant of customer global satisfaction with service.
Westbrook	1981	Journal of Retailing	Sources of Consumer Satisfaction with Retail Outlets	Institutional Model of Store Satisfaction (Maddox 1977)	Examines the components of overall retail satisfaction. OF several factors, satisfaction with the salesperson had the greatest impact on overall retail satisfaction. The salesperson satisfaction factor was composed of) helpfulness of salespeople, 2) friendliness, 3) number of employees, and 4) politeness

Weitz	1981	Journal of Marketing	Effectiveness in Sales Interactions: A Contingency Framework	contingency theories	Qualitatively develops a contingency model of salesperson effectiveness. The relationship between selling behavior and salesperson effectiveness is moderated by characteristics of the salesperson-customer relationship, resources of the salesperson, and characteristics of the customer's buying task. Related to this study, one of the dimensions of sales behavior is controlling the interaction, which is closely related to dominance-submissiveness.
-------	------	----------------------	--------------------------------------------------------------	----------------------	------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

Appendix B: Table of Studies Related to Atmospherics

Author	Year	Journal	Title	Theory	Study/Findings
Pan & Siemens	2010	Journal of Business Research	The Differential Effects of Retail Density: An Investigation of Good versus Service Settings	Manning Theory (ecological psychology)	In goods setting, there is an inverted U relationship of retail density on store attitudes and behavioral intentions. In service setting, the relationship between retail crowding and outcome variables is linear, except in conditions of time pressure. In service setting, subjects have more favorable attitudes and expect to pay more for a service as the level of crowding increases.
Cornelius, Natter, & Faure	2010	Journal of Retailing and consumer Sciences	How Storefront Displays Influence Retail Store Image	Information Integration Theory	Examines 4 types of storefront displays' impact on store image and spillover effects, more innovative displays are associated with better image. Spillover effects exist only in a positive sense, negative impressions of storefront displays do not transfer to the store.
Ray & Chiagouris	2009	Journal of Strategic Marketing	Customer Retention: Examining the Roles of Store Affect and Store Loyalty as Mediators in the Management of Retail Strategies	"environmental and cognitive psychology"	Among several supported hypotheses, store atmosphere and store familiarity impact store affect, and indirectly store loyalty, word-of-mouth, willingness to pay, and customer share.

Puccinelli, Goodstein, Grewal Price, Raghubir, & Stewart	2009	Journal of Retailing	Customer Experience Management in Retailing: Understanding the Buying Process	--	Reviews consumer behavior literature and relates different areas (of which atmospherics is one) to different stages of the consumer decision process. Suggests future research.
Mattila & Wirtz	2008	Journal of Services Marketing	The Role of Store Environmental Stimulation and Social Factors on Impulse Purchasing	M-R approach-avoidance	Field study in Singapore. Perceived overstimulation has a positive impact on impulse buying. The interaction term between perceived crowding and employee friendliness, and frequency of store visits also had a significant impact on impulse buying. Store type had no effect.
Michon & Chebat	2008	Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice	Breaking Open the Consumer Behavior Black Box: SEM and Retail Atmospheric Manipulations	--	Shows how SEM is useful for experimental designs in atmospherics
Ezeh & Harris	2007	The Marketing Review	Servicescape Research: a review and research agenda	M-R approach-avoidance, plus Bitner (1992) servicescape model	Provides a review of servicescape (atmospheric) research and outlines several gaps

Hedrick, Oppewal, & Beverland	2007	Proceedings of Association for Consumer Research-extended abstract	Store Atmosphere Effects on Customer Perceptions of the Retail Sales Person	Expectancy Disconfirmation Theory (although not explicit)	DV- patronage intentions, 2 (merchandise categories) X 2 (store atmosphere levels) X3 (sales person interactions), scenarios. Store atmosphere has a significant impact on customer expectations of the retail salesperson. Also, there are significant differences in high and low level retail salesperson. "Found the retail salesperson to be the dominant variable influencing consumer behavior"
Hu and Jasper	2007	Journal of Business Research	A Cross-Cultural Examination of the Effects of Social Perception Styles on Store Image Formation	Meaning Movement Theory and Social Influence Theory, Cross-cultural Conformity Theory	Chinese students were more significantly affected by the social cues in a store environment scenario than US students. Chinese women (not US) formed a favorable impression of a store with low social orientation. In their scenarios- the 'service' manipulation includes salesperson greeting the customer upon entry.
Zemke & Shoemaker	2007	Hospitality Management	Scent across a crowded room: Exploring the effect of ambient scent on social interactions	M-R approach-avoidance	Pleasing scent increases social interaction (but not affiliation).
Jiang & Wang	2006	Journal of Services Marketing	The Impact of Affect of Service Quality and Satisfaction: The Moderation of Service Contexts	Expectancy Disconfirmation Theory	Pleasure and arousal have a stronger influence on perceived service quality and satisfaction in a hedonic service context than in a utilitarian service context.

Hu and Jasper	2006	International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management	Social Cues in the Store Environment and their Impact on Store Image	Meaning Movement Theory and Social Influence Theory	Consumers have a more favorable attitude toward merchandise and service quality and felt more aroused and pleased with the store when more social cues were present and when there is high-personalized service. Customers are more likely to shop in a store that had more in-store displays of graphics with social meaning.
Bailey and Areni	2006	Journal of Retailing	When a Few Minutes Sound Like a Lifetime: Does Atmospheric Music Expand or Contract Perceived Time?	Attentional vs. discrete events models of duration judgments	Exp 1: Estimated time was shorter when familiar music was played for people waiting idly, music had no effect on respondents ended in a memory task. Exp 2: Only when there are a sufficient number of songs, respondents waiting idly report shorter estimates when they hear familiar music, and those in a memory task reported longer estimates for familiar music
Garlin & Owen	2006	Journal of Business Research	Setting the Tone with the Tune: A Meta-Analytic Review of the Effects of Background Music in Retail Settings	M-R approach-avoidance	Meta-analysis of music atmospherics literature. Familiarity/liking has a positive effect on patronage, the presence of music has a positive effect on patronage and felt pleasure, Slower tempo, lower volume and familiar music results in subjects staying marginally longer at a venue than when the tempo or volume are high, or the music less familiar. A higher volume and tempo, and the less like the music, the longer customers perceive time duration. Tempo has the greatest effect on arousal.

Beverland, Lim, Morrison & Terziovski	2006	Journal of Business Research	In-store Music and Consumer–brand Relationships: Relational Transformation following Experiences of (Mis)fit	Expectancy Disconfirmation Theory (although not explicit)	Qualitative study with in-depth interviews. In-store music and brand-fit are examined. The fit is a cue about the brand's position, image, and quality. Misfit results in counterfactual thinking about the brand and could be used as a repositioning strategy
Michon & Chebat	2005	ASAC Conference 2005	Reaching Out for Mall Shoppers: Shopping Value, Mall Atmosphere and Approach Behavior	Environmental psychology theory (M-R approach-avoidance)	Favorable perception of mall environment positively influences hedonic and utilitarian shoppers. A favorable perception of the mall environment moderates the perception of product quality among hedonic and task-oriented shoppers. A favorable perception of product/service quality reinforces shoppers' approach behavior.
Michon, Chebat & Turley	2005	Journal of Business Research	Mall Atmospherics: the Interaction Effects of the Mall Environment on Shopping Behavior	Approach-avoidance, Milgram's system overload theory (for crowding), in discussion-incongruity theory (for interactions)	Examines ambient odor and crowding on product quality perception, interaction effect present.

Morrin & Chebat	2005	Journal of Service Research	Person-place congruency: The interactive effects of shopper style ad atmospherics on Consumer Expenditures	M-R approach-avoidance	Propose a congruency model between impulse buying characteristics and atmospherics (music & scent), 2 (music) X2 (scent) X2 (shopping impulse), DVs- Dollar expenditures, mall attribute evaluations, affective quality of environment, hedonic and utilitarian shopping values, pleasure, arousal. This is an example of multiple environmental cues having an interaction effect as consumers perceive the environment holistically, complexity
Eroglu, Machleit, & Chebat	2005	Psychology & Marketing	The Interaction of Retail Density and Music Tempo: Effects on Shopper Responses	Schema incongruity model	Shopper hedonic and utilitarian evaluations of the shopping experience are highest under conditions of slow music/high density and fast music/low density. Also found main effects of music tempo are found for behavioral responses such as approach-avoidance tendency and the extent of browsing behavior

Hedrick, Beverland, & Oppewal	2004	Proceedings of Australian and New Zealand Marketing Academy	The Impact of Retail Salespeople and Store Atmospherics on Patronage Intentions	Expectancy Disconfirmation Theory (although not explicit)	Made Propositions: 1: Store Atmosphere will have direct positive relationship with Patronage Intent, 2: Retail salesperson's delivery will have a direct positive relationship with patronage intent, 3: Store atmosphere cues will have a direct influence on customer's expectations or retail salesperson's delivery, 4: Retail salesperson's delivery will moderate the relationship between customer expectations of salesperson delivery and patronage intent.
Tombs & McColl-Kennedy	2003	Marketing Theory	Social-Servicescape Conceptual Model	Approach-avoidance theory, behavior setting theory, social facilitation theory, affective events theory, & Bitner's (1992) servicescape model.	Develops new conceptual model focused on the social element of the servicescape, which incorporates purchase occasion, social density, emotions of others, emotional contagion, customer affect, repurchase intentions
El Sayed, Farrag, & Belk	2003	Journal of International Consumer Marketing	The Effects of Physical Surroundings on Egyptian Consumers' Emotional States and Buying Intentions	M-R approach-avoidance	Background music, crowdedness, location, and lights have significant relationships with behavioral intentions. Also, pleasure and arousal affect willingness to buy.

Gilboa & Rafaeli	2003	International Review of Retail Distribution and Consumer Research	Store Environment, Emotions and Approach Behavior: Applying Environmental Aesthetics to Retailing	M-R approach-avoidance	Studied store complexity and order on approach tendencies, mediated by pleasure, arousal, and dominance. Found the three emotional dimensions mediated an inverted relationship between complexity and approach behavior. Order had a positive correlation with approach behavior
Grewal, Baker, Levy, & Voss	2003	Journal of Retailing	The Effects of Wait Expectations and Store Atmosphere Evaluations on Patronage Intentions in Service-Intensive Retail Stores	Inference Theory	Experiment: DVs-store patronage, atmospheric evaluations, wait expectations, IVs-gender, and manipulates the number of visible employees, number of customers, presence of music, Lots of supported hypotheses. Related to this study, the number of visible employees predicts less wait time, which predicts store patronage intentions.
Hoffman & Turley	2002	Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice	Atmospherics, service encounters and consumer decision making: An integrative perspective	S-O-R-environmental psychology (M&R 1974)/ Servuction Model	Merges atmospheric and services literature, makes several propositions. Their model includes contact personnel as part of the environment that impacts customers.

Baker, Parasuraman, Grewal, & Voss	2002	Journal of Marketing	The Influence of Multiple Store Environment Cues on Perceived Merchandise Value and Patronage Intentions	Inference Theory, Schema Theory, and the Theory of Affordances	DV- store patronage intentions, IVs- 3 Store environment factors (ambient, design, & social factors), Mediators-perceptions of service quality, merchandise quality, price, time/effort cost, psychic cost), Focal mediator-merchandise value perceptions, many supported Hypotheses, see figure 2. Store employee perceptions lead to interpersonal service quality, which in turn lead to store patronage intentions.
Turley & Chebat	2002	Journal of Marketing Management	Linking Retail Strategy, Atmospheric Design, and Shopping Behavior	M-R approach-avoidance	Conceptual paper addressing atmospherics from a managerial/strategy approach. Includes a model that includes list of 5 atmospheric design factors (Turley & Milliman) and a list of outcome issues and shopping behavior
Summers & Hebert	2001	Journal of Business Research	Shedding Some Light on Store Atmospherics: Influence of Illumination on Consumer Behavior	M-R approach-avoidance	Experiment, IV- Lighting, DVs- time at display, number of items touched, and number of items picked up. Lighting had effect on number of items touched and picked up.

Machleit, Eroglu, & Mantel	2000	Journal of Consumer Psychology	Perceived Retail Crowding and Shopping Satisfaction: What Modifies This Relationship?	M-R approach-avoidance and Izard (1977) Differential emotions theory	Pleasure is negatively correlated with human crowding and spatial crowding. Arousal is negatively correlated with spatial crowding. Several Izard dimensions were also significant. Decrease in shopping satisfaction due to crowding is partially mediated by emotions, and moderated by expectations of crowding and personal tolerance for crowding. This varies by store type.
Yalch & Spangenberg	2000	Journal of Business Research	The Effects of Music in a Retail Setting on Real and Perceived Shopping Times	M-R approach-avoidance	Experiment showed that perceived shopping time was longer when subjects were exposed to familiar music, but actually shopped longer when exposed to unfamiliar music. Shorter actual shopping times in the familiar music condition were related to increased arousal.
Turley & Milliman	2000	Journal of Business Research	Atmospheric Effects on Shopping Behavior: A Review of the Experimental Evidence	Discusses stimulus-organism response paradigm & approach vs. avoidance behavior. Uses Berman & Evans' categorization of atmospheric variables	Berman & Evans' 4 atmospheric variable broad categories are: external variables, general interior, layout and design, point-of purchase and decoration. They add a 5th: human variables (<i>employee characteristics</i> , employee uniforms, crowding, customer characteristics, & <i>privacy</i>). Reviews the literature in each category and points out remaining gaps.

Chebat & Dube	2000	Journal of Business Research	Evolution and Challenges Facing Retail Atmospherics: The Apprentice Sorcerer is Dying	--	Intro for special issue on Retail Atmospherics, points out the need for research on salespeople in atmospherics and interactions with the environment
Machleit & Eroglu	2000	Journal of Business Research	Describing and Measuring Emotional Response to Shopping Experience	M-R model (approach-avoidance)	Examines emotions in the shopping context. Describe a broad range of emotions that vary depending on the shopping context. Izard and Plutchik measure of emotion perform better than M-R's
Sherman, Mathur, & Smith	1997	Psychology & Marketing	Store Environment and Consumer Purchase Behavior: Mediating Role of Consumer Emotions	M-R approach-avoidance	Cross-sectional field study used social, image, design, and ambience dimensions of store environment. Found that pleasure relates to amount of money spent and affinity for the store, arousal relates to money spent in the store time spent in the store, and number of items purchased in the store.
Spangenberg, Crowley, & Henderson	1996	Journal of Marketing	Improving The Store Environment: Do Olfactory Cues Affect Evaluations and Behaviors	M-R approach-avoidance	Findings show that scent produces positive differences in store, store environment, and merchandise evaluations for several products.

Donovan, Rossiter, Marcoolyn, & Nesdale	1994	Journal of Retailing	Store Atmosphere and Purchasing Behavior	M-R approach-avoidance	Extends Donovan and Rossiter (1982) by using a broader sample of non-student shoppers, measures emotions during the shopping experience, and records the effects on actual shopping behavior. Pleasure predicts extra time spent in the store and actual incremental spending. Mixed results for arousal.
Baker, Grewal, & Parasuraman	1994	Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science	The Influence of Store on Quality Inferences and Store Image	Inference making - alludes to but does not name inference theory	Hypothesized that three store environment factors (ambient, design, and social factors ~ each prestige or discount) predicts merchandise and service quality, which predict store image, but design factors were not significant. For the social factor- merchandise quality (supp), service quality (marginal support). One-third part of the social manipulation includes greeting by salesperson
Baker, Levy, & Grewal	1992	Journal of Retailing	An Experimental Approach to Making Retail Store Environmental Decisions	M-R approach-avoidance	Experiment with 2X2 design, IVs-Ambient and Social Factors, DVs- Arousal, Pleasure, Willingness to buy. Found some main effects, interaction between ambient and social factors, and that arousal and pleasure are partial mediators of willingness to buy. Social factors predict arousal, social factors predict pleasure in the low ambient condition. Also, social factor was manipulated with multiple salespeople, wearing aprons, and a greeting on entry.

Bitner	1992	Journal of Marketing	Servicescapes: The Impact of Physical Surroundings on Customers and Employees	M-R approach-avoidance	Develops a conceptual model, based on Approach-Avoidance, incorporates three main environmental dimensions, moderators, internal responses, and behaviors for employees and customers
Hui & Bateson	1991	Journal of Consumer Research	Perceived control and the effects of crowding and consumer choice on the service experience	M-R approach-avoidance	Perceived control mediates the effects of consumer density and consumer choice on the pleasantness of the service experience and approach-avoidance behaviors.
Ridgeway, Dawson, & Bloch	1990	Marketing Letters	Pleasure and Arousal in the Marketplace: Interpersonal Differences in Approach-Avoidance Responses	Mehrabian's Environmental Response Theory (M-R approach-avoidance)	Consumers' pleasure and arousal response to an environment is instrumental in patronage behaviors and attitudes.
Feinberg, Sheffler, Meoli, & Rummel	1989	Journal of Business and Psychology	There's Something Social Happening at the Mall	Tauber's psychological motives for shopping-- one is social	3 studies: 1: people go to the mall because it supports social interaction, 2: social behavior at the mall is more similar to a farmer's market than an impersonal supermarket, 3: Image of a mall is more social than a downtown shopping area- same for a store located in either place

Biggers & Rankis	1983	Social Behavior and Personality	Dominance-submissiveness as and Effective Response to Situations and as a Predictor of Approach-Avoidance	M-R approach-avoidance	Dominance is a more important emotional response for approach-avoidance behavior than previously believed.
Donovan & Rossiter	1982	Journal of Retailing	Store Atmosphere: An Environmental Psychology Approach	M-R approach-avoidance	Adapts M-R model to Retail, focuses on pleasure and arousal, outlines four main propositions for retail contexts.
Stokols	1972	Psychological Review	On the Distinction between Density and Crowding	--	Conceptual paper draws a distinction between density and crowding. Density is a physical condition defined in terms of spatial parameters. The experience of crowding is a motivational state aroused through the interaction of spatial, social, and personal factors directed toward the alleviation of perceived spatial restriction.