

**Explaining the Experiential Consumption of
Special Event Entertainment
in Shopping Centres**

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Abstract

Shopping centre managers often use special event entertainment to create emotionally-based experiences for their patrons and, in turn, to entice them to engage in positive behaviours (e.g. longer duration of stay, more spending, willingness to spread positive word-of-mouth to others and repatronage intention). Special event entertainment refers to the range of special events convened by a shopping centre on a seasonal, temporary and intermittent basis. Moreover, special event entertainment is also typically offered free of charge to consumers. Due to these unique characteristics, the consumption experience of special event entertainment is deemed as low (enduring) involvement in nature. Popular examples of special event entertainment include school holiday events, fashion events, celebrity appearances, and market days.

Despite the common use of special event entertainment by shopping centre managers, little research in experiential consumption literature has paid attention to consumers' experiences with special event entertainment convened by shopping centres. Consequently, we have scant knowledge of what factors are important in explaining consumers' experiences with these entertainment events staged by shopping centres. The acquirement of this knowledge can facilitate shopping centre managers in planning, communicating and executing their marketing strategies of special events and, in turn, in fostering shoppers' approach behaviours. For this reason, this research program attempts to fill this knowledge gap relating to consumers' experiences with special event entertainment in the existing experiential consumption literature. In particular, this research program seeks to determine: i) the key factors that are important in explaining shoppers' experiences with special event entertainment; and ii) the relationships between these key factors in explaining shoppers' experiences with special event entertainment.

The first stage of this research program involved a review of experiential consumption literature, especially, in the domains of shopping centre consumption and event consumption. This research stage aimed to identify possible factors that are meaningful in illuminating consumers' experiences with special event entertainment,

and to develop a preliminary model that illustrates the relationships between these factors. The second stage involved a qualitative study, which was conducted to explore the relevance of and the relationships between the theoretical factors identified from the first stage. The third and final stage comprised mall intercept survey with shopping centre patrons during the occurrence of special events at shopping centres. This stage sought to collect real-time, empirical data to test the validity and reliability of the theoretical factors and the conceptual model hypothesised in stage one.

This research program makes several contributions. It provides an extension to experiential consumption literature that has somewhat neglected consumers' experiences with low (enduring) involvement, seasonal and intermittent special events convened by retail institutions such as shopping centres. It identifies a set of cognitive, emotional, behavioural and personal factors that are meaningful in explaining shoppers' experiences with the special events convened by shopping centres. In terms of marketing practice, this study employs a 'real-time', as opposed to a retrospective, data collection approach when measuring shoppers' experiences with the special events convened by shopping centres. Studies on experiential consumption in the event literature have predominantly relied on a retrospective data collection approach, which often ask attendees or participants to recall and record their experiences in mail survey. This research program seeks to bridge the gap between theory and practice by developing a theoretical model that aims to help retail operators (e.g. shopping centre managers) to understand the strategic roles of special events, especially in creating entertaining and enjoyable experiences for patrons and stimulating approach behaviours (e.g. increased duration of stay and spending).

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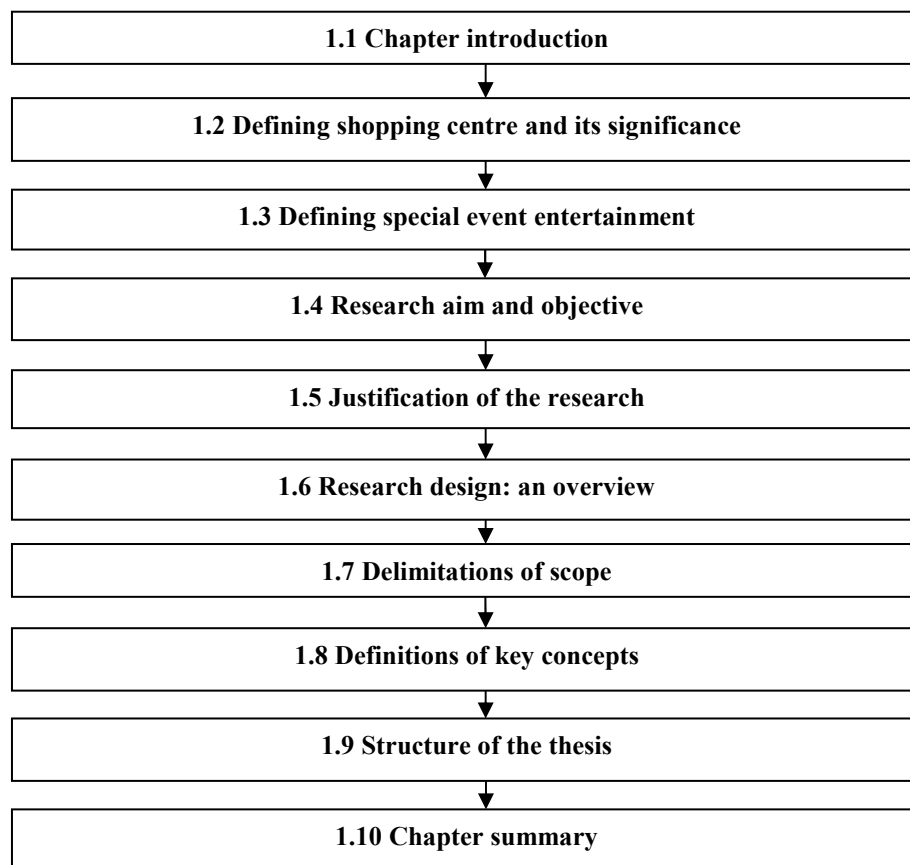
Chapter One

Background of the Research

1.1 Chapter introduction

This chapter provides an overview of this research program which seeks to explain consumers' experiences with special event entertainment convened shopping centres. Accordingly, this chapter begins with an introduction of the concepts of shopping centres and special event entertainment. The connection between shopping centres and special event entertainment is also discussed briefly. Next, this chapter presents the research question and objectives, followed by their rationale. Following, the definitions of some key concepts are presented and the delimitations of scope are clarified. The structure of this thesis is also addressed. Finally, this chapter concludes with a summary. The structure of this chapter is illustrated in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1: Structure of Chapter One



Source: developed for this research

1.2 Defining shopping centre and its significance

A shopping centre is a retail institution that houses a number of anchor stores, specialty stores and retail services in a one-stop location (Bloch, Ridgway, & Dawson, 1994; Kirkup & Rafiq, 1999; Sit, Merrilees, & Birch, 2003a; Tsai, 2010). Anchor stores may include supermarkets, full-line department stores and/or discount department stores. Specialty stores may involve apparel stores, home ware stores, music stores, pharmacies and newsagents. Retail services may include banks, hair salons, dry cleaning services, medical centres, fitness centres, cinemas and fast-food outlets. Despite the different stores and services in one location, a shopping centre is typically managed and marketed as one unified retail property (Bloch, et al., 1994; Kirkup & Rafiq, 1999; Sit, et al., 2003a; Tsai, 2010).

Shopping centres play significant roles in shaping the economy and society of a country like Australia (Raajpoot, Sharma, & Chebat, 2008; SCCA, 2010). For example, in Australia, there are approximately 1338 shopping centres, ranging from large regional shopping centres with more than 100,000 square metres of retail space, to small supermarket-based shopping centres with around 5000 square metres of retail space. Each year shopping centres in Australia generate around \$84 billion in retail sales, employ nearly half a million people, and have an asset value of around \$69 billion (SCCA, 2010).

Besides their importance in shaping our economy, shopping centres also constitute a significant part of our daily lives (Bloch, et al., 1994; Michon, Yu, Smith, & Chebat, 2008; SCCA, 2010; Zhuang, Tsang, Zhou, Li, & Nicholls, 2006). Not only can we, as consumers, acquire various goods and services at a shopping centre, we can also enjoy various social and recreational activities at the shopping centre. These activities can span from meeting up with family or friends, eating out, going to a movie to food shopping, apparel shopping or browsing (Bloch, et al., 1994; Tsai, 2010; Wilhelm & Mottner, 2005).

Shopping centres operate in a highly cut-throat retail environment and this can be attributed to the over-supply of shopping centres (Tsai, 2010), the rapid development of alternative shopping destinations (e.g. factory outlet centres) (Reynolds, Ganesh,

& Lockett, 2002), and the increasing popularity of online shopping channels (e.g. Amazon) (Mathwick, Malhotra, & Rigdon, 2001). To sustain growth and customer loyalty, shopping centres employ various marketing strategies to defend against their competitors and some of these strategies include an extension of the assortment of specialty stores and retail services (Michon, et al., 2008; Teller, 2008; Wakefield & Baker, 1998), the offering of entertainment facilities (e.g. movie theatres, ice-skating and fitness centres) (Kim, Christiansen, Feinberg, & Choi, 2005a; Tsai, 2010), and the staging of special events (e.g. school holiday events, fashion shows and market days) (Close, Krishen, & Latour, 2009; Parsons, 2003). The aim of this research program is to examine the marketing strategy of special events employed by shopping centres, specifically through the theoretical lens of customer experience.

The types of special events convened by shopping centres are deemed to be diverse and it can span from school holiday events, fashion events, celebrity appearances to mini concerts, art and craft exhibits, and market days (Parsons, 2003; Sit, et al., 2003a). All these special events convened by shopping centres are also known as special event entertainment in marketing literature (Sit, et al., 2003a). Using special event entertainment, shopping centres generally seek to create entertaining and enjoyable experiences for their patrons and, in turn, to entice their patrons to visit, visit more often, stay longer and thus spend more (Parsons, 2003; Sit, et al., 2003a). Stated differently, shopping centre managers generally employ special event entertainment to foster their patrons' loyalty. An understanding of the unique characteristics of special event entertainment will enable the researcher to gauge the factors that are potentially important in explaining shoppers' experiences and, thus, the characteristics are addressed next.

1.3 Defining special event entertainment

Special event entertainment involves a range of special events convened by shopping centres, as noted in the previous section. As a form of consumption experience, special event entertainment has four unique characteristics, including that it is: i) a complimentary (free of charge) experience; ii) a transient experience; iii) a staged experience and iv) a collective experience (Haeberle, 2001; Ng, Russell-Bennett, &

Dagger, 2007; Sit, Merrilees, & Grace, 2003b). Each of these characteristics of special event entertainment is now addressed in detail.

Consumers' participation in special event entertainment does not normally require admission fee. Instead, the consumption experience of special event entertainment is typically offered free of charge to shopping centre patrons. Hence, the consumption experience of special event entertainment is considered as a form of complimentary (free of charge) experience (Gentry, 2004; Haeberle, 2001). The consumption experience of special event entertainment is transient because it is typically offered on a seasonal and intermittent basis. Special event entertainment does not constitute a permanent feature of the shopping centre environment (Sit, et al., 2003a). Shopping centres constantly change the nature of special event to correspond to or to promote a particular retail season (Gentry, 2004; Haeberle, 2001). For instance, shopping centres tend to offer children entertainment events during school holiday periods, catwalk shows at the introduction of a new fashion season and Christmas carol during the Christmas season (Haeberle, 2001). Many special events are held for a very short period of time, lasting only hours or days (Haeberle, 2001) with viewing times usually only scheduled on a hourly or half hourly basis (Barbieri, 2005; Haeberle, 2001).

The consumption experience of special event entertainment is staged, as opposed to natural, because it typically involves the use of props (e.g. stage setting, lighting, and sound system) and performers (e.g. costume characters, pop artists, and musicians) (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). The consumption experience of special event entertainment is collective, as opposed to solitary, because it is targeted towards the assembled patrons/audience (Ng, et al., 2007). In other words, the presence of other participants or spectators is important in co-creating the entertainment experience (Ng, et al., 2007).

The marketing significance of special event entertainment is well documented in business trade publications (Barbieri, 2005; Cincotta, 2006; Gentry, 2004; Haeberle, 2001). For instance, Haeberle (2001) reported in the *Chain Store Age* that special event entertainment such as fashion shows, cooking demonstrations and financial seminars were important to 'help to sweeten the bottom line of shopping centres' (p.

128). In other words, special events are important to promote shopper traffic and increase retail sales. Further, Haeberle (2001) explained that consumers not only visited shopping centres for the latest merchandise, but also to have a good time. Hence, special events were generally used in an effort to create ‘good times’ for shoppers. Barbieri (2005) reported in *Amusement Business* that shopping centres need to offer special events in order to deliver unique experiences for their patrons because the competition among shopping centres was becoming intense and aggressive in nature. In the same vein, Cincotta (2006) from *B&T Weekly* accounted that consumers these days wanted to be indulged with personalised, tailored-made merchandise and sensory shopping centre experiences. Special events represent an important marketing strategy to provide entertaining experiences for shopping centre patrons. Wilson (2001) from *Chain Store Age* documented that special events help promote the positioning of shopping centres as being fun and entertaining destinations in the retail market. In summary, many journalists in business trade publications have indicated the importance and effectiveness of special event entertainment in creating pleasurable, fun and entertaining experiences for shopping centre patrons. These experiences can subsequently help entice consumers’ repatronage to shopping centres, encourage their spending, and extend their duration of stay.

Whilst business trade publications (e.g. *Chain Store Age* and *Amusement Business*) have frequently reported the importance of special event entertainment in creating hedonic experiences for shopping centre patrons, marketing journal articles relating to consumers’ experiences with special event entertainment have been scarce. In other words, there is a research gap relating to consumers’ experiences with special event entertainment in marketing literature. For instance, studies in shopping centre literature have largely focused on consumers’ experiences with shopping centre patronage in general (Finn & Louviere, 1996; Gentry & Burns, 1977/78; Raajpoot, et al., 2008; Wakefield & Baker, 1998). Studies in event literature have predominantly focused on consumers’ experiences with *festival events* (Clark, 2009; Derrett, 2003; Kim, Uysal, & Chen, 2002; Lade & Jackson, 2004) and *sporting events* (Greenwell, Lee, & Naeger, 2007; Madrigal, 2003; Meir, 2000). Very few studies have paid attention to consumers’ experiences with events convened by shopping centres, particularly special event entertainment. Hence, there is an urgency for more research

on this area if we seek to understand how special event entertainment can be used to create pleasurable experiences and, in turn, to foster consumers' shopping centre loyalty, as documented in various business trade publications like Chain Store Age and Amusement Business. This research program seeks to shed light on consumers' experiences and behaviours relating to special event entertainment. In the next section, the main aim and objectives of this research program are explained.

1.4 Research aim and objectives

As noted earlier, the main aim of this research program is to explain consumers' experiences with special event entertainment in shopping centres. This study seeks to address the following research question:

'How can the experiential consumption of special event entertainment be explained in a shopping centre setting?'

Two objectives are developed to address the above research question:

1. To determine the key factors that are meaningful in explaining consumers' experiences with special event entertainment;
2. To determine the relationships between the key factors explaining consumers' experiences with special event entertainment.

1.5 Justification of the research

This study will make several contributions to both marketing theory and practice. In terms of marketing theory, this research program will extend our knowledge of experiential consumption in retail settings, particularly in regards to special events staged by shopping centres. This research will investigate the key factors that define consumers' experiences with special event entertainment.

In terms of marketing practice, this study employs a methodology that collects information regarding consumer's experiences at the time of the event rather than collecting information retrospectively. This research aims to bridge the gap between theory and practice by collecting timely data from target consumers in retail settings,

driven by theoretical frameworks to help us understand the strategic potential of special events entertainment in the retail environment.

1.6 Research design: An overview

The research carried out to achieve this objective adopted a three-stage design, which involved collection of both secondary and primary data. The research design draws on the critical realism paradigm, which emphasises the equilibrium of theory building and testing (Healy & Perry, 2000; Perry, 1998; Rao & Perry, 2003). Accordingly, the critical realism paradigm encourages the triangulation of qualitative and quantitative methods to investigate a marketing phenomenon (Healy & Perry, 2000; Perry, 1998). A summary of the research design is presented in Table 1.1. Each stage of the research design will now be discussed in detail.

Table 1.1: Summary of research design

Stage	Method(s)	Data	Sample	Objective
Stage One	Literature review	Secondary	Not applicable	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To review relevant literature to provide the theoretical grounding for this research program and to develop a conceptual model and research hypotheses
Stage Two	In-depth interviews and focus group discussions	Qualitative	Shopping centre marketing managers and shopping centre patrons	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To explore the perspectives of practitioners and end-users of special event entertainments to identify the experiential factors of special event entertainment. Practitioners are represented by shopping centre marketing managers, and end-users are represented by shopping centre patrons. To check the relevance of the conceptual model and research hypotheses developed from Stage One
Stage Three	Mall intercept survey	Quantitative	Shopping centre patrons	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To collect quantitative data to test the conceptual model and research hypotheses

Source: developed for this research

1.6.1 Stage one – literature review

The first phase of this research involved a review of experiential consumption literature to build the theoretical foundation for further studies. The literature review focussed on two specific domains of experiential consumption literature: shopping centres, and events. These two domains of experiential consumption literature were

emphasised because: i) special event entertainment is typically held in the shopping centre setting; and ii) special event entertainment generally consist of intangible events (e.g. school holiday events, fashion events and celebrity appearances) aimed at appealing to consumer's hedonic need for fun and enjoyment. The findings from these two domains of experiential consumption literature provided a crucial starting point to address the research question, which is, '*How can the experiential consumption of special event entertainment be defined and explained in a shopping centre setting?*' Drawn on the findings from experiential consumption literature, a conceptual model was developed together with a series of research hypotheses. The second stage of the research design is addressed next.

1.6.2 Stage two – qualitative research

The objectives for the qualitative phase of this research were : i) to explore the relevance of the key factors identified from the literature review in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment; and ii) to explore the relationships between the key factors that explain consumer experiences with special event entertainment. To achieve these objectives, this qualitative research comprised in-depth interviews with the Marketing Managers of shopping centres and focus group discussions with shopping centre patrons Shopping centre Marketing Managers for their insight as the advocates and instigators of special event entertainment (Haeberle, 2001). Shopping centre patrons were interviewed because they represented the end-users of special event entertainment (Haeberle, 2001). The interviewing of both shopping centre Marketing Managers and patrons enabled the researcher to achieve *perspective triangulation* to address the two objectives mentioned earlier (Patton, 2002). Having described the objectives and method of Stage Two, the objectives and method of Stage Three is explained next.

1.6.3 Stage three – quantitative research

The objective of the quantitative stage of this research was twofold, to: i) test the conceptual model; and ii) test the research hypotheses. This phase of the research represented the major primary data collection opportunity and involved a mall intercept survey with shopping centre patrons who aged 18 years and older who had experienced special event entertainment. A self-administered questionnaire was developed and used to in a mall intercept designed to collect data at the time of a

special event episode. Shopping centre patrons were systematically recruited for the mall intercept survey. The data collected from the mall intercept survey was then used to test the hypotheses proposed, via structural equation modelling (SEM) and other descriptive analyses.

This study adopted a three-stage research design, involving literature review (stage one), qualitative study (stage two) and quantitative study (stage three). The process and findings of each stage will be further discussed in the following chapters (Chapters 2, 3, 4 and 5). The delimitations of scope of this research program are addressed next.

1.7 Delimitations of scope

There are three delimitations to this research program. First, this study is confined to consumers' experiences with special event entertainment convened by shopping centres. This research does not extend to other entertainment events outside the retail environment.

Second, this study mainly focuses on shopping centre patrons that have experienced special event entertainment. The rationale is to capture the authenticity and intensity of shoppers' thoughts, feelings and behaviours relating to the consumption experience. Shopping centre patrons that have not experienced special event entertainment might only speculate (Mandel & Nowlis, 2008), and are therefore not appropriate units of study for this research

This study primarily focuses on adult shoppers, notably those who are aged 18 years and older. This delimitation is drawn on the professional code of the Australia Market and Social Research Society, which states that no child under 14 years can be interviewed without the consent of parent(s) or guardian (AMSRS, 2007). This research program chose to focus on older adolescents, namely 18 years and above, because they represent a prolific shopping centre segment and visit shopping centres frequently (Haytko & Baker, 2004). After clarifying the delimitations of this research program, the definitions of some key concepts are presented next.

1.8 Definitions of key concepts

Four main concepts are frequently stated in this research program, notably experience, experiential consumption, shopping centre and special event entertainment. The definitions of these four concepts are now outlined to minimise confusion:

- *Experience* – consumer response to an object or an event (Demangeot & Broderick, 2006; Hirschman, 1984; Holbrook, Chestnut, Oliva, & Greenleaf, 1984; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982).
- *Experiential consumption* – a theoretical framework that emphasises the examination of consumer cognition, emotion, value and activity related to the consumption of a specific incident/product/service or phenomenon (Holbrook, 1994; Holbrook, et al., 1984; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982).
- *Shopping centre* – a retail institution that offers a wide range of anchor stores, specialty stores and retail services in one-stop location. This retail institution is typically managed and marketed as one unified entity (Levy & Weitz, 1998; Merrilees & Miller, 1996); and
- *Special event entertainment* – a range of entertainment events offered by shopping centres (e.g. school holiday events, fashion events and celebrity appearances). As a retail consumption experience, special event entertainment is typically free of charge, transient, staged and collective in nature (Ng, et al., 2007; Pine & Gilmore, 1998; Sit, et al., 2003a).

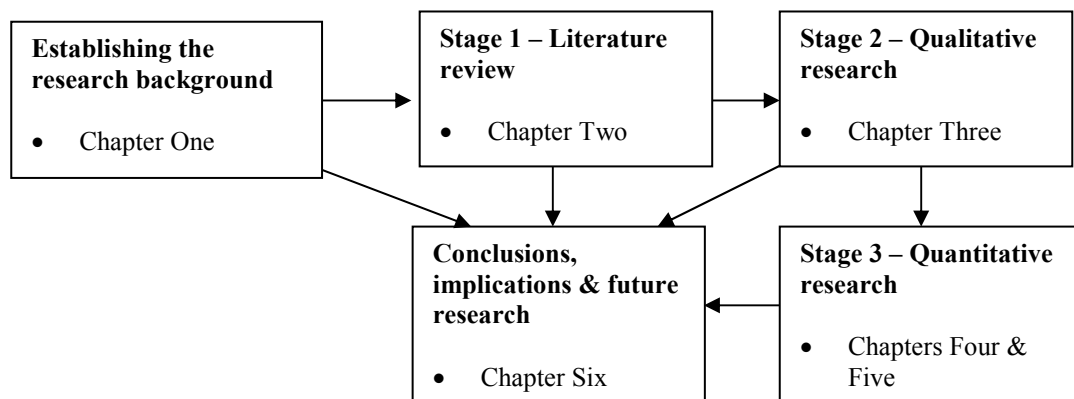
Having defined the key concepts used in this research program, the structure of the thesis is described next.

1.9 Structure of the thesis

This thesis is the culmination of a three-stage research design and is presented in six chapters. Chapter 1, provides the general background of the research program. Chapter 2 focuses on the review of experiential consumption literature, especially the domains of shopping centre experiences and consumption of events marketing. The literature review represents the first stage of the research design. Chapter 3 discusses the methodology and findings of the second stage of the research design. In particular, this stage involves in-depth interviews with shopping centre marketing

managers and focus group discussions with shopping centre patrons. Chapter 4 discusses the methodology of the third and final stage of the research design, namely, a mall intercept survey with shopping centre patrons during special event entertainment that collects quantitative data for analysis and hypothesis testing. Chapter 5 presents the findings of the third and final stage of the research design. In particular, the findings comprise the results from structural equation modelling and other descriptive analyses. Chapter 6 is the final chapter of this thesis and it integrates the results from the three stages (i.e. literature review, qualitative research and quantitative research) and draws conclusions from these results. Chapter 6 also addresses the implications of the results from this study in relation to marketing theory and practice. Some key limitations and directions for future research are also provided in the final chapter. The structure of this thesis is illustrated in Figure 1.2.

Figure 1.2: Structure of this thesis



Source: developed for this research

1.10 Chapter summary

This chapter has addressed the background of the proposed research and provided an overview of the three-stage research design used to address the research question and objectives developed from the literature review. Moreover, this chapter has also clarified the delimitations of scope of this research program and, thus, provided the reader with parameters within which to frame this research. The definitions of key concepts have also been provided to avoid confusion. In the next chapter, the theoretical framework underpinning this research will be presented a review of the literature will establish the theoretical positioning of subsequent empirical investigation.

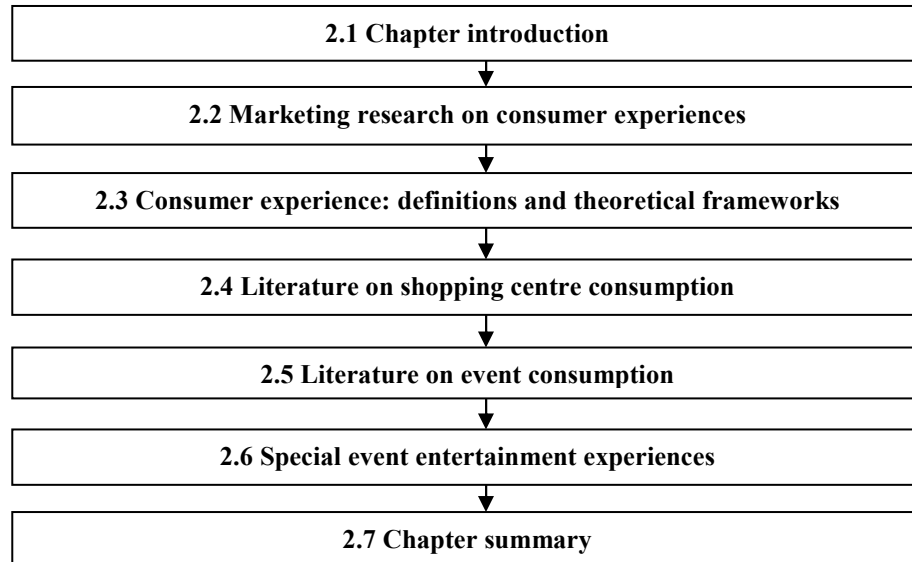
Chapter Two

Review of Literature

2.1 Chapter introduction

This chapter will begin with an overview of marketing literature on consumer experiences (section 2.2). The definitions and theoretical frameworks of consumer experiences will be presented (section 2.3), followed by a discussion of how they can help explain consumer experiences with special event entertainment. Subsequently, a set of tentative factors that are meaningful in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment will be discussed (sections 2.4 and 2.5). These factors are derived from a review of the shopping centre consumption and event consumption literature. A preliminary model and a set of hypotheses are developed to help explain consumer experiences with special event entertainment (section 2.6). This chapter concludes with a summary of the literature review's findings (section 2.7). Figure 2.1 illustrates the structure of this chapter.

Figure 2.1: Structure of Chapter Two



Source: developed for this research

2.2 Marketing research on consumer experiences

Survival in today's competitive retail environment requires more than just low prices and innovative merchandises. To compete effectively and gain competitive advantage, retail businesses such as shopping centre owners are urged to focus on managing their patrons' experiences (Gentile, Spiller, & Noci, 2007; Grewal, Levy, & Kumar, 2009; Verhoef, Lemon, Parasuraman, Roggeveen, Tsiros, & Schlesinger, 2009). Indeed, in marketing literature, effective management of customer experience is repeatedly suggested to enable a retail business to better capture its patrons' wallets and hearts, namely, customer loyalty (Gentile, et al., 2007; Grewal, et al., 2009; Puccinelli, Goodstein, Grewal, Price, Raghurir, & Stewart, 2009; Verhoef, et al., 2009).

To reinforce the importance of customer experience in retail marketing, *Journal of Retailing* (2009, volume 85, issue 1) has recently published a special issue on customer experience management. In this special issue, renowned scholars such as Grewal et al. (2009), Puccinelli et al. (2009) and Verhoef et al. (2009) have provided comprehensive overviews of a broad range of macro and micro factors that potentially influence the retail customer experience. However, the studies by these scholars consistently share a major limitation. That is, their studies are largely theoretical or conceptual and do not provide empirical evidence on the role and strength of the macro and micro factors that they propose to be important in influencing the retail customer experience. Consequently, the validity and reliability of those macro and micro factors in explaining the retail customer experience remain unknown.

For instance, Grewal et al. (2009) provide a broad overview of various macro factors (e.g. promotion, pricing, merchandising, supply chain management, location, and retail metrics) that potentially influence the customer experience of retail shoppers. Puccinelli et al. (2009) presented an overview of various consumer-behaviour factors that potentially influence and consumers' decision making relative to a retail experience. These consumer-behaviour factors include goals, schema and information processing, memory, involvement, attitudes, affect, attributions and choices. Verhoef et al. (2009) put forward a theoretical discussion on three

environmental factors that supposedly determine the retail customer experience. These three factors are the social environment, self-service technologies, and the store brand. Moreover, Verhoef et al. (2009) also submit four possible factors that constitute the retail customer experience, namely, cognitive, affective, social and physical factors. Nevertheless, Verhoef et al. (2009) neither discuss the distinction between these four factors nor the inter-relationships between these factors in defining the retail customer experience. As stated earlier, whilst the studies by Grewal et al. (2009), Puccinelli et al. (2009) and Verhoef et al. (2009) are highly insightful, their studies fall short in providing the empirical validity and reliability of the macro and micro factors in explaining the retail customer experience. Hence, further research is needed to identify and empirically substantiate the key factors that are meaningful in explaining the customer experience with special event entertainment

Customer experience is not a novel concept and, indeed, marketing literature is replete with studies examining this concept. The contexts of customer experience that have been examined are diverse and can span from:

- entertainment (e.g. music and video games) (Lacher & Mizerski, 1994; Pucely, Mizerski, & Perrewe, 1988);
- tourism and hospitality services (Johns & Gyimothy, 2002; Poria, Butler, & Airey, 2004; Williams & Anderson, 2005);
- extreme sport (e.g. river rafting and skydiving) (Arnould & Price, 1993; Celsi, Rose, & Leigh, 1993); to
- sponsorship (Close, Finney, Lacey, & Sneath, 2006; Close, et al., 2009; Gwinner, 1997; Gwinner & Eaton, 1999);
- shopping centre patronage (Lee & Chung, 2008; Michon, et al., 2008; Tsai, 2010); and
- events (e.g. festival and sporting events) (Close, et al., 2006; Holt, 1995; Lee, Lee, Lee, & Babin, 2008).

These different contexts represent different theoretical domains of marketing literature in which this study can draw upon to explain shoppers' experiences with special event entertainment. However, not all these domains of marketing literature

are applicable in explaining shoppers' experiences with special event entertainment. For instance, marketing literature on entertainment is deemed to be less relevant because studies in this literature domain are found to have primarily focused on tangible, entertainment goods such as *music compact discs* (Lacher, 1989) and *video games* (Holbrook, et al., 1984). Special event entertainment does not contain any tangible goods, but mostly intangible events such as school holiday events, fashion events and market days (Parsons, 2003; Sit, et al., 2003a).

Marketing literature on tourism and hospitality is deemed to be less insightful because studies in this marketing literature have frequently focused on consumer experiences with *boutique accommodation* (McIntosh & Siggs, 2005), *theme parks* (Johns & Gyimothy, 2002) and *heritage sites* (Poria, et al., 2004). These experiences are derived from the consumption of physical places or destinations and not from the consumption of intangible events, which is the case of special event entertainment (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Sirgy & Su, 2000).

Whilst extreme sport can be a form of entertainment, the marketing literature relating to extreme sport is also considered to be less meaningful because studies in this marketing domain have typically concentrated on *base jumping* (Weed, 2009), *skydiving* (Celsi, et al., 1993), and *white-water rafting* (Arnould & Price, 1993). These extreme sport activities typically involve high level of risk and high costs. Hence, consumers are likely to undertake extensive planning and information search before committing themselves to such activities (Arnould & Price, 1993; Celsi, et al., 1993; Weed, 2009). For these reasons, consumers' experiences with extreme sport activities are considered as high involvement in nature. On the contrary, consumers' experiences with special event entertainment are deemed to be low involvement because the consumption process involves low level of risk and low cost. In terms of low risk, the consumption of special event entertainment does not require extreme physical actions or spectacular stunts that can jeopardise the safety of shopping centre patrons (Haeberle, 2001). In regards to low cost, the consumption of special event entertainment does not require any payment of admission fee from shopping centre patrons. Instead, special event entertainment is typically offered free of charge to consumers by shopping centre managers (Gentry, 2004). Given their distinct levels of experiential involvement, the factors that are relevant in explaining consumer

experiences with extreme sport activities are unlikely to be relevant in explaining shoppers' experiences with special event entertainment. Studies in the sponsorship literature (Close, et al., 2006; Close, et al., 2009; Gwinner, 1997; Gwinner & Eaton, 1999) are also deemed as less insightful because this study does not seek to examine the application of event-brand fit and image transfer in fostering consumers' brand loyalty.

After sifting through several domains of marketing literature, two domains were identified to be particularly relevant for this research program: shopping centre marketing; and event marketing. In the shopping centre marketing literature, studies on experiential consumption have commonly focused on consumers' experiences with *shopping* (Finn & Louviere, 1996; Gentry & Burns, 1977/78; Raajpoot, et al., 2008; Wakefield & Baker, 1998). Some studies have also paid attention to specific shopping activities such as *apparel shopping* (Haytko & Baker, 2004; Taylor & Cosenza, 2002) and *browsing* (Jarboe & McDaniel, 1987; Nicholls, Li, Mandokovic, Roslow, & Kranendonk, 2000). In the event marketing literature, studies on experiential consumption have frequently paid attention to consumers' experiences with *festival events* (Clark, 2009; Derrett, 2003; Kim, et al., 2002; Lade & Jackson, 2004) and *sporting events* (Greenwell, et al., 2007; Madrigal, 2003; Meir, 2000). Examples of festival events include cultural and street festivals (Clark, 2009; Derrett, 2003; Kim, et al., 2002; Lade & Jackson, 2004). Examples of sporting events include minor league of basketball matches and football matches (Greenwell, et al., 2007; Madrigal, 2003; Meir, 2000). There is a gap between the shopping centre and event marketing literature as no study seems to have investigated consumers' experiences with special events staged by shopping centres, namely, special event entertainment.

The lack of research on special event entertainment convened by shopping centres in marketing literature contradicts the marketing significance of special event entertainment reported in business trade publications, as stated in section 1.3. Shopping centre managers frequently stage special events as a strategic endeavour to create novel and entertaining experiences for their patrons and, in turn to entice their patrons to visit more often, to stay longer and to spend more (Parsons, 2003; Stern, 2005; Wilhelm & Mottner, 2005). To sustain a sense of novelty, shopping centre managers stage different special events during different retail periods, for instance,

children's events during school holiday periods, fashion events during new seasons, Christmas carols and taking pictures with Santa around Christmas (Gentry, 2004; Gralla, 1996; Haeberle, 2001; Stern, 2005). Very few studies (Close, et al., 2009; Parsons, 2003; Sands, Oppewal, & Beverland, 2009) in marketing literature have paid attention to special events convened by retailers. Close et al. (2009) examined the effectiveness of the fashion shows sponsored by a department store in evoking shoppers' intent to visit. Since Close et al. (2009) predominantly examined shoppers' cognition (e.g. event-self congruity, event entertainment and event persuasiveness) relating to the fashion shows, their study possesses two key limitations. First, their study neglects the possible importance of emotion in predicting shoppers' intent to visit (Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999). Second, the extent to which the cognitive factors identified by Close et al. (2009) are meaningful in explaining shoppers' experiences with other special events such as market days and school or community displays remains unknown. Third and final, their study did not examine the potential role of personal factors (e.g. shopping orientation) in influencing the effectiveness of the fashion shows convened by the department store.

Parsons (2003) investigated the effectiveness of various promotional events (e.g. sales events, competition or lottery events, fashion shows and market days) in stimulating shoppers' likelihoods to visit and spend. Parsons's (2003) study largely focused on shoppers' behaviours associated with the promotional events and did not examine shoppers' cognition and emotion relating to the promotional events. Both cognition and emotion are useful in gauging what consumers think and how they feel about a special event (Sweeney & Wyber, 2002), and thus they can be meaningful in explaining consumers' subsequent behaviour associated with the special event.

Sands et al. (2009) investigated the effectiveness of various themed events (e.g. entertainment, educational, escapist and aesthetic events) in influencing consumers' store choice decisions. The study by Sands et al. (2009) have two shortcomings. First, Sands et al. (2009) predominantly focused on the presence or absence of themed events in a specialty store and did not examine patrons' experiences with the themed events. Second, Sands et al. (2009) primarily examined consumers' cognition relating to the specialty store which convened the themed events, particularly, their perceptions of store attributes (e.g. friendly customer service, ease of access and

discount level) and shopping value. Sands et al. (2009) did not specifically examine patrons' cognition and emotion relating to the themed events. Drawn on these shortcomings, the key factors that are meaningful in explaining shoppers' experiences with special events remain unidentified in Sands et al.'s (2009) study.

Close et al. (2009), Parsons (2003) and Sands et al. (2009) have made a significant contribution to marketing literature by consistently and empirically demonstrating the effectiveness of special events in influencing consumers' behaviours (e.g. likelihoods to visit and spend). Nevertheless, these studies possess two major limitations, especially in relation to this research program's objectives. That is, none of these studies has clearly identified the factors that are meaningful in explaining shoppers' experiences with special events convened by retailers. Furthermore, none of these studies has examined how various factors intertwine with each other in explaining shoppers' experiences with special events convened by retailers. The answers to these two questions can facilitate retailers such as shopping centre managers in planning, staging and promoting their special events. As an initial attempt to build knowledge on shoppers' experiences with special event entertainment, this research program seeks to review the definitions and theoretical frameworks of customer experience presented in marketing literature. The findings from this review are presented next.

2.3 Consumer experience: theoretical definitions and frameworks

Generally, consumer experience refers to a consumer's responses to a product or a service and these responses can be in the form of cognition, emotion, value and/or behaviour (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Pine & Gilmore, 1998; Schmitt, 1999a). These responses can arise from the direct and/or indirect consumption of a product, a service or an event. In particular, direct consumption relates to actual usage of a product or active participation in an event, where consumers personally affect the performance or event that yields the experience (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). An example of direct consumption provided by Pine and Gilmore (1998) is skiing, which requires consumers' active participation in order to enjoy this sporting experience. In the context of special event entertainment, direct consumption occurs when consumers actively participate in a special event such as competing in a singing contest. Indirect consumption relates to visual appreciation of a product or passive participation in an

event, where consumers do not directly affect or influence the performance (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). An example of indirect consumption provided by Pine and Gilmore (1998) is attending a symphony in which consumers enjoy the event as pure observers or listeners. In the context of special event entertainment, indirect consumption arises when consumers passively enjoy a special event such as watching a singing contest, instead of participating in the singing contest. To identify the potential factors that are relevant in explaining consumers' experiences with special event entertainment, three definitions of consumer experience presented in marketing literature are now reviewed and discussed.

Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) define consumer experience as '*a steady flow of fantasies, feelings and fun*' (p. 132). This definition suggests three possible categories of consumer responses to a product or an event. First, fantasies represent the cognitive responses to a product because fantasies tend to involve imagination, visualisation and daydreaming (Holak & Havlena, 1998). Second, feelings characterise the emotive responses to a product or an event such as enjoyment (Bagozzi, et al., 1999) and excitement (Wakefield & Baker, 1998). Finally, fun seems to epitomise the value responses to a product. That is, the extent to which consumers evaluate an experience offers fun value (Holbrook, 1994). These three categories of responses can provide a starting point for explaining consumers' experiences with special event entertainment convened by shopping centres. The special event of taking picture with Santa is provided to illustrate the potential relevance of these three response categories. For instance, taking picture with Santa provides children, as well as adults, an opportunity to fulfil their fantasies of meeting Santa Clause and to convey their wishes for desired presents on Christmas (McKechnie & Tynan, 2006). The fulfilment of these fantasies may, in turn, evoke positive feelings such as joy and happiness in children and adults. When these positive feelings are experienced, shoppers are anticipated to express positive value of the special event. That is, shoppers like parents are likely to evaluate the special event as fun and worthwhile if their children experience joy and happiness with the event.

Whilst fantasies, feelings and fun can be relevant in explaining consumers' responses to special event entertainment, there is a limitation to Holbrook and Hirschman's

(1982) definition. That is, it seems to have neglected the importance of behavioural responses to a product or an event. In the context of special event entertainment, behaviour is an important factor constitute consumer experience because it represents a desirable outcome that shopping centre managers seek to achieve (Kim, et al., 2005a; Parsons, 2003). That is, using special events such as school holiday events, shopping centre managers typically seek to encourage family shoppers with young children to visit, visit more often, stay longer and spend more at their shopping precincts (Kim, et al., 2005a; Parsons, 2003).

Similar to Holbrook and Hirschman (1982), Pine and Gilmore (1999) also support the importance of different responses in defining consumer experience. In particular, Pine and Gilmore (1999) describe experiences as '*events that engage an individual on an emotional, physical, intellectual, or even spiritual level*' (p. 12). Pine and Gilmore's definition suggests four categories of responses, namely, emotional responses, physical responses, intellectual responses, and spiritual responses. Of these four types of responses, only emotional and physical responses are deemed to be in explaining consumers' experiences with special event entertainment. Emotional responses are relevant in the special event entertainment context because they signify whether consumers have positive or negative experiences with special event entertainment. For instance, if consumers experience joy and happiness with a special event (e.g. taking picture with Santa), a logical assumption can be made that consumers have positive experiences with the event (Dalakas, 2005).

Physical or behavioural responses are relevant to the special event entertainment because they represent a key outcome that shopping centre managers seek to achieve when staging a special event (Parsons, 2003). Examples of physical or behavioural responses that shopping centre managers seek from their patrons include longer duration of stay, increased spending, and conveying the experience to others (Parsons, 2003).

Unlike emotional and physical responses, intellectual and spiritual responses suggested in Pine and Gilmore's definition are considered as less relevant in explaining consumers' experiences with special event entertainment. Intellectual responses generally suggest high-involvement, cognitive processing (i.e. critical

evaluation) of a product and this may not be the case of special event entertainment. As addressed earlier, because of the low-involvement experiential nature of special event entertainment, consumers are likely to apply less elaborate, cognitive processing of the experience (MacInnis & Park, 1991). Spiritual responses seem to focus on a person's religious beliefs about a product and, thus, they are less relevant to the special event entertainment context. This is because shopping centre managers do not generally use special event entertainment to promote religious beliefs or philosophies, but to create novel and entertaining experiences for their patrons (Kim, et al., 2005a; Tsai, 2010).

The third definition of consumer experience reviewed in this research program is by Schmitt (1999b), who conceptualises experiences as *'private events that occur in response to some stimulation...which often results from direct observation and/or participation in events—whether they are real, dreamlike, or virtual'* (p. 60). This definition emphasises consumers' emotional and behavioural responses to a product or an event. In particular, behavioural responses can exist in different forms, let it be, actual (real), fantasised (dreamlike) or online (virtual). As explained in Pine and Gilmore's (1999) definition, both emotional and behavioural responses are equally important in explaining consumers' experiences with special event entertainment. Nevertheless, there is one deficiency in Schmitt's definition. That is, it does not address consumers' cognitive and value responses to a product. Cognitive responses are useful in explaining consumers' experiences with special event entertainment because they reveal the functional, objective attributes that shoppers emphasise in the consumption of a special event (Darden & Babin, 1994). Value responses are relevant in explaining consumers' experiences with special event entertainment because they signify the benefits that shoppers attain in the consumption of a special event (Mathwick, et al., 2001).

Despite their minor deficiencies, the definitions by Holbrook and Hirschman (1982), Pine and Gilmore (1999) and Schmitt (1999b) have consistently suggested that consumers' experiences with special event entertainment can involve at least four types of responses, namely, cognitive responses, emotional responses, value responses, and behavioural responses. To understand the relationships between these four types of responses, three theoretical frameworks of consumer experience will be

reviewed. They are economic framework, environmental psychology framework, and experiential consumption framework. The strengths and weaknesses of each of these theoretical frameworks are discussed next.

Economic framework. The economic framework emphasises the importance of cognition and behaviour in explaining consumer experience. Cognition involves comparing, judging or evaluating an experience, and behaviour involves the approach or avoidance actions associated with an experience (Lofman, 1991). The economic framework suggests that consumers' cognitive appraisal of an experience will directly influence their subsequent behaviours (Howard & Sheth, 1969). In this framework, consumers are conceptualised as rational decision makers that place great emphasis on the tangible and functional features of a product (Howard & Sheth, 1969). The economic framework is particularly relevant in understanding consumers' experiences with durable goods (e.g. soft drinks, toothpastes and notebook computers) because these goods are largely purchased or consumed for tangible and functional benefits (e.g. calories, fluoride and portability respectively) (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982).

Nevertheless, there is a major flaw to the economic framework. That is, it does not take into account of the importance of other response components such as emotion and value in understanding consumer experience. These response components are consistently emphasised by Holbrook and Hirschman (1982), Pine and Gilmore (1999), and Schmitt (1999b), as discussed earlier. In the context of special event entertainment, cognition and behaviour will not suffice in explaining consumer experience. Cognition will enable a researcher to gauge shoppers' cognitive evaluation of a special event in terms of its tangible and functional cues (e.g. stage decoration, sound system, and performers' costumes) (Chebat & Michon, 2003; Sweeney & Wyber, 2002). Behaviour will enable the researcher to gauge the actions that shoppers undertake during or after the consumption of the special event (Chebat & Michon, 2003; Sweeney & Wyber, 2002).

However, both cognition and behaviour will not capture the emotion and value judgment that shoppers experience during the consumption of special event entertainment. Using special event entertainment, shopping centre managers seek to

create hedonic experiences for their patrons, and hedonism has been reported to be associated with emotion (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). Like any other event experiences (Bowen & Daniels, 2004), shoppers tend to only participate in special event entertainment they perceive to be valuable or beneficial to them (Ward & Hill, 1991). Hence, shoppers' judgment of the experiential value of a special event is likely to influence their behaviours during or after the event. Given its lack of attention to emotion and value, the economic framework is consequently considered as less comprehensive in explaining consumers' experiences with special event entertainment. In the next section, the environmental psychology framework is discussed.

Environmental psychology framework. Environmental psychology framework focuses on consumers' experiences within manmade, physical environment such as office environments (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). The environmental psychology framework, developed by Mehrabian and Russell (1974; 1976), suggests that a consumer's cognition about a physical environment will influence his or her emotional responses to the environment which, in turn, will impact upon subsequent behavioural responses to that environment. In other words, cognition will have a direct effect on emotion and an indirect effect on behaviour (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). This linear relationship between cognition, emotion and behaviour emphasised in the environmental psychology framework has been confirmed by studies in several experiential contexts, spanning from department stores, online stores and shopping centres to festival and sporting events (Bava, Jaeger, & Dawson, 2009; Eroglu, Machleit, & Davis, 2001; Hightower, Brady, & Baker, 2002; Lee, et al., 2008; McGoldrick & Pieros, 1998; Uhrich & Benkenstein, 2010).

For instance, Bava, Jaeger and Dawson (2009) examined shoppers' experiences with supermarkets and their findings revealed that shoppers' perceptions of environmental cues (e.g. lighting, layout and product quality) significantly influenced their purchase decisions. Eroglu, Machleit and Davis (2003) investigated users' experiences with an online apparel store and their findings showed that users' perceptions of website atmospherics (e.g. company description, design options, monthly specials and customer feedback form) had major effects on their pleasure and arousal and, in turn, their shopping behaviours. McGoldrick and Pieros (1998) focused on patrons'

experiences with shopping centres, and their study revealed that patrons' cognitive evaluation of the shopping centre environment, in terms of novelty, complexity and spaciousness, significantly affected their perceived level of pleasure with the shopping centre environment. Beyond these retail settings, the environmental psychology framework has also been frequently used by studies in examining the effects of the physical environment of events on consumer experience.

For instance, Lee *et al.* (2008) examined visitors' experiences with a cultural festival, and reported that visitors' cognitive assessment of the 'festivalscapes' significantly influenced their positive and negative emotions with the festival, and in turn, significantly determined their loyalty behaviours (e.g. spread of positive word-of-mouth and revisit intention). The 'festivalscapes' were measured by a range of environmental factors such as convenience, staff, information, program content, facility, souvenirs, and food.

Uhrich and Benkenstein (2010) investigated spectators' experiences with live team sports and found that if the spectators expressed positive perceptions of the sport stadium atmosphere, the spectators were likely to experience high levels of pleasure and arousal. Unlike the study by Lee *et al.* (2008), Uhrich and Benkenstein's (2010) study falls short of one key aspect. That is, they do not explore the relationship between emotion (the pleasure and arousal experienced by the sport spectators) and behaviour (the subsequent behaviours that the sport spectators have engaged in).

In brief, these various studies on consumers' experiences with department stores, online stores, shopping centres, sporting events, and festival events have consistently supported the linear relationship between cognition, emotion, and behaviour emphasised by the environmental psychology framework (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974).

The economic and environmental psychology frameworks of consumer experience share two similarities. First, both theoretical frameworks emphasise the importance of cognition in shaping consumer experience. In the economic framework, the focus of consumer cognition lies on perceived functional, objective features of a product (e.g. packaging and price) (Howard & Sheth, 1969). In the environmental

psychology framework, the focus of consumer cognition lies on perceived atmospherics of a physical or theatrical environment (e.g. layout and design) (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Second, both the economic and environmental psychology frameworks emphasise behaviour as the final outcome of consumer experience. In the economic framework, the emphasis of behaviour seems to lie on buying decisions (Howard & Sheth, 1969). In the environmental psychology framework, the emphasis of behaviour lies on approach and/or avoidance actions such as desires to stay in or get out of the environment, willingness or unwillingness to explore the environment, and willingness or unwillingness to engage with others in the environment (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974).

Despite their similarities, the economic and environmental psychology frameworks are different in terms of one key area, namely, emotion. The economic framework does not take into account the importance of emotion in shaping consumer experience, and particularly its mediating effect on the relationship between cognition and behaviour (Howard & Sheth, 1969; Lofman, 1991). On the contrary, whilst the environmental psychology framework supports the relationship between cognition and behaviour, it asserts that this relationship is not direct. Instead, this relationship will be fully mediated by emotion (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974).

Given the hedonic nature of special event entertainment (as discussed in section 2.3), emotion is considered as a key factor in explaining consumers' experiences in this context. Emotion will enable this research program to gauge shoppers' subjective positive or negative feelings evoked by a special event, and the extent to which these feelings may persuade or dissuade their approach behaviours such as increased duration of stay and increased spending (Bagozzi, et al., 1999). For this reason, the environmental psychology framework is deemed to be more meaningful in explaining consumers' experiences with special event entertainment as compared to the economic framework. Having considered the economic and environmental psychology frameworks, the experiential consumption framework is examined next.

Experiential consumption framework. Experiential consumption framework is another theoretical framework that is commonly used to examine consumer

experience in marketing literature (Carù & Cova, 2003; Hackley & Tiwsakul, 2006; Hirschman & Holbrook, 1986; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Holbrook, 2006; Lofman, 1991). In particular, the experiential consumption framework proposes four factors that are essential in defining consumer experience, namely, cognition, emotion, value, and behaviour. Moreover, the experiential consumption framework also proposes that the importance of environmental factors (e.g. presence of friends, family member, salespeople, commercial advertisements) and personal factors (e.g. motives and desires) in influencing consumer interpretation of an experience.

In comparison to the economic and environmental psychology frameworks discussed earlier, the experiential consumption framework is considered as more comprehensive in explaining consumer experience (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1986). Not only does the experiential consumption framework give emphasis to cognition, emotion, and behaviour, it also highlights the importance of value, and personal and environmental factors in explaining consumer experience (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1986; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982).

The experiential consumption framework was introduced by Hirschman and Holbrook in the early 1980s (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). This theoretical framework has existed for almost 30 years and, yet, very few studies (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Lofman, 1991) have empirically applied this framework in explaining consumer experience. With the exception of Lofman's (1991) study, other studies (Carù & Cova, 2003; Hackley & Tiwsakul, 2006) that have largely provided conceptual or ideological discussion on the experiential consumption framework.

Using Holbrook and Hirschman's (1982) framework, Lofman (1991) investigated consumer experience with a wide range of tangible goods (e.g. appliance/automobile, cassette/compact disc, clothing etc) and intangible services (the types of services were not specified). Lofman (1991) surveyed 104 undergraduate students with an open-ended questionnaire at a university. Lofman (1991) identified cognition, emotion, value and behaviour as the four factors that were important in understanding consumer experiences. Nevertheless, Lofman's study possesses several limitations: i) it does not examine the structural relationships among cognition, emotion, value and behaviour; ii) it relies on retrospective or past

experiences; and, more importantly, iii) it does not examine consumer experiences with special events offered by retailers such as special event entertainment by shopping centres. Hence, we have no knowledge or benchmark to determine whether Lofman's findings are applicable to explaining shopping centre patrons' experiences with special event entertainment.

Although their study was conceptual, using the experiential consumption framework, Caru and Cova (2003) have presented an interesting typology of consumer experience. This typology proposes four types of experience, namely, the pre-consumption experience, the purchase experience, the core consumption experience and the nostalgia consumption experience. Moreover, Caru and Cova (2003) also discussed the difference between 'extraordinary' and 'ordinary' experience. This typology is no doubt insightful, but it is deemed to be less relevant for this research program that aims to explain consumers' experiences with special event entertainment convened by shopping centres. In particular, this research program aims to identify the types of factors that are important in explaining shopping centre patrons' experiences with special event entertainment, and not the types of experiences that are associated with special event entertainment.

Whilst it can be interesting to examine the extraordinary and ordinary experiences of special event entertainment, this cannot be achieved without firstly knowing the nature of factors that are essential in explaining shopping centre patrons' experiences with special event entertainment. Another shortfall of Caru and Cova's (2003) study is that it did not address the roles of cognition, emotion, value and behaviour in explaining extraordinary and ordinary experiences. That is, how do cognition, emotion, value, and behaviour intertwine with each other in creating an extraordinary experience as compared to an ordinary experience? Caru and Cova's (2003) study does not specify the nature of the relationships between cognition, emotion, value and behaviour as their study is primarily conceptual.

Besides Caru and Cova (2003), Hackley and Tiwsakul (2006) have also conceptually examined the experiential consumption framework. In particular, Hackley and Tiwsakul applied the experiential consumption framework in explaining the concept of product placement and its possible effects on consumers' evaluation of products

and self-identification. Whilst Hackley and Tiwsakul's (2006) study emphasise the importance of cognition, emotion, value and behaviour in explaining consumer experience, similar to Caru and Cova's (2003) study, it does not empirically test the importance of and relationships between these four factors.

This review has indicated a lack of empirical examination on the structural relationship between cognition, emotion, value and behaviour proposed by the experiential consumption framework. A possible explanation is the lack of clarification on the structural relationships between cognition, emotion, value and behaviour (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1986). That is, the experiential consumption framework has not clearly specified which factors will serve antecedents and which factors will serve as outcomes (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1986). Instead, the experiential consumption framework merely describes the relationships between cognition, emotion, value and behaviour as inter-dependent and overlapping. In particular, the creators of the experiential consumption framework, Hirschman and Holbrook (1986), state that: *'we cannot reduce the consumption experience to any simple linear flow of effects...these variables (cognition, emotion, value and behaviour) interact in a network of interdependencies to form a system of mutual inter-relationships'* (p. 233).

The lack of clarity on the structural relationships among cognition, emotion, value and behaviour in the experiential consumption framework has prompted this research program to extend its review to other literature domains, especially the domains of shopping centre consumption and event consumption. The rationale for choosing these two literature domains has been addressed in section 2.2. Other than understanding the structural relationships among cognition, emotion, value and behaviour, the review also aims to identify other relevant factors in explaining shoppers' experiences with special event entertainment. As noted earlier, the experiential consumption framework suggest the importance of personal and environmental factors in explaining consumer experience (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1986). In the following section, the shopping centre literature relating to consumer experience is examined, followed by the event literature.

2.4 Shopping centre literature on consumer experience

In the shopping centre consumption literature, studies on consumer can be divided into two streams. One stream focuses on consumers' experiences with shopping centre patronage (Finn & Louviere, 1996; Gentry & Burns, 1977/78; Raajpoot, et al., 2008; Wakefield & Baker, 1998), and the other focuses on consumers' experiences with specific shopping activities such as *apparel shopping* (Haytko & Baker, 2004; Taylor & Cosenza, 2002) and *browsing* (Jarboe & McDaniel, 1987; Nicholls, et al., 2000). For instance, Teller, Reutterer and Schnedlitz (2008) examined the existence of utilitarian and hedonic consumer segments relative to shopping centre patronage. Raajpoot et al. (2008) investigated the impact of gender and work status on shopping centre patronage. Stoel, Wickliffe and Lee (2004) explored the effect of mall attribute beliefs on consumers' perceptions of shopping value. Neither of these studies has examined consumer experiences with special event entertainment.

While some studies (El-Adly, 2007; Frasquet, Gil, & Molla, 2001) have included special events in their data collection, they have not conceptualised special events as consumption experiences. Instead, they have merely treated special events as 'attributes' for shopper segmentation. For instance, Frasquet, Gil and Molla's study (2001) included an item called 'events and exhibitions' and it was loaded into the factor of '*atmosphere/leisure*'. Frasquet et al. (2001) applied '*atmosphere/leisure*' as a segmentation variable. Similarly, El-Adly (2007) measured an item called 'presence of fun and entertainment programs', which was included in the factor of 'entertainment'. These studies have further reinforced the lack of emphasis on consumer experiences with special event entertainment in the shopping centre consumption literature.

As addressed in the previous section, the experiential consumption framework (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1986) suggest four factors that are important in understanding consumer experiences, namely, cognition, emotion, value and behaviour. Each of these constructs represents a latent construct that can be measured in many ways (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1986). Hence, an examination of previous studies in the shopping centre consumption literature have measured these four factors will facilitate this study in developing appropriate measures for consumer

experiences with special event entertainment. Moreover, an understanding of how studies in the shopping centre literature have conceptualised the relationships between cognition, emotion, value and behaviour will also assist this study in developing a conceptual model for explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment. The next section will review the importance and role of cognition, emotion, value and behaviour in the shopping centre consumption literature.

2.4.1 Cognition

Cognition is a key factor used in explaining consumer experiences in the shopping centre literature. Cognition relates to consumers' perceptions of shopping centre experiences (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1986). In the shopping centre literature, studies on experiential consumption have widely focused on perceived shopping centre atmospherics such as music (Babin, Chebat, & Michon, 2004; Langrehr, 1991; Wilhelm & Mottner, 2005), decor (Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Michon, Chebat, & Turley, 2005), layout or design (Martin & Turley, 2004; Raajpoot, et al., 2008) and parking and accessibility (Andreu, Bigne, Chumpitaz, & Swaen, 2006). These perceived atmospherics are frequently reported to have significant effects on emotion (Babin, et al., 2004; Wakefield & Baker, 1998) (Andreu, et al., 2006; Chebat & Michon, 2003), value (Babin, et al., 2004; Stoel, et al., 2004) and behaviour (Andreu, et al., 2006; Babin, et al., 2004; Wakefield & Baker, 1998).

For instance, Andreu et al. (2006) examined consumers' perceptions of the internal and external atmospherics at shopping centres. In particular, internal atmospherics were measured by lighting, temperature and decor, and external atmospherics were measured by parking and accessibility. Through mall intercept survey with shoppers, Andreu et al. (2006) found that perceived internal and external atmospherics had significant effects on positive emotion and behavioural intentions. The findings of Andreu et al. (2006) are shared by other studies.

Babin, Chebat and Michon (2004) investigated perceived appropriateness of the background music, odour and decor at shopping centres and found that it had a significant effect on consumers' positive affect (e.g. cheerful, stimulating and

interesting) and hedonic shopping value. Similar to Andreu et al. (2006), Babin et al. (2004) also conducted mall intercept survey with shoppers. Wakefield and Baker (1998) measured consumers' perceptions about the ambience, layout and design at shopping centres and found that these perceived atmospherics had significant impact on consumer excitement and desire to stay. Similar to other studies, Wakefield and Baker (1998) conducted mall intercept survey with shoppers.

Chebat and Michon (2003) examined consumers' perceptions of the ambience and scent at shopping centres and found that these two atmospheric cues could significantly evoke pleasure and arousal. Chebat and Michon's (2003) study was different from other shopping centre studies as they conducted experiment, instead of mall intercept survey, to measure consumer experiences. The experiment methodology enabled Chebat and Michon (2003) to manipulate the nature of ambience and scent in order to determine their varying effects on shoppers' experiences. Consequently, Chebat and Michon's (2003) study involved an experiment group and a control group. Whilst Chebat and Michon's study has provided empirical evidence on the significant relationship between cognition and emotion, it possesses a major flaw. Marketing researchers such as Burns and Bush (2010) and Malhotra and Birks (2007) contend that, while experiment research enables us to manipulate the stimulus under study, it can also inhibit consumer responses to the stimulus and, thus, generate 'unnatural' or 'unauthentic' responses. Hence, the findings from experiment research may not generalise to a 'real world' situation. Since this research program seeks to understand consumers' experiences with special event entertainment in a 'real' shopping centre setting, the extent to which Chebat and Michon's (2003) findings are applicable to this research program remains unknown.

So far, several studies on consumer experience in the shopping centre literature have been reviewed (Andreu, et al., 2006; Babin, et al., 2004; Chebat & Michon, 2003; Wakefield & Baker, 1998). These studies have provided consistent, empirical support for the significant effect of cognition on emotion and value. Nevertheless, these various studies share a consistent limitation. That is, they have largely focused on consumers' cognitive assessment of shopping centre atmospherics and no study seems to have focused on consumers' cognitive assessment of special events

convened by shopping centres. . Sit et al. (2003a) assert the shopping centre environment is a retail setting that is rich with tangible and intangible environmental cues. In particular, Sit et al. (2003a) explain that not only does the shopping centre environment comprise tangible, architectural cues like décor, lighting and olfactory, it also involves intangible, event cues like school holiday events, fashion events, and market days. Both architectural and event cues are integrated to create novel and entertaining atmosphere for shopping centre patrons. Bloch, Ridgway and Dawson (1994) echo the notion of Sit et al. (2003), and assert that a shopping centre is a dynamic consumer habitat that often use architectural and event cues to create memorable and interesting retail experiences for shoppers.

Whilst architectural cues and events are significant parts of the shopping centre environment, they are not identical in terms of their underlying characteristics. That is, consumers' evaluation of architectural cues tends to focus on functional, tangible attributes (e.g. colour, design and layout), whereas their assessment of intangible events can involve functional and affective attributes (Parsons & Ballantine, 2004; Sit, et al., 2003a). That is, when assessing the quality of a special event, participants may also examine how they feel and what they gain out of the event beyond what the physical setting is like (Madrigal, 2008; Martínez Caro & Martínez García, 2007). For these reasons, shoppers are expected to apply different cognitive processing when evaluating the quality of events convened by shopping centres, as compared to the quality of shopping centre architecture. Since there is a lack of information on consumer cognition of events in the shopping centre literature, more investigation is needed to determine the attributes that constitute consumer cognition of events convened by shopping centres. An overview of the measure and explanatory role of cognition in consumer experiences in the shopping centre literature is presented in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Overview of the measure and role of cognition in explaining consumer experiences in the shopping centre consumption literature

Authors	Measure of cognition	Role of cognition in explaining consumer experiences	Strengths of the study	Weaknesses of the study
(Andreu, et al., 2006)	Perceived internal and external atmospherics	Perceived internal and external atmospherics had direct positive effects on positive emotion and repatronage intentions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A multi-dimensional measure of atmospherics • Mall intercept survey with shoppers (n = 301) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of focus on events
(Babin, et al., 2004)	Perceived appropriateness of atmospherics	Perceived appropriateness of atmospherics had a direct effect on perceived product quality, affect and hedonic shopping value.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A parsimonious measure of atmospherics • Mall intercept survey with shoppers (n = 820) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of focus on events
(Chebat & Michon, 2003)	Ambient scent	Perceived ambient scent had a direct effect on pleasure and arousal (emotion).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Experiments with shoppers • Control group (n = 447) and experiment group (n = 145) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Largely focus on fabricated experiences • Lack of focus on events
(Raajpoot, et al., 2008)	Perceived mall design	Perceived mall design had a positive effect on emotional response and overall evaluation.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emphasis on demographic differences i.e. gender and work status • Mall intercept survey with shoppers (n = 1015) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of focus on events
(Stoel, et al., 2004)	Mall attribute beliefs	Mall attribute beliefs had a direct positive effect on utilitarian and hedonic value as well as time spent.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mall intercept survey with shoppers (n = 276) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of focus on events
(Wakefield & Baker, 1998)	Mall ambience, design and layout	Perceived ambience, design and layout had significant effects on excitement and desire to stay.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mall intercept survey with shoppers (n = 438) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of focus on events

Source: developed for this research

In the next section, the measure and role of emotion in explaining consumer experiences are addressed.

2.4.2 Emotion

Similar to cognition, emotion is a factor that is commonly used in explaining consumer experiences in the shopping centre consumption literature. Studies in this literature have consistently reported emotion as a key factor in predicting value and behaviour. The predictive role of emotion is supported by empirical evidence as many studies in this literature have conducted mall intercept surveys with shoppers. For instance, Michon et al. (2007) in their study found that pleasure and arousal had significant effects on consumers' perceptions of utilitarian and hedonic shopping value. The similar findings are shared by Babin et al. (2004), who also found that positive affect significantly enhanced consumers' perceptions of shopping value, both utilitarian and hedonic value. Beyond value, Wakefield and Baker (1998) found that consumer excitement significantly increase their desires to stay and repatronage intention, but reduced their out-shopping intention. Similarly, Hunter (2006) discovered that positive (anticipated) emotion significantly enhanced shoppers' desires to visit. Babin et al. (2004) in their study found that positive affect significantly and positively influenced shoppers' behaviours.

While the impact of emotion on value and behaviour is obvious in the shopping centre literature, the measures of emotion are less than clear-cut. Several measures of emotion are available in the shopping centre literature such as *pleasure-arousal* (Chebat & Michon, 2003; McGoldrick & Pieros, 1998; Michon, et al., 2007; Stoel, et al., 2004), *excitement* (Martin & Turley, 2004; Taylor & Cosenza, 2002; Wakefield & Baker, 1998), and *positive emotion* (Babin, et al., 2004; Hunter, 2006). There is a lack of empirical evidence on whether any of these measures is relevant in understanding consumer emotion of special event entertainment. None of these emotion measures was initially developed to measure consumer emotion of events. For instance, pleasure-arousal, a two-dimensional measure, relates to the basic and intense feelings of consumers (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982). Example responses of pleasure include joyful, happy and satisfied, and example responses of arousal include excited, stimulated, alert or active (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Russell &

Pratt, 1980). This measure of emotion was originally developed by Mehrabian and Russell (1974) to measure consumer experiences with office environments and not entertainment events. This measure is later adapted by studies to examine consumer experiences with retail environments including shopping centre environments.

Excitement is a simplified version of pleasure-arousal and it is defined as ‘*a positive emotional state consisting of high levels of pleasure and arousal*’ (Wakefield & Baker, 1998, p. 519). Excitement, a one-dimensional measure, synthesises a range of basic and intense feelings such as exciting, interesting, stimulating, appealing and sensational (Wakefield & Baker, 1998). Similar to pleasure-arousal, excitement was developed by Wakefield and Baker (1998) to examine consumers’ feelings with shopping centre environments. Positive emotion, another one-dimensional measure, is also commonly used in the shopping centre literature. Positive emotion focuses on positive affective responses such as excited, delighted and happy (Babin, et al., 2004; Hunter, 2006). Positive emotion appears to be a shorter version of positive-affect-negative-affect scale (PANAS), which was developed by Watson, Clark and Tellegen (1988) to measure consumer responses to advertisements.

Given the different measures of emotion available in this literature and the lack of empirical evidence on whether any of these measures is relevant to special event entertainment, there is a need for more research on consumer emotion in relation to special event entertainment. As contended by Bagozzi et al. (1999), emotion is a context-specific concept and the measure developed for one context may not be applicable to another context. An overview of the measure and role of emotion in explaining consumer experiences in the shopping centre literature is presented in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Overview of the measure and role of emotion in explaining consumer experiences in the shopping centre consumption literature

Author(s) and year	Measure of emotion	Role of emotion in explaining consumer experiences	Strengths of the study	Weaknesses of the study
(Babin, et al., 2004)	Positive affect, as mediator	Positive affect mediated the effect of perceived atmospheric appropriateness on shopping value and approach behaviour.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A parsimonious measure of emotion • Mall intercept survey (n = 301) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focused on recalled emotion
(Chebat & Michon, 2003)	Pleasure and arousal, as mediator	Pleasure and arousal mediated the effect of ambient scent on overall mall perception.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A multi-dimensional measure of emotion • Experiments • Control group (n = 447) and experiment group (n = 145) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focused on recalled emotion
(Hunter, 2006)	Positive (anticipated) emotion, as mediator	Emotion mediated the relationship between shopping centre image and desire to visit.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A multidimensional measure of emotion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focused on anticipated emotion
(Michon, et al., 2007)	Pleasure and arousal, as mediator	Pleasure and arousal mediated the relationship between mall perception and shopping value.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mall intercept survey (n = 312) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focused on recalled emotion
(Wakefield & Baker, 1998)	Excitement, as mediator	Excitement mediated the relationship between shopping centre atmospherics (e.g. ambience, design and layout) and behavioural outcomes (i.e. out-shopping, desire to stay and re-patronage intention).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mall intercept survey with shoppers (n = 438) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focused on recalled emotion

Source: developed for this research

Besides the measure, there is another issue relating to emotion that needs further clarification. That is, studies on consumer experience in this literature appear to have largely focused on recalled or anticipated emotion as opposed to immediate emotion. For instance, Babin et al. (2004) in their study asked shoppers to recall their positive feelings about the shopping centre experience. Similarly, in their mall intercept survey, Michon et al. (2007) instructed shoppers to recall their pleasure and arousal relating to the shopping centre experience. Hunter (2006) surveyed the positive emotion that consumers anticipated to experience during their shopping centre patronage.

According to Bruce, Harman and Turner (2007), recalled emotion is highly dependent on the frequency of exposure. Bruce et al. (2007) contend that consumers will recall their emotional experiences with a subject clearly or vividly when they have frequent exposure to the subject. However, this is not the case of special event entertainment. Instead, consumers' exposure to special event entertainment are rather momentary and irregular (Haeberle, 2001). This is because special event entertainment does not constitute a permanent cue of the shopping centre environment, but it is staged on a seasonal, temporary and intermittent basis. Consequently, consumers do not encounter with special event entertainment on a regular or daily basis (Sit, et al., 2003a).

Given the momentary nature of special event entertainment, a recall approach may fail to capture the intensity level of emotion experienced by shopping centre patrons during the occurrence of a special event. Hence, there is a need to consider other approaches for gauging consumers' emotional experiences with temporary and intermittent events convened by shopping centres. Having considered the importance of emotion in understanding consumer experience in this section, the importance of value is examined next.

2.4.3 Value

Value relates to a consumer's appreciation of an experience (Babin, Darden, & Griffin, 1994; Hirschman & Holbrook, 1986; Holbrook, 1994). In the shopping centre consumption literature, consumer value about shopping has been identified as an outcome of their cognition and emotion relating to shopping (Babin, et al., 2004; Michon, et al., 2007; Stoel, et al., 2004). In particular, Michon et al. (2007) reported that perceived atmospherics significantly influenced hedonic shopping value and pleasure significantly influenced utilitarian shopping value. Stoel et al. (2004) revealed that utilitarian and hedonic shopping value were determined by consumers' beliefs about the shopping centre image. Babin et al. (2004) specified that utilitarian and hedonic shopping value were the result of consumers' positive feelings with shopping.

In regards to the measure of shopping value, studies on consumer experience in the shopping centre literature (Babin, et al., 2004; Michon, et al., 2007; Stoel, et al., 2004) have largely adopted a two-dimensional measure, namely, utilitarian value and hedonic value. In particular, utilitarian value relates to consumers' perceptions about the functional, task-fulfilment benefits associated with an experience (e.g. convenience, monetary savings, timesavings and reduced purchase risk) (Babin, et al., 1994; Eroglu, Machleit, & Barr, 2005; Stoel, et al., 2004). On the contrary, hedonic value relates to the non-functional, self-indulgence benefits associated with an experience (e.g. a sense of adventure, escape and enjoyment) (Babin, et al., 1994; Eroglu, et al., 2005; Stoel, et al., 2004). Table 2.3 presents an overview of the measure and role of value in explaining consumer experiences in the shopping centre consumption literature.

Table 2.3: Overview of the measure and role of value in explaining consumer experiences in the shopping centre consumption literature

Author(s) and year	Measure of value	Role of value in explaining consumer experiences	Strengths of the study	Weaknesses of the study
(Babin, et al., 2004)	Utilitarian and hedonic value	Utilitarian and hedonic value was affected by positive affect.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multidimensional measure of value. • Mall intercept survey with shoppers (n = 820). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Situation-based measure of value. • Did not explore the effect of value on cognition and emotion.
(Michon, et al., 2007)	Utilitarian and hedonic value	Hedonic value was influenced by perceived atmospherics; utilitarian value was influenced by pleasure.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multidimensional measure of value. • Mall intercept survey with shoppers (n = 312). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Situation-based measure of value. • Did not explore the effect of value on cognition and emotion.
(Stoel, et al., 2004)	Utilitarian and hedonic value	Hedonic value fully mediated the effect of mall attribute beliefs on re-patronage intention. Utilitarian value showed no mediating effect.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multidimensional measure of value. • Mall intercept survey (n = 276). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Situation-based measure of value. • Did not explore the effect on cognition and emotion.

Source: developed for this research

As studies on consumer experience in the shopping centre literature have widely treated shopping value as an outcome of consumers' cognition and emotion, they appear to have conceptualised shopping value as a situational factor rather than a personal factor. Consequently, no study in the shopping centre literature seems to have questioned the possibility of shopping value being an antecedent to shoppers' cognition and emotion.

In the experiential consumption of special event entertainment, the researcher has reason to believe that shopping value can be an antecedent to consumers' cognition

and emotion relating to special event entertainment and not as an outcome. This notion is derived from Ward and Hill's (1991) study on consumer participation in promotional games. Ward and Hill (1991) contend that consumer participation in promotion games is typically low-involvement in nature and, thus, value is a determinant and not an outcome of consumer participation in promotion games. In particular, Ward and Hill (1991) explain that 'although the effort required to participate in a promotional game is relatively modest, few consumers participate in all sweepstakes and contests available to them. Instead, they selectively enter games they perceive as worth their time and attention' (p. 70). Consequently, value can be a key driver for consumers' subsequent responses (e.g. attributions and moods) to promotional games. Whilst Ward and Hill's (1991) study has provided an alternative insight into the relationship between value, cognition and emotion, this relationship has not been empirically tested because Ward and Hill's (1991) study was purely conceptual.

Ward and Hill's study (1991) suggest that, in a low-involvement experience which is the case of special event entertainment, value can influence consumer participation in special event entertainment and, in turn, their cognition and emotion relating to special event entertainment. To explore the 'a priori' effect of value on cognition and emotion, this study seeks to examine the personal, enduring value that consumers have for shopping.

2.4.3.1 Shopping orientation as a surrogate measure of consumer's personal values to shopping

As noted earlier, studies in the shopping centre literature have typically measured consumers' values relating to shopping by two dimensions, namely, utilitarian and hedonic shopping value. These two value dimensions were constructed by Babin, Darden and Griffin (1994) to examine the experiential benefits that consumers derived from a shopping activity. Since the value dimensions proposed by Babin, Darden and Griffin (1994) are activity-dependent, they are considered as transient and situational in nature. Moreover, given that consumers can execute various shopping activities within a shopping centre environment, a measurement of the utilitarian and hedonic values consumers attain from various shopping activities can

be complex. This is because consumers can place different weightings on utilitarian and hedonic values for different shopping activities (e.g. browsing, food shopping and apparel shopping), and this is beyond the primary interest of this research program.

That is, this research program is not interested in examining the transient, situational values (benefits) that consumers attain from a shopping activity or a range of shopping activities (e.g. browsing, food shopping and apparel shopping). Instead, this research program is mainly interested in examining consumers' psychographic, enduring values relating to shopping centre patronage in general, and how these values influence their experiences (e.g. cognition, emotion and behaviours) with special event entertainment. This is because the experiential consumption of special event entertainment does not hinge on a specific shopping activity, but shopping centre patronage in general (Kim, et al., 2005a; Tsai, 2010). A straightforward approach to measuring consumers' psychographic, enduring values relating to shopping centre patronage is by examining their shopping orientations.

In particular, shopping orientation refers to a consumer's general, psychographic disposition towards the act of shopping (Darden & Reynolds, 1971; Gehrt & Carter, 1992; Vijayasathy, 2003). Several studies (Evans, Christiansen, & Gill, 1996; Lumpkin, Hawes, & Darden, 1986; Shim & Gehrt, 1996) in the shopping centre literature have identified the existence of various shopping orientation, but very few studies (Allard, Babin, & Chebat, 2009; Ruoh-Nan & Eckman, 2009) have examined the relationship between consumers' shopping orientations and their subsequent cognition and emotion relating to shopping.

For instance, Darden and Ashton (1974-1975) identified the existence of 19 shopping orientations and they are labelled as shopping centre enthusiast, venturesome shopper, discount shopper, browser, special shopper, quality shopper, apathetic shopper, economic shopper, depersonalising shopper, local-retailer shopper, small-store shopper, one store shopper, brand-loyal shopper, brand innovator, generalised self-confident shopper, credit shopper, opinion leader (furniture), opinion leader (cake mixes), and opinion leader (gifts).

Whilst the shopping orientation measure used by Darden and Ashton (1974-1975) is considered as comprehensive, it possesses two major limitations. First, it measures each type of shopping orientation with a single item. A single-item measure of a theoretical construct like shopping orientation can undermine the convergent and discriminant validity of multivariate data analysis like structural equation modelling, which represents the major data analysis strategy of this research program (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). Second, the shopping orientation scale by Darden and Ashton (1974-1975) was constructed in a supermarket context. Hence, the extent to which this shopping orientation scale is also relevant in examining consumers' psychographic orientations to shopping centre patronage requires further substantiation.

Unlike Darden and Ashton (1974-1975), the shopping orientation presented by Shim and Gehrt (1996) is more compact and simplistic. They identified three types of shopping orientations, namely, utilitarian orientation, hedonic orientation and overpowered orientation. Shim and Gehrt (1996) reported that hedonic shoppers were generally brand-conscious, novelty conscious, recreational and brand loyal, overpowered shoppers were apt to be impulsive and confused by over-choice in shopping centres, and utilitarian shoppers were likely to be quality-conscious and price-conscious. A merit of Shim and Gehrt's (1996) study is that it compares the three shopping orientations (utilitarian, hedonic and overpowered orientations) between two ethnic groups, namely, Hispanic and native American shoppers. However, there is a limitation underpinning their study that is Shim and Gehrt (1996) did not examine if the three shopping orientations significantly influence shoppers' cognition and emotion relating to shopping and this represents a focal point of this research program.

Similar to Shim and Gehrt (1996), the shopping orientation scale by Kuruvilla and Joshi (2010) is also compact and simplistic. In particular, Kuruvilla and Joshi (2010) reported the existence of two shopping orientations, namely, recreational orientation and economic orientation. A contribution of Kuruvilla and Joshi's (2010) study is that they explored the relationship between gender differences and shopping orientations. However, similar to Shim and Gehrt (1996), Kuruvilla and Joshi's

(2010) study falls short in terms of not examining the relationship between shopping orientations and consumers' cognition and emotion relating to shopping.

Allard, Babin and Chebat (2009) identified the existence of utilitarian and hedonic shopping orientations. Further, Allard et al. (2009) also found that utilitarian shopping orientation had a significant, positive effect on consumers' perceptions of retail differentiation only, whereas hedonic shopping orientation had a significant, positive effect on perceived retail differentiation, place attachment and positive emotion. In other words, hedonic shopping orientation was found to have a profound effect on consumers' cognition and emotion than utilitarian shopping orientation. Whilst Allard et al. (2009) have explored the relationship between shopping orientation, cognition and emotion, the extent to which this relationship will hold in the experiential consumption of special event entertainment remains unknown. Allard et al. (2009) did not examine consumer experiences with special event entertainment.

Ruoh-Nan and Eckman (2009) also identified the existence of two shopping orientation, namely, fashion leadership and brand consciousness. In particular, Ruoh-Nan and Eckman (2009) found that both shopping orientations had significant, positive effects on the shopping frequency of consumers. A contribution of Ruoh-Nan and Eckman's (2009) study is that they have provided empirical support for the significant effect of shopping orientation on consumers' shopping behaviour. Nevertheless, further research is needed to verify this effect in the context of special event entertainment as Ruoh-Nan and Eckman's (2009) study was conducted in the context of apparel shopping. Table 2.4 presents an overview of the measure and role of shopping orientation in explaining consumer experiences in the shopping centre consumption literature.

Table 2.4: Overview of the measure and role of shopping orientation in explaining consumer experiences in the shopping centre consumption literature

Author(s) & year	Measure of shopping orientation	Role of shopping orientation in explaining consumer experiences	Strengths of the study	Weaknesses of the study
(Allard, et al., 2009)	Utilitarian and hedonic orientation, as independent factor	Utilitarian orientation had a direct, positive effect on perceived differentiation (cognition). Hedonic orientation had a direct, positive effect on perceived differentiation (cognition), place attachment (emotion) and positive emotion (emotion).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Examination of the effect of shopping orientation on cognition and emotion. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Did not segment the respondents based on shopping orientation.
(Kuruville & Joshi, 2010)	Recreational and economic orientation.	Different shopping orientation segments were identified. Females and male exhibited no differences in terms of shopping orientations.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Shopper segmentation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Did not examine the effect of shopping orientation on cognition, emotion and behaviour.
(Ruoh-Nan & Eckman, 2009)	Fashion leadership and brand consciousness, as independent factors	Shopping orientations directly and positively influenced shopping frequency (behaviour).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Examined the direct effect of shopping orientation on behaviour. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Did not explore the effect of shopping orientation on cognition and emotion.
(Shim & Gehrt, 1996)	Utilitarian, hedonic and overpower shopping orientation	Consumers of different shopping orientation emphasised different retail attributes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Field survey with high school students, Whites (n = 1041), Hispanic (n = 586), Native Americans (n = 219). Shopper segmentation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Did not explore the effect of shopping orientation on cognition and emotion.

Source: developed for this research

The next section will review the measure and role of behaviour in explaining consumer experiences in the shopping centre literature.

2.4.4 Behaviour

Behaviour relates to a consumer's activity associated with an experience (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Hirschman & Holbrook, 1986; McGoldrick & Pieros, 1998). Generally, behaviour can be measured by two facets: actual behaviour; and intended behaviour (Michon, et al., 2007; Stoel, et al., 2004; Tsai, 2010). In particular, *actual behaviour* relates to behavioural actions that consumers have undertaken during and/or after an experience such as the purchase of merchandise or longer duration of stay (Stoel, et al., 2004; Tsai, 2010). Conversely, *intended behaviour* refers to behavioural actions that consumers intend to undertake in the future such as re-patronage intention, desire to stay and desire to spend (Michon, et al., 2007; Wakefield & Baker, 1998).

In the shopping centre literature, studies (Babin, et al., 2004; Hunter, 2006; Wakefield & Baker, 1998) appear to have largely focused on intended behaviour. There seems a lack of focus on consumers' actual behaviours relating to shopping centre experiences (Hunter, 2006; Tsai, 2010). For instance, Wakefield and Baker's (1998) study primarily focused on consumers' desires to stay, intention to repatronage and intention to engage in out-shopping behaviour. Likewise, a study by Babin et al. (2004) mainly focused on shoppers' desires to stay and to spend. Stoel et al. (2004) only looked at consumers' intentions to visit the shopping centre in the future. Unlike their counterparts, Tsai (2010) paid attention to the actual behaviours of shopping centre patrons, particularly their frequency of patronage and amount of purchase. Hunter (2006) study examined both actual and intended behaviour, specifically the frequency of visit and the intention to visit.

Using special event entertainment, not only do shopping centre managers seek to encourage their patrons to stay longer and spend more, they also seek to entice their patrons to visit more often, spread positive word-of-mouth and make recommendations to others (Parsons, 2003). Therefore, it is important that any research into consumer experiences with special event entertainment strives to examine both actual and intended behaviours that may result from the experiences.

To stimulate the actual and intended behaviours of shoppers, studies in the shopping centre literature suggest focusing on the cognition, emotion and value of shoppers.

In terms of cognition, Andreu et al. (2006) found that positive perceived atmospherics (internal and external atmospherics) significantly increased consumers' intention to repatronage and desires to stay. In the same vein, Hunter (2006) also reported that positive perceptions of the shopping centre image could lead to increased desires to stay. In regards to emotion, Wakefield and Baker (1998) found that consumer excitement significantly increased shoppers' desires to stay, intention to repatronage and decreased intention to engage in out-shopping. Likewise, Hunter (2006) reported that positive (anticipated) emotion could significantly increase consumers' desires to stay. In relation to value, Tsai (2010) found that hedonic value (exhilaration, exploration, relaxation and socialisation) could positively influence shoppers' patronage frequency and purchase amount. Tsai's findings are echoed by Babin et al. (2004), who found that consumers' desires to stay and to spend were significantly influenced by their perceived shopping value (utilitarian and hedonic value). An overview of the measure and role of behaviour in explaining consumer experiences in the shopping centre literature is presented in Table 2.4.

Table 2.5: Overview of the measure and role of behaviour in explaining consumer experiences in the shopping centre literature

Author(s) and year	Measure	Role of behaviour in explaining consumer experiences	Strengths of the study	Weaknesses of the study
(Andreu, et al., 2006)	Intended behaviour i.e. desire to pay more, disposition and repatronage intention	Internal atmospherics, external atmospherics and positive had significant effects on repatronage intention and desire to stay.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multidimensional measure • Mall intercept survey with shoppers (n = 301) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of focused on actual behaviour
(Babin, et al., 2004)	Intended behaviour (desires to stay and spend), as dependent factor	Intended behaviour was the dependent factor of positive affect and shopping value.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multidimensional measure • Mall intercept survey (n = 820) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of focus on actual behaviour

Table 2.5 (continued)

Author(s) and year	Measure	Role of behaviour in explaining consumer experiences	Strengths of the study	Weaknesses of the study
(Michon, et al., 2008)	Intended behaviour (e.g. overall liking, desire to interact with salespeople & desire to spend), dependent factor.	Intended behaviour was a dependent factor of hedonic shopping value.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multidimensional measure of intended behaviour • Mall intercept survey (n = 268) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of focus on actual behaviour. • Focused on female shoppers only.
(Stoel, et al., 2004)	Repatronage intention, as dependent factor.	Repatronage intention was significantly predicted by hedonic shopping value.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multidimensional measure • Mall intercept survey (n = 276) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of focus on intended behaviour.
(Tsai, 2010)	Actual behaviour (patronage frequency and purchase amount), as dependent factor.	Patronage frequency and purchase amount were predicted by exhilaration, exploration, relaxation and socialisation value.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multidimensional measure • Mall intercept survey (n = 1230) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of focus on intended behaviour.
(Wakefield & Baker, 1998)	Intended behaviour (desire to stay, out-shopping intention & repatronage intention), as dependent factor.	Desire to stay, outgoing intention and repatronage intention were dependent factors of excitement.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multidimensional measure • Mall intercept survey (n = 438) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of focus on actual behaviour.

Source: developed for this research

In brief, there appears to be lacking of measurement of actual behaviours associated with consumer experience in the shopping centre literature. Instead, studies on consumer experience in this literature seem to have largely focused on shoppers' intended behaviours such as their desires to stay, desires to spend and intention to repatronage. In the experiential context of special event entertainment, both actual and intended behaviours are equally important in explaining shopping centres patrons' experiences. Using special event entertainment, not only do shopping centre managers seek to encourage their patrons to visit more often, to stay longer and to spend more, they also seek to entice their patrons to spread positive word-of-mouth about the experience and return to the centre for more special events (Parsons, 2003). To stimulate the actual and intended behaviours of consumers, the literature suggests this study to consider their cognition, emotion and value about special event

entertainment. Since no study in the shopping centre literature has examined consumer experiences with special event entertainment, further research is needed to explore the relationship between consumer cognition, emotion, value and behaviour about special event entertainment.

Consumer experiences with special event entertainment do not take place in isolation, but involve the presence of other individuals (participants) (Ng, et al., 2007). Consumer experiences with special event entertainment are, indeed, classified as collective experiences (Ng, et al., 2007). The presence of other individuals or participants is necessary to co-produce and co-consume collective experiences, including special event entertainment (Ng, et al., 2007). In the shopping centre literature, the presence of other individuals is conceived as social crowding (Dion, 2004; Eroglu, et al., 2005; Michon, et al., 2005). The next section will review the measure and role of social crowding in explaining consumer experiences in the shopping centre literature.

2.4.5 Social crowding

Social crowding relates to a consumer's perception of social (human) density and interaction with others during an experience (Eroglu, et al., 2005; Machleit, Eroglu, & Mantel, 2000; Machleit, Kellaris, & Eroglu, 1994). When examining social crowding, studies in the shopping centre literature appear to have consistently adopted a 'density-focused' approach and not an 'experience-focused' approach. That is, studies in the shopping centre literature have typically asked people to indicate the extent to which they feel there are too many people, and how difficult it is to navigate around a shopping centre (Dion, 2004; Eroglu, et al., 2005; Machleit, et al., 2000). No study in this literature has used a 'balanced' measure to examine people's attitudes towards social mass. Instead, many studies in this literature have mainly focused on consumers' negative feelings with social crowding. For these reasons, social crowding has been largely identified as a negative factor of shopping centre experiences. In particular, social crowding has been reported to induce negative feelings, reduce shopping satisfaction and trigger avoidance behaviours (Dion, 2004; Eroglu, et al., 2005; Machleit, et al., 2000).

For instance, Dion (2004) found that social crowding evoked negative feelings towards being rushed and aggressive behaviour of shopping centre patrons. Likewise, Machleit, Eroglu and Mantel (2000) reported that social crowding evoked negative feelings of anger, disgust and contempt and, in turn, undermined shopping satisfaction. Eroglu et al. (2005) found that high and low social density adversely affected consumers' perceptions of the shopping centre environment. Nevertheless, (Eroglu, et al., 2005) reported that medium social density could help promote favourable consumers' perceptions of the shopping centre environment. These studies have consistently provided empirical support for the effect of social crowding on cognition, emotion and behaviour. Table 2.5 presents an overview of the focus and role of social crowding in the shopping centre experiences literature.

Table 2.6: Overview of the measure and role of social crowding in explaining consumer experiences in the shopping centre literature

Authors	Measure of social crowding	Role of social crowding in explaining consumer experiences	Strengths of the study	Weaknesses of the study
(Dion, 2004)	Social density, as independent factor	Social crowding positively contributed to the feeling of rushed and the behaviour of aggressiveness.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Self-completed survey with students (n = 799) and households (n = 153) Experiment with shoppers (n = 231) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Density-focused rather than experience-focused.
(Machleit, et al., 2000)	Social density, as independent factor	Social crowding had a direct, positive effect on the negative feelings of surprise and anger.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> self-completed survey with shoppers (n = 153) and students (n = 296) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Density-focused rather than experience-focused.
(Michon, et al., 2005)	Social density, as independent factor	Social crowding (low, medium and high) moderated consumers' perceptions of shopping centre atmospherics.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Factorial-design, mall intercept survey (n = 279) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Density-focused rather than experience-focused. May not generalise to the 'real-world'.

Source: developed for this research

The findings from the shopping centre literature suggest that social crowding is largely a negative factor of consumers' experiences with either shopping centre patronage or shopping activities. However, the negative effect of social crowding may or may not be applicable to shopping centre patrons' experiences with special event entertainment. As noted earlier, the presence of social mass is an integral part of the experiential consumption of special event entertainment (Ng, et al., 2007). That is, people generally expect and desire the presence of social mass at special event entertainment such as school holiday events, fashion events and market days (Gentry, 2004; Haeberle, 2001). Indeed, social mass may actually help enhance the experiential consumption of special event entertainment by providing shoppers with an opportunity to interact with other individuals who share similar interests (e.g. children's entertainment, fashion, cooking or automobile events) (Pons, Laroche, & Murali, 2006). For these reasons, social crowding may be a positive factor, rather than a negative factor, in explaining shopping centre patrons' experiences with special event entertainment. There is a possibility that social crowding can, indeed, enhance shopping centre patrons' feelings and value judgment relating to special event entertainment because they can co-create and co-consume the experience with other like-minded individuals (Pons, et al., 2006), and this notion no doubt requires further investigation. Having addressed the measure and role of social crowding in explaining consumer experiences with shopping, the measure and role of shopping orientation in understanding consumer experiences with shopping is addressed next.

Consumers are not homogenous. Consumers with different psychographic characteristics are likely to display different cognition, emotion, value and behaviour relating to a similar experience. Hence, the measure and role of shopping orientation in explaining consumer experiences are addressed next.

2.4.6 Summary of the shopping centre literature on consumer experience

The review of the shopping centre literature has identified five factors that are commonly used to explain consumers' shopping experiences: cognition; emotion; shopping orientation (a surrogate measure of personal value on shopping); behaviour; social crowding; and shopping orientation. In terms of their structural relationships, cognition and social crowding have been identified to have significant

effects on emotion and, in turn, have significant effects on behaviour. Shopping Orientation has been suggested to influence the relationships between cognition, social crowding, emotion and behaviour.

Whilst the shopping centre literature has provided a starting point for understanding special event entertainment experiences, it has also raised a number of issues that require further clarification or investigation. First, more research is needed to clarify the measures of cognition, emotion, value and shopping orientation in the context of special event entertainment experiences. Several measures of these factors have been identified in the shopping centre literature, and there is a lack of theoretical and empirical information on which of the existing measures may be appropriate in examining special event entertainment experiences. Second, the existing measure of social crowding is found to be ‘biased’ as it does not allow consumers to report their positive or pleasant feelings with social crowding. Instead, it has largely focused on consumers’ negative feelings with social crowding (Dion, 2004; Eroglu, et al., 2005). Third and final, studies in the shopping centre consumption literature have largely focused on perceptual or perceived value on shopping and not personal value on shopping. Consequently, value has been typically identified as an outcome of cognition or emotion and this may undermine the importance of value in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment. This study is particularly interested in consumers’ personal value on shopping. Stated differently, this study is particularly interested in the ongoing concern that a consumer has in relation to shopping (Havitz & Mannell, 2005). To do so, this study proposes the use of shopping orientation in measuring consumers’ personal value on shopping. However, further research is needed to explore the relevance of shopping orientation in understanding consumer experiences with special event entertainment. Having reviewed studies on experiential consumption in the shopping centre literature, studies on experiential consumption in the event literature is examined next.

2.5 Event literature on consumer experience

As noted earlier, there is a research gap relating to the experiential consumption of entertainment events in the shopping centre literature. A similar gap is also identified in the event literature. No study in the event literature seems to have examined the experiential consumption of entertainment events convened by retailers such as special event entertainment offered by shopping centres. Instead, studies in the event literature have largely focused on the experiential consumption of festivals and sporting events (addressed in section 2.2). Nevertheless, consistent with their counterparts in the shopping centre literature, studies in the event literature have widely used cognition, emotion, value, behaviour and social crowding in explaining the experiential consumption of events. The following section provides a review of each of these factors in relation to the experiential consumption of events. This review allows for a comparison and a merger of what we know about the experiential consumption of shopping centres and the experiential consumption of events, therefore providing a more holistic examination of consumer experiences with special event entertainment in shopping centres.

2.5.1 Cognition

As noted earlier (section 2.4.1), cognition relates to consumers' perceptions of an experience. In the shopping centre literature, studies on experiential consumption have widely focused on consumers' perceptions of the shopping centre atmospherics such as music, decor and design and layout (see section 2.4.1). Unlike their counterparts in the shopping centre literature, studies on experiential consumption in the event literature seem to have adopted a broader focus when examining consumers' cognition about events. That is, studies on experiential consumption in the event literature have examined perceived quality, instead of perceived atmospherics only, of events. Perceived quality focuses on both atmospheric and non-atmospheric cues of events (Crompton & Love, 1995; Lee, Petrick, & Crompton, 2007).

Perceived quality appears to be an event-specific factor. Different studies in the event literature have used different attributes when measuring perceived quality of events (Lee, Lee, & Yoon, 2009; Lee, et al., 2008; Martin, O'Neil, Hubbard, & Palmer, 2008; Minor, Wagner, Brewerton, & Hausman, 2004). For instance, Martin et al. (2008) used three attributes to measure consumers' perceptions of the quality of a football event: convenience; food and beverage; and restrooms. Davis and Swanson (2009) used five attributes when examining perceived quality of live arts events: employee quality; experience value; access; ancillary quality; and aesthetics. Lee et al. (2009) used five attributes to measure perceived quality of a cultural festival event: informational service, program, souvenirs, food and convenient facility. Minor et al. (2004) used six attributes to capture attendees' perceptions of the quality of a musical event, namely musician ability, musician appearances, sound, stage appearance, facilities and audience interaction. Lee et al. (2008) identified seven attributes underlying the perceived quality of a Korean cultural event: program content; staff; facility; food; souvenirs; convenience; and information. The results from these studies suggest that consumers' perceptions about the quality of an event can be complex and multidimensional and this can be the case of special event entertainment. Perceived quality can be an important factor in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment because it can influence consumers' emotional and behavioural responses to special event entertainment.

Studies in this literature have provided empirical support for the significant effect of perceived quality on consumers' emotion and behaviour relating to events. (Lee, et al., 2007) found that attendees' perceptions of the quality of a festival event significantly influenced their behavioural intention relative to the event. (Davis & Swanson, 2009) reported that participants' positive perceptions about the quality of an art exhibition event could significantly motivate their intention to spread positive word-of-mouth and intention to repurchase. An empirical study by (Martin, et al., 2008) revealed that attendees' perceptions of the quality of a sporting event could significantly lead to their emotional satisfaction with the event. Table 2.7 presents an overview of the measure and role of perceived quality in explaining consumer experiences in the event literature.

Table 2.7: Overview of the measure and role of cognition in explaining consumer experiences in the event literature

Author(s) & year	Measure of cognition	Role of cognition in explaining consumer experiences	Strengths of this study	Weaknesses of this study
(Lee, et al., 2007)	Perceived quality, e.g. generic features, specific entertainment features, information sources, comfort amenities	Perceived quality had a direct, positive effect on behavioural intention.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> An empirical study, mail survey with event attendees (n = 234) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Largely focus on retrospective experiences with the event Lack of focus on consumer emotion and value
(Davis & Swanson, 2009)	Perceived quality i.e. employee quality, access, ancillary quality and aesthetics	Perceived quality attributes had significant, positive effects on word-of-mouth and repurchase intention.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Field survey with audience members (n = 457) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of focus on consumer emotion and value
(Lee, et al., 2009)	Perceived quality, i.e. informational service, program, souvenirs, food and convenient facility	Perceived quality attributes were positively related to economic value and, in turn, behavioural intention.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A comparison between first-time and repeat users' experiences Field survey with event attendees (n = 433) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of focus on consumer emotion.
(Martin, et al., 2008)	Perceived quality, i.e. technical (service delivery), convenience, food and beverage and restrooms	Perceived quality was positively related to emotion-based satisfaction.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Field survey with game attendees (n = 407) Measured immediate experience, as opposed to, retrospective experiences with the game 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of focus on consumer value

Source: developed for this research

However, the findings on the direct relationship between perceived quality and behavioural intention presented in the event literature raises an interesting question. That is, does perceived quality only influence consumers' behavioural intentions relative to events? Can perceived quality also influence consumer emotion and value about events? The answer to the latter question is not available in the event literature

because no study relating to experiential consumption has examined the relationship between perceived quality (cognition), emotion and value in the context of events.

2.5.2 Emotion

Similar to studies on consumer experience in the shopping centre literature, the importance of emotion in explaining consumer experience is also evident in the event literature. Studies on consumer experience in this literature have consistently reported that emotion is important in influencing consumers' satisfaction and behaviours relative to events. For instance, Caro and Garcia (2007) found that pleasure and arousal significantly and positively influenced spectators' satisfaction with a sporting event. Similarly, Madrigal (2003) reported that consumers' positive emotion improved attendees' satisfaction with a live sporting event. In terms of behaviour, Lee et al. (2008) in their study found that positive emotion fostered consumers' behavioural intentions (e.g. intention to recommend to friends or family, intention to spread positive word-of-mouth and intention to revisit), and negative emotion discouraged their behavioural intentions. Similar findings are also documented in Martin et al.'s (2008) study, which found that positive (negative) emotion increased (decrease) the desires of sport fans to attend future events, desires to recommend to others and commitment to the football team and the venue. Table 2.8 presents an overview of the role of emotion in explaining consumer experiences in the event literature.

Table 2.8: Overview of the measure and role of emotion in explaining consumer experiences in the event literature

Author(s) & year	Measure of emotion	Role of emotion in explaining consumer experiences	Strengths of this study	Weaknesses of this study
(Lee, et al., 2008)	Positive and negative emotion	Emotion mediated the relationship between perceived quality and behavioural intention (i.e. recommend, spread of word of mouth and revisit intention).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> An empirical study, involving field survey with festival attendees (n = 472) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of focus on value
(Caro & García, 2007)	Pleasure and arousal	Emotion directly and positively influenced satisfaction.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mail survey with 137 households 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Focus on projective experiences Involved non-participants

Table 2.8 (continued)

Author(s) & year	Measure of emotion	Role of emotion in explaining consumer experiences	Strengths of this study	Weaknesses of this study
(Martin, et al., 2008)	Positive emotion	Positive emotion positively contributed to overall satisfaction and encouraged behavioural intention	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Field survey with game attendees (n = 407) • Measured immediate experience, as opposed to, retrospective experiences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of focus on perceived quality
(Madrigal, 2003)	Positive and negative emotion	Positive emotion increased performance satisfaction and entertainment value, whereas negative emotion decreased performance satisfaction and entertainment value.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An empirical study, involving experiment study with undergraduate students (n = 228) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Largely focus on fabricated experiences as opposed to ‘real’ experiences • Focus on student sample

Source: developed for this research

Although the event literature has provided ample empirical evidence on the importance of emotion in explaining participants’ or spectators’ experiences with events, more investigation is needed to clarify the measure of emotion relative to events, especially those that are convened by retailers such as special event entertainment by shopping centres . Several measures of emotion have been identified in the event literature and these measures include: positive-negative emotion, pleasure-arousal and positive emotion (see Table 2.8). There is lacking of clear rationale on why studies on consumer experience in the event literature have applied different measures of emotion. The choice of an emotion measure seems to be idiosyncratic and depends on the researchers’ preferences. For instance, when examining attendees’ emotional responses to sporting events, Caro and Garcia (2007) have focused on pleasure-arousal, whereas Martin et al. (2008) have emphasised positive emotion only. Other than the choice of emotion measures has been inconsistent in the event literature, the timing of when emotion is measured has also been found to be inconsistent. In particular, some studies on consumer experience in the event literature have adopted a ‘retrospective’ approach, whereas others have

favoured an ‘immediate’ approach. With the retrospective approach, spectators’ or attendees’ emotional responses to an event is measured via mail survey (Martínez Caro & Martínez García, 2007) or experiment (Madrigal, 2003). Mail survey generally involves the use of a postal service in distributing the questionnaire to and receiving it from target respondents. Mail survey is typically administered after an event has taken place and the researcher has collected the postal addresses of target respondents. The lead time between when the event has taken place and the mail survey is administered can be lengthy and, thus, this contributes to the retrospective nature of the mail survey in terms of examining spectators’ or participants’ experiences with an event. On the other hand, experiment is typically conducted in a laboratory setting so that a variable or a set of variables can be manipulated. Moreover, the laboratory experiment typically involves the use of stimulus materials to evoke subjects’ cognitive and/or emotional responses to the topic under study. In the context of events, examples of stimulus materials that can be used include a video footage or a compilation of photos relating to an event. For these reasons, consumer experience that is measured by an experimental method is considered to be more artificial and less authentic as compared to when consumer experience is measured by a field survey method that is conducted on site. Given the retrospective nature of mail survey and laboratory experiment, both methods may not accurately gauge the intensity of consumers’ emotion with an event. Therefore, on-site research methods such as field surveys are deemed to be more appropriate if a study seeks to capture the intensity of attendees’ feelings with an event accurately. This is because a field survey enables a researcher to measure attendees’ feelings associated with an event on the spot (Lee, et al., 2008; Martin, et al., 2008).

As noted earlier, special event entertainment is typically offered on a seasonal, temporary and intermittent basis and, thus, consumer experiences with special event entertainment are momentary and non-continuing (Sit, et al., 2003a). Having shoppers to recall their emotional responses to a special event later will not accurately capture the nature and intensity of these responses. For these reasons, an onsite approach such as a field survey with shoppers during special event entertainment is deemed to be far more superior than a retrospective approach such as a mail survey or a laboratory experiment. The importance and role of emotion in explaining attendees’ experiences with events have been addressed in this section.

The following section will address the importance will review the role of value in explaining consumer experiences in the event literature.

2.5.3 Value

Value is identified as a key factor in explaining consumer experiences in the event literature (Lee, et al., 2009; Lee, et al., 2007). Several studies have examined the significant effect of value on consumers' cognitive and behavioural responses to events (Lee, et al., 2009; Lee, et al., 2007; Madrigal, 2003). For instance, Lee at al. (2007) found that consumers' cognitive evaluation of the service value of a festival had a direct, positive effect on perceived service quality and behavioural intention relative to the festival. Similarly, Lee at al. (2009) discovered that perceived economic value of a festival significantly influenced perceived quality and, in turn, behavioural loyalty relative to the festival. Taking a different research focus, Madrigal (2003) measured entertainment value as an outcome of attendees' experiences with a sporting event, and found that positive and negative affect significantly influenced perceived entertainment value relative to the event. Table 2.9 presents an overview of the measure and role of value in explaining consumer experience in the event literature.

Table 2.9: Overview of the measure and role of value in explaining consumer experiences in the event literature

Author(s) & year	Measure of value	Role of value in explaining consumer experiences	Strengths of the study	Weaknesses of the study
(Lee, et al., 2009)	Economic value	Economic value mediated the relationship between service quality and behavioural loyalty (i.e. spread positive word-of-mouth, recommend to others and repeat visit).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> An empirical study, involving field survey with attendees (n = 433) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Situation-based measure of value Lack of focus on non-economic value, especially hedonic value

Table 2.9 (continued)

Author(s) & year	Measure of value	Role of value in explaining consumer experiences	Strengths of the study	Weaknesses of the study
(Lee, et al., 2007)	Service value i.e. monetary price, emotional response, behavioural price, quality and reputation	Service value had a direct, positive effect on service quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multi-dimensional measure of value • An empirical study, mail survey with event attendees (n = 234) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Situation-based measure of value • Emotion was a dimension of value, rather than a distinct factor
(Madrigal, 2003)	Entertainment value	Positive and negative affect significantly influenced entertainment value	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An empirical study, involving a laboratory experiment with undergraduate students (n = 228) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Situation-based measure • Did not explore the effect of entertainment value on attendees' behaviours relative to the event.

Source: developed for this research

As summarised in Table 2.9, studies on consumer experience in the event literature have strengths and weaknesses in relation to their measurement of value. In terms of strengths, these studies have provided empirical support for the significant effect of value on consumers' perceptions and behaviours relative to events. Further, these studies have also indicated that value is a multidimensional factor.

In terms of weaknesses, the extent to which the measures of value identified in the event literature can be applied to examine consumers' experiences with special event entertainment remains unknown. In particular, Lee et al. (2009) focused on economic value only and did not examine non-economic value relative to events. In the context of special event entertainment, economic value (e.g. monetary savings) may not be a key value that shoppers seek to fulfil because special event entertainment is typically offered free of charge and it does not involve any admission fee (Sit, et al., 2003a).

Lee et al's (2007) measure of value consists of five dimensions, namely, monetary price, emotional response, behavioural price and quality and reputation. This value

measure is deemed to be less relevant for this research program because many of the dimensions are primarily applicable to events that involve admission fees and this is not the case of special event entertainment. As noted earlier, special event entertainment is typically offered free of charge.

Whilst Madrigal's (2003) measure of value is parsimonious, its measure only has one dimension, namely, entertainment value. The extent to which this value measure is comprehensive to gauge shoppers' value judgment relating to special event entertainment is yet to be determined.

In brief, studies on consumer experience in the event literature have provided empirical support for the significant role of value in influencing consumers' cognition and behaviours relative to events. Studies on consumer experience in this literature have also presented several measures of value. Nevertheless, further examination of the applicability of these value measures in the context of special event entertainment is needed. This is because the degree to which these value measures identified in the event literature are valid and comprehensive in gauging shoppers' value judgment relating to special events convened by shopping centres is not known. Studies on consumer experience in the shopping centre literature suggest that shopping orientation can be a meaningful surrogate measure of value. This is because shopping orientation examines consumers' general disposition towards shopping. Hence, further research is needed to compare and contrast the value measured identified in the shopping centre and event literature and then identify a measure that is most appropriate for explaining shopping centre patrons' experiences with special event entertainment. Having addressed the importance and role of value in explaining consumer experience with events in this section, the importance and role of behaviour in explaining consumer experiences with events is addressed next.

2.5.4 Behaviour

In the shopping centre literature, behaviour has been widely identified as a key factor in explaining consumers' shopping experiences (see section 2.4.4). The importance of behaviour in explaining consumer experience is also evident in the event literature. In particular, studies in the event literature have frequently examined attendees' behavioural intention towards events such as the intention to revisit the

event, the intention to recommend to others, and the willingness to pay more for the event (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Lee, et al., 2007; Martin, et al., 2008). The event literature also indicates that attendees' behavioural intentions towards the event are generally influenced by their cognition, emotion and value relating to the event.

For instance, Martin et al. (2008) examined spectators' intention to return for future sporting events, their intention to recommend to others, and their likelihood to commit to the sporting team and venue. Martin et al. (2008) found that these intended behaviours were significantly influenced by attendees' cognitive and emotional satisfaction with the event. Focusing on attendees' loyalty and willingness to pay more at a festival event, Baker and Crompton (2000) found that perceived quality (cognition) and emotional satisfaction (emotion) significantly persuaded these intended behaviours relative to the festival. Similarly, in a festival setting, Lee et al. (2007) measured visitors' willingness to recommend to others, willingness to spread positive word-of-mouth, and intention to attend the festival. Lee et al (2007) found that perceived service quality (cognition) and perceived service value greatly influenced these positive behaviours relative to the festival. These studies have two strengths in relation to explaining consumer experiences with events. First, they are empirical in nature as they have conducted surveys with attendees. Second and final, they have suggested the potential of cognition, emotion and value in shaping attendees' behavioural intentions towards events. Nevertheless, these studies also have a major weakness. That is, they have largely focused on people's intended behaviours and this could be due to the difficulty in measuring actual behaviours. Table 2.10 presents an overview of the measure and role of behaviour in explaining experiential consumption in the event literature.

Table 2.10: Overview of the measure and role of Behaviour in explaining consumer experiences in the event literature

Author(s) & year	Measure of behaviour	Role of behaviour in explaining consumer experiences	Strengths of the study	Weaknesses of the study
(Baker & Crompton, 2000)	Behavioural intention, i.e. loyalty to the festival and willingness to pay more.	Behavioural intention as an outcome, which were predicted by perceived quality and emotional satisfaction.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> An empirical study, involving mail survey with attendees (n = 141). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of focus on actual behaviour. Largely focused on retrospective experiences.
(Lee, et al., 2007)	Behavioural intention, i.e. say positive things to other people, attend the festival again, recommend to others, encourage friends and relatives to attend the festival and the first choice among festivals.	Behavioural intention was predicted by perceived service quality and perceived service value.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Examined both perceived service quality and perceived service value. An empirical study, involving mail survey with event attendees (n = 234). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of focus on actual behaviours.
(Martin, et al., 2008)	Behavioural intention, i.e. likelihood of future attendance, recommendation to others and continuing support for the football team and venue.	Behavioural intention was explained by emotional and cognitive satisfaction.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> An empirical study, involving self-completed survey with students (n = 407). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use of student sample. Lack of focus on actual behaviours.

Source: developed for this research

In the context of special event entertainment, both actual and intended behaviours are equally important in explaining consumer experiences. Not only do shopping centre managers seek to entice their patrons to visit more often, spread positive word-of-mouth about the experience to other individuals and to recommend the experiences to others, they also seek to encourage their patrons to stay longer and spend more. After all, the marketing objectives for offering special event entertainment are to drive shopper traffic and retail sales (Parsons, 2003). Since the behavioural measure identified in the event literature has mainly focused on intended behaviour, a more

comprehensive measure will be needed to capture the intended behaviour and the actual behaviour of consumers relative to the experiential consumption of special event entertainment. The importance and role of social crowding in explaining consumer experiences with events are addressed next.

2.5.5 Social crowding

In the shopping centre literature, social crowding is frequently presented as a negative factor of consumers' shopping experiences (see section 2.4.5). This negative notion about social crowding is, however, less evident in the event literature. On the contrary, studies on experiential consumption in the event literature have frequently identified social crowding as a positive factor of consumer experiences with events such as festivals (Mowen, Vogelsong, & Graefe, 2003; Wickham & Kerstetter, 2001) and sporting events (Eastman & Land, 1997; Pons, et al., 2006).

Social crowding is suggested to provide stimulation and serves as a motivation for people to attend those events. For instance, Mowen et al. (2003) examined consumers' perceptions of social crowding at three festivals: Emerald City Folk; Art and the Park; and Bugfest. Mowen et al. (2003) in their study asked the attendees to indicate the extent to which they perceived the presence of other individuals added to or detracted from their experiences, and also if the event would have been more enjoyable with fewer or more people. Mowen et al.'s (2003) findings suggest that attendees generally perceive the presence of other individual add to, instead of detract from, their experiences with events, and attendees generally preferred more people than less people at events.

The findings of Mowen et al (2003) were echoed by Wickham and Kerstetter (2001). In particular, Wickham and Kerstetter, in their survey, asked the event attendees to report: if the number of people at the event was larger or smaller than they anticipated; if other attendees added or detracted from their experiences with the event; and if the event would have been more enjoyable with fewer or more people. The results showed that the number of people at the event was what the attendees expected, the presence of other individuals was reported to add to the event experiences and the event would have been more enjoyable if there were slightly

more people. These findings are consistent with those reported by Mowen et al. (2003).

Similar to other studies, Kyle, Graefe, Manning and Bacon (2004) also researched on participants' perceptions of the social crowding at a hiking event. Kyle et al.'s (2004) study contain two strengths: i) it was an empirical study which involved a field survey with a large sample size; and ii) it identified two key factors that positively shaped consumers' perceptions of social crowding and these two factors were event involvement and place attachment. Despite its strengths, Kyle et al.' (2004) study has two limitations or weaknesses. It surveyed participants' retrospective experiences instead of on-site experiences with the sporting event. Hence, it might fail to capture the intensity of social crowding experienced by people at the event. The second and final limitation of Kyle et al.'s (2004) study was that it did not examine the impact of social crowding on consumer emotion with an experience. It merely measured consumers' positive or negative perceptions of the social crowding at the event.

In brief, several studies in the event literature have consistently indicated that social crowding can be a positive factor of visitors' or attendees' experiences with events. A possible explanation for this notion is that people generally expect the presence of other individuals at a collective event (e.g. a festival event) and, indeed, desire the social interaction with these individuals at the event. This can also be the case of special event entertainment. As noted earlier, special event entertainment is a collective experience, which is typically co-created and co-consumed with a mass of people in one location at one point in time (Ng, et al., 2007). The lack of social crowding at a special event may 'signal' the lack of attractiveness of the special event and, in turn, may discourage people's attendance (Eastman & Land, 1997). Hence, this research program proposes that social crowding is likely to play a significant and positive role in explaining shopping centre patrons' experiences with special event entertainment. Nevertheless, this notion needs to be substantiated via further study. Table 2.11 presents an overview of the measure and role of social crowding in explaining consumer experience in the event literature.

Table 2.11: Overview of the focus and role of social crowding in explaining consumer experiences in the events literature

Authors	Measure of social crowding	Role of social crowding in explaining consumer experiences	Strengths relating to the measure/explanatory role of social crowding	Weaknesses relating to the measure/explanatory role of social crowding
(Kyle, et al., 2004)	Experience-focused	Social crowding as an outcome, which was influenced by activity involvement and place attachment.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mail survey with participants (n = 1879). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Primarily focus on retrospective experiences. • Lack of examination on the effect of social crowding on emotion and behaviour.
(Mowen, et al., 2003)	Experience-focused	Identified the existence of consumers' positive perceptions of social crowding at festivals.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mail survey with attendees at three events (n1 = 181, n2 = 197, n3 = 123). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Primarily focus on retrospective experiences with the events. • Does not examine the effect of social crowding on consumer emotion and behaviour.
(Wickham & Kerstetter, 2001)	Experience-focused	Place attachment positively influenced social crowding at a community event.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mail survey with attendees (n = 184). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mainly focus on retrospective experiences with the event. • Does not examine the effect of social crowding on consumer emotion and behaviour.

Source: developed for this research

The event literature suggests social crowding as a positive factor, instead of a negative factor, in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment. The positive role of social crowding in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment can be attributed to the collective nature

of special event entertainment. That is, consumers generally expect the presence of other individuals and some may even desire the social interaction with those individuals at special event entertainment (Ng, et al., 2007). The presence of other individuals is important in creating dynamic and exciting experiences of special event entertainment (Gentry, 2004). However, there is a lack of examination on the direct effect of social crowding on consumer emotion relating to events. Studies on experiential consumption in the event literature have largely examined consumers' positive or negative perceptions of the social crowding at events. Since this study seeks to understand if social crowding is constructive or destructive to consumer experiences with special event entertainment, more investigation is, therefore, needed to gain this understanding.

2.5.6 Summary of the event literature on consumer experience

The event literature supports the importance of cognition, emotion, value, behaviour and social crowding in explaining consumer experiences with events. However, more research is needed to clarify several issues surrounding the measures of cognition, emotion, value, behaviour and social crowding. In regards to cognition, studies on experiential consumption in the event literature have widely used perceived quality as a measure of consumer cognition relating to events. However, consumers' interpretations of perceived quality appear to be event-specific because the number of attributes constituting perceived quality is found to vary from one event to another. Therefore, investigation will be needed to determine the nature and number of attributes constituting perceived quality of special event entertainment.

In regards to emotion, several measures have been identified in the event literature (e.g. pleasure-arousal, positive-negative emotion and positive emotion). The measurement of emotion is found to be idiosyncratic among studies on experiential consumption in the event literature. There is a lack of theoretical and empirical information on which of these emotion measures may be applicable in understanding consumer experiences with special event entertainment.

In regards to value, studies in this literature have provided consistent and empirical evidence on the importance of value in explaining consumer experiences. However,

similar to their counterparts in the shopping centre consumption literature, studies in the event consumption literature have largely focused on perceived value and not personal value. In low-involvement situations like the case of special event entertainment, consumers' personal value on shopping is deemed to be more meaningful, as compared to perceived value, because it captures consumers' enduring passion for shopping.

In regards to behaviour, studies on experiential consumption in this literature have largely focused on intended behaviour (e.g. intention to recommend to others, intention to spread positive word-of-mouth, willingness to pay more and revisit intention). There is a lack of focus on actual behaviour (e.g. duration of stay and amount of purchase). In the experiential consumption of special event entertainment, both actual and intended behaviour are equally important in explaining consumer experiences because the former captures the immediate, behavioural outcome and the latter measure the future, behavioural outcome of the experience. .

In regards to social crowding, studies on experiential consumption in the event literature have consistently adopted, a balanced, experience-based measure, which allows consumers to report their positive or negative experiences with social crowding at events. In particular, this balanced, experience-based measure of social crowding ask consumers to indicate the extent to which they perceive the number of people at an event is appropriate, the extent to which the social crowd at an event is enjoyable and also the extent to which the social crowd adds to their experiences with an event. This measure of social crowding is considered appropriate for this study that seeks to examine if the presence of other individuals is constructive or destructive to consumer experiences with special event entertainment.

2.6 Special event entertainment consumption

This study is positioned within the experiential consumption framework of consumer experience (see section 2.3). In particular, the framework suggests that four key factors in explaining consumer experience, namely, cognition, emotion, value, and behaviour (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1986). Nevertheless, there is a major limitation to the experiential consumption framework. That is, it does not provide a consensus

on the structural relationships among these four factors. Therefore, two areas of experiential consumption literature were reviewed, namely shopping centre literature and event literature. The review of the previous studies in these two literature verifies that cognition, emotion, value, and behaviour are useful in explaining consumer experience. Moreover, the review also suggests two additional factors that are worth consideration because they are useful in capturing the dynamics and totality of shoppers' experiences with special event entertainment. These two factors are social crowding and shopping orientation. In particular, social crowding will enable this research program to capture the social density and social interaction between the participants at a special event (Eroglu, et al., 2005). Shopping orientation will enable this research program to gauge the nature of the psychographic disposition of consumers relative to shopping centre patronage and the degree to which the psychographic disposition will influence their experiences with a special event (Teller, et al., 2008). Consequently, a total of six potential factors are identified to be useful in explaining shoppers' experiences with special event entertainment, and their potential importance and role are discussed next.

2.6.1 Cognition

Cognition focuses on consumer perceptions of special event entertainment (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Lofman, 1991). The literature review suggests two possible measures for defining consumer cognition relating to special event entertainment: *perceived atmospherics* (Babin, et al., 2004; Chebat & Michon, 2003; Michon, et al., 2005); and *perceived quality* (Getz, O'Neil, & Carlsen, 2001; Minor, et al., 2004). The measure of perceived atmospherics was identified from the shopping centre literature and it largely focuses on tangible, atmospheric attributes such as music, décor, layout and design (Babin, et al., 2004; Chebat & Michon, 2003; Michon, et al., 2005). Alternatively, the measure of perceived quality is identified from the event literature and it focuses on both atmospheric and non-atmospheric attributes. Examples of non-atmospheric attributes include event interactivity, event suitability to the audience and musician (performer) quality (Minor, et al., 2004; Thrane, 2002).

In comparison to perceived atmospherics, perceived quality is considered to be a more appropriate and holistic measure for defining consumer cognition relating to special event entertainment. This is because it will enable this study to measure both

atmospheric and non-atmospheric attributes relating to special event entertainment. The staging of special event entertainment does not only involve physical props (e.g. stage and sound system), but it can also involve performers or entertainers (Haeberle, 2001). The interactivity and suitability of special event entertainment are also suggested to be important in creating memorable and enjoyable experiences of special event entertainment (Gentry, 2004). Hence, both atmospheric and non-atmospheric attributes can be equally emphasised by consumers when evaluating the quality of special event entertainment.

The measure of perceived quality, without a doubt, will provide a starting point for this study in understanding shoppers' cognition relative to special event entertainment. However, more research is needed to identify the atmospheric and non-atmospheric cues that shoppers emphasise in their experiential assessment of special event entertainment. The literature review indicates that consumer cognition in terms of perceived quality can be event specific. That is, different consumers value different atmospheric and non-atmospheric attributes at different events.

Despite its idiosyncratic nature, cognition is identified as a significant antecedent of emotion (see sections 2.4.1 and 2.5.1). In particular, the literature review suggests that consumers' positive thoughts about an experience are likely to evoke positive feelings with the experience. Accordingly, cognition is hypothesised to have a significant impact on emotion in the experiential consumption of special event entertainment. When consumers have positive thoughts about the quality of a special event, they are likely to have positive feelings with the special event. Therefore:

Hypothesis 1: Cognition will have a significant effect on Emotion. That is, when consumers have positive thoughts about a special event, they are likely to have positive feelings with the event.

Besides cognition, another factor that is likely to influence consumer emotion relating to special event entertainment is social crowding. The importance and role of social crowding in influencing shoppers' experiences with special event entertainment are addressed next.

2.6.2 Social crowding

Social crowding relates to the social density and social interaction between the participants or spectators at special event entertainment (Eroglu, et al., 2005; Mowen, et al., 2003; Wickham & Kerstetter, 2001). The literature review suggests two measures for examining the social crowding at special event entertainment. The first measure is density based, which is identified from the shopping centre literature. This measure is considered to be ‘biased’ in understanding consumers’ attitudes towards social crowding because it has typically focused on the extent to which consumers feel there are too many people, and how difficult it is to navigate around a shopping centre (see section 2.4.5). This density-based measure does not offer a balanced attitudinal position in which consumers can freely indicate whether they feel negatively or positively about social crowding. For these reasons, social crowding is typically identified as a negative factor of consumers’ experiences with shopping centres (see section 2.4.5).

On the contrary, the second measure of social crowding is experience based and it is identified from the event literature. In this literature, social crowding is frequently reported as a positive factor of consumer experience. In particular, the experience-based measure investigates the extent to which consumers perceive social crowding adds to their experiences with events, and the extent to which they perceive social crowding is enjoyable (Eastman & Land, 1997; Mowen, et al., 2003; Wickham & Kerstetter, 2001). This experience-based measure of social crowding is deemed to be more comprehensive than the density-based measure because it enables consumers to report not only negative feelings, but also positive experiences induced by the crowd. For these reasons, the experience-based measure of social crowding is considered to be more meaningful in explaining shoppers’ experiences with special event entertainment. This study is particularly interested in examining the impact of social crowding on consumer emotion of special event entertainment.

Special event entertainment is considered as a form of collective experiences (Ng, et al., 2007). In other words, special event entertainment is typically consumed with a mass of individuals in one location at one point in time (Ng, et al., 2007; Pons, et al., 2006). The presence of, and social interactions with, other individuals are integral

parts of consumer experiences with special event entertainment (Mowen, et al., 2003; Wickham & Kerstetter, 2001). Consumers generally expect the presence of other individuals and may, indeed, desire to interact with other individuals who share similar interests at special event entertainment (e.g. children’s entertainment, fashion, or food and wine) (Ng, et al., 2007; Pons, et al., 2006). Drawn on this rationale, social crowding is hypothesised to be a positive factor in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment. The literature review suggests that social crowding will have a direct, significant effect on consumers’ emotional responses to special event entertainment (section 2.5.5). That is, when consumers perceive social crowding positively, they are likely to have positive feelings with special event entertainment. Hence, this leads to:

Hypothesis 2: Social Crowding will have a significant effect on Emotion. That is, when consumers have positive perceptions about the social crowding at a special event, they are likely to have positive feelings with a special event.

The importance and role of emotion in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment are addressed next.

2.6.3 Emotion

Emotion focuses on consumers’ feelings with special event entertainment (Bagozzi, et al., 1999; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Lofman, 1991). The literature review presents several measures of emotion and they include: pleasure-arousal; excitement; positive emotion; and positive-negative emotion (see sections 2.4.2 and 2.5.2). More investigation is needed to determine an appropriate measure for defining consumer emotion evoked by special event entertainment. The literature review indicates that emotion is generally context specific and thus, in different contexts, consumers are likely to expect or desire different emotional experiences (see sections 2.4.2 and 2.5.2). Hence, more qualitative and quantitative work is needed to determine the nature of emotion that shopping centre patrons emphasise in the experiential consumption of special event entertainment.

Despite its idiosyncratic nature, emotion has been widely identified as a positive antecedent of behaviour in the literature. Consumers' positive feelings about an experience are likely to encourage them to engage in positive behavioural outcomes (e.g. desire to stay and repeat visitation) (see sections 2.4.4 and 2.5.4). The literature review suggests two possible measures for defining shoppers' behaviours associated with special event entertainment: actual behaviour; and intended behaviour. In particular, actual behaviour relates to the behaviour that consumers have actually undertaken during or after an experience. On the contrary, intended behaviour relates to the behaviour that consumers intend to undertake in the future (Hunter, 2006; Tsai, 2010). Actual and intended behaviours are not mutually exclusive in the experiential consumption of special event entertainment. On the contrary, they are equally important in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment. Using special event entertainment, shopping centre managers do not only seek to entice their stay longer and spend more, they also seek to encourage their patrons to spread positive word-of-mouth to others, recommend the experience to friends or family and, ultimately, to revisit the shopping precinct (Parsons, 2003). Thus, this leads to:

Hypothesis 3: Emotion will have a significant effect on Actual Behaviour. That is, when consumers have positive feelings with a special event, they are likely to engage in positive actual behaviours.

Hypothesis 4: Emotion will have a significant effect on Intended Behaviour. That is, when consumers have positive feelings with a special event, they are likely to engage in positive intended behaviours.

2.6.4 Behaviour

Behaviour relates to a shopper's activity undertaken after the experiential consumption of special event entertainment (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1986; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Lofman, 1991). As noted earlier, the literature review suggests two behavioural measures relating to an experience: actual behaviour; and intended behaviour. The definitions of these two behaviours and their importance in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment have been

addressed in previous section. Hence, this chapter will proceed with the discussion on to the importance and role of value and shopping orientation in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment.

2.6.5 Shopping Orientation

As noted earlier, this study seeks to examine consumers' personal value on shopping and the extent to which this value influences consumers' perceptions about social crowding and emotional responses to special event entertainment. Shopping orientation will be used as a surrogate measure of consumers' personal value on shopping. Studies in the shopping centre consumption literature have shown that different consumers can have different shopping orientations. Consequently, consumers with different shopping orientation can have different cognitive and emotional responses to an experience. Consequently, this study proposes that consumers with different shopping orientations are likely to have different thoughts about a special event, they are likely to have different perceptions about the social crowding at the event and, in turn, they are likely to have different levels of emotion relating to the event.

For instance, consumers who enjoy visiting a shopping centre are likely to be hedonic shoppers. On the contrary, consumers who frequently visit a shopping centre for functional purposes are likely to be utilitarian shoppers (Babin, et al., 1994). Hedonic shoppers are anticipated to perceive special event entertainment as a valuable experience and, thus, they are anticipated to have positive thoughts and feelings with special event entertainment. Moreover, hedonic shoppers are anticipated to be positive and enthusiastic about the social crowding at special event entertainment because they tend to perceive the social crowding as a social opportunity. On the contrary, utilitarian shoppers are likely to perceive special event entertainment as a less valuable experience and, thus, have less positive thoughts and feelings with special event entertainment. They are probably less enthusiastic about the social crowding at special event entertainment. Hence, shopping orientation is hypothesised to moderate shoppers' experiences with special event entertainment and this leads to:

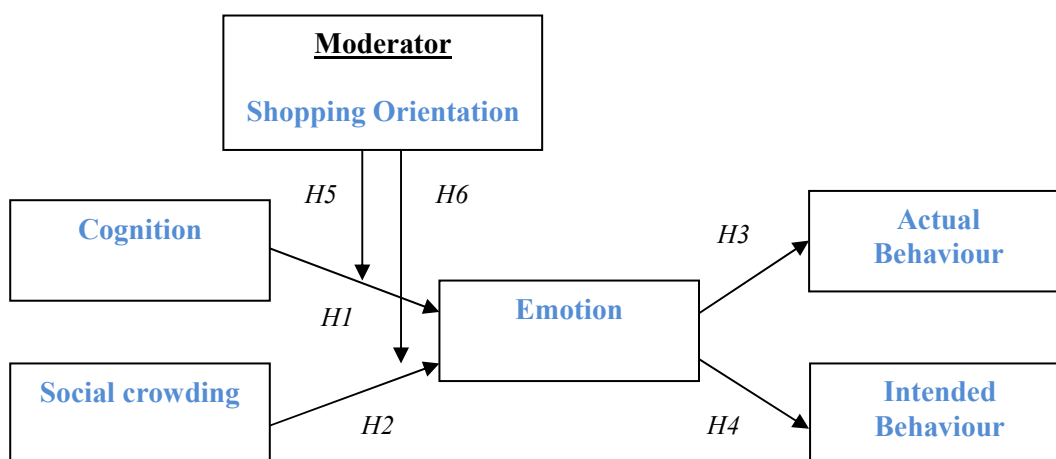
Hypothesis 4: Shopping Orientation will moderate the relationship between Cognition and Emotion. That is, consumers with different shopping orientations are likely to have different thoughts about a special event and, in turn, they are likely to have different feelings with the event.

Hypothesis 5: Shopping Orientation will moderate the relationship between Social Crowding and Emotion. That is, consumers with different shopping orientations are likely to have different perceptions about the social crowding at a special event and, in turn, they are likely to have different feelings with the event.

2.6.7 Preliminary model and hypotheses of special event entertainment experiences

In the previous section, the relationships among cognition, emotion, value, behaviour, social crowding and shopping orientation were discussed. A preliminary model has been developed to illustrate the relationships among these six factors and it is presented in Figure 2.2. The relationships between these six factors are expressed in testable hypotheses, as summarised in Table 2.12.

Figure 2.2: A preliminary model for explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment



Source: developed for this research

TABLE 2.12: A SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES RELATING TO CONSUMER EXPERIENCES WITH SPECIAL EVENT ENTERTAINMENT

Hypothesis no.	Description
H1	Cognition will have a significant effect on Emotion. That is, when consumers have positive thoughts about a special event, they are likely to have positive feelings with the event.
H2	Social Crowding will have a significant effect on Emotion. That is, when consumers have positive perceptions about the social crowding at a special event, they are likely to have positive feelings with the event.
H3	Emotion will have a significant effect on Actual Behaviour. That is, when consumers have positive feelings with a special event, they are likely to engage in positive actual behaviours.
H4	Emotion will have a significant effect on Intended Behaviour. That is, when consumers have positive feelings with a special event, they are likely to engage in positive intended behaviours.
H5	Shopping Orientation will moderate the relationship between Cognition and Emotion. That is, consumers with different shopping orientations are likely to have different thoughts about a special event and, in turn, they are likely to have different feelings with the event.
H6	Shopping Orientation will moderate the relationship between Social Crowding and Emotion. That is, consumers with different shopping orientations are likely to have different perceptions about the social crowding at a special event and, in turn, they are likely to have different feelings with the event.

The summary of this chapter is presented next.

2.7 Chapter summary

This chapter established the theoretical positioning of this study, namely experiential consumption. In particular, the review of the previous studies on consumer experience in the shopping centre and event literature suggests five potential factors for explaining shoppers' experiences with special event entertainment. These five factors are cognition, emotion, value, behaviour, and social crowding. In regards to value, this study will adopt shopping orientation as a surrogate measure of value. The rationale for such adoption is because this study seeks to measure consumers' personal, enduring value on shopping as opposed to perceived, situational value on shopping. Shopping orientation is a simple and psychographic measure of the utilitarian and hedonic attitude of consumers relating to shopping centre patronage (Bloch, et al., 1994). In terms of their structural relationships, cognition and social crowding are proposed to have significant effects on emotion and, in turn, behaviour. Shopping orientation is proposed to moderate the relationship between cognition, social crowding and emotion. A preliminary model and six hypotheses have been

developed to address the structural relationships among these five factors. Having discussed the literature review in detail, the following chapter, Chapter 3, will detail the methodology and findings of the qualitative research stage.

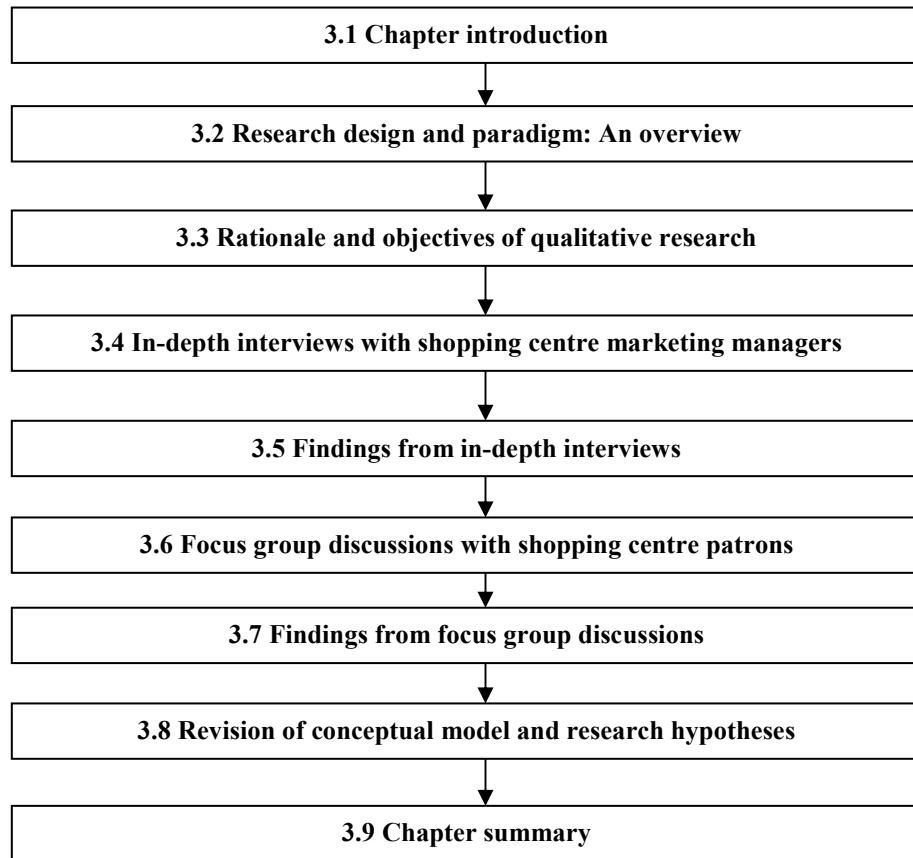
Chapter 3

Qualitative Research: Methodology and Findings

3.1 Chapter introduction

In the previous chapter, the theoretical framework, experiential consumption, underlying this study was identified and justified. Two domains of marketing literature on consumer experience were reviewed, and consequently six factors were suggested to be relevant in explaining shopping centre patrons' experiences with special event entertainment. These six factors are Cognition; Emotion; Actual Behaviour; Intended Behaviour; Social Crowding; and Shopping Orientation. Since these factors are derived from other experiential contexts (i.e. shopping, festival events and sporting events), the extent to which these factors are valid and reliable in explaining shoppers' experiences with special event entertainment is yet to be substantiated. Hence, a qualitative research was conducted to explore the relevance of these factors and, if so, how they can be operationalised to measure shoppers' experiences with special event entertainment.

This chapter will begin with an overview of the overall research design and its underlying scientific paradigm. Next, it will address the purpose and process of conducting in-depth interviews with shopping centre marketing managers (i.e. the practitioners of special event entertainment) followed by the findings from the interviews. Subsequently, the chapter will explain the purpose and process of conducting focus group discussions with shopping centre patrons (i.e. the end-users of special event entertainment), followed by a presentation of the findings. The findings of the qualitative research (consisting of in-depth interviews and focus group discussions) will be discussed in relation to the findings from the literature review. Based on this discussion, the conceptual model will be reviewed and revised, if required, along with its underlying hypotheses. This chapter will conclude with a summary of the purpose and process of the qualitative research. Figure 3.1 presents an illustration of the structure of this chapter.

Figure 3.1 Structure of Chapter Three

Source: developed for this research

3.2 Research design and paradigm: An overview

This research program adopted a three-stage research design to address the research question and objectives. The first stage involved a review of experiential consumption literature to establish the theoretical foundation of this research program (chapter 2). The second stage involved a qualitative research that was conducted to explore the relevance of and the relationship between the key factors for explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment. These key factors were identified from the literature review. The methodology and findings of the qualitative research will be addressed in this chapter. The third and final stage involved a quantitative research that aimed to collect empirical data to test the validity and reliability of the key factors for explaining consumer experiences with

special event entertainment. The methodology of the quantitative research will be addressed in Chapter 4, and the findings will be presented in Chapter 5.

The three-stage research design was driven by the critical realism paradigm. Broadly, a research paradigm is a set of linked assumptions about the reality that is shared by a community of social scientists investigating the world (Healy & Perry, 2000; Rao & Perry, 2003). It also emphasises the orientation of research about reality (ontology), the relationship between the reality and the researcher (epistemology) and the methods used to discover the reality (methodology). There are, generally, four main types of research paradigms, namely, positivism, realism, critical theory and constructivism. The characteristics of the four research paradigms are outlined in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Scientific research paradigms

Characteristics*	Research paradigm			
	Positivism	Realism	Critical theory	Constructivism
Ontology	Naïve realism: reality is real and apprehensible	Critical realism: reality is 'real' but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehensible	Historical realism: 'virtual' reality shaped by social, economic, ethnic, political, cultural and gender values crystallised over time	Critical relativism: multiple local and specific 'constructed' realities
Epistemology	Objectivist: findings true	Adapted objectivist: findings probably true	Subjectivist: value mediated findings	Subjectivist: created findings
Methodology	Mostly experiments/ surveys: verification of hypotheses	Case studies, in-depth interviews & focus groups: triangulation, interpretation of research issues by mixed methods	Dialogic/ dialectical: researcher is a 'transformative intellectual' who changes the social world within which participants live	Hermeneutical/ dialectical: research is a 'passionate participant' within the reality being investigated
* ontology is about the reality, epistemology is about the relationship between the reality and the researcher, methodology is about the methods or techniques used to discover the reality				

Source: Healy and Perry (2000); Perry (1998)

The critical realism paradigm was chosen because it encouraged this research program to integrate different methods (i.e. qualitative and quantitative methods) in addressing the research question. Other paradigms seem to discourage the integration

of different methods and favour either quantitative or qualitative methods only (see Table 3.3). For instance, the positivist paradigm seems to favour quantitative methods such as surveys and experiments, and the constructivist paradigm tends to prefer ethnography and observation (Healy & Perry, 2000). The critical realism paradigm claims that the reality is ‘real’, but the reality is not completely known. Therefore, it strongly recommends the integration of qualitative and quantitative methods to discover the incomplete reality (Healy & Perry, 2000; Rao & Perry, 2003).

Given the lack of theoretical and empirical knowledge on consumer experiences with special event entertainment presented in the literature, the integration of qualitative and quantitative methods, as suggested by the critical realism paradigm, is deemed to provide an enriched understanding to this marketing phenomenon, as compared to if only one research method is used.

Having explained the research design and the scientific paradigm used in this research program, the rationale and objectives of the qualitative research, the second stage of the research design, will be explained next.

3.3 Rationale and objectives of qualitative research

As stated earlier, the qualitative research was conducted to explore the relevance of and the relationships between the key factors identified from the literature review. There are six key factors in total, namely, Cognition, Emotion, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour, Social Crowding and Shopping Orientation. These key factors were proposed to be relevant in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment.

In terms of its methodology, the qualitative research comprised in-depth interviews with shopping centre marketing managers and focus group discussions with shopping centre patrons. Shopping centre marketing managers and shopping centre patrons represent two different stakeholders in special event entertainment—the practitioners and end-users of special event entertainment respectively. The interviewing of both the practitioners and end-users of special event entertainment enabled this research

program to achieve perspective-triangulation and, in turn, helped enhance the validity of the qualitative findings (Patton, 2002). Table 3.2 presents an overview of the qualitative research, particularly in terms of the interviewing methods used, the unit of analysis, the sampling strategy and the analysis strategy.

Table 3.2: Overview of qualitative research conducted to explain consumer experiences with special event entertainment

	In-depth interviews	Focus group discussions
Unit of analysis	Marketing managers of shopping centres	Shopping centre patrons
Sampling strategy	Purposeful sampling	Purposeful sampling
Number of interviews	8 in-depth interviews	4 focus groups, with five to eight participants in each focus group
Interview process	Semi-structured	
Analysis strategy	Thematic analysis and perusal of interview transcripts repeatedly	
References	Dick (1990), Rao & Perry (2003), and Riege & Nair (2004)	Krueger & Casey (2000), Stewart, Shamdasani & Rook (2007)

Source: developed for this research

In the following section, the method of in-depth interview, especially in terms of its unit of analysis, sampling strategy and analysis strategy, is addressed, followed by the method of focus group discussions.

3.4 In-depth interviews with shopping centre marketing managers

Generally, an in-depth interview refers to an unstructured or semi-structured, direct, personal interview in which a single participant is probed by an interviewer to explore underlying motives, beliefs, attitudes and/or feelings about a topic (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). The objective of the in-depth interviews was to explore the relevance of and the relationships between the key factors identified from the literature review. The unit of analysis of the in-depth interviews was shopping centre managers, as addressed in section 3.3. The shopping centre marketing managers represented the practitioners of special event entertainment and were often responsible for the planning, staging and promoting special event entertainment strategies in their retail precincts. Hence, the shopping centre marketing managers were believed to have good knowledge of what factors were important in shaping consumer experiences

with special event entertainment (Haeberle, 2001). Since this study seeks to determine the key factors in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment, the perspectives and knowledge of the shopping centre marketing managers were insightful to this study and, thus, could not be ignored.

The qualitative method of in-depth interviews was selected for three main reasons. First, it encouraged a two-way dialogue between the researcher and the individual shopping centre marketing managers. This two-way dialogue would not be possible with focus group discussions because the shopping centre marketing managers are competitors and, thus, there would be reluctance on their part to discuss their strategies and/or ideas about special event entertainment in the presence of their competitors (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Second, the in-depth interviews enabled the researcher to develop a close rapport with the shopping centre marketing managers on an individual basis which, in turn, facilitated the flow of conversation and the probing about ambiguous comments or remarks (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Third and final, the in-depth interviews enabled the researcher to pinpoint specific comments made by individual shopping centre marketing managers. By knowing which shopping centre marketing managers made which comments or remarks, it enabled the researcher to follow up, either by email or telephone, on ambiguous comments or remarks after the in-depth interviews (Malhotra & Birks, 2007).

When using the qualitative method of in-depth interviews, four decision areas need to be considered: i) the number of in-depth interviews required; ii) the preparation prior to in-depth interviews; iii) the activity during in-depth interviews; and iv) activity after in-depth interviews. Each of these decision areas relating to using in-depth interviews is now discussed in detail.

3.4.1 Deciding the number of in-depth interviews

Researchers such as Dick (1990) and Rao and Perry (2003) suggest that the number of in-depth interviews required for a research project often depends on when theoretical saturation is reached. Generally, theoretical saturation refers to when all possible theoretical concepts have been explored and these concepts have reached optimal convergence. However, in a sampling context, theoretical saturation can also

refer to when no new information or responses emerged from the interviewing process and when all agreements and disagreements among the interviewees have been checked or clarified (Dick, 1990; Rao & Perry, 2003). In this research program, the theoretical saturation occurred at the eighth interview and, thus, eight was the total number of in-depth interviews conducted. Having established the number of in-depth interviews required, the next decision area related to the preparation prior to conducting in-depth interviews.

3.4.2 Preparation prior to in-depth interviews

Prior to the in-depth interviews, two issues were considered, namely, the sampling technique and the interview protocol (Dick, 1990). In regards to the sampling technique, three options were considered: convenience sampling; judgmental sampling; and snowball sampling (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). In particular, *convenience sampling* refers to a sampling technique that attempts to select respondents on a convenience basis. Often interviewees are selected because they happen to be in the right place at the right time (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). *Judgmental sampling* refers to a sampling technique in which respondents are selected based on the judgment of the researcher. In particular, the researcher selects certain individuals because he or she believes they are suited to address the issues under study (Patton, 2002). *Snowball sampling* refers to a sampling technique in which interviewees are selected based on referrals provided by an initial group of respondents (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Of these three sampling techniques, judgmental sampling was deemed to be the most appropriate technique because it enabled the researcher to select shopping centre marketing managers who were ‘eligible’ to discuss the research topic under investigation. In this study, eligibility referred to those shopping centre marketing managers who have planned, staged and promoted special event entertainment. This eligibility criterion was set so that the researcher could obtain practical perspectives and examples relating to special event entertainment experiences. In comparison to judgmental sampling, convenience sampling was less appropriate because it could involve marketing managers who have not been involved in the planning, staging and promotion of special event entertainment. Snowball sampling was less suitable because most marketing

managers are competitors and, thus, are highly unlikely to be willing to provide referrals to the researcher.

To identify eligible shopping centre marketing managers, a list of shopping centres located in South East Queensland (Australia) was initially compiled from the internet and Yellow Pages. Next, the researcher telephoned the shopping centres on the list to determine their eligibility for the in-depth interviews. Once potential, eligible shopping centres had been identified, the researcher emailed the marketing managers to invite their participation in the research project. In the email, the researcher clearly explained the purpose of the research project and potential benefits from participating in the research project. In particular, the researcher highlighted that their participation in the research project could contribute to the development of marketing knowledge on creating positive experiences of special event entertainment and promoting positive shoppers' behaviours at shopping centres. As a token of appreciation, the researcher offered to submit a summary of the research findings upon the completion of the research project.

Once the shopping centre marketing managers had agreed to partake in the in-depth interviews, a second email was sent to confirm the interview date, time and location. A consent form was also attached in the second email for their perusal. The consent form detailed information on the research purpose, the voluntary participation aspect, assurance of confidentiality, contact details of the researcher and his principal supervisor, and contact details of the University Ethics Committee (refer to Appendix 3.2 for a copy of the consent form).

A total of eight marketing managers participated in the in-depth interviews as theoretical saturation was reached at the eighth interview. The marketing managers were from different types of shopping centres, and this provided perspective triangulation for the in-depth interviews (Patton, 2002). Table 3.3 presents a summary of the profiles of the eight shopping centres that participated in the in-depth interviews.

Table 3.3: Profiles of the shopping centres participated in the in-depth interviews

Pseudonym of the shopping centre involved ¹	City of the shopping centre ²	Industry classification ^a
A	Gold Coast	Sub-regional centre
B	Gold Coast	Major regional centre
C	Brisbane	Market centre
D	Brisbane	Regional centre
E	Brisbane	Major regional centre
F	Brisbane	Sub-regional centre
G	Toowoomba	Sub-regional centre
H	Toowoomba	Regional centre

¹The real names of the shopping centres interviewed were concealed for confidentiality.

²All the cities are located in the region of South East Queensland, Australia

^aThe shopping centre classification is developed by the Property Council of Australia. See Appendix 3.1 for the description of each shopping centre classification.

Source: developed for this research

In addition to the sampling technique, another issue to consider before conducting the in-depth interviews was the interview protocol. In this study, a semi-structured interview protocol was developed and it consisted of six key questions:

- *What sort of entertainment events does your centre offer?*
- *Why do you offer entertainment events?*
- *How does your centre decide which entertainment events to offer or why?*
- *How does your centre normally measure the outcomes of your entertainment events?*
- *In your opinion, how do people normally respond to entertainment events at shopping centres? And, what feedback do you get?*
- *In your opinion, why do people participate in entertainment events at shopping centres?*

Each of these key questions comprised one or two probe questions (refer to Appendix 3.3 for more details about the probe questions). Having addressed the preparation prior to conducting the in-depth interviews, the next decision area to consider is the series of activities that need to take place during the in-depth interviews. This decision area is addressed next.

3.4.3 Activity during the in-depth interviews

At the beginning of each in-depth interview, the researcher thanked the shopping centre marketing manager for their participation in the research project and then presented the consent form for signature. The consent form had previously been sent to the individual shopping centre marketing managers for their perusal, as addressed in the previous section. The researcher assured each shopping centre marketing manager on several key issues such as confidentiality, voluntary participation and liberty to cease the interview if the questions were deemed inappropriate or irrelevant. Each interview conducted in this study was audio recorded and then transcribed for thematic analysis.

Each interview took approximately 30 to 45 minutes to complete and was conducted face-to-face so that the researcher could build a personal rapport with the marketing managers. Each interview was conducted at the office of the shopping centre marketing manager to encourage a feeling of ease in conversing with the researcher (Rao & Perry, 2003). The marketing manager's office represented a familiar 'comfort zone' and, thus, may facilitate conversation between the researcher and the marketing manager (Rao & Perry, 2003).

During the in-depth interviews, the opening questions were framed in a manner to encourage the marketing managers to voice their opinions about special event entertainment without placing any judgment on the responses. Examples of these non-judgmental opening questions were '*what sort of entertainment events does your centre offer*' and '*what are the common reasons for your centre to offer those entertainment events?*' These non-judgmental opening questions did not exert any pressure on the shopping centre marketing manager to justify or intellectualise their responses. Instead, the shopping centre marketing manager was simply asked to talk generally about his or her working experiences and knowledge about special event entertainment.

Probe questions were used to engage the shopping centre marketing manager in ongoing conversation and to maintain the focus of the interview process. Probe questions were also used to check agreements and clarify disagreements among the

shopping centre marketing managers (Rao & Perry, 2003). More details about the probe questions can be found in Appendix 3.3.

When no new information emerged from the interview, the researcher began closure by summarising the key points raised by the shopping centre marketing manager. The researcher concluded the interview by, once again, thanking the shopping centre marketing manager for participating in the research project. The researcher offered to email a copy of the interview transcript if required. Before leaving the interview, the researcher asked the shopping centre marketing manager if he or she had any concerns or questions relating to the interview. This was to ensure the shopping centre marketing manager was content with the interviewing process (Dick, 1990).

In brief, the interviewing process conducted in this research program has involved a series of activities: thanking the shopping centre marketing managers at the beginning of the interview; their signature for the consent form; using non-judgmental opening questions and probe questions to engage the shopping centre marketing managers throughout the process; and thanking the shopping centre marketing managers once again at the end of the interview. Having explained the activities involved during the interview, the activities that took place after the interview will be addressed next.

3.4.4 After the in-depth interviews

When conducting in-depth interviews, the third and final decision relates to the activities that take place after the interview. Once the interview was concluded, the researcher immediately wrote a synopsis of the interview. The synopsis documented the key points raised by the shopping centre marketing manager and the researcher's personal reflections and ideas about the interview. The researcher also noted the agreements and disagreements among the shopping centre marketing managers in the synopsis (Dick, 1990).

All data from the interview were transcribed and then subjected to thematic analysis (Boyatzis, 1998; Richards, 2005). In particular, the thematic analysis involved three types of coding: descriptive; topic; and analytical. In particular, descriptive coding

involves sorting statements or comments into descriptive codes or labels. Descriptive coding, generally, involves minimal interpretation from a researcher (Richards, 2005). For instance, the following statement described the importance of a convenient time in staging an entertainment event. Hence, this statement was assigned a descriptive code or label known as ‘convenient time’.

Convenient time — ‘...we usually choose between 11am and 1pm, that is when we have the biggest draw of people to the centre and when it is most convenient for people’.

Topic coding involves linking or organising the descriptive codes into a related topic or a theoretical construct (e.g. perceived event quality). For instance, a number of descriptive codes—such as convenient time, professional stage setting and quality of performers—were identified from the in-depth interviews. These descriptive codes were subsequently categorised into the topic of perceived event quality as they all related to the perceived quality of an entertainment event.

According to Richards (2005), analytical coding is the most complex type of coding as it involves a high level of interpretation and reflection on meaning. In particular, analytical coding requires a researcher to identify the context in which a topic is discussed, and then construe the meanings based on the context. In this study, analytical coding was used to understand the meanings and relationships between the topics (e.g. perceived event quality and emotion) discussed in the context of special event entertainment.

The researcher has considered the use of a second judge or coder in this study to crosscheck the academic rigour (trustworthiness) of the qualitative findings. However, due to several resources constraints, the use of a second judge or coder was not feasible. First, to develop meaningful codes from qualitative data, the second judge or coder should have some sound theoretical knowledge in the topic under investigation, for this study, experiential consumption of special events in retail environments. The topic under study in this research program was relatively specialised. Moreover, this research program is not a collaborative research project involving several researchers. Instead, this research program is an individual doctorate research project that must be completed and written by the researcher (i.e.

the doctorate candidate). Besides the principal and associate supervisors of the researcher, no other academic member at the researcher's university was deemed to have sound theoretical knowledge about the topic under study. The Marketing department at the researcher's university is a relatively small, consisting of only eight staff members. Second, the use of either the principal or associate supervisor as the second judge or coder was deemed unorthodox at best, inappropriate at worst. Consequently, this would unlikely to be approved by the Dean of Research, Office of Research and Higher Degree and the examiners. Third and final, there was limited fund that the researcher could draw on to hire an external second judge or coder. The candidate had to reserve the fund for a series of activities undertaken in the main stage of this research program. These activities included questionnaire printing, hiring research assistants for the field survey, and purchasing shopping vouchers for the respondents. For these reasons, a second judge or coder was not used in the qualitative analysis.

Nevertheless, since the qualitative research only constituted a minor part of this research program, the lacking of a second judge or coder should not pose a major threat to the validity and reliability of the major part of this research program, namely, the mall intercept survey with shoppers. As stated earlier, the qualitative research was merely used to explore the relevance of and the relationships between the key factors identified from the literature review.

To ensure that the data gathered from the in-depth interviews met academic rigour (trustworthiness), four criteria were used to establish the data's validity and reliability—construct validity, internal validity, external validity and reliability. The characteristics of these four rigour criteria are discussed next.

3.4.5 Establishing the academic rigour of in-depth interviews

As noted earlier, four criteria were used to establish the academic rigour of the data collected from in-depth interviews, namely construct validity, internal validity, external validity and reliability. These four criteria were drawn from Yin's work (2009). The characteristics of each of these four rigour criteria are now discussed in detail.

Construct validity. Construct validity relates to identifying correct operational measures for the concepts or constructs being studied (Yin, 2009). Three tactics were used to establish the construct validity of the data from the in-depth interviews. First, eight shopping centre marketing managers were recruited and interviewed in this study. The eight shopping centres involved in this study varied in terms of location and size, as presented in Table 3.3. The interviewing of multiple shopping centre marketing managers enabled the researcher to achieve perspective-triangulation and, in turn, establish construct validity. That is, it enabled the researcher to compare and contrast the perspectives of multiple shopping centre marketing managers relative to the research topic under investigation (Patton, 2002; Yin, 2009). The second tactic involved the use of probe questions to clarify ambiguous comments or remarks made by the shopping centre marketing managers. Probe questions were also used to validate agreements and illuminate disagreements among the shopping centre marketing managers in relation to the research issues under investigation (Yin, 2009). The third and final tactic focused on comparing and contrasting the data from the in-depth interviews with other information sources, particularly the literature review and the data from the focus group discussions. This tactic enabled the researcher to establish a ‘holistic’ database of evidence to address the research issues (Yin, 2009).

Internal validity. Internal validity is about establishing the causal relationship (i.e. a factor believed to be a cause of another factor) between two constructs. Yin (2009) contends that internal validity is largely applicable for a causal or explanatory study, and it is not applicable for an exploratory or descriptive study. Since the in-depth interviews of this study were mainly exploratory (see section 3.3), internal validity was, thus, not applicable for the in-depth interviews. The in-depth interviews were mainly conducted to explore the relevance of and the relationships between the six key factors that are proposed to explain consumer experiences with special event entertainment (see section 3.3).

External validity. External validity relates to defining the domain to which a study’s findings can be generalised (Yin, 2009). In this research, the data of the in-depth interviews were aimed for theoretical generalisation, as opposed to statistical

generalisation. In particular, theoretical generalisation is about generalising a particular set of results to some broader theory, whereas statistical generalisation emphasises generalising a set of results to a large population (Yin, 2009).

This study aimed to generalise the findings from the in-depth interviews to the theoretical framework of experiential consumption, especially in the context of special event entertainment convened by shopping centres. There is a lack of theoretical and empirical research on the experiential consumption of special event entertainment convened by shopping centres (see section 2.2). The in-depth interviews provided a practitioner's perspective on whether cognition, emotion, behaviour, social crowding and shopping orientation were important factors in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment in the shopping centre environment; and, if so, what attributes would be relevant in measuring each of these factors.

Reliability. Reliability is about establishing the consistency of the data (Yin, 2009). The reliability of the in-depth interviews was established by using a semi-structured interview protocol. It enabled the researcher to follow a consistent inquiry process and a consistent analysis procedure for the eight interviews conducted in this study. Since the criteria used to establish the academic rigour of the in-depth interviews have been addressed, the findings of the in-depth interviews can now be presented and discussed.

3.5 Findings from in-depth interviews

This section is structured in four main themes: popular types of special event entertainment being offered by shopping centres (section 3.5.1); key reasons for offering special event entertainment (section 3.5.2); managerial evaluation of the outcomes of special event entertainment (section 3.5.3); and shopper evaluation of special event entertainment (section 3.5.4).

3.5.1 Types of special event entertainment being offered

The in-depth interviews revealed that shopping centres, at least those interviewed in this study, generally offer a variety of types of entertainment events such as children workshops, performances by costume characters, school band performances, fashion shows, celebrity appearances, market days and reptile shows. Nevertheless, many of these entertainment events (e.g. children workshops, costume characters and reptile shows) appear to target to family shoppers with young children, and these findings suggest that many of the shopping centres, at least those interviewed in this study, tend to position themselves as family-focused shopping destinations. Table 3.4 summarises the types of entertainment events offered by the shopping centres interviewed in this study.

Table 3.4: Popular types of special event entertainment offered by the shopping centres

Pseudonyms of the shopping centre marketing managers interviewed in this study	Types of entertainment events being offered by the shopping centre
A	Mostly children's workshops, performances by cartoon characters and celebrity appearances
B	Mostly fashion related events (e.g. catwalks, fashion talk shows or panels, makeover workshops) and celebrity appearances
C	A variety of special events (e.g. celebrity appearances, band performances and cultural events etc)
D	Mostly children's workshops, performances by cartoon characters and school band performances
E	Mostly children's workshops, performances by cartoon characters, talent quest events, fashion shows, and festival events (e.g. Food & Wine Festival)
F	Mostly children's workshops and performances by cartoon characters
G	Mostly children's workshops and performances by cartoon characters
H	Mostly children's workshops, performances by cartoon characters, celebrity appearances and festival events (e.g. Family Week Festival)

Source: developed from the in-depth interviews

The market positioning of a shopping centre appears to have some bearing on the types of entertainment events offered by the shopping centre. With the exception of shopping centre B, many shopping centres interviewed in this study were found to promote themselves as family-focused shopping destinations and, thus, they have largely focused on family-oriented entertainment events such as children's workshops, performances by cartoon characters and festival events (e.g. a food and wine festival). Unlike other shopping centres interviewed, shopping centre B

positions itself as a fashion-focused shopping destination and, thus, mainly focuses on fashion-related entertainment events like catwalks, fashion exhibits and appearance-makeover workshops. This notion is verified by the marketing manager of shopping centre B:

'We do not do any school holiday events. It will be mainly fashion events. It is because we are a fashion centre. Majority of our retailers are centred on fashion. It will be a fashion show, a fashion exhibition or a fashion workshop' (Marketing Manager B).

3.5.2 Reasons for offering special event entertainment

The in-depth interviews identified four main reasons that explain why the shopping centre marketing managers would normally offer entertainment events to their patrons. These four reasons are: i) to draw shopper traffic; ii) to drive retail sales; iii) to meet shoppers' expectations; and iv) to promote the shopping centre's image. The first two reasons were not novel to the researcher as they have been documented in the literature (Kim, et al., 2005a; Parsons, 2003). Researchers such as Kim et al. (2005a) and Parsons (2003) have reported that shopping centres often use entertainment events such as school or community displays, market days and fashion shows to entice their patrons to visit, visit more often, stay longer and, ultimately, to spend more at the shopping precinct.

On the contrary, the other two reasons for offering entertainment events in shopping centres, namely 'to meet shoppers' expectations' and 'to promote the shopping centre's brand image', were not expected by the researcher as these reasons are not well documented in the literature. These two reasons can represent a fruitful area for future research. In terms of meeting shoppers' expectations, the shopping centre marketing managers commented that they feel, occasionally they have to offer entertainment events because their patrons would expect certain events at certain retail seasons like school holidays, Easter break and the Christmas season. If no entertainment event was offered during these retail seasons, it would create disappointment and dissatisfaction among shoppers and, worse still, could result in formal complaints to the shopping centre management. These findings suggest that the offering of special event entertainment can be necessary or inevitable during

certain retail seasons (e.g. school holiday periods, Easter break and Christmas season).

In regards to promoting the shopping centre's image, the marketing managers uttered that the offering of entertainment events enabled them to give something back to the local community and, in turn, to promote themselves as being part of the local community. These findings suggest that shopping centres tend to use special event entertainment to provide social opportunities for the local community and enable the residents at the local community to congregate and interact with other people. Without a doubt, shopping centres expect that by promoting themselves as being part of the local community people will visit, visit more and spend more at their shopping precincts. Relevant comments from the shopping centre marketing managers include:

'Offering entertainment events is an act of giving back to the community. This is to show the local community that the shopping centre cares about them or their welfare such as the appearance of Rickie Lee and the Titans. These opportunities allow the local residents especially the kids to meet their idols for free' (Marketing Manager A).

'Traffic generating is probably the main reason to have entertainment events at this centre. Another reason is for community or community feel-good aspects such as having schools performing here' (Marketing Manager of Centre H).

3.5.2.1 Behaviour as a key outcome of special event entertainment

The above comments from the shopping centre marketing managers reinforce the importance of behaviour in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment. That is, using special event entertainment, the shopping centre marketing managers typically seek to entice their patrons to engage in approach or positive behaviours, both actual and intended behaviours. The next section will examine how the shopping centre marketing managers would normally measure the behavioural outcomes of special event entertainment.

3.5.3 Measuring the behavioural outcomes of special event entertainment

When asked how they would generally measure the behaviour outcomes of entertainment events, the shopping centre marketing managers alluded to several approaches: retailers' feedback; traffic count; monthly sales figures; and personal observation.

In terms of retailers' feedback, the shopping centre marketing managers mentioned that they would talk to their tenant retailers after an entertainment event and ask them if they felt the entertainment event brought more shoppers to their shops and if the entertainment event helped to increase their retail transactions. In terms of traffic count, the shopping centre marketing managers indicated that they would check the number of visitors and/or number of cars entering the shopping centre and see if there was an increase in traffic numbers. In regards to monthly sales figures, the shopping centre marketing managers stated that they would look at their like-to-like sales and see if there was an increase in retail sales after an entertainment event. In terms of personal observation, the shopping centre marketing managers explained that they would be physically present at an entertainment event, conduct a head count and observe the audience's reaction to the entertainment event.

Whilst these approaches enable the shopping centre marketing managers to gain an indication on whether an entertainment event is well received or not, they are deemed less useful in understanding shoppers' experiences with the entertainment event. That is, these approaches do not measure how shoppers actually think, feel and behave in relation to entertainment events organised by shopping centres. For instance, these approaches do not inform the shopping centre marketing managers about whether their patrons think positively or negatively about the entertainment event, if their patrons find the experience enjoyable, or if their patrons have actually stayed longer and spent more money than planned. Besides cognition, emotion and behaviour, social crowding and shopping orientation have also been identified as relevant in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment. Yet, none of the approaches being used by the shopping centre marketing managers enables them to measure the effects of these two factors (social crowding and shopping orientation) on shoppers' experiences with entertainment events. Drawn on

the findings from the in-depth interviews, there appears to be a need for a more experience-focused approach to measure the outcomes of special event entertainment.

The shopping centre marketing managers were asked if they would normally conduct market research to survey shoppers' experiences with entertainment events. Many of them replied 'no'. The rationale given by them was that the implementation of market research could be costly and they did not normally factor market research into their annual marketing budgets. The shopping centre marketing managers indicated that they tended to have 'tight' marketing budgets; and conducting market research on consumer experiences with entertainment events was an 'extra and yet unnecessary' cost to their marketing budgets. A relevant comment from one shopping centre marketing manager was:

'We do not generally get feedback from the customer because it is quite difficult unless we do some surveys. We have done some incentive surveys asking our customers: do they like the school holiday entertainment? What type of school holiday entertainment do they like? But, it is not type of things we would do on a regular basis because they can be expensive' (Marketing Manager D).

In brief, the shopping centre marketing managers interviewed in this study tended to rely on basic approaches when gauging the outcomes of special event entertainment and these basic approaches include retailers' feedback, door count, retail sales and personal observation. However, none of these approaches provides insight into how consumers actually think, feel and behave in relation to special event entertainment. Without knowing consumers' cognition, emotion and behaviour relative to special event entertainment, the shopping centre marketing managers do not know if the experience is favourable or unfavourable to consumers and, thus, strategies cannot be developed to achieve positive outcomes (e.g. increased frequency of visit and increased spending). Hence, there is a need for more use of experience-focused approaches when measuring the outcomes of special event entertainment.

3.5.4 Shoppers' evaluation of special event entertainment

When asked how shoppers would normally evaluate their experiences with entertainment events in shopping centres, the shopping centre marketing managers mentioned a range of attributes and these attributes could be grouped into perceived event quality (cognition), enjoyment (emotion) and social crowding.

3.5.4.1 Perceived event quality

The shopping centre marketing managers mentioned a number of key cognitive attributes relating to entertainment events such as stage setting, convenience, quality of performers and event interactivity. These cognitive attributes could be represented by the construct of perceived event quality, as discussed in section 2.5.1. In particular, perceived event quality relates to the atmospheric and non-atmospheric attributes of an event (see section 2.5.1). Each of these cognitive attributes is now explained in detail.

Stage setting. Stage setting relates to the physical setup of an entertainment event and it can involve attributes such as stage decoration, sound system and other physical props (e.g. seating). The shopping centre marketing managers stated that the stage setting at an entertainment event was important in attracting shoppers' attention and, in turn, luring their participation. A comment from one shopping centre marketing manager was:

'Having colour and movement...something literally or physically moving...people cannot help but look at it' (Marketing Manager C)

Convenience. This cognitive attribute relates to the extent to which an entertainment event is easily accessible by shoppers in terms of its time and venue. The shopping centre marketing managers asserted that convenience is a key factor in enticing shoppers' participation in an entertainment event. Indeed, the marketing managers explained that if shoppers perceive they can easily access an entertainment event whenever they desire, they are more likely to take part in the event. A comment from the marketing managers was:

'For customers, they do not have to be there at 11am because it is the first show of a pantomime is at 11am and the next show is at 1pm. Customers can get come in anytime of the day for a reptile show because it will be open from 9am to 5pm' (Marketing Manager D).

Quality of performers. This cognitive attribute is about the personnel performing at an entertainment event and these personnel can involve cartoon characters, musicians, pop artists or famous athletes. The shopping centre marketing managers explained that the performers, through singing, dancing or playing an instrument, were an integral part of the staging of an entertainment event. Moreover, the shopping centre marketing managers also talked about, if they could afford, they would prefer to use famous performers because they helped to generate free publicity for the shopping centres in the local media (print and/or broadcast). Consequently, this free publicity helped to promote the brand image of the shopping centres and, thus, draw people's patronage. Some comments from the shopping centre marketing managers include:

'We had the Gold Coast Titans, it was quite big...not only it gets people [who] do not normally shop at our shopping centre to come to us, it is the community aspect as well. We are giving the kids an opportunity to see the Titans for nothing in a flesh. It does reflect a positive community image' (Marketing Manager A).

'It (a special event) needs to have a big name or a name that the audience can recognise like the Cat in a Hat. It has to be a name they recognise, the kids already know' (Marketing Manager A).

'Something that is high profile like Bob the Builder, people are willing to drive further or specifically to come to the shopping centre' (Marketing Manager E).

Event interactivity. Event interactivity relates to the level of interactivity that an entertainment event offers to the target audience. The shopping centre marketing managers mentioned that shoppers tend to enjoy entertainment events that are interactive and allowed them to do or learn something. In other words, shoppers tend to seek hand-on experiences from entertainment events convened by shopping centres. Some marketing managers further emphasised that an interactive entertainment event is more likely to engage shoppers in terms of their cognition and emotion as compared to a less interactive event. Consequently, shoppers are more likely to remember the interactive entertainment event and the shopping centre, which stages the event. Some comments from the shopping centre marketing managers are:

'We have recently found a good mix of workshops and stage shows...they were done in conjunction with our local museum...the kids were painting, they were colouring, they were making a fossil dig. Then, there were story telling sessions, there were some fossil bones that they could look at as well. That was really popular' (Marketing Manager H).

'We may advertise we are going to have a juggling act...the kids are able to participate in a workshop and learn how to juggle something or a ball. We may give away something or a juggling ball. That sort of extend beyond the entertainment and goes into more interaction and more memorable' (Marketing Manager G).

3.5.4.2 Enjoyment

The shopping centre marketing managers repeatedly emphasised that a ‘good’ entertainment event should be enjoyable, entertaining, interesting and appealing to shoppers. These emotional attributes appear to explain shoppers’ enjoyment with an entertainment event. Enjoyment is a common emotion measure in the event literature (see section 2.5.2). The shopping centre marketing managers indicated that the extent to which shoppers enjoyed an entertainment event could significantly influence their subsequent behaviours (e.g. duration of stay and likelihood to spend) at shopping centres. Some comments from the shopping centre marketing managers about shoppers’ enjoyment with entertainment events include:

‘Customers come to enjoy the (entertainment) experience. People bring their children to the shopping centre and enjoy the (entertainment) experience...they leave with positive feelings. They (want to) enjoy an enjoyable experience’ (Marketing Manager D).

‘...customer emotion is very important. If customers leave the show being happy, they are more likely to stay for lunch or to have a look around more. If they are disappointed or if the show is not really good, that would leave a bad taste in their mouth, they would leave (the shopping centre) straight away’ (Marketing Manager A).

‘...for the person who has planned to come here because they know we offer certain types of entertainment events, their expectations are they would enjoy it’ (Marketing Manager G).

3.5.4.3 Social crowding

Social crowding relates to the presence of other individuals and the interaction between these individuals at an entertainment event (Eroglu, et al., 2005). The literature review has indicated the importance of social crowding in explaining consumer experiences with shopping and events (see sections 2.4.5 and 2.5.5). However, the effect of social crowding on consumer experiences with shopping and events has been inconsistent in the literature. In particular, previous studies on

experiential consumption in the shopping centre literature have predominantly identified social crowding as a negative factor of consumers' shopping experiences. On the contrary, previous studies on experiential consumption in the event literature have frequently reported social crowding as a positive factor of consumer experiences with events (see sections 2.4.5 and 2.5.5).

When asked what they thought about social crowding at entertainment events, the shopping centre marketing managers provided negative and positive responses to this question. Initially, the shopping centre marketing managers stated that social crowding at entertainment events could be a negative factor because it prevented people from carrying out their shopping activities (e.g. food and apparel shopping). To minimise the negative effect of social crowding on consumers' shopping experiences, they would normally implement a crowd management strategy such as having additional security guards present and designating a specific area for the entertainment event. Comments from shopping centre marketing managers relating to this issue include:

'If it is a big event like the appearance of an Australian Idol contestant...the whole area is just blocked, people cannot actually get through, and that may annoy some people. It is not a major issue. We usually have security (guards) to try to keep it under control so that people can get through' (Marketing Manager A).

'Obviously you want the event to be popular. But when it becomes too popular, it becomes a hassle. We make sure that we will have a security guard to keep the traffic moving...we try manoeuvre the customers in a way that the crowd is not going to block the shop front of our retailers and it is not going to block traffic flow' (Marketing Manager D).

Subsequently, the shopping centre marketing managers asserted that social crowding could be a positive factor, especially for consumer experiences with entertainment events. Social crowding was suggested to be important in creating dynamic and exciting experiences in entertainment events. The shopping centre marketing managers further explained that, for people who sought to participate in entertainment events, they would normally expect the presence of other individuals

at entertainment events and would seek to share the entertainment experiences with other individuals.

The shopping centre marketing managers also stated that social crowding could be useful in stimulating curiosity in those shoppers who did not pre-plan their participation in an entertainment event before visiting the shopping centre. Social crowding could entice the accidental participation of this cohort of shoppers in the entertainment event. The shopping centre marketing managers explained that people were generally curious human beings and would want to find out why a mass of people congregating at an area and, often, they ended up joining the social mass.

3.5.5 Lack of managerial focus on the impact of shopping orientation on shoppers' experiences with special event entertainment

When asked if they were aware of the profiles of people who *would* and *would not* normally participate in entertainment events, the shopping centre marketing managers replied yes. In particular, they stated that mothers with young children were normally interested in entertainment events organised by shopping centres, particularly school holiday events. They further stated that senior shoppers and male shoppers were generally apathetic or unenthusiastic about entertainment events in shopping centres. In regards to teenagers, the shopping centre marketing managers considered this segment as tricky or fickle as they could be highly unpredictable in terms of their choices of a shopping destination, and thus this could make the staging of entertainment events challenging. This is because the shopping centre marketing managers could not easily forecast if the staging of an entertainment event would certainly entice teenagers' visits to their shopping precincts. If the entertainment event failed to increase teenagers' traffic to the shopping centre, this would be deemed as a marketing failure and thus the management or owner of the shopping centre would likely be questioning the competence of the marketing managers. These findings explain why the shopping centre marketing managers have commonly focused on family-oriented entertainment events, as discussed in section 3.5.1. Some relevant comments from the shopping centre marketing managers include:

'Young singles, older females and teenagers are not normally interested in entertainment events. Also, we do not have a lot of male customers. Our male and

female ratio is a quite big difference. We have [a] larger [number of] female customers than male customers. The reason is we only have two male fashion stores here' (Marketing Manager G).

It is difficult to design entertainment events for teenagers...because they are so unpredictable...they are just happy with a skate ground that they can just vandalise down the road rather than being at a shopping centre' (Marketing Manager F).

These findings are insightful because they provide an indication on shopper segments (e.g. mothers with young children) that are likely to be enthusiastic about entertainment events in shopping centres and shopper segments (e.g. senior shoppers and male shoppers) that are likely to be apathetic about entertainment events in shopping centres. Nevertheless, there is a major limitation to these findings. That is, the shopping centre marketing managers seem to have largely focused on the demographic profiles of shoppers who are likely to participate in entertainment events. There appears to be a lack of focus on the psychographic profiles (e.g. shopping orientation) of shoppers who are likely to participate in entertainment events in shopping centres. An examination of shoppers' psychographic profiles is important because it will provide the shopping centre marketing managers with a more holistic view on why certain demographic segments are likely to be enthusiastic or apathetic about entertainment events in shopping centres (Darden & Ashton, 1974-1975; Gehrt & Shim, 1998).

3.5.6 Summary of in-depth interviews

The in-depth interviews with shopping centre marketing managers represented the first part of the qualitative research in this study. In particular, eight marketing managers from different shopping centres (in terms of types and sizes) were interviewed, and this was to achieve perspective-triangulation and, in turn, to enhance the validity and reliability of the findings (Patton, 2002). The shopping centre marketing managers were selected because they represent the practitioners of special event entertainment (Haerberle, 2001).

The findings from the in-depth interviews, generally, reinforced the importance of cognition, emotion, behaviour, social crowding and shopping orientation in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment. In terms of cognition, the in-depth interviews suggest perceived event quality as an appropriate measure for this factor. According to the shopping centre marketing managers, shoppers' perceptions of entertainment events tended to go beyond atmospheric attributes (e.g. stage setting) and include non-atmospheric attributes (e.g. convenience, event interactivity and quality of performers).

In regards to emotion, the in-depth interviews suggest enjoyment as a relevant measure for this factor. The shopping centre marketing managers indicated that their patrons generally expected an entertainment event to be enjoyable, interesting, entertaining and appealing. Otherwise, their patrons would not be interested in participating in the entertainment event and, consequently, they would not stay and spend money at the shopping precinct.

In regards to behaviour, the in-depth interviews reinforce the importance of both actual and intended behaviours in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment. Indeed, both actual and intended behaviours represent the key outcomes that shopping centres typically seek when offering special event entertainment. In this study, the shopping centre marketing managers repeatedly mentioned the reasons for staging special event entertainment were to drive shopper traffic and retail sales.

In relation to social crowding, the in-depth interviews indicated that this factor, if managed properly, could be a positive factor of consumer experiences with special event entertainment. The shopping centre marketing managers explained an entertainment event needed the presence of some audience to make the experience dynamic and interesting, otherwise shoppers might perceive the entertainment event as unpopular and dull. The shopping centre marketing managers further stated that the presence of a massive audience at an entertainment event could, sometimes, help evoke curiosity in shoppers and, in turn, entice their 'ad-hoc' participation in the event.

In regards to shopping orientation, the in-depth interviews indicate a lack of managerial focus on this factor. The shopping centre marketing managers appear to have largely focused on the demographic characteristics of shoppers (e.g. gender and age), and none of them seemed to have emphasised the importance of shopping orientation in understanding shoppers' experiences with entertainment events. Hence, there is certainly a need for more research on the role of shopping orientation in explaining consumer experiences with entertainment events convened by shopping centres, namely special event entertainment.

This section has explored the practitioner's perspective on the importance and measures of cognition, emotion, behaviour, social crowding and shopping orientation in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment. In the next section, the end user's perspective on similar issues was explored. Shopping centre patrons represent the end-users of special event entertainment (Gentry, 2004; Haeberle, 2001). Unlike shopping centre marketing managers, shopping centre patrons are not competitors and, thus, can be interviewed in a group setting (Krueger & Casey, 2000; Morgan, 1997). Hence, focus group discussions were deemed to be an appropriate qualitative methodology to interview shopping centre patrons. The execution process and findings relating to the focus group discussions are addressed in the next section.

3.6 Focus group discussions with shopping centre patrons

Broadly, a focus group discussion refers to an organised discussion with a selected group of individuals to gain information about their opinions and/or knowledge relating to a research topic (Stewart, et al., 2007). As noted earlier, focus group discussions were conducted with shopping centre patrons, who represent the 'end-users' of special event entertainment. Similar to the purpose of the in-depth interviews, the purpose of the focus group discussions was twofold: i) to clarify the importance of cognition, emotion, behaviour, social crowding and shopping orientation in understanding consumer experiences with special event entertainment; and ii) to clarify the measures of these five factors in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment.

When conducting the focus group discussions, five decision areas were considered: i) deciding the sampling techniques; ii) establishing the focus groups; iii) establishing the role of the moderator; iv) conducting the focus group session; and, finally, v) analysing the data (Krueger & Casey, 2000; Stewart, et al., 2007). Each of these decision areas is now addressed in detail.

3.6.1 Deciding the sampling technique

When recruiting the potential participants for the focus group discussions, a combination of judgmental and snowballing sampling was used. In particular, the judgmental sampling enabled the researcher to selectively recruit participants who were ‘meaningful’ to take part in the focus group discussions (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). In this study, ‘meaningful’ participants referred to shopping centre patrons who have past experiences with entertainment events convened by shopping centres.

In addition to judgmental sampling, snowball sampling was also used as it helped to build an instant rapport between focus group participants, namely shopping centre patrons (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). The instant rapport came from initial shopping centre patrons recommending other individuals (e.g. family members or friends) known to have past experiences with special event entertainment. This instant rapport, consequently, helped enhance the group dynamics and conversation flows among the shopping centre patrons (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Having decided on how to recruit the focus group participants, the number and size of the focus group is considered next.

3.6.2 Determining the number and size of the focus groups

Four groups of shopping centre patrons from different demographic backgrounds were recruited, and they were labelled as ‘Family Shopper I’, ‘Family Shopper II’, ‘Senior Shopper’, and ‘Young Shopper’. Whilst Family Shopper I and II represented the cohorts of married couples with young children, they were slightly distinct in terms of the gender composition. That is, Family Shopper I comprised mothers only, whereas Family Shopper II consisted of both mothers and fathers. These four shopping centre groups represent the common market segments of shopping centres

(Fitzgerald, 2001; Kim, Kang, & Kim, 2005b; Martin & Turley, 2004). The demographic profiles of these four shopper groups are summarised in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5: Demographic profiles of the shopper groups recruited for the focus group discussions

<i>Shopper groups</i>	<i>No. of participants</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Age range</i>	<i>Marital status</i>	<i>No. of school-aged children living at home</i>
Family shopper I	5	Females only	25 – 40	Married	2 – 3
Family shopper II	8	Females and males	25 – 40	Married	1 – 2
Senior shopper	6	Females and males	50+	Married	0
Young shopper	6	Females and males	18 – 25	Single	0

Source: developed for this research

For this study, four shopper groups were considered to be an acceptable number as it did not aim to generalise the findings to a large population (i.e. empirical generalisability) (Krueger & Casey, 2000; Stewart, et al., 2007). Instead, the researcher primarily aimed to use the findings from the focus group discussions—and the in-depth interviews—to generalise to the theoretical framework of experiential consumption (i.e. theoretical generalisability). In other words, the researcher aimed to use the qualitative findings to clarify the importance and measures of cognition, emotion, behaviour, social crowding and shopping orientation in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment. Further, qualitative researchers such as Krueger and Casey (2000) and Stewart et al. (2007) have suggested that the more homogeneous each focus group is, the fewer focus groups are needed. This was the case in this study where each shopper group consisted of homogenous participants, as presented in Table 3.5.

In regard to the size of a focus group, the optimum number of participants is unclear (Krueger & Casey, 2000; Stewart, et al., 2007). Qualitative researchers such as Stewart et al. (2007) and Krueger & Casey (2000) suggest a minimum of 5, but no more than 12 participants in a focus group discussion. Moreover, these researchers advise against having more than 12 participants in a focus group because a large number is likely to disrupt the conversation flows and group dynamics in the focus

group. Drawing on these suggestions, five to eight participants were recruited through convenience and snowball sampling, as addressed in section 3.6.1. Having established the number and size of the focus groups, the next decision area relates to selecting the moderator.

3.6.3 Selecting the moderator

Generally, a moderator refers to the facilitator of a focus group discussion—whose role is to facilitate group conversations and interactions, keep time, deliver the interview script, and establish a rapport with the focus group participants (Morgan, 1997; Stewart, et al., 2007). In this study, the role of the moderator was performed by the researcher. There are numerous instances when it is preferable for the moderator to be a member of the research team (Krueger & Casey, 2000; Morgan, 1997). The first instance is when there is a need for the moderator to be knowledgeable or familiar with the research topic (Krueger & Casey, 2000; Morgan, 1997). This was the case in this study as the researcher was able to analyse participants' comments in a meaningful context and, thus, follow up on critical areas of discussion. Second, the researcher has considerable experience and knowledge in conducting focus groups from previous studies (e.g. Sit, 2000; Sit & Birch, 2000; Sit, et al., 2003a; Sit, Merrilees, Grace, & Harrison-Hill, 2003c). Third, and finally, due to budget constraints, it was less costly for the researcher to act as the moderator as opposed to employing an external consultant. For these reasons, the researcher was considered an appropriate moderator for the focus group discussions. After considering the role of the moderator, the actual process of conducting the focus group discussions is addressed next.

3.6.4 Conducting the focus group discussions

When conducting the focus group discussions, a number of issues were considered: the involvement of the moderator; the number of topics covered in each discussion session; the wording of the questions used in the focus group; the use of the interview protocol; and the duration and venue of each focus group discussion session (Krueger & Casey, 2000; Stewart, et al., 2007).

For the four focus group discussions conducted in this study, the moderator (i.e. the researcher) had low involvement as there was little need to influence the group dynamics and conversation flows. The moderator's involvement was limited to making sure all discussion topics were covered, that 'dominant' participants were moderated and that 'introverted' participants were encouraged to speak out.

A semi-structured interview protocol was used to facilitate the focus group discussions. This interview protocol consisted of six main open-ended questions with probe questions. This interview protocol was parallel to the one used in the in-depth interviews and this was to facilitate the comparison and contrast of the qualitative findings. A copy of the interview protocol for the focus group discussions is presented in Appendix 3.4. All questions were designed to stimulate conversation between the shopping centre patrons and, thus, the questions were kept fairly brief and began with key words like 'what', 'which', and 'how' (Krueger & Casey, 2000; Morgan, 1997; Stewart, et al., 2007). The interview protocol was pretested with three senior academics at the University of Southern Queensland (Toowoomba, Australia). These three senior academics were familiar with the topic under investigation and have extensive knowledge on the methodology of focus group discussions. The pretesting helped refine the wording of some questions and thus rendered them more user-friendly for the participants (i.e. the shopping centre patrons).

Each focus group discussion was approximately one and a half hours in duration. Two separate venues were used for the focus group discussions so that participants could choose a venue most accessible and comfortable for them. The focus group discussions with Family Shopper I and Senior Shopper were conducted at the residence of one of the participants. The focus group discussions with Family Shopper I and Young Shopper were conducted at a meeting room located at the University of Southern Queensland (Toowoomba, Australia). As a gesture of appreciation to the participants, light refreshment and non-alcoholic drinks were served during each focus group discussion.

Whilst there is no consensus on an ideal day and time for conducting a focus group discussion, researchers such as Krueger and Casey (2000) and Stewart et al. (2007) recommend that the day and time must be convenient to the participants in order to

minimise disruption to their daily routines. Hence, the four focus group discussions were conducted on different days and time slots that were most convenient to the participants, namely:

- Family Shopper I – Tuesday (1st May 2007) between 12 noon and 2pm;
- Family Shopper II – Saturday (13th May 2007) between 2pm and 4pm;
- Senior Shopper – Thursday (31st May 2007) between 6pm and 8pm; and
- Young Shopper – Wednesday (6th June 2007) between 12 noon and 2pm.

The moderator began each focus group session with general conversation about the types of entertainment events offered by shopping centres. Examples of questions asked were: ‘*What sort of entertainment events have you seen in shopping centres?*’ ‘*Did you like those entertainment events?*’ and ‘*What did you like or not like about those entertainment events?*’ Those questions allowed the moderator to gauge the general attitude of the participants towards special event entertainment. To facilitate the conversation flows among the participants, stimulus materials containing several examples of entertainment events (e.g. school holiday events and fashion events) convened by shopping centres were provided to the participants.

With the consent of the participants, the four focus group sessions were audio-recorded. The data from the focus group discussions were then transcribed for thematic analysis, a similar data analysis strategy used in the in-depth interviews (see section 3.4.4). At the completion of each focus group discussion, the researcher immediately wrote a synopsis of the focus group discussion, particularly in terms of the issues raised, the agreements and/or disagreements among the participants relating to an issue, and any unclear issues that required follow-up. Having explained the process of the focus group discussions, the following section (section 3.6.5) outlines the analysis strategy.

3.6.5 Analysing the data of the focus group discussions

Similar to the in-depth interviews, the data from the focus group discussions were subject to thematic analysis and three types of coding, namely descriptive, topic and analytical (Richards, 2005). The nature of thematic analysis and coding process has

been addressed in section 3.4.4. A number of criteria were used to establish the academic rigour of the data from the focus group discussions, and these criteria are addressed in the following section.

3.6.6 Establishing the academic rigour of the focus group discussions

Four main criteria were used to establish the academic rigour of the focus group discussions, namely, construct validity, internal validity, external validity and reliability (Yin, 2009). These criteria were also used to establish the academic rigour of the in-depth interviews (see section 3.4.5). Each of these academic rigour criteria are now addressed in detail.

Construct validity. Three tactics were used to achieve the construct validity of the focus group discussions. First, four shopper groups from different demographic backgrounds were recruited and interviewed to achieve perspective-triangulation, which is suggested as a concrete form of construct validity (Patton, 2002). Second, two to three probe questions were developed for each key question to clarify ambiguous comments made by the focus group participants. These questions were also used to verify agreement and seek explanations for disagreement between the focus group participants. Third, and finally, the results from the focus group discussions were compared with other sources, notably the results from the literature review and the in-depth interviews. This tactic enabled the researcher to establish a ‘holistic’ database of evidence to address the research issue under investigation (Yin, 2009).

Internal validity. Internal validity was less relevant to the focus group discussion because, similar to the in-depth interviews, they were conducted to explore the ‘inferred’ relationships between cognition, emotion, behaviour, social crowding and shopping orientation. The focus group discussions were not conducted to examine the ‘casual’ relationships between these five factors (Yin, 2009).

External validity. The results from the focus group discussions were used to provide theoretical generalisation and not statistical (empirical) generalisation (Yin, 2009). That is, the focus group discussions were conducted to gain a better understanding of

the theoretical framework of experiential consumption, especially in the context of special event entertainment. The results of the focus group discussions were not used to generalise to a large population. The theoretical generalisation was achieved through interviewing shopper groups from different demographic backgrounds (perspective triangulation) (Yin, 2009).

Reliability. Reliability was achieved by using a semi-structured interview protocol (see Appendix 3.4). Similar to the in-depth interviews, the interview protocol was developed to ensure that each focus group discussion was conducted in a consistent manner and the data were analysed with consistent procedures (i.e. thematic analysis that involved descriptive, interpretive and pattern coding). Having addressed the academic rigour of the focus group discussions, the following section reports the findings of the focus group discussions.

3.7 Findings from focus group discussions

This section is structured with five main themes: participants' previous encounters with special event entertainment (section 3.7.1); planned participation in special event entertainment (section 3.7.2); participants' evaluation of special event entertainment (section 3.7.3); participants' behaviours relative to special event entertainment (section 3.7.4); and participants' shopping orientation (section 3.7.5). Each of these key themes is discussed in turn.

3.7.1 Participants' previous experiences with special event entertainment

The participants alluded to having experienced some entertainment events convened by shopping centres in the past. Examples of entertainment events experienced by the participants include:

- animal shows (e.g. a reptile show);
- performances by cartoon characters (e.g. Dora the Explorer, the Shrek and Princess Fiona and Madagascar);
- performances by pop artists (e.g. Australia Idol contestants);
- appearances by athletes or sporting teams (e.g. Brisbane Lions);
- school band performances;

- fashion catwalks;
- automobile exhibits; and
- Christmas carols.

The participants stated that their previous experiences with entertainment events at shopping centres were mostly *unplanned* or *accidental* in nature. That is, they did not specifically plan to attend those entertainment events mentioned earlier. Instead, they stumbled upon those entertainment events while visiting their local shopping centres for purposes like food shopping or apparel shopping. When probed as to why they did not plan to participate in those entertainment events, some participants indicated the lack of awareness, some mentioned the lack of personal interest, and others expressed a lack of time.

When asked how long they would normally stay for entertainment events at shopping centres, the participants consistently mentioned that it would depend on how much time they had and whom they were with during their shopping. In particular, the participants explained they would stay longer if they were not pressed for time and/or if their shopping companions (e.g. children, partners or friends) were interested in the entertainment events. These findings suggest the possible impact of situational influences (e.g. time availability and shopping companion) on shoppers' participation behaviours relative to special event entertainment, and this presents a fruitful avenue for future research.

3.7.2 Planned participation in special event entertainment

When asked under what circumstances they would plan to attend an entertainment event organised by their local shopping centres, the participants replied they would attend the entertainment event if:

- it appealed to their personal interests;
- it appealed to the interest of their children or grandchildren;
- it was a 'one-off' event like the appearance of a celebrity (e.g. a pop artist, an athlete or a sporting team); or
- they knew a friend or family member was performing in the event.

These findings suggest that a consumer's level of interest in an entertainment event impacts significantly on planned participation. Moreover, a consumer's level of identification with the performer (e.g. a celebrity, a friend or a family member) at an entertainment event will also encourage planned participation. In particular, the level of identification refers to the extent to which consumers feel some psychological attachment to the performer (Wann, Royalty, & Rochelle, 2002). The level of identification with the performer may come from perceived uniqueness (e.g. a celebrity) or personal affiliation (e.g. a friend or family member). Once again, these findings present some potential areas for further studies that seek to understand the planned experiential consumption of special event entertainment. Having addressed the possible factors that drive participants' planned consumption of special event entertainment, the following section addresses the participants' evaluation of special event entertainment.

3.7.3 Participants' evaluation of special event entertainment

When asked how they would normally evaluate their experiences with entertainment events in the shopping centre environment, the participants mentioned a variety of attributes and these attributes can be grouped into perceived event quality, enjoyment and social crowding.

3.7.3.1 Perceived event quality

The participants mentioned a range of cognitive attributes and these attributes could be grouped into four facets: i) stage setting; ii) convenience; iii) event interactivity and suitability; and iv) quality of performers. These facets were deemed to constitute the construct of perceived event quality, as discussed in section 2.5.1. Each of these facets is now explained in detail.

Stage setting. Stage setting relates to the stage decoration, sound system, background music and other functional props required to stage an entertainment event. The participants stated that the professionalism of the stage setting would influence their attention and experiences with entertainment events in shopping centres. A comment from one participant regarding this aspect was:

'Some of the proper ones...they have really good looking models, all professionally set up, the music is right, they really catch your attention'
(Young Shopper).

Convenience. Convenience focuses on the when (time) and where (venue) of entertainment events being held at shopping centres. The participants frequently stated that they did not have a lot of free time and, thus, would only go to an entertainment event that was convenient to them—that is, an entertainment event that did not ‘clash’ with their daily routines or chores. Nevertheless, the participants indicated that if they did plan to go to an entertainment event in a shopping centre, they would ‘make a day out of it’. In other words, when visiting the shopping centre, they would combine their attendance at the entertainment event with other shopping activities (e.g. apparel shopping, food shopping, etc.). A comment from one participant was:

'Generally I have to go (a shopping centre) to do such and such...I would make sure that I go there (the shopping centre) by 10.30am because the show is usually on at 11am...so that I can do some stuff...' (Family Shopper I).

Quality of performer. Quality of performer relates to the popularity, likeability and recognisability of the performer(s) at an entertainment event. The participants commented that a ‘good’ entertainment event should have ‘big name’ performers like famous children’s entertainers (e.g. The Wiggles), famous cartoon characters (e.g. Dora the Explorer or the Shrek) or famous football teams (e.g. Brisbane Lions or The Titans).

The focus group discussions revealed that the participants tended to use the popularity of a performer as a ‘quality indicator’ to help them decide whether or not to participate in an entertainment event. Furthermore, the focus group discussions indicated that popular performer(s) facilitated shoppers’ instant recognition or identification with an entertainment event, which, in turn, encouraged their planned participation in the entertainment event. Comments from participants regarding this issue include:

'My boys like to see any movie characters...they can be either from a film or something that is well known or they can recognise...' (Family Shopper I).

'...if it is like the Wiggles or something like that, I would go especially for that with my children' (Family Shopper I).

Event interactivity and suitability. Event interactivity is about the level of interactivity that an entertainment event provides for its target audience (Minor, et al., 2004). Event suitability is about the degree to which an entertainment event is perceived to be suitable or appropriate by its target audience (Minor, et al., 2004). Some participants contended that a 'good' entertainment event should be interactive with the audience, and other participants asserted that a 'good' entertainment event should be suitable to the age of the target audience. Event suitability was particularly emphasised by family shopper groups (Family Shopper I and II). The focus group discussions indicated that perceived interactivity and suitability of an entertainment event could significantly enhance or undermine participants' feelings with the entertainment event, as demonstrated by the following comments:

'...if the audience is involved (in a special event) like they are invited to go up to the stage...that kind of makes it a bit more interesting...' (Young Shopper).

'I do not like the way (some school holiday events) dress up the little girls and with make-ups...that was horrible...it does not feel right' (Family Shopper II).

'...the performer has to be someone famous...someone I would go especially to see is like a professional skater...I may go out of my way, line up and get a signature' (Young Shopper).

3.7.3.2 Enjoyment

Besides cognitive attributes (e.g. stage setting and convenience), the participants also stated a number of emotional attributes relating to entertainment events in shopping centres. These emotional attributes were enjoyable, entertaining, interesting, exciting and fun. These emotional attributes are consistent with those identified in the in-

depth interviews (see section 3.5.4.2). These emotional attributes can be characterised as enjoyment (Mandel & Nowlis, 2008). The focus group discussions revealed that when participants enjoyed an entertainment event they were more likely to ‘hang around’. In other words, the participants were more likely to spend more time or stay longer at the shopping centre. Furthermore, enjoyment also appeared to be a key driver (motivation) for the participants to take part in an entertainment event. Comments from participants relevant to this issue include:

‘If the entertainment is something my kids are interested, we would just hang around’ (Family Shopper II).

‘We watched the kids’ gymnastics because they were funny. The little kids would get their routine wrong...you could watch them and have a laugh’ (Senior Shopper).

‘It (a fashion show) must be really interesting for me to stop and watch’ (Family Shopper I).

3.7.3.3 Social crowding

Since entertainment events at shopping centres are collective experiences (see section 2.5.5), the participants inevitably raised the issue of social crowding. The participants perceived social crowding as a negative factor for their shopping experiences, but as a positive factor for their experiences with entertainment events. The participants considered the social crowding at entertainment events as a ‘hassle’ because it prevented them from carrying out their shopping tasks or activities.

Nevertheless, the participants admitted that social crowding could help to create a dynamic ambience at an entertainment event. Moreover, the participants also admitted that social crowding could, sometimes, draw their attention to an entertainment event and, in turn, entice their participation in the entertainment event. Some comments from the participants were:

‘You would wonder why it is so crowded...we would just stroll around and just to see what is happening’ (Senior Shopper).

'If there is a big crowd, I will always peep over and see what is happening'
(Young Shopper).

3.7.4 Participants' behaviour relative to special event entertainment

When they perceived an entertainment event to be high quality and enjoyable, the participants indicated that they were likely to stay longer at the shopping centre and/or spend money after the entertainment event. Furthermore, the participants also indicated that they would participate in upcoming entertainment events if invited by the shopping centres. Comments from participants include:

'Normally my kids and I would have McDonald's after the show...my kids really enjoy it' (Family Shopper I).

'I would plan to go to see a fashion show (at a shopping centre) if I get an invitation in a mail' (Young Shopper).

3.7.5 Participants' shopping orientation and their experiences with special event entertainment

The literature suggests the existence of two shopper types, namely, hedonic and utilitarian (see section 2.4.6). The focus group discussions reinforce that hedonic and utilitarian shoppers are likely to value their experiences with special event entertainment differently and, thus, are likely to have different cognition, emotion, behaviour and appreciation of social crowding at special event entertainment. In particular, hedonic shoppers are more likely to have positive cognition and positive emotion about special event entertainment and, thus, they are more likely to partake in special event entertainment. Comments from participants include:

'I will always stop and just have a look and see what is happening' (Young Shopper).

'I am not much a shopper as such. I am not there to do browsing, I am in there to do specific things...I would keep walking, I would not necessarily pull up even though it is something in my interest' (Family Shopper I).

3.7.6 Summary of findings from focus group discussions

Focus group discussions were conducted with four shopper groups from different demographic backgrounds. These shopper groups were labelled as: Family Shopper I; Family Shopper II; Senior Shopper; and Young Shopper. The focus group discussions reinforce the importance of cognition, emotion, behaviour, social crowding and shopping orientation in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment. The focus group discussions suggest that consumers' cognition about special event entertainment is best represented by perceived event quality, which entails both atmospheric and non-atmospheric quality of special event entertainment (e.g. stage setting, convenient time and venue, event interactivity and suitability and quality of performer). The focus group discussions further indicate that perceived event quality would greatly influence shoppers' planned participation in special event entertainment.

In regards to emotion, the focus group discussions suggest that consumers' emotion about special event entertainment is best defined by enjoyment. The focus group discussions indicate that the extent to which shoppers enjoy special event entertainment will greatly influence their subsequent behaviours (e.g. duration of stay and likelihood to spend).

In respect to social crowding, the focus group discussions reveal that social crowding can be a positive factor in consumer experiences with special event entertainment. Social crowding can help to create dynamic experiences of special event entertainment, to arouse shoppers' curiosity in special event entertainment and, in turn, draw their participation in special event entertainment. Hence, the focus group discussions suggest a balanced approach to measure consumers' perceptions of social crowding at entertainment events.

In relation to behaviour, the focus group discussions indicate that both actual and intended behaviours represent the outcomes or end results of consumer experiences with special event entertainment. The focus group discussions suggest that consumers are likely to engage in actual and intended behaviours if they perceive

special event entertainment to be high quality, the experience to be enjoyable and the social crowding is constructive to the experience.

In terms of shopping orientation, the focus group discussions reinforce the notion that hedonic shoppers are more likely to have positive cognition and positive emotion about special event entertainment compared to utilitarian shoppers. Moreover, the focus group discussions also suggest that hedonic shoppers are more likely to appreciate social crowding at special event entertainment than utilitarian shoppers are. The following section will synthesise the findings from the in-depth interviews and the focus group discussions.

3.8 Revision of conceptual model and hypotheses

The qualitative research represented the second stage of the research design of this study. Involving in-depth interviews with shopping centre marketing managers and focus group discussions with shoppers, the qualitative research was conducted to explore the relevance of and the relationships between the six key factors identified from the literature review. These six factors were Cognition, Emotion, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour, Social Crowding, and Shopping Orientation. The qualitative research, indeed, supported the importance of these six factors in explaining shoppers' experiences with special event entertainment. However, it appeared to have reached theoretical saturation as it did not reveal any new or additional factor. Despite that, the qualitative research was insightful for two major reasons. First, it indicated that the nature of each of these six factors was complex and multidimensional, and thus further research would be needed to verify its dimensionality. Second and final, it suggested that the labels of two factors to be revised in order to reflect their proper meanings in the context of special event entertainment. These two factors were Cognition and Emotion and their labels were revised to Perceived Event Quality and Enjoyment respectively.

The qualitative research reinforced consumers' perceptions about the quality and social crowding at special event entertainment would influence their enjoyment with special event entertainment and, in turn, would influence their actual and intended behaviours. The qualitative research also reinforced that consumers' shopping

orientations would influence their perceptions and feelings with special event entertainment. In particular, the qualitative research suggested that consumers who valued and enjoyed shopping might have more favourable perceptions and feelings about special event entertainment, as compared to consumers who did not value and enjoy shopping.

Figure 3.2 presents the conceptual model with these two revised factors. The initial number of research hypotheses underlying the conceptual model remains unchanged. That is, six hypotheses constitute the conceptual model and they are summarised in Table 3.6.

Figure 3.2: Revised model for explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment

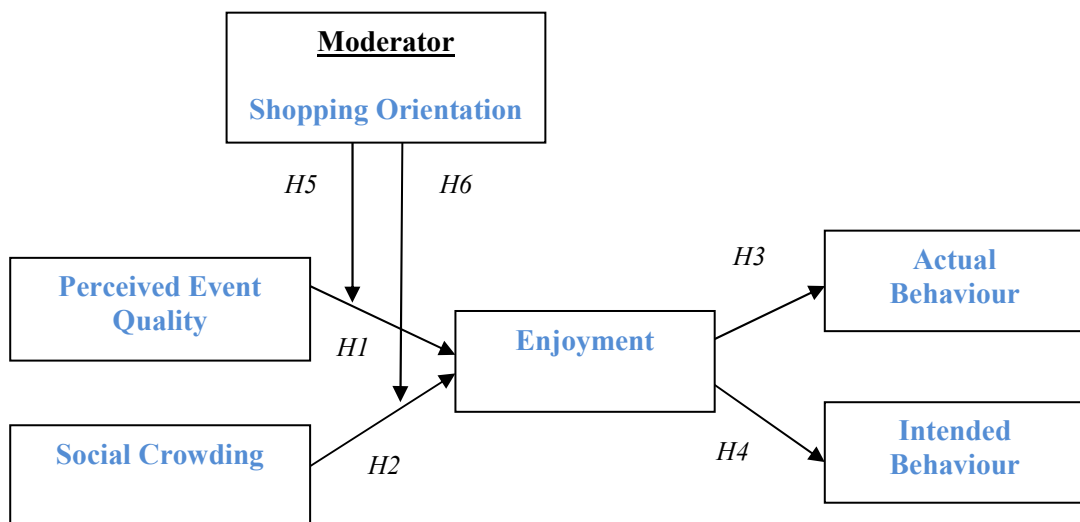


Table 3.6: A summary of the research hypotheses for explaining shoppers' experiences with special event entertainment

Hypothesis no.	Description
H1	Perceived Event Quality will have a significant effect on Enjoyment. That is, when consumers have positive perceptions about the quality of a special event, they are likely to experience enjoyment with the event.
H2	Social Crowding will have a significant effect on Enjoyment. That is, when consumers have positive perceptions about the social crowding at a special event, they are likely to experience enjoyment with the event.
H3	Enjoyment will have a significant effect on Actual Behaviour. That is, when consumers experience enjoyment with a special event, they are likely to engage in positive actual behaviours.
H4	Enjoyment will have a significant effect on Intended Behaviour. That is, when consumers experience enjoyment with a special event, they are likely to engage in positive intended behaviours.
H5	Shopping Orientation will moderate the relationship between Perceived Event Quality and Enjoyment. That is, consumers with different shopping orientations are likely to have different perceptions about the quality of a special event and, in turn, they are likely to experience different levels of enjoyment with the event.
H6	Shopping Orientation will moderate the relationship between Social Crowding and Enjoyment. That is, consumers with different shopping orientations are likely to have different perceptions about the social crowding at a special event and, in turn, they are likely to have different levels of enjoyment with the event.

3.9 Chapter summary

This chapter explained and justified the second stage of the research design, namely qualitative research. This chapter also presented the findings from the qualitative research. In particular, the qualitative research involved in-depth interviews with shopping centre marketing managers (the practitioners of special event entertainment) and focus group discussions with shopping centre patrons (the end-users of special event entertainment). The purpose of the qualitative research was twofold that was to explore: i) the relevance of the key factors defining consumer experiences with special event entertainment identified from the literature review; ii) the relationships between those key factors. After the qualitative research, quantitative research was conducted to empirically test the importance and relationships between Perceived Event Quality, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour, Social Crowding and Shopping Orientation. The next chapter addresses the methodology of the quantitative study.

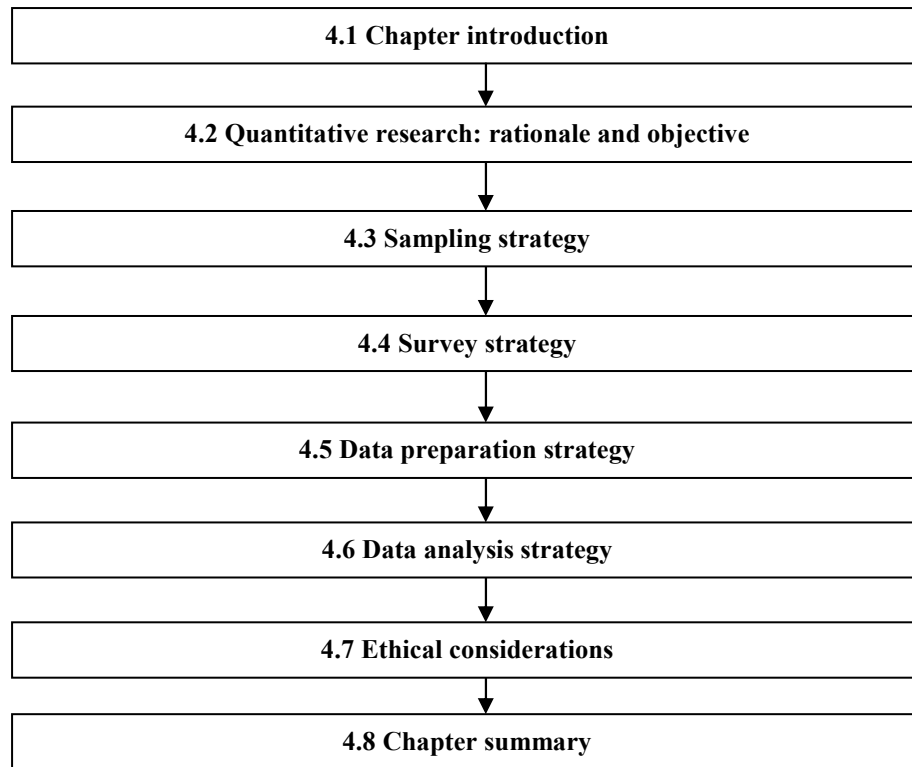
Chapter Four

Quantitative Research: Methodology

4.1 Chapter introduction

As outlined in chapter 1, this research program adopted a three-stage research design that consisted of a literature review (stage one), a qualitative, exploratory study (stage two); and a quantitative study (stage three). The findings of the literature review have been presented in chapter 2, and the methodology and findings of the qualitative research have been addressed in chapter 3. In this chapter, the methodology of the quantitative study will be explained, and the findings of the quantitative research will be reported in the next chapter (Chapter 5). As an overview, the quantitative research involved mall intercept surveys with shopping centre patrons who had have experienced special event entertainment. The purpose of the quantitative research was to collect primary data to test the conceptual model and the research hypotheses presented in section 3.8.

This chapter will firstly describe the sampling strategy used in this study (section 4.2) and outline the survey strategy used (section 4.3). This will be followed by an overview of the questionnaire design and administration (section 4.4). The processes of preparing and analysing the data is then addressed (sections 4.5 and 4.6), as well as ethical issues arising from the quantitative study and steps taken to address those issues (section 4.7). Finally, this chapter concludes with a summary of the quantitative research design (section 4.8). Figure 4.1 illustrates the structure of this chapter.

Figure 4.1: Structure of Chapter Four

Source: developed for this research

4.2 Quantitative research: rationale and objectives

Generally, quantitative research refers to methods that seek to quantify data and typically apply some form of statistical analysis (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Accordingly, the quantitative research in this study was conducted to ‘quantify’ the findings from the literature review and qualitative study (in-depth interviews and focus group discussions). In particular, the quantitative research aimed to empirically test the validity and reliability of the key factors identified to be relevant in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment. These six factors are: Perceived Event Quality; Enjoyment; Actual Behaviour; Intended Behaviour; Social Crowding; and Shopping Orientation.

The quantitative research was descriptive in nature (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Given the lack of theoretical and academic studies on consumer experiences with special event entertainment, many aspects of the experiential consumption phenomenon

remain unknown (see chapter 2 for more discussion). Hence, the quantitative research will seek to provide descriptive insights, as opposed to produce conclusive comments, about this under-researched phenomenon. Having clarified the rationale and objectives of the quantitative research, the following section will explain and justify the sampling strategy used in the quantitative research.

4.3 Sampling strategy

When developing the sampling strategy for the quantitative research, four decision areas were considered: i) defining the sampling population and unit; ii) identifying the sampling frame; iii) selecting the sampling method; and iv) determining the sampling size (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Each of these decision areas is now discussed in detail.

4.3.1 Defining sampling population and unit

The sampling population refers to a group of individuals sharing some common characteristics, which comprises the universe for a marketing research project (Burns & Bush, 2010; Malhotra & Birks, 2007). A sampling unit refers to an element that is available for selection at some stage of the sampling process (Burns & Bush, 2010; Malhotra & Birks, 2007).

The primary purpose of this study is to explain consumer experiences with special event entertainment in shopping centres and, thus, it is particularly interested in the opinions of consumers that have experienced special event entertainment in shopping centres. Hence, the target population of this study could be defined as *'any shopping centre patron who has experienced special event entertainment'*. However, in Australia, consumers who are under 18 years old cannot be interviewed without the consent of their parents or guardians (AMSRS, 2007). Seeking consent from the parents or guardians of consumers under 18 can be logistically cumbersome and time consuming. Furthermore, in the in-depth interviews, the shopping centre marketing managers have commented that adolescent consumers are 'tricky' and unpredictable and, thus, it is challenging to design special event entertainment that appeals to them (see section 3.5.5). For these reasons, consumers under 18 were not considered in

this study. Therefore, the sampling population of this study was refined to ‘any shopping centre patron who is aged 18 years and above, and has experienced special event entertainment’. This revised sampling population also represented the sampling unit of the quantitative research.

4.3.2 Identifying the sampling frame

A sampling frame is a list of the target population for a marketing research project (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Given the sampling population of this study was defined as any shopping centre patron that is aged 18 years and over and has experienced special event entertainment, a possible sampling frame for this study was the customer database compiled by a shopping centre. This database generally will contain the contact details of shopping centre patrons.

Although the customer database could be easy to access, it might not be useful to identify and recruit eligible shopping centre patrons for this study. As noted earlier, eligible shopping centre patrons refer to ‘shopping centre patrons that are over 18 years old and have experienced special event entertainment. This customer database has a serious limitation. That is, it usually contains shopping centre patrons who are willing to supply their contact details to shopping centre management in return for promotional incentives (e.g. discount vouchers or free gifts). Hence, the use of this customer database could lead to a respondent bias for this research, which seeks to investigate shoppers’ experiences with special event entertainment regardless of their proneness for promotional incentives. For these reasons, the customer database of a shopping centre was deemed as inappropriate and thus was not adopted in this study.

4.3.3 Selecting the sampling method

Generally, two major sampling methods are available for recruiting respondents for a research project, that is, probability sampling and non-probability sampling (Burns & Bush, 2010; Malhotra & Birks, 2007; Zikmund, 2003). Probability sampling is a method of sampling whereby members of the population have a known chance of being selected into the sample (Burns & Bush, 2010). On the other hand, non-probability sampling occurs when the chances of selecting members from the

population into the sample are unknown (Burns & Bush, 2010). For the quantitative research of this study, probability sampling was chosen because it was a prerequisite for structural equation modelling—the main data analysis strategy of this study (Hair, et al., 2006; Kline, 1998).

Having decided the sampling method, the type of sampling technique was considered (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). A variety of probability sampling techniques are available for a marketing research project such as simple random sampling, systematic sampling, area sampling and stratified sampling (Malhotra & Birks, 2007; Zikmund, 2003). Among these probability sampling techniques, systematic sampling was deemed the most appropriate technique for the quantitative research because:

- the quantitative research did not seek to compare and contrast shopping centre patrons from different geographic areas and, thus, area sampling was not appropriate (Malhotra & Birks, 2007; Zikmund, 2003);
- prior to the quantitative research, there was no factual and anecdotal evidence to suggest the target population (i.e. shopping centre patrons who have experienced special event entertainment) was made up of unequal distributions of subgroups and, thus, stratified sampling was unnecessary (Malhotra & Birks, 2007; Zikmund, 2003);
- the use of simple random sampling would have required the researcher to pre-label all target population members with numerical scores and then use the blind draw approach to randomly select individual population members into a sample set (Malhotra & Birks, 2007; Zikmund, 2003). As mentioned earlier, a shopping centre directory detailing all shoppers who have experienced special event entertainment does not exist and, thus, pre-labelling of all target population members was not possible. Hence, simple random sampling was not a practical option.

In comparison to those sampling techniques mentioned earlier, systematic sampling was more useful for the quantitative research of this study because it enabled the researcher to recruit shopping centre patrons on a ‘skip interval’ basis and thus every shopping centre patron at an entertainment event would have an equal chance of being selected (Malhotra & Birks, 2007; Zikmund, 2003). In particular, every fifth

(5th) shopping centre patron surrounding the centre stage of an entertainment event was approached, screened and invited to participate in the quantitative research.

Two special events were targeted in the quantitative study, namely, the Family Week concert, and the Dance Factory event. These two entertainment events were selected because of their availability. The researcher contacted the eight shopping centre marketing managers who took part in the qualitative research (refer to section 3.4 for more details). Unfortunately, only two shopping centres expressed their willingness to participate in the quantitative research and had special events scheduled during the appropriate period. In particular, the Family Week concert primarily involved performances by high school bands and singing and dancing acts by cartoon characters. The Dance Factory event involved dance performances by young children. Both the Family Week concert and Dance Factory event could be classified as family-oriented special event entertainment because they were primarily targeted to family shoppers with young children. Having decided the sampling method, the sample size for the quantitative research is considered next.

4.3.4 Determining sample size

The sample size of a marketing research project depends on the nature of statistical analysis conducted on the data, the degree of precision, and the level of confidence required (Hair, et al., 2006; Kline, 1998). For the quantitative research, the main data analysis strategy involved structural equation modelling which normally requires a relatively large sample size to maintain its statistical explanatory power, to obtain stable parameter estimates and to calculate measurement errors (Hair, et al., 2006; Kline, 1998). Researchers such as Cunningham (2008), Hair et al. (2006) and Kline (1998) recommend a minimum sample size of 300 responses when using structural equation modelling. As a safeguard from incomplete or unusable responses, a minimum sample size of 400 was targeted for the quantitative study. Furthermore, scholars such as Algina and Moulder (2001) and Kelley (2008) have noted that a randomly selected sample of 400 or more will enable a researcher to gauge the representativeness of sample results in relation to target population with 95 percent confidence level. This confidence level is widely used in marketing literature (Michon, et al., 2007; Sands, et al., 2009; Tsai, 2010; Uhrich & Benkenstein, 2010).

Whilst this research program targeted a sample size of 400, this target sample size might not be achieved due to a number of reasons such as the lack of cooperation from the respondents and the lack of spectators or participants at a special event. The failing to achieve the target sample size of 400 should not jeopardise the validity of the hypothesised model and relationships of this research program. A study by Tanguma (2001) shows that, with the exception of chi-square statistic, goodness of fit indices such as GFI, AGFI, CFI and NFI are almost identical in the sample size of 200 and 500. Furthermore, scholars such as Bearden, Sharma and Teel (1982) and Kline (1998) assert that a sample size between 200 and 300 is generally adequate for SEM if the hypothesised model is relatively simple with a reduced number of parameters and measurement errors. This could be the case of this research program as the candidate intended to perform parcelling on the key factors constituting the conceptual model and this could help reducing the complexity (the number of parameters and measurement errors) of the conceptual model. The process and rationale of parcelling will be further discussed in section 4.6.3. The process of questionnaire design and administration is discussed next.

4.4 Questionnaire design and administration

The questionnaire design and administration of the quantitative research involved a six-step approach:

- Step 1 – specify the information needed, and from whom;
- Step 2 – determine the type of questionnaire and method of administration;
- Step 3 – prepare a draft of the questionnaire;
- Step 4 – prepare the questionnaire, pre-test, revise and produce a final draft;
- Step 5 – administer the questionnaire; and
- Step 6 – assess validity and reliability of the questionnaire.

The six-step approach was endorsed by Frazer and Lawley (2000) and Malhotra and Birks (2007). Each of these steps is now discussed in turn.

4.4.1 Specify the information needed and from whom

The first step in questionnaire design is to specify what information is needed and from whom it should be collected. The characteristics of the respondents have a substantial influence on the design of the questionnaire and the types of questions asked (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). As stated in section 4.3.1, the target population for the quantitative research was ‘any shopping centre patron who is aged 18 years or older, and has experienced special event entertainment’. The information needed from the target population was their attitudes and opinions about special event entertainment and their demographic characteristics.

The primary emphasis on shopping centre patrons that are aged 18 years and above can be justified on five grounds. First, whilst this research program targeted family-oriented special events, these events would not exclude or prevent other shoppers such as those without young children from participating in them. Most special events convened by shopping centres are typically open-ended and, thus, everyone visiting the shopping centre will have equal access to those events (Roslow, Nicholls, & Laskey, 1992). There is no membership or admission fee required for participating in many special events convened by shopping centres (Haeberle, 2001). Furthermore, shopping centre managers do not normally conduct a screening exercise to determine if a shopper is ‘family-qualified’ to participate in a family-oriented special event. Regardless of the nature of a special event, it is generally staged to entice shoppers’ patronage and spending at a shopping centre. It is logical to assume that shopping centre managers will be pleased to see if a family-oriented special event also appeals to shopper segments other than those with young children because this suggests that the event is well-liked by shopping centre patrons from different backgrounds.

Second, ideally the researcher would like to survey both parents and their children at family-oriented special events. However, the surveying of young children can be especially challenging, if not impossible, in a field setting. The Queensland government in Australia has introduced the blue card system which requires every individual that seeks to work with young children to undertake a background check and obtain a blue card, and the application process can be lengthy and time consuming (CCYPCG, 2010).

Third, parents can be averse about a stranger, even though he or she is a legitimate market researcher, approaching their young children in a shopping centre because of security issues such as children abduction and pedophilia (Lee, Hollinger, & Dabney, 1999). Fourth, parents are considered as ‘reliable messengers’, who can convey on behalf of their children in terms of their experiences with a special event. Parents can generally gauge whether their children enjoy a special event or not. Fifth and final, although children are the primary users of a family-oriented event, parents are the decision makers who decide how long to stay or whether to stay or leave the shopping centre after the special event, and also they are the buyers who have the spending power. Hence, the emphasis on the adults at family-oriented special events is deemed to be acceptable.

4.4.2 Determine the type of survey and administration process

The process of administration is also an important consideration in questionnaire design as it helps provide guidelines for the style and length of the questionnaire (Frazer & Lawley, 2000; Malhotra & Birks, 2007). There are four main types of survey: mail survey, telephone survey, mall intercept survey and online survey. No one method is considered superior. Many factors such as cost, availability of sampling frame and potential for interview bias can influence the choice of the most appropriate survey method (Burns & Bush, 2010; Frazer & Lawley, 2000; Malhotra & Birks, 2007; Zikmund, 2003).

The survey method deemed most appropriate for the quantitative study was mall-intercept survey, involving a face-to-face survey with consumers in shopping centres (Gates & Solomon, 1982). Mall intercept surveys first featured in the early 1960s as a result of the development of enclosed shopping centres that provided researchers easy access to a large number of shoppers from a wide geographic area in a weather-proof environment (Gates & Solomon, 1982). Mall intercept survey was chosen for three main reasons.

First, mail survey, telephone survey and online survey were not ideal for the quantitative research because the researcher did not have the contact details of the

target population. The administration of mail questionnaire would require postal addresses, telephone survey would need telephone numbers (e.g. home, office or mobile numbers), and online survey would necessitate email addresses (e.g. work or personal email) (Malhotra & Birks, 2007).

Second, the sampling process determined most effective for the quantitative research involved approaching shopping centre patrons during special event entertainment. Not only could the mall intercept survey help to capture shoppers' responses to special event entertainment directly, it could also help to capture the intensity of their evaluation of special event entertainment more accurately. Researchers such as Arnould and Price (1993), Holbrook et al. (1984) and Wakefield and Barnes (1996) suggest that consumers articulate their evaluation (e.g. thoughts and feelings) of a product more accurately when they are using or experiencing the product. The 'on-site' or 'instant' measurement of shoppers' evaluation could be somewhat more challenging, if not impossible, to accomplish with mail survey, telephone survey or online survey. This is because mail survey, telephone survey and online survey generally have a longer 'lead time' between when the questionnaire is sent out and when it is returned (Gates & Solomon, 1982; Hornik & Ellis, 1988). Hence, these types of survey are typically used to measure consumers' retrospective experiences with shopping (Michon, et al., 2007; Stoel, et al., 2004) and events (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Lee, et al., 2007).

Third, and finally, mall intercept survey offered better sample control compared to other types of survey (Gates & Solomon, 1982; Hornik & Ellis, 1988). Since the mall intercept survey was conducted during special event entertainment, it enabled the researcher to directly screen and recruit eligible shopping centre patrons, that is, those who are aged over 18 years and who have experienced special event entertainment.

The mall intercept survey method could be criticised for its potential for interviewer bias and low perceived anonymity of respondents (Frazer & Lawley, 2000; Malhotra & Birks, 2007). However, the researcher overcame these criticisms by using a self-completing questionnaire. In particular, the self-completing questionnaire minimised the face-to-face contact between the researcher and shopping centre patrons. The

researcher did not request any personally identifying information (e.g. names and contact numbers) in the questionnaire and, thus, assured the anonymity of shopping centre patrons. Having decided the type of survey and administration process, the next stage was to prepare a draft of the questionnaire.

4.4.3 Drafting the questionnaire

When drafting the questionnaire, two issues were considered: the specification and development of operational measures for key factors under investigation; and the design issues of the questionnaire (e.g. structure and response format). Each of these issues is now discussed in detail.

4.4.3.1 Specifying and developing measures for the key factors under investigation

Based on the literature review (chapter 2) and the qualitative research (chapter 3), a conceptual model has been developed to explain consumer experiences with special event entertainment. The conceptual model consists of six key factors, namely Perceived Event Quality, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour, Social Crowding and Shopping Orientation. The theoretical domains of these six key factors have been explained in the literature review (see chapter 2) and the importance of these key factors has been tentatively verified in the qualitative research (see chapter 3). Table 4.1 presents a summary of the theoretical domains of these six factors.

Table 4.1: Theoretical domains for the key factors in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment

Key constructs	Theoretical domains
Perceived Event Quality	Consumers' perceptions about the quality of special event entertainment
Enjoyment	Consumers' enjoyment with special event entertainment
Actual Behaviour	Consumers' actual engagement in positive behaviours during or after special event entertainment (e.g. longer duration of stay and actual purchase of items etc)
Intended Behaviour	Consumers' intention to engage in positive behaviours in the future (e.g. intention to re-patronage to the shopping centre, intention to recommend to others etc)
Social Crowding	Consumers' perceptions about the social density and social interaction at special event entertainment
Shopping Orientation	The psychographic disposition of consumers towards shopping centre patronage

Source: developed for this research

Existing scales were used to measure the key factors under investigation and the sources of the measurement scale for each of the key factors is now addressed in detail.

Perceived Event Quality. Twelve items were sourced from Minor, Wagner, Brewerton and Hausman's work (2004) to operationalise this construct. The scale by Minor et al. (2004) was chosen for three reasons. First, the context in which Minor et al.'s (2004) work was conducted is parallel to the context of this research program and this helps increase the applicability of the scale. Minor et al. (2004) examined attendees' experiences with live musical performances and special event entertainment generally consist of live musical performances such as school band performances and mini-concerts (Haerberle, 2001).

Second, the scale by Minor et al. (2004) is deemed comprehensive as it consists of multiple dimensions. In particular, Minor et al. (2004) identified six dimensions that constituted attendees' evaluation of the quality of live musical performances and these dimensions are musician appearance, sound, stage, facilities, and audience interaction. These multiple dimensions suggest that people's cognitive appraisal of the quality of an event experience can be complex and multi-faceted. Hence, in comparison to a unidimensional scale, the multidimensional scale of Minor et al. (2004) enables this research program to better gauge shoppers' complex appraisal of the quality of special event entertainment. Third and final, the scale by Minor et al. (2004) is reliable with Cronbach's alpha spanning from 0.52 to 0.79. Despite its theoretical and technical merits, the extent to which Minor et al.'s scale is meaningful in explaining shoppers' experiences with special event entertainment is yet to be verified statistically.

Enjoyment. Six items were sourced from Kim, Fiore and Lee's (2007) study to measure Enjoyment. The enjoyment scale by Kim et al. (2007) was selected for three reasons. First, the enjoyment scale by Kim et al. (2007) is originated in a shopping environment and special event entertainment is typically produced and consumed in a shopping environment, more specifically, a shopping centre environment. Second, there is a lack of studies examining attendees' or visitors' enjoyment with events and thus no enjoyment scale can be identified in the event marketing literature. As summarised in Table 2.8, studies in the event marketing literature have largely focused on the positive and negative emotions of event attendees or visitors. Third and final, the enjoyment scale by Kim et al. (2007) is deemed to be highly reliable with Cronbach's alpha of 0.98. Having a reliable scale is necessary to establish the validity of a construct (Hair, et al., 2006).

Actual Behaviour. Three items were sourced from the work of Andreu et al. (2006) to measure Actual Behaviour. The scale by Andreu et al. (2006) focuses on consumers' disposition to stay longer and spend more at shopping centres, and thus this scale was deemed to be relevant for this research program given that special event entertainment is generally used by shopping centre managers to cultivate their patrons' positive behaviours such as increased duration of stay and increased spending. Moreover, this scale was found to have satisfactory reliability with Cronbach's alpha of around 0.70.

Intended Behaviour. Four items were also sourced from the work of Andreu et al. (2006) to measure Intended Behaviour. The scale by Andreu et al. (2006) emphasises consumers' intention to re-patronise a shopping centre and to spread positive word-of-mouth about the shopping centre. Besides attempting to promote the shopping behaviours of their patrons, shopping centre managers also seek to foster the future shopping behaviours of their patrons when staging special events in their shopping precincts. Hence, the scale by Andreu et al. (2006) was considered to be appropriate

for this research program, and this scale was found to be highly reliable with a Cronbach's alpha of around 0.80.

Social Crowding. Four items were used to measure Social Crowding and they were sourced from Mowen et al. (2003) and Wickham and Kerstetter (2001). These two studies focus on attendees' perceptions of the social crowding at events. Since special event entertainment typically consists of intangible events like school holiday events and fashion events, the Social Crowding scale used in the event literature was deemed to be more meaningful and holistic than the one used in the shopping centre literature. As discussed in the literature review (section 2.5.5), the Social Crowding scale used in the event literature is generally experience-focused and thus it provides a more balanced measure to examine shoppers' perceptions of the social crowding at special event entertainment. That is, the Social Crowding scale used in the event literature enabled this research program to measure not only negative perceptions but also positive perceptions about the social mass at a special, especially in terms of its social density and social interaction. In contrast, the Social Crowding scale used in the shopping centre literature was found to predominantly focus on shoppers' negative perceptions about social density and social interaction and this scale is problematic because it will provide a biased or prejudiced insight into how participants or spectators perceive the social crowding at a special event (see section 2.4.5). Neither Mowen et al. (2003) nor Wickham and Kerstetter (2001) has provided the Cronbach's alpha for their Social Crowding measure and thus the reliability of this measure requires further substantiation.

Shopping Orientation. Ten items were used to measure Shopping Orientation and they were sourced from Darden and Ashton's work (1974-1975). As noted in the literature review, this research program is particularly interested in examining the personal values that consumers hold in relation to shopping centre patronage and the effect of these personal values on their experiences with special event entertainment. Hence, Shopping Orientation was considered as an appropriate, surrogate measure of consumers' personal values relating to shopping centre patronage (see section 2.4.3). The Shopping Orientation scale by Darden and Ashton (1974-1975) was chosen

because it enabled this research programs to measure consumers' utilitarian and hedonic personal values relating to shopping centre patronage. Moreover, this Shopping Orientation scale by Darden and Ashton (1974-1975) was found to be reasonably reliable with a Cronbach's alpha of around 0.65.

Table 4.2 (presented in previous pages) provides a summary of the six factors under investigation, their measurement items and the sources where the measurement items were adopted. In Table 4.2, the first column lists the key factors under investigation: Perceived Event Quality; Enjoyment; Actual Behaviour; Intended Behaviour; Social Crowding; and Shopping Orientation. The second column presents the measurement items of these six key factors, the third column identifies the sources of the measurement items, and the fourth column indicates the response format of the measurement items. The final column presents the question number of the measurement items as recorded in the survey instrument. Having discussed the measures of the key factors under investigation, the general issues about drafting the questionnaire are addressed next.

Table 4.2: Measurement items for key factors of special event entertainment

Key factors (total number of items)	Measurement items	Source	Response format	Questionnaire details
Perceived Event Quality (12)	At the entertainment today, 1. it was interactive with the audience 2. it suited the age of the audience 3. it was presented professionally 4. it was held at a convenient time 5. it was held at a convenient location in the centre 6. the sound system was of good quality 7. the stage decoration was good 8. it had performers that I like 9. it had well-known performers 10. it had performers that I recognise 11. the costuming of the performers was high quality 12. I could move around easily	Minor et al. (2004) on service experience	5-point Likert scale where 1 = strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree	Section 2, Question 11-12, 14, 16-17, 19-20, 22-23, 25-31
Enjoyment (6)	At the entertainment today, 1. it was entertaining 2. it was appealing 3. it was fun 4. it was enjoyable 5. it was exciting 6. it was interesting	Kim, Fiore and Lee (2007) on enjoyment Wakefield and Baker (1998) on excitement	5-point Likert scale where 1 = strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree	Section 2, Questions 10, 13, 15, 18, 21, 24

Table 4.2 (continued)

Key factors (total number of items)	Measurement items	Source	Response format	Questionnaire details
Actual Behaviour (3)	Because of the entertainment today, 1. I stayed at the centre longer than I had planned 2. I bought some food or drinks that I did not plan to (e.g. coffee, donuts etc) 3. I bought some non-food items that I did not plan to (e.g. clothes, CD etc)	Andreu et al. (2006)	5-point Likert scale where 1 = strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree	Section 2, Question 33, 34 and 35
Intended Behaviour (4)	After the entertainment today, 1. I would come back for similar entertainment in the future 2. I would like to receive invitation to similar entertainment in the future 3. I would say good things about the entertainment today to other people 4. I like this type of entertainment overall			
Social Crowding (4)	At the entertainment today, 1. It was crowded 2. I enjoyed the crowd 3. The crowd added to the experience 4. The crowd created a pleasant experience	Mowen et al. (2003) and Wickham and Kerstetter (2001)	5-point Likert scale where 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree.	Section 2, Question 32, 36, 37 and 38
Shopping Orientation (10)	As a shopper, 1. I like to see new or different things at shopping centres 2. I like browsing at shopping centres 3. I find shopping to be a waste of time 4. I go shopping for fun 5. Shopping allows me to spend time with my family or friends 6. I only go to shopping centres for necessities 7. I only go to shopping centres that are conveniently located 8. I only go to shopping centres that have brand names I like 9. I enjoy going to shopping centres 10. I go to shopping centres to fill in time	Darden and Ashton (1974-1975) on shopping orientation	5-point Likert scale where 1 = strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree	Section 3, Question 39 – 48

Source: developed for this research

4.4.3.2 General issues of questionnaire draft

As stated in chapter 2, Hypothesis 3 and 4 of this research program sought to examine whether shoppers have extended their stay and engaged in impulse purchases after experiencing a special event. For this reason, uni-directional questions were chosen because they were simple and, in turn, facilitated shoppers' completion of the questionnaire. 5-point Likert scale (where 1 = strongly disagree; 3 = neither agree nor disagree; 5 = strongly agree) was used to enable the shoppers attending a special event to indicate if their responses to those uni-directional questions were favourable or less favourable. There is no theoretical or anecdotal evidence to suggest that a bi-directional or semantic differential question is better than a uni-directional question in capturing people's responses to a marketing phenomenon.

The general issues relative to drafting the questionnaire include question content and wording, response format, structure and order of questions, as well as the physical layout of the questionnaire. In particular, questions used in the survey instrument were kept as simple as possible. Careful attention was paid to avoiding ambiguity, asking leading questions or double-barrelled questions, and avoiding implicit assumptions and generalisations (Frazer & Lawley, 2000; Malhotra & Birks, 2007). These tactics aimed to improve the ease of questionnaire completion and, in turn, increase the response rate of the survey. The wording of questions also drew on the results of the qualitative study where terminology familiar to shopping centre patrons was used. The response format of questions was primarily closed in nature (Zikmund, 2003). Three questions (Question 3, 4 and 7) were left partially open, with "other" category included in order to allow a more complete range of responses from respondents and to avoid the possibility of forcing respondents to choose an inappropriate answer. In these cases, responses were noted at the data entry stage, then grouped into common themes and re-entered into the data set as additional options. Cases where there were fewer than five responses to an option in this "other" category were then regrouped and left as "other" in the data set.

A 5-point Likert scale with all rating points labelled was used as the response format for most items (refer to Table 4.2). The rating points were 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither disagree nor agree, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree. This particular scale was adopted because:

- rating points are reported to have higher reliability than those with only end points labelled (Peter & Churchill Jr, 1986);
- an odd rather than an even number of rating points is preferred under circumstances in which it is legitimate for the respondent to adopt a neutral position as in this study (Zikmund, 2003);
- a 5-point scale is suggested to promote satisfactory properties in relation to the underlying distribution of responses (Malhotra & Birks, 2007); and
- consistent use of a 5-point scale makes it easier for respondents as they do not have to continually adjust to different numbers of rating points (Frazer & Lawley, 2000).

Once a decision had been made on the primary response format, the next issue to consider was the logical flow of questions. Consideration was given to keeping the order of questions logical and interesting—and avoidance of position bias was also considered. There were four main sections in the questionnaire (refer to Appendix 4.1 for more details).

The first section of the questionnaire examined respondents' participation decision relative to special event entertainment (Questions 1-6) and their shopping situation (Questions 7-9). All questions in this section were multiple choice questions (Questions 1-9). Example questions relative to participation situation included: Did you specifically come to see the entertainment today? Did you know there was entertainment at the centre today before you came? How did you find out about the entertainment today? Example questions relative to shopping situation included: What are the other main reasons you came to the centre today? Please indicate the amount of time pressure you felt for this shopping trip. How often do you come to this centre? Simple numeric coding was used for the response options for these questions, resulting in most being nominal in nature and three being ordinal in nature (Questions 6, 8 and 9).

The second section of the questionnaire included a range of questions designed to measure Perceived Event Quality (Questions 11-12, 14, 16-17, 19-20, 22-23, 25-31), Enjoyment (Questions 10, 13, 15, 18, 21, 24), Actual Behaviour (Questions 33 – 35), Intended Behaviour (Questions 32, 36 – 38) and Social Crowding (Questions 27 – 31). As indicated by their question numbers, the questions for Perceived Event Quality Enjoyment were rotated to minimise potential response boredom and response bias (Frazer & Lawley, 2000). All questions in this section were interval in nature.

The third section of the questionnaire dealt with Shopping Orientation (Question 39 – 48). All questions in this section were interval in nature. The fourth and final section aimed to gather respondents' demographic characteristics. This section consisted of three questions related to gender, age and household status (Questions 49 – 51). The gender question was dichotomous and nominal in nature, and the age and household status questions were multiple-choice and ordinal in nature.

The physical layout of the questionnaire reflected the fact that it was self-completing and, thus, incorporated the following features:

- the questionnaire was physically divided into separate sections;
- pictures were used to create interest and to reduce formality in an attempt to help relax the respondent;
- questions were sequentially numbered and pre-coded ;
- clear instructions for filling in the questions were provided at the beginning of each section;
- highlighted headings and sub-headings were included to facilitate ease of completion;
- ample white space was provided to ensure that the questions were not cramped and to facilitate perusal; and
- the questionnaire was printed in yellow-coloured paper to enhance the contrast between the background and questions in an endeavour to promote the ease of perusal (Frazer & Lawley, 2000; Malhotra & Birks, 2007).

After drafting the questionnaire, the next step involved pre-testing and then revision before final administration.

4.4.4 Prepare questionnaire pre-test, revise and final draft

The purpose of pre-testing the questionnaire is to detect any flaws in the design before final administration (Frazer & Lawley, 2000; Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Three possible groups of respondents may be used to pre-test a questionnaire:

- i) a sub-sample of the target population;
- ii) colleagues familiar with the nature of the study; and
- iii) potential users of the data (Frazer & Lawley, 2000; Malhotra & Birks, 2007).

The questionnaire was pretested with all three possible groups of respondents. First, a draft questionnaire was pre-tested with a convenience sample of 34 shopping centre patrons during a school holiday event. The 34 shopping centre patrons met target population characteristics, specifically, shopping centre patrons who are aged over 18 years old and who have experienced special event entertainment. The draft questionnaire was administered using the same methods and protocols for the major survey administration. That is, the shopping centre patrons were handed the questionnaire, its purpose explained and they were then asked to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire was attached to a clipboard and a pen was provided to facilitate completion. On completion, a debriefing took place to address any issues with wording, layout or sequencing of the questionnaire. As a result of this first pre-test, some minor corrections were made due to grammatical errors. The pretesting also helped determine the time needed to complete the questionnaire (10 to 15 minutes).

After the pre-test with shoppers, the questionnaire was pre-tested with five marketing academics who were familiar with the nature to this study and who have extensive experience in marketing research. No further changes were required. The questionnaire was pretested with three shopping centre marketing managers as they represented the potential users of the research data. No changes were required as a result of this pre-test.

4.4.5 Administer the questionnaire

The questionnaire was administered during the special events (i.e. Family Week Festival and Dance Factory contest) at shopping centres (see section 4.3.1). When administering the questionnaire, the researcher wore a name badge and a t-shirt embroidered with a university logo to promote his association with a university and the fact that the survey was for academic purposes. This approach also aimed to foster respondents' willingness to participate in the survey and, in turn, enhance the response rate (Malhotra & Birks, 2007).

The researcher situated himself near the centre stage of the entertainment events. Every fifth shopping centre patron who walked past the researcher was intercepted and invited to participate in the survey. After confirming a shopping centre patron was, indeed, 18 years old or older, and had watched the entertainment events, he or she was handed a questionnaire to complete. On the front page of the questionnaire, an introductory statement was included to: reiterate the purpose of the survey; briefly explain the potential benefits for participating in the survey; and assure confidentiality and anonymity. Upon completion, each shopping centre patron completed the questionnaire was offered the opportunity to enter into a lucky draw to win a \$100 shopping voucher. A separate entry form (a raffle ticket) was used for the lucky drawn in order to ensure the shopping centre patrons' confidentiality and anonymity. In relation to field editing, the researcher checked every returned questionnaire for completeness and legibility.

4.4.6 Assess validity and reliability of the questionnaire

A major issue with any questionnaire is that it accurately and consistently measures what it is intended to measure. That is, the questionnaire should be valid and reliable. In particular, validity refers to the extent to which a measurement represents characteristics that exist in the phenomenon under investigation, and reliability refers to the extent to which a measurement produces consistent results if it is applied repeatedly (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). It should be stressed that validity is a matter of degree, rather than an all-or-nothing concept, with validation as a continuous process (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

The rigour of the questionnaire used in the quantitative study was examined using four validity criteria and one reliability criterion. The four validity criteria were content (face) validity, convergent validity, discriminant validity and nomological validity. Table 4.3 presents the definitions of validity and reliability criteria used and their assessment strategies.

Table 4.3: Validity and reliability of questionnaire

	Definition	Assessment strategies
Content (face) validity	The degree to which the items represent the domain of key factors under investigation Largely based on the opinion of users Largely a conceptual test	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Literature review • Exploratory study, i.e. in-depth interviews with shopping centre marketing managers & focus group discussions with shopping centre patrons • Pre-testing of questionnaire with different groups of potential respondents (e.g. shopping centre patrons, marketing academics and shopping centre marketing managers)
Convergent validity	A measure of construct validity that examines the extent to which a measure correlates positively with other measures of the same construct (e.g. the multiple items of Perceived Event Quality)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Literature review • Factor analysis
Discriminant validity	A type of construct validity that examines the extent to which a measure does not correlate with other constructs from which it is supposed to differ (e.g. the items for different factors e.g. Perceived Event Quality, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour etc)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Literature review • Factor analysis
Nomological validity	A type of construct validity that examines the relationship between theoretical constructs. It seeks to confirm significant correlations between the constructs as predicted by a theory (e.g. the hypothesised relationship between Perceived Event Quality and Enjoyment)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Literature review • Structural equation modelling
Reliability	The extent to which a measure produces consistent results if repeated measurements are made.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pre-testing of the questionnaire • Write items clearly • Easily understood instructions • Ensure prescribed conditions for administration • Reliability analysis, i.e. Cronbach's alpha

Source: developed from Malhotra and Birks (2007)

From Table 4.3, it can be seen that several steps have been taken to establish the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. In particular, these steps included a thorough review of the experiential consumption literature, particularly in the areas of shopping centre and event consumption (see chapter 2), a qualitative research that involved in-depth interviews and focus group discussions, a quantitative research, the use of a systematic process of designing the questionnaire, and the pretesting of the questionnaire with different user groups (i.e. shoppers, shopping centre marketing managers and marketing academics). Besides these steps, a series of statistical analyses is also required to assess the validity and reliability of the questionnaire and, hence, these analyses will be discussed later in section 4.6. Before data can be analysed, the data must be coded, edited and cleaned. This process is known as data preparation (Malhotra & Birks, 2007), and it is addressed next.

4.5 Data preparation

The data preparation in this research program involved two activities: i) coding and editing; and ii) cleaning and screening of data (Kline, 1998; Malhotra & Birks, 2007).

4.5.1 Coding and editing

Coding refers to the process of assigning numbers to each response category (Malhotra & Birks, 2007; Zikmund, 2003). In this research, all questions in the questionnaire were pre-coded to facilitate data entry at a later stage (refer to Appendix 4.1 for more details). Editing involves the screening of returned questionnaires to identify illegible, incomplete, inconsistent or ambiguous responses (Malhotra, Hall, Shaw, & Crisp, 1996; Zikmund, 2003). Editing was conducted in two stages—in the field and at the desk. In particular, the first round of editing was conducted immediately after the mall intercept survey, when the researcher checked for completeness and legibility. The second round of editing was carried out in the researcher's office before entering the data into SPSS. The questionnaires were checked in batches of ten, after which the data set were coded and edited, and then subjected to data cleaning.

4.5.2 Data cleaning

Data cleaning refers to consistency checks, and treatment of inaccurate and missing responses (Hair, et al., 2006; Kline, 1998). Before a set of raw data is analysed, data cleaning is necessary in order to achieve maximum accuracy. Failure to do so can create potential errors in subsequent data analysis (Hair, et al., 2006; Kline, 1998). Two data cleaning activities were carried out in this study. The first method was to run frequency checks for all variables and to check for ‘out-of-bounds’ responses and missing data. Some minor corrections were made at this point. The second method involved the researcher manually checking every tenth case entry against the original questionnaire to ensure accuracy. No errors were identified in this process. The completion of these two data cleaning activities means that data analysis can proceed. The following section will address the data analysis strategy.

4.6 Data analysis

The development of data analysis strategy is often based on the characteristics of the data and the suitability of the statistical techniques (Hair, et al., 2006; Malhotra & Birks, 2007). The primary purpose of this study was to explain consumer experiences with special event entertainment conveyed by shopping centres (see chapter 1). To achieve this purpose, a conceptual model has been developed from the literature review and qualitative research (see chapters 2 and 3). The conceptual model consists of six key factors—Perceived Event Quality, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour, Social Crowding and Shopping Orientation. The conceptual model is multivariate in nature as it contains measurement and structural components (Hair, et al., 2006; Kline, 1998). A measurement component relates to the relationships between the multiple items measuring a key factor (e.g. the 12 items measuring Perceived Event Quality) (see section 4.4.3.1). On the other hand, a structural model relates to the relationships between the key factors under investigation. In the conceptual model of this study, Perceived Event Quality and Social Crowding are hypothesised to have positive effects on Enjoyment and, in turn, positive effects on Actual and Intended Behaviours. Shopping Orientation is hypothesised to moderate the relationship between Perceived Event Quality, Social Crowding, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour (see chapters 2 and 3). Given the measurement and structural nature of the conceptual model, structural equation

modelling was considered as the most suited multivariate technique to test the conceptual model (Hair, et al., 2006). The characteristics of structural equation modelling are explained next.

4.6.1 Structural equation modelling (SEM)

Generally, structural equation modelling (SEM) is an advanced multivariate technique that integrates both factor analysis and regression analysis (Hair, et al., 2006; Kline, 1998). SEM is regarded as an ideal technique for testing both the measurement and structural components of a theoretical model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996). Hence, SEM is a popular analysis technique used in marketing literature (e.g. Laroche, Kim, & Zhou, 1996; Novak, Hoffman, & Yung, 1999; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 2000; Van Overwalle, Mervielde, & De Schuyter, 1995).

There are four major assumptions underlying SEM: i) the sample size should be large enough; ii) the data should be multivariate normal; iii) the choice of estimation function should be appropriate; and iv) the choice of statistical package should be appropriate and accessible (Bentler & Chou, 1987; Hair, et al., 2006; Kline, 1998). The target sample size for the quantitative research of this study was 400, which was considered acceptable for SEM (Hair, et al., 2006; Kline, 1998). The data were collected on a 5-point Likert scale, which should provide ‘reasonable’ multivariate normality for SEM (Bentler & Chou, 1987). The estimation function used for SEM was maximum likelihood because it was robust against possible ‘minor’ violations of assumptions of multivariate normality (Ming & Lomax, 2005). Moreover, maximum likelihood was also appropriate for SEM when AMOS (a statistical package) was used (Kline, 1998). The researcher selected AMOS 7.0 in preference to other statistical package (e.g. LISREL) because it was easily accessible. AMOS was provided free of charge by the university at which the researcher is enrolled. This statistical package was also appropriate because of its ease of use, advanced graphics capability and the fact that it also imports data directly from SPSS (Hair, et al., 2006; Kline, 1998). The following section addresses how to interpret the results of SEM.

4.6.2 Estimating model fit

When estimating the measurement and structural components of a theoretical model, a researcher must check the goodness of fit indices (Hair, et al., 2006; Kline, 1998). In this study, a two-stage approach was adopted to validate the measurement and structural components of a theoretical model. In particular, the measurement component was assessed first to identify and resolve problematic measurement items before proceeding to the structural component. This two-step approach was based on Anderson and Gerbing's recommendation (1988).

When testing the measurement component of a theoretical model, exploratory factor analysis was initially conducted to explore the factor loadings of all measurement items used in the survey. In this study, six key factors are under investigation, namely Perceived Event Quality, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour, Social Crowding and Shopping Orientation. Confirmatory factor analysis (using AMOS 7.0) was then conducted to check the convergent and discriminant validity of these six key factors. This ordered progression from exploratory factor analysis to confirmatory factor analysis is widely used by marketing studies (e.g. Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996; Chen & Tsai, 2008; Gerbing & Anderson, 1988; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Weissinger & Bandalos, 1995).

Five goodness of fit indices were used to assess both measurement and structural models, namely, i) chi-square statistic; ii) goodness of fit index; iii) adjusted goodness of fit index; iv) root mean square error for approximation (RMSEA) index; and v) standardised root mean-square residual (SRMR) index. These five indices are widely recommended and used by marketing researchers such as Bagozzi and Yi (1988), Bentler and Chou (1987), (Bollen, 1989), Hair et al. (2006), Joreskog and Sorbom (1982) and Kline (1998). The characteristics of these five indices are summarised in Table 4.4. The cut-off scores for these five indices are those recommended by Kline (1998) and are also presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Goodness of fit indices

Goodness of fit indices	Interpretation of cut-off scores
Chi-square (χ^2)	A non-significant p-value suggests good fit
Chi-square/degree of freedom ratio (χ^2/df)	Ratio less than 3 suggests good fit
Goodness of fit (GFI)	Greater than 0.90 suggests good fit
Adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI)	
Root mean square error for approximation (RMSEA)	Less than 0.10 suggests good fit
Standardised root mean-square residual (SRMR)	

Source: developed from Kline (1998)

4.6.3 Assessing validity and reliability

Four indices were used to evaluate the convergent validity and discriminant validity of the six key factors under investigation (i.e. Perceived Event Quality, Social Crowding, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour and Shopping Orientation). These four indices were critical ratio, standardised residuals, modification index and correlation coefficient. The functions and cut-off scores of these four indices are summarised in Table 4.5. The cut-off scores are those recommended by Cunningham (2008) and Hair et al. (2006).

Table 4.5: Indices for checking convergent and discriminant validity

Validity indices	Purpose	Interpretation of cut-off scores
Critical ratio (C.R.)	To check the convergent validity of measurement items	More than 1.96 suggests 'acceptable' convergent validity
Standardised factor loadings	To check the convergent validity of measurement items	Factor loadings greater than 0.50 are considered 'acceptable' and thus demonstrate 'acceptable' convergent validity
Standardised residuals	To check the discriminant validity between measurement items	Less than 2.5 suggests a low degree of correlated error terms and thus suggests discriminant validity exists
Modification index (M.I.)	To check the discriminant validity between measurement items	No precise scores have been suggested but high modification indices tend to suggest strong correlation, and thus lack of discriminant validity
Correlation coefficient (R)	To check the discriminant validity between dimensions	Less than 0.80 suggests 'acceptable' discriminant validity between dimensions or factors
Notes: ^a only applicable to factors with multiple dimensions		

Source: developed from Cunningham (2008) and Hair *et al.* (2006)

For the structural model, three indices were used to check the nomological validity of the six key factors under investigation (i.e. Perceived Event Quality, Social Crowding, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour and Shopping Orientation). These indices were critical ratio, standardised regression coefficient and modification index. The characteristics and cut-off scores of these two indices are presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Indices for nomological validity

Validity indices	Interpretation of cut-off scores
Critical ratio (C.R.)	Significant p-value indicates significant relationship between constructs and thus suggest the existence of nomological validity
Standardised regression coefficient (β)	High β indicates strong relationship between constructs
Modification index (M.I)	High modification indices suggests potential relationship between factors and thus potential nomological validity. Nonetheless, this potential relationship should be supported by existing theory and/or prior research.

Source: developed from Cunningham (2008) and Hair *et al.* (2006)

The reliability of the key factors under investigation were examined using Cronbach's alpha, a widely used reliability index in marketing (e.g. Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Voss, Spangenberg, & Grohmann, 2003; Weissinger & Bandalos, 1995; Wolfenbarger & Gilly, 2003). According to Kline (1998), Cronbach's alpha around 0.90 suggests 'excellent' reliability, Cronbach's alpha around 0.80 suggests 'very good' reliability and Cronbach's alpha around 0.70 is regarded as 'satisfactory' reliability. When Cronbach's alpha is below 0.50, it suggests 'poor' validity and deletion of items with low correlation may be necessary (Kline, 1998).

4.6.4 Other statistical analyses

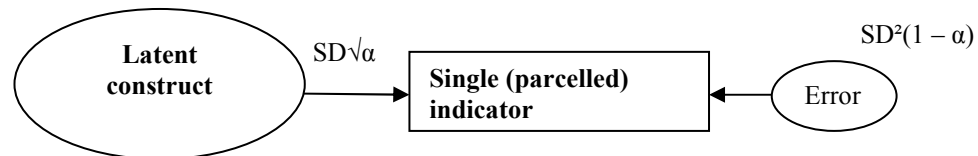
Besides structural equation modelling, three other analyses were also conducted to facilitate the assessment of the theoretical model about consumer experiences with special event entertainment. These three analyses were descriptive tests, parcelling, cluster analysis and multi-group analysis. In particular, descriptive tests (e.g. frequency distributions, skewness and kurtosis) were conducted to describe the characteristics of the sample and to check all variables for any violation of the assumptions underlying multivariate analyses (e.g. data normality and no missing data).

Parcelling refers to the merging of multiple items of a factor into one composite item (Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002). Retaining control over the complexity of a research model is a major issue in SEM. A ‘complex’ model arises when it contains too many variables and parameters and, thus, it opts to result in complicated estimations, poor fit, a large number of and inflated measurement errors, and ‘out-of-range’ model fit solutions (Bentler & Chou, 1987). Hence, parcelling is commonly used to overcome these complexity issues (e.g. Bagozzi & Heatherton, 1994; Dabholkar, Thorpe, & Rentz, 1996; Little, et al., 2002). The conceptual model of this research program was considered as ‘complex’ given it contained multiple factors. Each of the multiple factors were measured by multiple measurement items and could involve multiple dimensions. Moreover, the multiple factors were proposed to be inter-related. For these reasons, parcelling was deemed appropriate for this research program because it provided the following benefits:

- reduces the ratio between parameter estimates and cases required;
- reduces high levels of measurement errors;
- reduces the number of parameter estimates;
- increases the stability of parameter estimates; and thus
- increases model fit solutions (Little, et al., 2002).

The parcelling process suggested by Cunningham (2008) was used in this research program. In particular, before parcelling was conducted, the unidimensionality of a latent construct under study was examined. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to verify the unidimensionality of the latent construct. Moreover, the convergent validity and reliability of the measurement items of the latent factor were also examined. Once the unidimensionality, convergent validity and reliability of the latent construct were established, the measurement items of the latent construct were then parcelled into a single indicator. Consequently, the multi-item latent construct became a single-indicator latent construct. If a latent construct emerged to be multi-dimensional, each of the multiple dimensions was treated as a distinct factor and the multiple items for this factor were parcelled into a single-indicator factor. For instance, if factor analysis revealed Perceived Quality to have two dimensions which comprised multiple items, these dimensions would be treated

as two factors and parcelling would be performed each of these factors. To account for the regression weight and measurement error of a single-indicator latent construct, two statistics are required, namely, Cronbach's alpha (α) and standard deviation (SD) (Cunningham, 2008). The formula for regression coefficient is $SD\sqrt{\alpha}$, and the formula for measurement error variance is $SD^2(1 - \alpha)$. An illustration of a single-indicator latent construct is as follows:



Source: developed from Cunningham (2008)

Cluster analysis is a multivariate technique whose primary purpose is to group objects (e.g. the respondents) based on the characteristics (e.g. shopping orientation) they possess (Hair, et al., 2006). Hypotheses 5 and 6 focus on the moderation effect of Shopping Orientation on the relationships between Perceived Event Quality, Social Crowding and Enjoyment. Hence, before these two hypotheses could be tested, cluster analysis was necessary to discern the existence of different shopper groups based on their shopping orientations. Following this, multigroup analysis was conducted to test these two hypotheses.

Multi-group analysis refers to the estimation of a theoretical model across different sample groups (Kline, 1998). A common tactic in multigroup analysis is to impose cross-group equality constraints on a hypothesised relationship under investigation (Kline, 1998). The chi-square (χ^2) difference and path coefficient of the hypothesised relationship is then compared across groups. According to Kline (1998), if the chi-square difference is significant, one can conclude that the hypothesised relationship is 'unequal' or different across groups. After completing the practicalities of the research design, the final issue to be addressed was the ethical considerations of the study.

4.7 Ethical considerations

The researcher has given consideration to ethical issues at all stages throughout the research design. The researcher has adopted the Codes of Professional Behaviour developed by the Australia Market Research and Social Research Society (2007) as guidelines to ensure that all parties involved in this research program were treated ethically. In particular, the Codes of Professional Behaviour (AMSRS, 2007) have helped clarifying both the respondent's and researcher's responsibilities relating to this research program.

In regards to the responsibilities to the respondent, the major issues surround:

- anonymity - the respondent's identity must not, without their consent, be revealed to anyone not directly involved in the research project or used for any non-research purpose;
- no harmful effect on the respondent – the respondent should not be adversely affected or harmed as a direct result of participating in the research project;
- ability to check the bona fides of the researcher – the respondents must be able to check, without difficulty, the identity and credentials of the researcher;
- voluntary participation at all stages – the respondent must be clearly informed that his or her participation co-operation in the research project is entirely voluntary at all stages, and the respondent must not be misled when being asked for their co-operation (AMSRS, 2007).

To ensure the anonymity of the respondents of this research program, they were instructed not to provide their names and contact numbers on the questionnaire. If the shopping centre patrons wished to enter into the lucky draw to win a shopping voucher, they were instructed to fill in a separate entry form (a raffle ticket). Care was taken to ensure that no questions in the questionnaire would create any psychological and/or emotional discomfort for the shopping centre patrons. To establish the identity and credentials of the researcher, the university's name and logo were printed on all four pages of the questionnaire (refer to Appendix 4.1 for more details). Moreover, the contact details of the researcher and his principal

supervisor were also provided in the questionnaire. When conducting the mall intercept survey, the researcher and his field researchers also wore a name tag and a t-shirt embroidered with the university name and logo. Permission was sought from the shopping centre patrons before handing out the self-completion questionnaire, and this was to make the shopping centre patrons aware that their participation was voluntary and they could choose to cease the survey at any stage.

4.8 Chapter summary

This chapter has addressed the methodology of the quantitative research, which represented the final stage of the research design of this study. The chapter began with a brief explanation of the quantitative research, especially in terms of its rationale and objective. Next, it proceeded with a discussion on the sampling strategy, particularly the decision issues involved in this strategy (e.g. sampling unit, sampling frame, sampling method and sampling size). The target population and sampling unit was defined as ‘any shopping centre patron who is aged 18 years and older, and has experienced special event entertainment. The sampling frame involved approaching shopping centre patrons during special event entertainment. The target sampling size was 400 shopping centre patrons.

A discussion ensued on questionnaire design and administration. In particular, mall intercept survey was used, as the quantitative research aimed to measure the immediate or on-site experience of shopping centre patrons with special event entertainment. The measurement items for the six factors under investigation were adapted from existing scales. These six factors were Perceived Event Quality, Social Crowding, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour and Shopping Orientation. The measurement items for these six factors were then transferred into a self-completing questionnaire. The response format for these six factors involved a 5-point Likert scale (where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree). Besides these six factors, questions relating to participation decision, shopping situation and demographics were also included in the survey instrument, resulting in the questionnaire being four pages in length.

Having addressed the sampling strategy and questionnaire design, the data preparation and analysis strategies were then discussed. In particular, the raw data collected from the mall intercept survey were initially edited and cleaned before being entered into SPSS. Structural equation modelling was the main statistical technique used and this technique was fully explained and justified. Besides SEM, other analyses, including descriptive tests, parcelling, cluster analysis and multi-group analysis, were also conducted. The results from SEM and these other analyses will be presented in the next chapter.

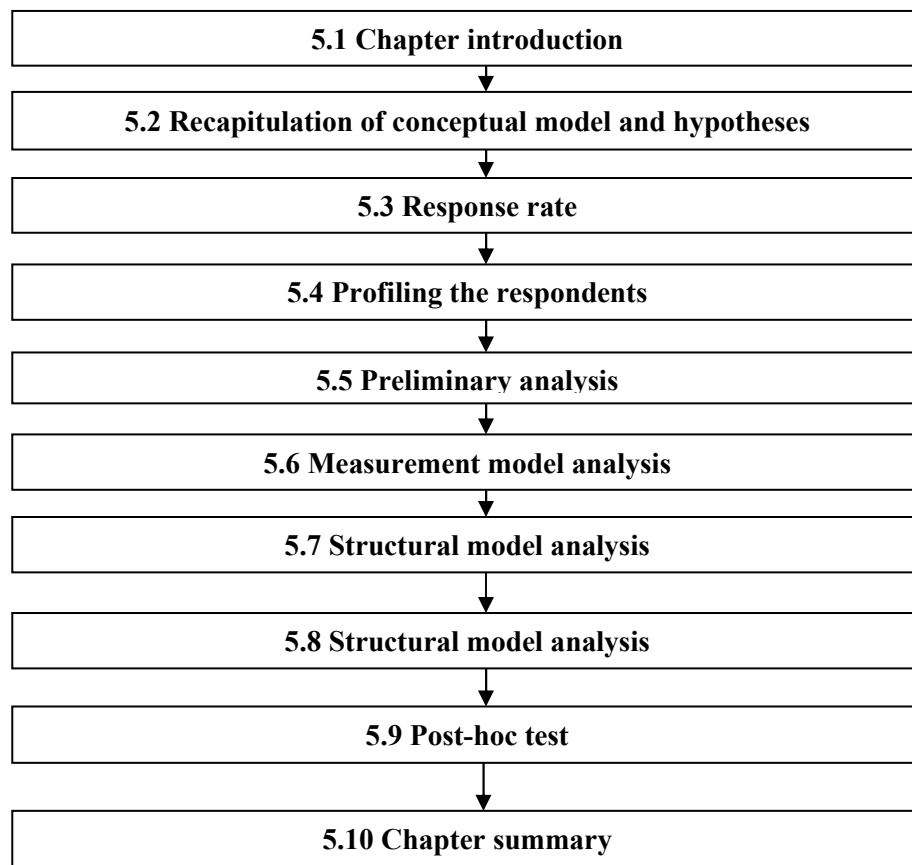
Chapter Five

Quantitative Research: Findings

5.1 Chapter introduction

The methodology of the quantitative study has been addressed in the previous chapter. The results of the quantitative study will be presented and explained in this chapter, which begins with a recapitulation of the conceptual model—especially in terms of its theoretical framework, underlying factors and the hypothesised relationships among the factors (section 5.2). Next, this chapter will discuss the response rate and the profiles of the respondents who participated in the quantitative study (sections 5.3 and 5.4). The chapter will then present the results of the preliminary analysis, which included the results of data cleaning and editing, descriptive analysis and exploratory factor analysis (section 5.5).

Having cleaned and edited the data set, this chapter will continue with the discussion on the results of the measurement model analysis (section 5.6), followed by the results of the structural model analysis (section 5.7) and then the results of the multigroup analysis (section 5.8). It will also present the results of a post-hoc test that was conducted to explore the possible higher-order relationship between two factors (Perceived Event Quality and Enjoyment) (section 5.9). Finally, this chapter concludes with a summary (section 5.10). The structure of this chapter is depicted in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1: Structure of Chapter Five

Source: developed for this research

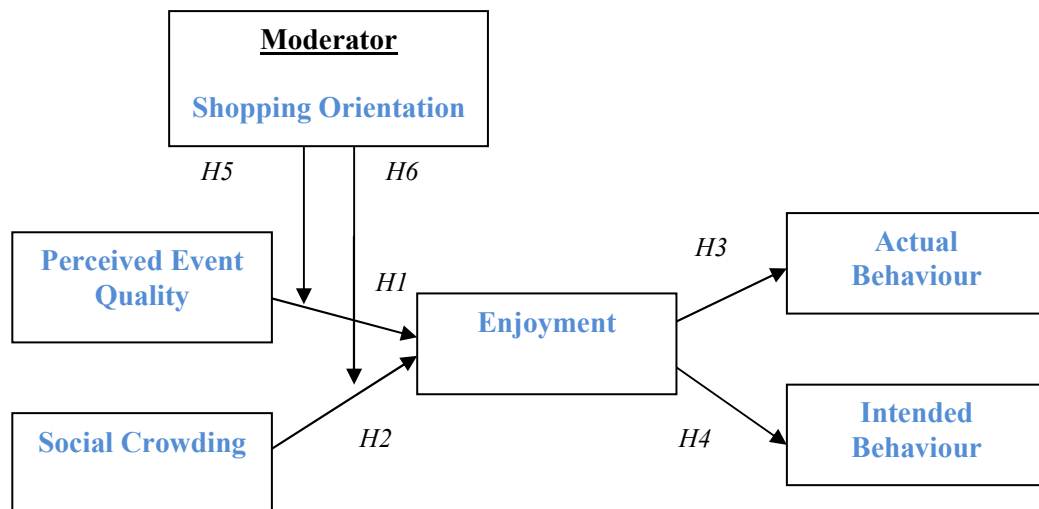
5.2 Recapitulation of conceptual model and hypotheses

The primary purpose of this study is to explain consumer experiences with special event entertainment conveyed by shopping centres (see section 1.4). A conceptual model has been developed from experiential consumption literature—especially from the domains of shopping centre and event consumption—to address the purpose of this study.

The conceptual model consists of six key factors, namely, Perceived Event Quality, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour, Social Crowding and Shopping Orientation (see section 3.8). In terms of the relationships between these six factors, Perceived Event Quality and Social Crowding are hypothesised to have significant effects on Enjoyment, which, in turn, is hypothesised to have a significant effect on

Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour. Shopping Orientation is hypothesised to moderate the relationships between Perceived Event Quality, Social Crowding and Enjoyment (see section 3.8). Since the conceptual model involves structural and moderating relationships, it will be tested in two stages. The first stage will involve structural model analysis to examine the structural relationships between Perceived Event Quality, Social Crowding, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour. The second stage will involve cluster and multigroup analysis to examine the moderating effect of Shopping Orientation on the relationships between Perceived Event Quality, Social Crowding and Enjoyment. The structural and moderating relationships hypothesised in the conceptual model are illustrated in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2 A conceptual model for explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment in shopping centres



Source: developed for this research

Having reviewed the conceptual model and its hypothesised relationships, the response rate and profile of the respondents is addressed next.

5.3 Response rate

Kline (1998) suggests that the evaluation of a complex model such as the one formulated for this research requires a large sample size in order for the statistical results to be reasonably stable. Kline (1998) also asserts that a sample size of 100 cases or less can lead to untenable results in structural equation modelling unless the model under investigation is very simple in nature. Hence, Kline (1998) proposes that a sample size between 200 and 500 responses is the optimal minimum for structural equation modelling. Drawing on Kline's (1998) guidelines, a sample size of 400 cases was targeted for this study (see section 4.3.3).

Two special event occasions were surveyed as a strategic attempt to achieve the target sample size: Family Week Concert; and Dance Factory (addressed in section 4.3.2). These two occasions could be classified as family-oriented special event entertainment as they were consistently targeted to family shoppers with young children. A total of 290 surveys were collected (179 from Family Week Concert; and 111 from Dance Factory). However, a preliminary screening identified 10 surveys with more than 10 percent missing or incomplete data (5 surveys for Family Week Concert; and 5 surveys for Dance Factory). A further inspection revealed that these incomplete or missing responses were systematic, rather than random, in nature. Scholars such as Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham (2006) and Kline (1998) propose that cases with more than 10 percent systematic missing responses are likely to weaken the results of structural equation modelling and, thus, should be removed from the multivariate analysis. Therefore, the 10 surveys with more than 10 percent systematic missing responses were removed from the data set and this resulted in a revised sample size of 280 surveys (174 for Family Week Concert; and 106 for Dance Factory). Therefore, this study targeted 400 cases as the 'ideal' sample size, but collected 280 cases—leading to a response rate of 70 percent. This high response rate was attributed to the advantage of the mall intercept survey, as addressed in section 4.4.2. Having examined the response rate, the following section addresses the profile of the respondents.

5.4 Profiling the respondents

The purpose of profiling respondents is to establish a clear picture of their demographic and behavioural characteristics (Malhotra & Birks, 2007), and this was done in this study. The characteristics used to profile respondents helped to explain the results of the six key factors under investigation, namely, Perceived Event Quality, Social Crowding, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour and Shopping Orientation. Three profiles of the respondents were developed, based on the demographic and behavioural characteristics collected. These profiles were labelled as ‘demographic profile’, ‘participation profile’ and ‘shopping profile’. Each of these profiles is discussed in turn.

5.4.1 Demographic profile

The majority of the respondents were female shoppers (78.1%), who were aged between 31 and 50 years (49.3%), and had young children below 12 years of age (49.6%). The dominance of middle-aged shoppers with young children was consistent in the two special event entertainment occasions surveyed. Both special event entertainment occasions were primarily targeted at family shoppers with young children (see section 4.3.2 for more detail).

The dominance of female respondents in this study (78.1%) suggests that shopping centre patronage remains a female-dominant activity and this notion has widely reported in retailing literature (Chebat, G  linas-Chebat, & Therrien, 2008; Michon, et al., 2008). Table 5.1 presents the frequency distributions of the gender, age categories and household status of the respondents. The participation profile of the respondents follows.

Table 5.1: Demographic profile of respondents

Demographic characteristics	Frequency (%)
Gender (n = 270)	
<i>Female</i>	211 (78.1%)
<i>Male</i>	59 (21.9%)
Age categories (n = 280)	
18 – 21	36 (12.9%)
22 – 25	26 (9.3%)
26 – 30	41 (14.6%)
31 – 40	81 (28.9%)
41 – 50	57 (20.4%)
51 – 60	22 (7.9%)
61 – 70	16 (5.7%)
71 – 80	1 (0.4%)
Family status (n = 274)	
<i>Couple/single with children mainly under 6 years</i>	76 (27.7%)
<i>Couple/single with children mainly 6 – 12 years</i>	60 (21.9%)
<i>Couple/single with mainly older/teenager/adult children</i>	39 (14.2%)
<i>Couple/single with all children living away from home</i>	14 (5.1%)
<i>Couple without children</i>	38 (13.9%)
<i>Single without children</i>	47 (17.2%)

Source: developed from the quantitative study

5.4.2 Participation profile

The participation profile examined the participation characteristics of the respondents relative to special event entertainment, particularly their planned or unplanned participation, awareness of the special event entertainment prior to visiting the shopping centre, information sources used to find out about the special event entertainment, level of interest in the special event entertainment, and influence of shopping companion on participation. Table 5.2 summarises the participation profile of the respondents.

Table 5.2: Participation profile of respondents

Participation characteristics	Frequency (%)
Specifically came to see the entertainment today (n = 280)	
<i>Yes</i>	102 (36.4%)
<i>No</i>	178 (63.6%)
Aware of the entertainment today before visiting the shopping centre (n = 280)	
<i>Yes</i>	145 (51.8%)
<i>No</i>	135 (48.2%)

Table 5.2 (continued)

Participation characteristics	Frequency (%)	
Found out about the entertainment today from	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
<i>Television (n = 280)</i>	20 (7.1%)	260 (92.9%)
<i>Radio (n = 280)</i>	11 (3.9%)	269 (96.1%)
<i>Advertisements in local newspaper (n = 280)</i>	41 (14.6%)	239 (85.4%)
<i>Letterbox/junk mails (n = 280)</i>	10 (3.6%)	270 (96.4%)
<i>Shopping centre posters (n = 280)</i>	33 (11.8%)	247 (88.2%)
<i>Shopping centre websites (n = 280)</i>	4 (1.4%)	276 (98.6%)
<i>Word of mouth from family or friends (n = 280)</i>	57 (20.4%)	223 (79.6%)
<i>Notice it while shopping (n = 280)</i>	45 (16.1%)	235 (83.9%)
Level of interest in the entertainment today (n = 279)		
<i>No interest</i>	11 (4.0%)	
<i>Little interest</i>	38 (13.6%)	
<i>Some interest</i>	63 (22.6%)	
<i>Moderate amount of interest</i>	84 (30.1%)	
<i>Quite a lot of interest</i>	57 (20.4%)	
<i>Great deal of interest</i>	26 (9.3%)	
Who were you shopping with today?	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
<i>Shopping alone (n = 280)</i>	33 (11.8%)	247 (88.2%)
<i>Shopping with kids (n = 280)</i>	139 (49.6%)	141 (50.4%)
<i>Shopping with my partner (n = 280)</i>	70 (25.0%)	210 (75.0%)
<i>Shopping with relatives (n = 280)</i>	57 (20.4%)	223 (79.6%)
<i>Shopping friends (n = 280)</i>	39 (13.9%)	241 (86.1%)
Participating in the entertainment today because of shopping companion (n = 280)		
<i>Yes</i>	173 (61.8%)	
<i>No</i>	87 (31.1%)	
<i>Not applicable (shopping alone)</i>	20 (7.1%)	

Source: developed from quantitative study

Whilst many respondents indicated that they knew about the special event being there before visiting the shopping centre (51.8%), they did not specifically plan to participate as part of their shopping trip (63.6%). In other words, their participation in the special event was largely unplanned or ad hoc. These findings are consistent with the findings from the qualitative research where many participants expressed that, typically, their encounters with special event were often impromptu rather than planned (see section 3.7.2). Both the qualitative and quantitative research findings in this study suggest that special event entertainment is a low-involvement, ad-hoc consumption experience.

When asked how they found out about the special event, the respondents mentioned different communication media such as: word-of-mouth from family or friends

(20.4%), local newspaper (14.6%), shopping centre poster (11.8%), television advertisement (7.1%), radio (3.9%), letterbox drop or junk mail (3.6%) and shopping centre website (1.4%). These findings suggest that the respondents rely on personal and non-personal communication media when seeking information about special event entertainment.

After asking about their media habits relative to special event entertainment, the respondents were also asked about their interest levels in special event entertainment. The majority of the respondents (82.6%) were interested in special event entertainment. In particular, 22.6 percent of them expressed some level of interest, 30.1 percent a moderate level of interest, 20.4 percent quite a lot of interest, and 9.3 percent a great deal of interest in the special event surveyed in this study. Almost all respondents (88.2%) visited the shopping centre with shopping companions, more specifically 49.6 percent visited with children, 25.0 percent with partners, 20.4 percent with relatives and 13.9 percent with friends. These findings suggest that shopping centre patronage is a social activity and these findings are consistent with the shopping centre marketing literature (e.g. Feinberg, Sheffler, Meoli, & Rummel, 1989; Kim, et al., 2005b; Nicholls, Roslow, & Dubliss, 1997; Tauber, 1972).

More than half the respondents (61.8%) reported that they participated in the special event because of their shopping companions. These findings suggest that the presence of a shopping companion can affect a consumer's decision to participate in special event entertainment. Indeed, two studies (Nicholls, et al., 1997; Prus, 1993) have reported that shopping companions can significantly affect a person's shopping and purchase behaviours in retail settings. Having addressed the participation profile, the shopping profile of the respondents is examined next.

5.4.3 Shopping profile

As noted in the previous section, more than half the respondents (63.6%) did not visit the shopping centre specifically for special event entertainment. When asked the other reasons for visiting the shopping centre, the respondents replied with a wide range of reasons, as shown in table 5.3. The top five reasons were: browsing or window shopping (43.1%), apparel shopping (30.0%); food shopping (21.1%); meeting friends or family (13.2%); and shopping for home wares or small appliances (7.1%). Most of these reasons are recreational, as opposed to functional, in nature, and not surprisingly that most respondents (61.0%) expressed that they did not experience any time pressure on their shopping trips.

The findings suggest that the respondents visited the shopping centre for more than one reason. Indeed, the respondents indicated that they combined two or three reasons for their shopping excursions. These findings are comparable to previous studies on shopping centre patronage where it is shown that people visit shopping centres for a combination of reasons such as passing time, shopping for merchandises and consuming retail services (e.g. Bloch, et al., 1994; Roy, 1994).

Other than asking their reasons for visiting the shopping centre, the respondents were also asked how they often visited the shopping centre. Nearly two-thirds of the respondents (61.5%) were found to be frequent shopping centre patrons. In particular, 31.0 percent of the respondents reported visiting the shopping centre more than once a week; and 30.5 percent reported visiting the shopping centre at least once a week. Table 5.3 summarises the shopping profile of the respondents.

Table 5.3: Shopping profile of respondents

Shopping characteristics	Frequency (%)	
	Yes	No
Other main reasons for visiting the shopping centre (n =280)		
<i>Groceries/fresh food</i>	59 (21.1%)	221 (78.9%)
<i>Fashion and accessories</i>	84 (30.0%)	196 (70%)
<i>Home wares/small appliances</i>	20 (7.1%)	260 (92.9%)
<i>Retail services (e.g. haircut or dry cleaning)</i>	48 (17.1%)	232 (82.9%)
<i>Business services (e.g. banking or health insurance)</i>	19 (6.8%)	261 (93.2%)
<i>Medical services(e.g. doctor or physiotherapist)</i>	8 (2.9%)	272 (97.1%)
<i>No main reason (e.g. browsing or window shopping)</i>	71 (25.4%)	209 (74.6%)
<i>Meet friends or family</i>	37 (13.2%)	243 (86.8%)
<i>Cinema</i>	8 (2.9%)	272 (97.1%)
Frequency of visiting the shopping centre (n = 239)		
<i>More than once a week</i>	74 (31.0%)	
<i>Once a week</i>	73 (30.5%)	
<i>Once a fortnight</i>	38 (15.9%)	
<i>Once a month</i>	20 (8.4%)	
<i>Less than once a month</i>	26 (10.9%)	
<i>First time ever</i>	8 (3.3%)	
Time pressure felt in the shopping trip (n = 277)		
<i>No pressure</i>	169 (61.0%)	
<i>Little pressure</i>	60 (21.7%)	
<i>Some pressure</i>	23 (8.3%)	
<i>Moderate amount of pressure</i>	16 (5.8%)	
<i>Quite a lot of pressure</i>	6 (2.2%)	
<i>Great deal of pressure</i>	3 (1.1%)	

Source: developed from quantitative study

5.4.4 Summary of the respondents' profiles

The majority of the respondents were middle-aged female shoppers who had young children living at home. Nearly two-thirds of the respondents did not visit the shopping centre specifically for the entertainment events and, instead, their participation in the entertainment events was largely ad hoc or unplanned. The respondents found out about the special event from personal and non-personal communication media such as word-of-mouth from family or friends, local newspaper, shopping centre posters, television and/or junk mail.

Despite their ad-hoc participation in the special event entertainment, the majority of the respondents expressed some level of interest in the special event. The majority of

the respondents expressed that their shopping companions had a substantial effect on their participation in the special event. Besides the special event, the respondents also visited the shopping centre for other purposes such as browsing, apparel shopping, food shopping, meeting friends or family and homeward shopping. Most respondents were not pressed for time during their shopping trips. Moreover, most respondents were frequent patrons of the shopping centres involved in this study.

The dominance of female shoppers in this study is consistent with other shopping centre studies (Chebat, et al., 2008; Haytko & Baker, 2004; Michon, et al., 2007; Nicholls, Li, Kranendonk, & Roslow, 2002), which have frequently reported that shopping centre patronage remains a female-oriented activity. Moreover, consistent with other studies (Bloch, et al., 1994; Nicholls, et al., 2002), the descriptive statistics of this study reinforce the notion that people, generally, visit a shopping centre for multiple purposes.

Nevertheless, in comparison to other shopping centre studies (Haytko & Baker, 2004; Nicholls, et al., 2002; Taylor & Cosenza, 2002), this study appears to have more middle-aged family shoppers with school-aged children and this can be due to the nature of the special event surveyed, namely, family-oriented special event entertainment. Hence, the findings of this study may not generalise to other shopper segments such as young shoppers and senior shoppers with no school-aged children, and this will be addressed as a limitation in the next chapter. After examining the profiles of the respondents, the next stage of data analysis was to conduct preliminary analysis (Hair, et al., 2006).

5.5 Preliminary analysis

The preliminary analysis involved three specific activities: i) cleaning and screening of data to check for missing data, outliers and normality; ii) reporting the descriptive statistics of key factors under investigation; and iii) conducting exploratory factor analysis on all measurement items to gauge the factor solutions (Hair, et al., 2006). Each of these preliminary analysis activities is addressed in turn.

5.5.1 Cleaning and screening of data

Cleaning and screening of a data set helps to increase the accuracy of data analysis and to ensure that the assumptions of structural equation modelling have not been violated (Hair, et al., 2006; Kline, 1998). The data set collected from the quantitative study was cleaned and edited for missing data, outliers and normality.

Data cleaning. After entering the data set into SPSS 16.0, the data set was checked for accuracy by running frequency distributions to identify any out-of-range responses; and randomly checking 10 percent of entries against the original questionnaires (Hair, et al., 2006; Kline, 1998). These checks detected some responses outside the allowable ranges, which, on investigation, were found to be due to human error during data entry. Those ‘out-of-range’ responses were corrected and the data set was then screened for missing data and outliers.

Missing data. Missing data were checked using SPSS 16.0. As reported in section 5.3, there were 10 cases with more than 10 percent systematic missing values. These 10 cases were deleted from the data set because they could undermine the statistical stability and estimation power of structural equation modelling (Hair, et al., 2006; Kline, 1998). In addition to these 10 cases, another 33 cases were found to have missing values, however, the missing values were less than 10 percent and were random in nature. Accordingly, these 33 cases did not violate the multivariate assumption of structural equation modelling and thus they were retained in the data set (Hair, et al., 2006; Kline, 1998). The breakdown of missing data among these 33 cases is presented in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4: Breakdown of 33 cases with random missing values

Number of cases with random missing values (N = 33)	Number of missing values (less than 10%)
22	1
4	2
3	3
1	4
3	5

Source: developed from quantitative study

Expectation-maximisation algorithm was used to treat the 33 cases with random missing values. In particular, expectation-maximisation algorithm is an iterative process in which all other variables measuring the construct of interest are used to predict the missing values (Cunningham, 2008; Graham, Hofer, & MacKinnon, 1996; Hair, et al., 2006). When structural equation modelling is used as the main statistical technique, expectation-maximisation algorithm is frequently recommended as an appropriate method to treat missing values (Cunningham, 2008; Graham, et al., 1996). Indeed, Graham, Hofer and MacKinnon (1996) assert that expectation-maximisation algorithm is far more consistent and accurate in imputing missing values than other treatments such as list-wise deletion (which is highly variable) and mean substitution (which consistently underestimates values). Having screened and treated the missing values, the data set was then screened for outliers.

Outliers. Both univariate and multivariate techniques were used to check for outliers. SPSS 16.0 was used to check univariate outliers through running frequency distributions. No univariate outliers were detected. Thereafter, multivariate outliers were checked using AMOS 6.0. On the basis of a Mahalanobis distance with a significant p-value of less than 0.01 (Hair, et al., 2006; Kline, 1998), 21 cases were identified as having multivariate outliers. These cases were reviewed, and in all cases no inconsistencies could be identified, therefore, all were retained for further analysis. Next, the data set was checked for normality.

Normality. As with the checking of outliers, normality also needs to be checked at the univariate and multivariate levels because non-normality will influence the choice of estimation method in structural equation modelling (Hair, et al., 2006; Kline, 1998). A total of 39 items were generated to measure the six factors underlying the conceptual model: Perceived Event Quality (12 items); Enjoyment (6 items); Actual Behaviour (3 items); Intended Behaviour (4 items); Social Crowding (4 items); and Shopping Orientation (10 items). The details of these 39 items have been addressed in section 4.4.3.1. The univariate normality of the 39 items was tested using SPSS 16.0 and through checking skewness and kurtosis.

The cut-off scores of skewness and kurtosis are ambiguous as there are few clear guidelines available. Kline (1998) proposes that an item is considered as highly

skewed if the critical score is greater than 3.0; and as highly kurtotic if the critical score is greater than 10.0. On the other hand, Hair et al. (2006) propose that the critical score for skewness and kurtosis should be based on the significance (confidence) level a researcher desires. For instance, the critical score of 2.58 is appropriate if the researcher aims to pursue the significance (confidence) level at 0.01. On the other hand, a critical score of 1.96 is acceptable if the researcher desires the significance (confidence) level to be at 0.05 (Hair, et al., 2006). Nevertheless, Hair et al. (2006) strongly recommend a researcher considers the sample size before undertaking any data transformation of non-normally distributed data. The authors explain that, with a large sample size ($N \geq 200$), the detrimental effect of non-normally distributed data can be minimal or trivial and, thus, data transformation can be unnecessary. In particular, Hair et al. (2006) state that:

‘in small samples of 50 or fewer cases, and especially if the sample size is less than 30 or so, significant departures from normality can have a substantial impact on the results. For sample sizes of 200 or more, the same effects may be negligible’ (p. 81).

Drawing upon the guideline suggested by Hair et al. (2006), this study adopted the significance (confidence) level of 0.05 which has been widely used in retail literature (Michon & Chebat, 2008; Michon, et al., 2005; Michon, et al., 2007, 2008). Accordingly, 1.96 was the critical score for skewness and kurtosis. That is, when an item had a skewness or kurtosis index over 1.96, it was considered as skewed or kurtotic. In this study, 31 items were found to be skewed; and 27 items were classified as kurtotic as the critical score exceeded 1.96. According to Hair et al. (2006), if the sample size of this study were less than 50 cases, data transformation would be necessary because those skewed and kurtotic items could have a detrimental effect on the statistical testing of the conceptual model and hypotheses.

Nevertheless, the sample size of this study was 280 which was considered large according to the guidelines suggested by Hair et al. (2006). Given this large sample size, the detrimental effect of the skewed and kurtotic items were deemed to be minimal and, thus, data transformation was not executed (Hair, et al., 2006). All

skewed and kurtotic items were retained for further analysis and their details are presented in Table 5.5

Table 5.5: Summary of univariate normality test

Latent factors under investigation (total number of measurement items)	N = 280	
	Number of items with skewness score over 1.96 (significance level of at 0.05)	Number of items with kurtosis score over 1.96 (significance level at 0.05)
Perceived Event Quality (12)	9	6
Enjoyment (6)	6	6
Actual Behaviour (3)	2	3
Intended Behaviour (4)	4	3
Social Crowding (4)	2	1
Shopping Orientation (10)	8	8
Total	31	27

Notes:^adrawn on the guidelines suggested by Hair et al. (2006)

Source: developed for this study

After checking univariate normality, the skewed and kurtotic items were also checked for multivariate normality using two methods, namely, i) Mardia's coefficient; and ii) examining the distribution of residuals (Hair, et al., 2006; Kline, 1998). Both tests of multivariate normality were performed using AMOS 6.0. The Mardia's coefficient for the data set was 427.63 with a critical ratio of 63.27, and these findings indicated that there was non-normality in the data set. In particular, the data set appeared to be somewhat skewed, but only slightly kurtotic.

Drawing on the univariate and multivariate normality tests, the data set for this study was concluded as being moderately skewed and kurtotic. The major impact of this non-normality in the data set was on the choice of estimation method for structural equation modelling. Several researchers such as Hair et al. (2006) and Kline (1998) state that maximum likelihood estimation is generally robust to moderate violation of normality in structural equation modelling. Accordingly, maximum likelihood estimation was chosen as the estimation method for structural equation modelling, and transformation of the data set was, again, deemed unnecessary.

In brief, the data cleaning ensured that the data set was accurately entered for statistical analysis. The data screening identified and addressed the issues of missing

data, outliers and non-normality. The next activity of the preliminary analysis was to report the descriptive statistics of key factors under investigation.

5.5.2 Descriptive statistics

As noted earlier, six factors constituted the conceptual model of this study: Perceived Event Quality, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour, Social Crowding and Shopping Orientation. A total of 39 items were generated to operationalise these six factors. The descriptive statistics—means and standard deviations—of these 39 items are presented in Table 5.6. The meanings of the descriptive statistics of these items are then explained.

Table 5.6: Descriptive statistics of key factors and their measurement items

Key factors and measurement items	Mean ^a	(standard deviation)
<u>Perceived Event Quality (12 items)</u>		
• It was interactive with the audience	3.85	(0.83)
• It suited the age of the audience	4.09	(0.68)
• It was presented professionally	4.05	(0.70)
• It was held at a convenient time	4.04	(0.67)
• It was held at a convenient location in the centre	4.17	(0.64)
• The sound system was of good quality	3.95	(0.78)
• The stage decoration was good	3.53	(0.88)
• It had performers that I like	3.69	(0.86)
• It had well-known performers	3.10	(1.13)
• It had performers that I recognise	3.14	(1.24)
• The costuming of the performers was high quality	3.55	(0.98)
• I could move around easily	3.81	(0.95)
<u>Enjoyment (6 items)</u>		
• It was enjoyable	4.10	(0.66)
• It was entertaining	4.03	(0.63)
• It was appealing	4.02	(0.60)
• It was fun	4.06	(0.70)
• It was interesting	3.91	(0.71)
• It was exciting	3.87	(0.76)
<u>Actual Behaviour (3 items)</u>		
• I stayed at the centre longer than I had planned to	3.87	(0.84)
• I bought some food and/or drinks that I didn't plan to	3.31	(1.03)
• I bought some non-food items that I didn't plan to	3.10	(1.03)

Table 5.6 (continued)

Key factors and measurement items	Mean^a	(standard deviation)
Intended Behaviour (4 items)		
• I would come back for similar entertainment in the future	3.90	(0.84)
• I would like to receive invitations to similar entertainment in the future	3.45	(1.07)
• I would say good things about the entertainment today to other people	4.03	(0.67)
• I like this type of entertainment overall	3.87	(0.76)
Social Crowding (4 items)		
• It was crowded	3.14	(1.13)
• I enjoyed the crowd	3.35	(0.91)
• The crowd added to the experience	3.44	(0.91)
• The crowd created a pleasant experience	3.47	(0.88)
Shopping Orientation (10 items)		
• I like to see new or different things at shopping centres	4.22	(0.66)
• I like browsing at shopping centres	4.15	(0.75)
• I find shopping to be a waste of time	2.29	(1.06)
• I go shopping for fun	3.75	(0.94)
• Shopping allows me to spend time with my family or friends	3.83	(0.86)
• I only go to shopping centres for necessities	2.87	(1.20)
• I only go to shopping centres that are conveniently located	3.52	(1.07)
• I only go to shopping centres that have brand names I like	2.98	(1.14)
• I enjoy going to shopping centres	4.00	(0.82)
• I go to shopping centres to fill in time	3.21	(1.14)
<i>Notes: ^aAll variables were measured on 5-point Likert scale, where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree</i>		

Source: developed from descriptive analysis

The descriptive statistics of each of the key factors under investigation are explained in detail.

Perceived Event Quality. This factor consisted of twelve items, and most of them achieved a mean score greater than 3.0, but below 4.0. These findings, in general, suggest that the respondents held a moderate level of agreement with most of the items such as: *the sound system was of good quality* (mean = 3.95); *it was interactive with the audience* (mean = 3.85), *I could move around easily* (mean = 3.81), *the stage decoration was good* (mean = 3.53); and *it had performers that I like* (mean = 3.69). Most of the items related to the quality of the stage setting and the performer(s) (see sections 3.5.4 and 3.7.3).

The four items which achieved mean scores greater than 4.0 were: *it was held at a convenient location in the centre* (mean = 4.17); *it suited the age of the audience* (mean = 4.09); *it was presented professionally* (mean = 4.05); and *it was held at a convenient time* (mean = 4.04). These findings indicate that the respondents held a strong level of agreement with these four items. In particular, these four items appeared to represent convenience and audience connection (see sections 3.5.4 and 3.7.3).

In brief, the findings indicate that the respondents had positive perceptions of the Event Quality associated with the special event entertainment. In particular, the respondents very much agreed that the special event entertainment was accessible (venue and time wise), suitable to the audience and professionally presented. The respondents somewhat agreed that the special event entertainment had quality stage setting and quality performers.

Enjoyment. This factor comprised six items, and four items achieved a mean score over 4.0 and they were: *it was enjoyable* (mean = 4.10); *it was fun* (mean = 4.06); *it was entertaining* (mean = 4.03); and *it was appealing* (mean = 4.02). The remaining two items attained mean scores over 3.0, but below 4.0. These six items of Enjoyment appeared to represent consumers' enjoyment of the event (Kim, et al., 2007). These findings indicated that the special events surveyed in this study, generally, provided positive emotive experience for the respondents.

Actual Behaviour. Three items were used to measure this behavioural factor. One item had a mean score close to 4, namely, *I stayed at the centre longer than I had planned to* (mean = 3.81). The other two items had a mean score close to 3: *I bought some food and/or drinks that I didn't plan* (mean = 3.31); and *I bought some non-food items that I didn't plan to* (mean = 3.10). These findings indicate that the respondents have spent more time at the shopping centre, but not necessarily more money at the shopping centre.

Intended Behaviour. Four items were used to measure this behavioural factor. Three items had a mean score close to 4.0 and they were: *I would come back for similar entertainment in the future* (mean = 3.90); *I would say good things about the*

entertainment today to other people (mean 4.07); and *I like this type of entertainment overall* (mean = 3.87). One item, *I would like to receive invitations to similar entertainment in the future*, had a mean score of 3.45. These findings, in general, indicate that the respondents would come back for similar special event, they would spread positive word-of-mouth about the experience, they would like to be invited to future special event entertainment and they have a liking for the special event in general.

Social Crowding. This factor had four measurement items, and all of them attained a mean score over 3.0. These items were: *it was crowded* (mean = 3.14); *I enjoyed the crowd* (mean = 3.35); *the crowd added to the experience* (mean = 3.44); and *the crowd created a pleasant experience* (mean = 3.47). These findings suggest that respondents recognised the importance of social crowding at the special event and agreed that the social crowding, to some extent, was enjoyable and pleasant as part of their experiences with the special event.

Shopping Orientation. This personal factor had ten measurement items. In particular, six items had a mean score close to 4.0 and they were: *I like to see new or different things at shopping centres* (mean = 4.22); *I like browsing at shopping centres* (mean = 4.15); *I go shopping for fun* (mean = 3.75); *Shopping allows me to spend time with my family or friends* (mean = 3.83); *I enjoy going to shopping centres* (mean = 4.00); and *I only go to shopping centres that are conveniently located* (mean = 3.52).

The findings suggest that the respondents somewhat agreed with those items. Three items achieved a mean score close to 3.0, namely, *I go to shopping centres to fill in time* (mean = 3.21); *I only go to shopping centres that have brand names I like* (mean = 2.98); and *I only go to shopping centres for necessities* (mean = 2.87). These findings suggest that the respondents had indifferent opinions regarding these statements. One item, *I find shopping to be a waste of time*, had a mean score close to 2.0 which indicated that the respondents disagreed with this statement. In brief, the respondents appeared to have a positive orientation towards shopping centre patronage. That is, the respondents appeared to perceive shopping centre patronage as a hedonic activity that includes seeking novelty experiences, browsing, having fun

and socialising. The respondents also perceived shopping centre patronage as a functional activity, but in a positive manner. That is, the respondents disagreed that shopping centre patronage was a time-wasting activity.

Summary of descriptive statistics. With most measurement items achieving mean scores between 3.0 and 4.0, the respondents were found to have moderate to strong levels of agreement with the six factors under investigation—Perceived Event Quality, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour, Social Crowding and Shopping Orientation. Having reviewed the descriptive statistics of these six key factors under investigation, the next section will address the third and final activity of the preliminary analysis, namely, the exploratory factor analysis of the 39 measurement items included in this study. This ‘overall’ exploratory factor analysis was conducted to discern if the 39 measurement items, precisely, captured the six key factors under investigation, as addressed in section 4.6.1.

5.5.3 Exploratory factor analysis of all measurement items

In regards to factor analysis, Anderson and Gerbing (1988) recommended an ordered progression from exploratory factor analysis to confirmatory factor analysis. In particular, the ordered progression involves the moving from exploratory factor analysis where the number of dimensions is not specified, through to another exploratory analysis where the number of dimensions is specified and, finally, to proceed with confirmatory factor analysis. Because of its systematic process of identifying the factor solutions of a study, the ordered progression from exploratory factor analysis to confirmatory factor analysis has been adopted by many marketing studies (Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996; Gerbing & Anderson, 1988; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Wann, Schrader, & Wilson, 1999).

Drawing on this accepted practice, this study commenced with an overall exploratory factor analysis of all 39 items before proceeding with exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis of specific items proposed for a factor (see section 5.5.2). The purpose of an overall exploratory factor analysis was to gauge the groupings of and correlations between the 39 items and, also, to determine the preliminary discriminant validity between the key factors under investigation. In this study, six

key factors are under investigation, namely, Perceived Event Quality, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour, Social Crowding and Shopping Orientation. In the overall exploratory factor analysis, principal component extraction and varimax rotation were used (Hair, et al., 2006).

The results of the overall exploratory factor analysis indicated that the 39 items measured seven factors and not six factors as originally proposed in the literature review and the qualitative research (see section 4.4.3). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was large (0.91) and the Barlett's test of sphericity was significant (7143.42, $p < 0.01$), and these results suggested that the factor solution was acceptable. Using the root one criterion (Hair, et al., 2006), the factor loadings of the 39 items were examined. In particular, the overall exploratory factor analysis revealed that two items, 'I could move around easily' and 'it was crowded', loaded on other factors than those originally proposed. Furthermore, one item 'I stayed at the centre longer than I had planned' was found to cross-load on two factors, namely, Actual Behaviour and Shopping Orientation. In this analysis stage, no attempt was made to rectify the factor loading of those three items because the overall exploratory factor analysis were primarily conducted to gauge the factor solutions of the 39 items under investigation in this research program. The overall exploratory factor analysis was not conducted to substantiate the convergent and discriminant validity of the 39 items; this was the objective of the confirmatory factor analysis that will be discussed in section 5.6. The pattern matrix from the overall exploratory factor analysis is presented in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7: Pattern matrix for 39 items measured in the quantitative research

	Component						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Perceived Event Quality (12 items)							
• it was interactive with the audience	.68	.02	.14	.23	.06	-.02	-.17
• it suited the age of the audience	.79	-.06	.16	.08	.05	-.00	-.09
• it was presented professionally	.80	.14	.07	.05	.02	-.03	.09
• it was held at a convenient time	.79	-.01	.08	.14	.15	.07	.00
• it was held at a convenient location in the centre	.71	-.05	.21	.09	.10	.07	.04
• the sound system was of good quality	.63	.17	.04	.14	.16	-.04	.14
• the stage decoration was good	.43	.40	.04	.26	.32	-.11	-.05
• it had performers that I like	.50	.54	.07	.19	.19	.06	.20
• it had well known performers	.21	.76	.09	.13	.31	.03	-.11
• it had performers that I recognise	.21	.80	-.01	-.01	.22	.05	.01
• the costuming of the performers was high quality	.24	.67	-.00	.30	.05	-.02	.23
• I could move around easily	.33	-.36	.17	.61	.19	-.02	.01

Table 5.7 (continued)

	Component						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Enjoyment (6 items)							
• it was enjoyable	.80	.17	.11	.11	.08	.02	.22
• it was entertaining	.72	.28	.04	.08	.03	-.02	.25
• it was appealing	.81	.15	.04	.13	.01	-.06	.18
• it was fun	.81	.11	.09	.04	.04	-.06	.14
• it was interesting	.60	.34	.12	.20	.16	-.07	.22
• it was exciting	.58	.36	.13	.30	.23	-.03	.16
Actual Behaviour (3 items)							
• I stayed at the centre longer than I had planned to	.27	.04	.41	.06	.40	.14	.17
• I bought some food and/or drinks that I didn't plan to	.16	.08	.21	.04	.74	.16	.10
• I bought some non-food items that I didn't plan to	.11	.16	.17	.10	.79	.08	.05
Intended Behaviour (4 items)							
• I would come back for similar entertainment in the future	.34	.26	.14	.19	.37	-.04	.60
• I would like to receive invitations for similar entertainment in the future	.15	.27	.24	.20	.52	-.09	.43
• I would say good things about the entertainment today to other people	.51	.31	.14	.25	.26	-.05	.47
• I like this type of entertainment overall	.42	.24	.11	.42	.12	-.02	.53
Social Crowding (4 items)							
• it was crowded	-.01	.77	.04	.10	-.15	.26	.16
• I enjoyed the crowd	.22	.22	.19	.75	.10	.05	.07
• the crowd added to the experience	.25	.38	.27	.69	.04	.06	.16
• the crowd created a pleasant experience	.30	.28	.18	.77	.04	.03	.15

Table 5.7 (continued)

	Component						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Shopping Orientation (10 items)							
• I like to see new or different things at shopping centres	.29	-.18	.57	-.03	.06	.11	.46
• I like browsing at shopping centres	.22	-.03	.77	.02	-.01	-.06	.24
• I find shopping to be a waste of time	-.09	.29	-.34	.24	.13	.59	-.16
• I go shopping for fun	.12	.07	.76	.20	.17	-.10	.03
• Shopping allows me to spend time with my family or friends	.17	.10	.62	.22	.18	-.10	-.11
• I only go to shopping centres for necessities	-.04	.14	-.31	.16	.06	.72	.06
• I only go to shopping centres that are conveniently located	.07	-.04	-.00	-.09	-.03	.77	.10
• I only go to shopping centres that have brand names I like	-.08	.06	.26	-.08	.20	.63	-.17
• I enjoy going to shopping centres	.13	-.02	.83	.06	.13	-.12	.11
• I go to shopping centres to fill in time	-.05	.15	.63	.22	.15	.10	-.11
<i>Variance explained by each factor</i>	<i>33.50</i>	<i>9.30</i>	<i>8.08</i>	<i>4.90</i>	<i>4.07</i>	<i>3.15</i>	<i>2.99</i>

Source: developed for this research

These results of the overall exploratory factor analysis suggest that two factors may be multidimensional in nature, namely, Perceived Event Quality and Shopping Orientation. In particular, the results suggest that Perceived Event Quality comprises two factors where one relates to the quality of physical setting (Factor 1 in Table 5.7) and the other relates to the quality of performers (Factor 2 in Table 5.7). The results suggest that consumers' perceptions about the quality of special event entertainment can be complex and, more specifically, they are likely to emphasise the quality of physical setting and performers relating to special event entertainment. These results reinforce the complexity of perceived quality relating to events, as discussed in section 2.5.1.

The results also suggest that Shopping Orientation comprises two factors where one factor relates to hedonic shopping orientation (Factor 3 in Table 5.7) and the other factor captures utilitarian shopping orientation (Factor 6 in Table 5.7). The existence of hedonic and utilitarian shopping orientation as two separate factors is widely reported in the shopping centre literature, as discussed in section 2.4.6.

The results from the overall exploratory factor analysis, especially those related to Perceived Event Quality, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour and Social Crowding, will provide a ‘benchmark’ to examine the results of individual exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis (will be addressed in section 5.6). The results relating to Shopping Orientation will provide an input to cluster analysis, which is conducted to discern the existence of psychographic shopper segments (will be addressed in section 5.7.2).

Having addressed the overall exploratory factor analysis, the measurement model analysis will be discussed next. The measurement model analysis involved performing confirmatory factor analysis on each of the key factors under investigation in order to determine its dimensionality and the validity of its measurement items (Cunningham, 2008).

5.6 Measurement model analysis

There are two types of measurement models to be examined, notably congeneric measurement model and full measurement model (Cunningham, 2008). In particular, a congeneric measurement model is a measurement model that represents the relationship between a latent factor and its measurement items (e.g. Perceived Event Quality and its 12 measurement items). The analysis of a congeneric measurement model is twofold, that is, to: i) determine the dimensionality of a latent factor; and ii) check the convergent and discriminant validity of the measurement items of a latent factor (Cunningham, 2008; Joreskog, 1993). Once its dimensionality, convergent validity and discriminant validity is checked, the researcher could then examine the reliability of a latent factor.

On the other hand, a full measurement is a measurement model that represents the inter-relationships (correlations) of all latent factors under investigation. The analysis of a full measurement model involves checking the discriminant validity among all latent factors under investigation (Cunningham, 2008; Joreskog, 1993). Joreskog (1993) suggests that all congeneric measurement models should be first analysed before proceeding to the analysis of a full measurement model. Drawing on this suggestion, the next section presents the results of the congeneric measurement models and then continues with the results of the full measurement model.

5.6.1 Congeneric measurement models

In this study, six factors constitute the conceptual model and, technically, there would be six congeneric measurement models to be analysed. These six congeneric measurement models would relate to: Perceived Event Quality, Enjoyment; Actual Behaviour; Intended Behaviour; Social Crowding; and Shopping Orientation. However, Shopping Orientation is hypothesised as a moderator in the conceptual model and, thus, it will be subject to cluster analysis and multigroup analysis. For this reason, a measurement model analysis, which is typically used to determine the dimensionality of a latent factor, is deemed less applicable for this factor.

Actual Behaviour comprised three measurement items (see 5.5.2). Kline (1998) comments that a measurement model is likely to be non-identified if a latent factor only comprises three measurement items. Nevertheless, Kline (1998) suggests that this non-identification problem can be overcome if a researcher analyses the measurement model of the latent factor comprising three items with the measurement model of another latent factor concurrently. The co-analysed latent factor must comprise, at least, three items. Drawing on Kline's suggestion, Actual Behaviour could be analysed with other latent factors such as Perceived Event Quality, Enjoyment, Intended Behaviour and Social Crowding. Of these different latent factors, Intended Behaviour was deemed the most appropriate choice to be analysed together with Actual Behaviour. This is because Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour are both behaviour-related factors (see sections 2.4.4 and 2.5.4). A concurrent measurement model analysis on Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour also offered an advantage for this study. That is, it enabled the researcher to check the discriminant validity between these two behaviour-related factors.

In brief, whilst there are six factors constitute the conceptual model, only four congeneric measurement models were identified because: i) a measurement model analysis was irrelevant for Shopping Orientation as it is hypothesised as a moderator in the conceptual model and it will be subject to cluster analysis and multigroup analysis; and ii) a measurement model analysis was not viable for Actual Behaviour as it only comprised three items and, thus, a single measurement model analysis will be conducted on Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour.

The results from the congeneric measurement model analysis will be checked with the results of the overall exploratory factor analysis in order to determine the consistency of factor solutions. To interpret the ‘good fit’ of a congeneric measurement model, six indices were used: i) chi-square (χ^2); ii) chi-square/degree of freedom ratio (χ^2/df); iii) goodness of fit index (GFI); iv) adjusted goodness of fit (AGFI); v) root mean square error for approximation (RMSEA); and vi) standardised root mean-square residual (SRMR). The cut-off scores for these six indices have been reported in section 4.6.2.

To check the *convergent validity* of a latent factor, two indices were used: critical ratio (CR), and standardised factor loading. To check the *discriminant validity* of a latent factor, three indices were used: standardised residual, modification index (MI), and correlation (R). To check the *reliability* of a latent factor, Cronbach’s alpha (α) was examined. The cut-off scores for these validity and reliability indices have been reported in section 4.6.3.

In the next section, the results of the congeneric measurement models for Perceived Event Quality, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour, and Social Crowding will be discussed in detail.

5.6.1.1 Perceived Event Quality

Twelve items were generated to measure Perceived Event Quality (see section 4.4.3.1). Exploratory factor analysis (using principal component extraction and varimax rotation) indicated a two-factor solution. These results reinforce the

multidimensional nature of Perceived Event Quality, as suggested by the overall exploratory factor analysis (see section 5.5.3). Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (0.87) and Bartlett’s test of sphericity (1634.14) supported the two-factor solution as their scores were large and significant ($p < 0.01$). The total variance explained by this two-factor solution was 60.38 percent, which was considered reasonable (Hair, et al., 2006). Confirmatory factor analysis (using AMOS 6.0) was then conducted to determine the ‘good fit’ of the factor solution. The results indicated that the two-factor solution was a poor fit as many goodness of fit indices failed to meet the thresholds suggested by Kline (1998). In particular, chi-square was significant, chi-square/degree of freedom ratio was greater than 3, GFI and AGFI were less than 0.90, and RMSEA and SRMR were greater than 0.10.

The poor fit of the results could be caused by two problematic items, specifically, ‘it had performers I like’ and ‘the stage decoration was good’. An examination of standardised residual covariances revealed that these two items had scores over 2.5 and thus suggested these two items to have poor discriminant validity. Table 5.8 presents the standardised residual covariances of ‘the stage decoration was good’ and ‘it had performers that I like’ with other items.

Table 5.8: Two items of Event Quality with poor discriminant validity

Problematic items	Highly correlated with:	Standardised residual covariance^a
The stage decoration was good	It had performers that I like	5.20
	The costuming of the performers was high quality	3.85
	It had well-known performers	4.92
	It had performers that I recognise	2.77
It had performers that I like	The sound system was of good quality	4.84
	It was interactive with the audience	3.15
	It was presented professionally	3.91
	It was held at a convenient location in the centre	3.44
	It was held at a convenient time	3.01
	The stage decoration was good	5.20
Notes: ^a Standardised residual covariance less than 2.5 indicates satisfactory discriminant validity, suggested by Cunningham (2008) and Hair et al. (2006). (Kline, 1998)		

Source: developed from confirmatory factor analysis using AMOS 6.0

Researchers such as Cunningham (2008), Hair et al. (2006) and Kline (1998) assert that measurement items with poor discriminant validity should be removed from a latent factor because they are likely to undermine the stability and estimation power of structural equation modelling. Adopting this guideline, ‘the stage decoration was good’ and ‘it had performers that I like’ were deleted from the measurement model of Event Quality. After the deletion of these two items, the fit of Perceived Event Quality improved considerably. In particular, chi-square/degree of freedom ratio was less than 3.0, GFI and AGFI were over 0.90 and RMSEA and SRMR were below 0.10. Whilst chi-square remained significant ($p < 0.01$), it was not a concern because it could be due to the reasonably large sample size of the quantitative study ($N = 280$). Researchers such as Kline (1998) and Hair et al. (2006) state that a large sample size ($N \geq 200$) generally produces significant chi-square statistic.

The deletion of the two items did not appear to undermine the convergent validity and reliability of Perceived Event Quality. In particular, most standardised item loadings remained significant at 0.50. Cronbach’s alpha of the two dimensions underlying Event Quality were 0.84 and 0.86 respectively and, thus, indicated ‘very good’ reliability (Kline, 1998). The first factor was labelled as ‘Quality of Performer’ as it related to the quality of performers at special event entertainment in terms of popularity and recognisability. The second factor was labelled as ‘Quality of Setting’ and emphasised the quality of the physical setting at special event entertainment such as convenient time, convenient location, professional presentation, event interactivity, event suitability and quality sound system. Table 5.9 presents the results of the initial and revised measurement model of Event Quality.

Table 5.9: Results of measurement model for Event Quality

Measurement items	Standardised item loading (critical ratio) ^a	
	Initial model	Revised model
<u>Factor 1 – Quality of Performer</u>		
• It had performers that I recognise	0.88 (17.49)	0.90 (17.41)
• It had well-known performers	0.86 (17.13)	0.87 (16.66)
• The costuming of the performers was high quality	0.68 (12.29)	0.64 (11.36)
• It had performers that I like	0.70 (12.77)	Deleted
<u>Factor 2 – Quality of Setting</u>		
• It was held at a convenient time	0.82 (16.10)	0.83 (16.25)
• It suited to the age of the audience	0.76 (14.22)	0.76 (14.40)
• It was held at a convenient location in the centre	0.74 (13.71)	0.75 (14.13)
• It was presented professionally	0.76 (14.27)	0.75 (13.97)
• It was interactive with the audience	0.65 (11.65)	0.64 (11.54)
• The sound system was of good quality	0.63 (11.18)	0.61 (10.69)
• I could move around easily	0.43 (7.06)	0.43 (7.19)
• The stage decoration was good	0.52 (8.87)	Deleted
Summary of model fit and reliability		
Goodness of fit indices	$\chi^2 = 255.10$, $p < 0.01$, $\chi^2/df = 4.81$, GFI = 0.87, AGFI = 0.81, RMSEA = 0.12, SRMR = 0.10	$\chi^2 = 87.73$, $p < 0.05$, $\chi^2/df = 2.58$, GFI = 0.94, AGFI = 0.91, RMSEA = 0.08, SRMR = 0.06
Cronbach's alpha	Factor 1 = 0.86 Factor 2 = 0.86	Factor 1 = 0.84 Factor 2 = 0.86
Notes: ^a critical ratio more than 1.96 indicates significant p-value (Hair, et al., 2006)		

Source: developed from confirmatory factor analysis using AMOS 6.0

The following section will discuss the measurement model analysis of Enjoyment.

5.6.1.2 Enjoyment

Six items were generated to measure Enjoyment (see section 4.4.3.1). Exploratory factor analysis (involving principal component rotation and varimax extraction) revealed a one-factor solution, which was consistent with results of the overall exploratory factor analysis (see section 5.5.3). Both results generally suggest that Enjoyment is a unidimensional factor. The scores of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (0.88) and Bartlett's test of sphericity (1085.99) were large and significant ($p < 0.01$). This one-factor solution captured 63.56 percent of the total variance of Enjoyment.

Initial confirmatory factor analysis revealed the one-factor solution to have good fit as most goodness of fit indices met the thresholds suggested by Kline (1998). In particular, chi-square/degree of freedom ratio was less than 3.0, GFI and AGFI were greater than 0.90, and RMSEA and SRMR were less than 0.10. Whilst the chi-square score was significant, it was not a concern because it could be caused by the large sample size of this study ($N \geq 200$) (Kline, 1998).

All six items of Enjoyment demonstrated satisfactory convergent validity as their critical ratios were above 1.96 and standardised regression weights exceeded 0.50 (Cunningham, 2008; Hair, et al., 2006). Moreover, all six items were found to have satisfactory discriminant validity as no standardised residual covariance was over 2.5 and no modification index was exceedingly high (Cunningham, 2008; Hair, et al., 2006). The reliability of Enjoyment was 'very good' as its Cronbach's alpha was 0.91 (Kline, 1998). Therefore, no item was deleted from the measurement model of Enjoyment and, thus, no revision of the measurement model was necessary. All six items of Enjoyment were retained for further analysis. Table 5.10 summarises the results of the measurement model of Enjoyment.

Table 5.10: Results of measurement model for Enjoyment

Measurement items	Standardised item loading (critical ratio) ^a
	Final model
Enjoyment	
• It was enjoyable	0.88 (18.09)
• It was appealing	0.85 (17.33)
• It entertaining	0.80 (15.79)
• It was fun	0.80 (15.66)
• It was interesting	0.72 (13.47)
• It was exciting	0.68 (12.50)
Summary of model fit and reliability	
Goodness of fit indices	$\chi^2 = 23.82$, $p < 0.05$, $\chi^2/df = 2.98$, GFI = 0.97, AGFI = 0.93, RMSEA = 0.08, SRMR = 0.02
Cronbach's alpha	0.91
Notes: ^a critical ratio more than 1.96 indicates significant p-value (Hair, et al., 2006)	

Source: developed from confirmatory factor analysis using AMOS 6.0

The following section will address the measurement model of Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour.

5.6.1.3 Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour

Three items were specified to measure Actual Behaviour and four items were used to measure Intended Behaviour (see section 4.4.3.1). Exploratory factor analysis (using principal component extraction and varimax rotation) presented a two-factor solution. These results were consistent with those of the overall exploratory factor analysis (see section 5.5.3). The total variance explained by this two-factor solution was 58.16 percent, which was considered acceptable (Hair, et al., 2006). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin-Measure of sampling adequacy (0.83) and Bartlett's test of sphericity (841.28) were high and significant ($p < 0.01$). The discriminant validity between Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour was further tested with confirmatory factor analysis and the results were consistent with the exploratory factor analysis. In the confirmatory factor analysis, most goodness of fit indices met the recommended benchmarks (Kline, 1998). In particular, chi-square/degree of freedom ratio was close to 3.0, GFI and AGFI were above 0.90, and RMSEA and SRMR were below

0.10. Chi-square statistic was significant which was consistent with other latent factors (e.g. Perceived Event Quality and Enjoyment).

The items of Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour were found to have satisfactory convergent validity with critical ratios exceeding 1.96 and standardised item loadings exceeding 0.50, as suggested by Hair et al. (2006). The items of Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour also exhibited satisfactory discriminant validity as no standardised residual covariance exceeded 2.5 and no modification index was exceptionally high (Hair, et al., 2006). Consequently, no item was deleted from the factors of Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour and, thus, no revision of the measurement model was necessary.

Besides exhibiting satisfactory convergent and discriminant validity, Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour were also found to have satisfactory reliability. In particular, Actual Behaviour had an acceptable level of reliability with Cronbach's alpha 0.74 (Hair, et al., 2006). Intended Behaviour achieved a 'very good' reliability with Cronbach's alpha was 0.86 (Hair, et al., 2006). The results for the measurement model of Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour are summarised in Table 5.11.

Table 5.11: Results of measurement model for Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour

Measurement items	Standardised item loading (critical ratio) ^a
	Final model
Factor 1 – Actual Behaviour	
• I stayed at the centre longer than I had planned to	0.58 (9.48)
• I bought some food and/or drinks that I didn't plan to	0.79 (13.30)
• I bought some non-food items that I didn't plan to	0.75 (12.72)
Factor 2 – Intended Behaviour	
• I would come back for similar entertainment in the future	0.88 (17.58)
• I would like to receive invitations to similar entertainment in the future	0.71 (13.08)
• I would say good things about the entertainment today to other people	0.84 (16.45)
• I like this type of entertainment overall	0.70 (12.82)
Summary of model fit and reliability	
Goodness of fit indices	$\chi^2 = 41.61$, $p < 0.01$, $\chi^2/df = 3.20$, GFI = 0.96, AGFI = 0.91, RMSEA = 0.09, SRMR = 0.05
Cronbach's alpha	Factor 1 = 0.74 Factor 2 = 0.86
Notes: ^a critical ratio more than 1.96 indicates significant p-value (Hair, et al., 2006)	

Source: developed from confirmatory factor analysis using AMOS 6.0

5.6.1.4 Social Crowding

Four items were used to measure Social Crowding (section 4.4.1.3). The exploratory factor analysis proposed a one-factor solution. Please note that the overall exploratory factor analysis also supported this result (see section 5.5.3). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (0.75) and Barlett's test of sphericity (605.01) were high and significant. The one-factor solution explained 67.82 variance of Social Crowding and this suggested a satisfactory factor solution (Hair, et al., 2006). This factor solution was also supported by confirmatory factor analysis with most goodness of fit indices fulfilled the recommended benchmarks (Kline, 1998). In particular, GFI and AGFI were 0.90 and RMSEA was less than 0.10.

A review of standardised residual covariances and modification indices did not indicate any discriminant validity issues and, with the exception of ‘it was crowded’, most items demonstrated acceptable convergent validity with standardised item loadings over 0.50 and critical ratio over 1.96 (Hair, et al., 2006). In comparison to other items, ‘it was crowded’ possessed a weaker convergent validity as its standardised item loading was 0.41 (critical ratio = 6.83). Nevertheless, the mean score (3.14) and Cronbach’s alpha (0.83) indicated that ‘it was crowded’ was an important and reliable item in the measurement of Social Crowding and, consequently, this item was retained for further analysis. Table 5.12 presents the results of the measurement model of Social Crowding.

Table 5.12: Results of measurement model for Social Crowding

Measurement items	Standardised item loading (critical ratio) ^a
	Final model
Social Crowding	
• It was crowded	0.41 (6.83)
• I enjoyed the crowd	0.77 (14.94)
• The crowd added to the experience	0.91 (19.06)
• The crowd created a pleasant experience	0.92 (19.17)
Summary of model fit and reliability	
Goodness of fit indices	$\chi^2 = 9.44$, $p < 0.05$, $\chi^2/df = 4.72$, GFI = 0.98, AGFI = 0.92, RMSEA = 0.12, SRMR = 0.02
Cronbach’s alpha	0.83
Notes: ^a critical ratio more than 1.96 indicates significant p-value (Hair, et al., 2006)	

Source: developed from confirmatory factor analysis using AMOS 6.0

Through the congeneric measurement model analysis, this section has examined the dimensionality, convergent validity and reliability of Perceived Event Quality, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour and Social Crowding. In the next section, the discriminant validity between these five factors will be determined through the full measurement model analysis.

5.6.2 Full measurement model

The congeneric measurement model analysis indicated that Perceived Event Quality was a two-dimensional factor, and this result was also supported by the overall

exploratory factor analysis (see section 5.5.3). The two dimensions of Perceived Event Quality were labelled as ‘Perceived Quality of Performers’ and ‘Perceived Quality of Setting’ (see section 5.6.1.1). These two quality dimensions will be treated as two separate factors in the conceptual model as they may have specific roles in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment. Hence, the full measurement model analysis will examine the discriminant validity of the following factors:

- Perceived Quality of Performers;
- Perceived Quality of Setting;
- Enjoyment;
- Actual Behaviour;
- Intended Behaviour; and
- Social Crowding.

Before conducting the full measurement model analysis, parcelling was conducted to sum up these six factors into aggregate items (Little, et al., 2002). Having multiple factors measured by multiple items in a conceptual model can reduce the ratio of parameters estimated to sample size, increase the number of measurement errors and increase estimation complication (Hair, et al., 2006). As a result, the conceptual model is very likely to have unreasonable fit solutions. To overcome these drawbacks, parcelling is widely recommended (Bentler & Chou, 1987; Mathwick, et al., 2001; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Wakefield & Baker, 1998; Wakefield & Barnes, 1996). The advantages of parcelling have been addressed in section 4.6.4 (Other statistical analyses). The descriptive statistics of these six parcelled items are presented in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13: Descriptive statistics, regression coefficient and measurement error variance and of parcelled items

Parcelled items ^a	Mean (std. deviation)	Regression coefficient [^]	Measurement error variance [^]
Perceived Quality of Performers	3.26 (0.97)	1.05	0.15
Perceived Quality of Setting	3.99 (0.55)	0.52	0.04
Enjoyment	3.97 (0.57)	0.54	0.03
Actual Behaviour	3.42 (0.79)	0.68	0.16
Intended Behaviour	3.81 (0.70)	0.65	0.07
Social Crowding	3.35 (0.77)	0.78	0.07

Notes: ^a5-point Likert scale was used, where 1 = strongly disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = strongly agree.

[^]This statistic is needed for the analysis of single-indicator latent construct, as discussed in section 4.6.4.

Source: developed for this research

During the full measurement model analysis, two activities were executed: i) checking the goodness of fit indices; and ii) examining the correlations and discriminant validity among the parcelled items (Hair, et al., 2006). In terms of the goodness of fit, the results were less than satisfactory as most indices failed to fulfil the cut-off scores suggested by Kline (1998). In particular, chi-square/degree of freedom ratio exceeded 3.0, GFI and AGFI were less than 0.90, and RMSEA was more than 0.10. Nevertheless, one goodness of fit index, SRMR, was less than 0.10 and did meet the suggested cut-off score. The exact results from the full measurement model analysis were as follows: chi-square/degree of freedom ratio = 11.29; GFI = 0.81; AGFI = 0.69; RMSEA = 0.19; and SRMR = 0.09.

Whilst the results were less than encouraging, they did not necessarily indicate that these eight factors under investigation were problematic. Researchers such as Bentler and Chou (1987) and Browne and Cudeck (1993) assert that a complex model represented by multiple latent factors and multiple items will often return poor fit indices in structural equation modelling, and this is due to the variance shared by

subsets of the multiple factors and multiple items. This is definitely the case of the conceptual model examined in this research program. In particular, the conceptual model comprises multiple factors and the number of factors expanded because Perceived Event Quality has split into two related but distinct factors. These two factors were labelled as Perceived Quality of Performers and Perceived Quality of Setting.

The next step in the full measurement model analysis is to inspect the correlations of the factors under investigation and then compare their correlation with their average variance extracted (AVE) in order to determine their discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Fornell and Larcker (1981) assert that discriminant validity exists when the correlation coefficient (R) is lower than the AVE Table 5.14 presents the correlation coefficient and AVE of Perceived Quality of Performers, Perceived Quality of Setting, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour and Social Crowding.

Table 5.14: Discriminant validity analysis

AVE Correlation	Perceived Quality of Performers	Perceived Quality of Setting	Enjoyment	Actual Behaviour	Intended Behaviour	Social Crowding
Perceived Quality of Performers		0.79	0.49	0.84	0.86	0.87
Perceived Quality of Setting	0.31		0.81 [^]	0.77	0.79	0.84
Enjoyment	0.85	0.75		0.83	0.85	0.83
Actual Behaviour	0.35	0.37	0.37		0.83	0.82
Intended Behaviour	0.53	0.53	0.69	0.53		0.84
Social Crowding	0.59	0.40	0.51	0.35	0.57	
Notes: [^] If the correlation of a paired factors is higher than the average variance extracted (AVE), it suggests a lack of discriminant validity of the paired factors (Fornell & Larcker, 1981)						

Source: developed for this research

As noted in Table 5.14, with the exception of Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment, all other factors were found to have satisfactory discriminant validity. That is, their correlation coefficients were lower than their AVEs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). On the contrary, there seemed to be a discriminant validity issues between Perceived Event Quality (Quality of Setting) and Enjoyment as their correlation coefficient (0.81) was much higher than their AVE (0.75).

In the event literature, perceived physical setting and emotion have been identified as two related, but distinct factors (see sections 2.5.1 and 2.5.2). In particular, emotion has been identified as an outcome of perceived physical setting in the experiential consumption of events (see sections 2.5.1 and 2.5.2). The findings from the event literature suggest that consumers process the setting and emotional attributes relating to events in a sequential manner, starting with environmental attributes, followed by emotional attributes. However, the distinction between perceived physical setting and emotion is less evident in this study. Instead, the results of the full measurement model analysis suggest that perceived physical setting and emotion may, indeed, be one factor. Stated differently, consumers are likely to process the environmental and emotional attributes relating to special event entertainment in a concurrent manner, as opposed to, in a sequential manner. The extent to which the low-involvement nature of special event entertainment may have triggered the concurrent evaluation of environmental and emotional attributes remains unknown. Hence, further research is needed to verify this notion.

5.6.3 Summary of the measurement model analysis

The measurement model analysis consisted of two stages—the congeneric measurement model and the full measurement model analysis. In particular, the congeneric measurement model analysis was conducted to determine the dimensionality and convergent validity of Perceived Event Quality, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour and Social Crowding. In particular, the congeneric measurement model analysis indicated that, with the exception of Perceived Event Quality, other factors were unidimensional. On the contrary, Perceived Event Quality was found to be two-dimensional and these two dimensions were labelled as ‘Perceived Quality of Performers’ and ‘Perceived Quality of

Setting'. These two quality dimensions will be treated as two distinct factors in the conceptual model as they may have specific roles in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment. The results of the congeneric measurement model analysis were consistent with the results of the overall exploratory factor analysis.

Having completed the congeneric measurement model analysis, the full measurement model analysis was then conducted. It aimed to examine the discriminant validity of the paired relationships between these factors: Perceived Quality of Performers; Perceived Quality of Setting; Enjoyment; Actual Behaviour; Intended Behaviour; and Social Crowding.

With the exception of the paired relationship between Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment, all other paired relationships were found to have satisfactory discriminant validity. Given the 'unusual' relationship between Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment, the result of the hypothesis concerning these two factors will be interpreted with caution. Moreover, the higher-order relationship between these two factors will also be examined in the later section (section 5.8.1). Having completed the full measurement model analysis, this study proceeded with the structural model analysis and multigroup analysis. The results of these two analyses are presented next.

5.7 Structural model analysis

Since Perceived Event Quality split into two factors, namely, Perceived Quality of Performers and Perceived Quality of Setting, the number of hypothesised relationships in the conceptual model was expanded to embrace these additional factors. Table 5.15 summarises the expanded hypothesised relationships in the conceptual model.

Table 5.15: Expanded hypotheses for explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment

No. of hypothesis	Description
H1a	Perceived Quality of Performers will have a significant effect on Enjoyment. That is, when consumers have positive perceptions about the quality of the performers at a special event, they are likely to experience enjoyment with the special event.
H1b	Perceived Quality of Setting will have a significant effect on Enjoyment. That is, when consumers have positive perceptions about the quality of the physical setting at a special event, they are likely to experience enjoyment with the special event.
H2	Social Crowding will have a significant effect on Enjoyment. That is, when consumers have positive perceptions about the social crowding at a special event, they are likely to experience enjoyment with the special event.
H3	Enjoyment will have a significant effect on Actual Behaviour. That is, when consumers experience enjoyment with a special event, they are likely to engage in positive actual behaviours.
H4	Enjoyment will have a significant effect on Intended Behaviour. That is, when consumers experience enjoyment with a special event, they are likely to engage in positive intended behaviours.
H5a	Shopping Orientation will moderate the relationship between Perceived Quality of Performers and Enjoyment. That is, consumers with different shopping orientations are likely to have different perceptions about the quality of the performers at a special event and, in turn, they are likely to have different levels of enjoyment with the event.
H5b	Shopping Orientation will moderate the relationship between Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment. That is, consumers with different shopping orientations are likely to have different perceptions about the quality of the physical setting at a special event and, in turn, they are likely to have different levels of enjoyment with the event.
H6	Shopping Orientation will moderate the relationship between Social Crowding and Enjoyment. That is, consumers with different shopping orientations are likely to have different perceptions about the social crowding at a special event and, in turn, they are likely to have different levels of enjoyment with the event.

Source: developed for this research

The structural model analysis was conducted to test Hypotheses 1a to 4. These hypotheses focused on the structural relationships between Perceived Quality of Performers, Perceived Quality of Setting, Social Crowding, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour. The multigroup analysis was conducted to test Hypotheses 5 and 6, which focused on the moderating effect of Shopping Orientation

on the relationships between Perceived Quality of Performers, Perceived Quality of Setting, Social Crowding and Enjoyment. The results of the multigroup analysis will be presented in section 5.8.

The structural model was found to have marginal fit as most of its goodness of fit indices were slightly below the recommended thresholds (Kline, 1998). In particular, chi-square/degree of freedom ratio was over 3.0, GFI and AGFI was slightly less than 0.90 and RMSEA was over 0.10. Nevertheless, one goodness of fit index managed to meet the suggested benchmarks, particularly, SRMR was close to 0.10. The marginal fit of the structural model could be due to the exploratory nature of this study. A review of the modification indices did not suggest the inclusion of any new structural relationships between the factors involved: Perceived Quality of Performers; Perceived Quality of Setting; Social Crowding; Enjoyment; Actual Behaviour; and Intended Behaviour.

The results of the structural model analysis provided empirical support for Hypotheses 1 to 4. To interpret the effect size of these hypotheses, Kline's guidelines were adopted (1998). In particular, Kline (1998) proposes that a standardised path coefficient, with significant value, less than 0.10 indicates a 'weak' effect; a standardised path coefficient around 0.30 indicates a 'moderate' effect; and a standardised path coefficient around 0.50 or higher suggests a 'strong' effect.

Perceived Quality of Performers is found to have a significant effect on Enjoyment and the effect is positive and moderate ($\beta = .21$, $t\text{-value} = 5.27$). Hence, Hypothesis 1a is accepted. This finding suggests that when consumers perceive the performer at a special event to be popular, recognisable and presentable, they are likely to have enjoyable experiences with the event.

The significant effect of Perceived Quality of Setting on Enjoyment is also supported, and the effect is positive and strong ($\beta = 0.70$, $t\text{-value} = 20.36$). Hence, Hypothesis 1b is also accepted. This finding suggests that when consumers perceive the physical setting at a special event to be professionally decorated, convenient, interactive and appropriate to their age, they are likely to have enjoyable experiences with the event.

Hypothesis 2 is about the significant effect of Social Crowding on Enjoyment and this hypothesis is supported. Whilst the effect is weak, it is positive in nature ($\beta = 0.10$, $t\text{-value} = 2.51$). This finding suggests that when consumers perceive the social crowding at a special event to be positive, it will, marginally, contribute to their enjoyment with the event. This finding reinforces the positive role of social crowding in shaping consumer experiences with collective events, as suggested by the event literature (see section 2.5.5).

Hypothesis 3 relates to the significant effect of Enjoyment on Actual Behaviour. This hypothesis is accepted. The effect of Enjoyment on Actual Behaviour is found to be moderate and positive ($\beta = 0.37$, $t\text{-value} = 6.63$). Stated differently, when consumers experience enjoyment with a special event, they are likely to stay longer and purchase food and/or non-food items at a shopping centre.

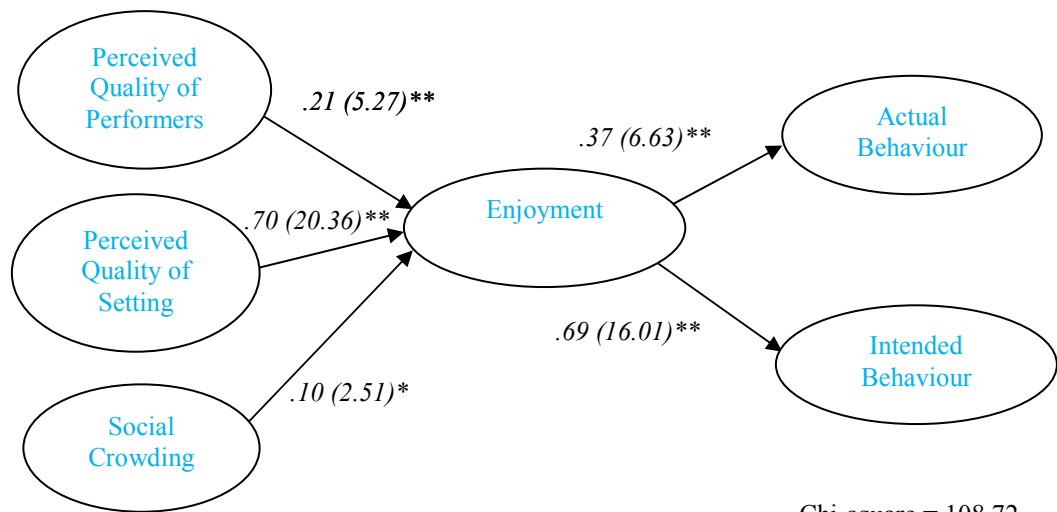
The significant effect of Enjoyment on Intended Behaviour was also supported and, thus, Hypothesis 4 is accepted. The effect of Enjoyment on Intended Behaviour was found to be positive and strong ($\beta = 0.69$, $t\text{-value} = 16.01$). This result suggests that when consumers have enjoyable experiences with a special event, they are very inclined to revisit the shopping centre for other special events, they are very willing to recommend the experience to other people, and they are very willing to accept invitation for upcoming special events.

Whilst Enjoyment was found to have a positive effect on both Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour, this effect was ‘disproportionate’. That is, Enjoyment had almost twice the positive effect on Intended Behaviour ($\beta = 0.69$, $t\text{-value} = 16.01$) than on Actual Behaviour ($\beta = 0.37$, $t\text{-value} = 6.63$). This finding seems to indicate that consumers’ enjoyment with a special event is more effective in enticing their future behaviours than their actual behaviours, and this finding will provide an interesting avenue for future research. In the shopping centre and event literature, no study on experiential consumption has examined the ‘disproportionate’ effect of consumer emotion on their actual and intended behaviours. This is because previous studies on experiential consumption in the literature have mainly examined *either* actual behaviours *or* intended behaviours, and not both (see sections 2.4.4 and 2.4.5).

Variance accounted by the model. Both Perceived Quality of Performers and Setting accounted for 72 percent variance of Enjoyment, and this variance is considered as high (Hair, et al., 2006). Stated differently, the measurement of shoppers' perceptions about the performers and setting at a special event will provide a strong explanation (72 percent) of their enjoyment with the event. Nevertheless, there is still around 30 percent variance of Enjoyment that is not accounted for by Perceived Quality of Performers and Setting. This finding suggests that other factors, besides performers and setting, are equally important in explaining shoppers' enjoyment with a special event and thus there is a need for more research to explore this issue.

Enjoyment accounted for 14 and 48 percent variance of Actual and Intended Behaviour respectively. The variance percentage for Actual Behaviour is considered as low or poor because a large portion (approximately 86 percent) of this behavioural factor is not explained by Enjoyment (Hair, et al., 2006). Stated differently, the sole measurement of shoppers' enjoyment with a special event will not provide a comprehensive understanding of their subsequent shopping behaviours (e.g. extended duration of stay or purchase decision). This finding, therefore, suggests that future research should include other factors in addition to enjoyment if they seek to develop comprehensive knowledge of shoppers' actual behaviours with a special event. In comparison to Actual Behaviour, the variance percentage (48 percent) for Intended Behaviour is deemed to be more encouraging. Nevertheless, there is still around 50 percent variance of this behavioural factor that is not accounted for by Enjoyment. This finding suggests the inclusion of more factors in future research when examining shoppers' behavioural intention relating to a special event. Figure 5.3 presents the graphic results of Hypotheses 1 to 4, and Table 5.16 provides a summary of the results of Hypotheses 1 to 4. The variance explained by Perceived Quality of Performers, Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment is also reported in Table 5.16.

Figure 5.3: Graphic results of Hypotheses 1 to 4



Chi-square = 108.72
 Chi-square/degree of freedom ratio = 7.0
 GFI = .88
 AGFI = .65
 RMSEA = .23
 SRMR = .10

Notes: score *without* parenthesis = standardised path coefficient; score *with* parenthesis = t-value
 *significant at p< 0.05; **significant at p< 0.01

Table 5.16: Summary of the results of Hypotheses 1 to 4

Hypotheses	Structural relationship	Standardised path coefficient (t-value)	Outcome
H1a	Perceived Quality of Performers will have a significant effect on Enjoyment.	.21 (5.27)**	Accepted
H1b	Perceived Quality of Setting will have a significant effect on Enjoyment.	.70 (20.36)**	Accepted
H2	Social Crowding will have a significant effect on Enjoyment.	.10 (2.51)*	Accepted
H3	Enjoyment will have a significant effect on Actual Behaviour.	.37 (6.63)**	Accepted
H4	Enjoyment will have a significant effect on Intended Behaviour.	.69 (16.01)**	Accepted
Summary of model fit		$\chi^2 = 108.72$ $\chi^2/df = 7.0$ GFI = .88 AGFI = .65 RMSEA = .23 SRMR = .10	
Variance explained (R²):		Enjoyment = .72 Actual Behaviour = .14 Intended Behaviour = .48	

Notes: *Significant at p< 0.05; **Significant at p< 0.01

Source: developed for this research

After examining Hypotheses 1 to 4, Hypotheses 5 and 6 were tested and it involved multigroup analysis. The results of the multigroup analysis are presented in the next section.

5.8 Multigroup analysis

Multigroup analysis refers to the estimation of model parameters across sample groups (see section 4.6.4). Multigroup analysis was chosen to test Hypotheses 5 and 6 as they involved the comparison of paired relationships between shopper groups. In particular, as stated in Table 5.16, Hypotheses 5a is about the moderating effect of Shopping Orientation on the relationship between Perceived Quality of Performers and Enjoyment, Hypothesis 5b is about the moderating effect of Shopping Orientation on the relationship between Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment, and Hypothesis 6 is about the moderating effect of Shopping Orientation on the relationship between Shopping Orientation and Enjoyment.

Before conducting the multigroup analysis, the existence of different shopper groups must be discerned and this was achieved through k-means clustering in this study. In particular, the ten measurement items of Shopping Orientation were used as a basis for k-means clustering (see section 4.4.3.1). In order to determine the optimal number of shopper clusters to be formed, two-cluster, three-cluster and four-cluster solutions were performed and examined. The researcher commenced with a two-cluster solution as the overall exploratory factor analysis indicated that Shopping Orientation could comprise two dimensions (see section 5.6.1.5). After reviewing the two-cluster, three-cluster and four-cluster solutions, the two-cluster solution was chosen because it produced the most meaningful and distinctive segments of shoppers, whereas the three-cluster and four-cluster solution did not produce any additional meaningful shopper segments.

Cluster 1 was labelled as ‘Hedonic Shopper’ as it placed greater emphasis on hedonic or recreational experiences relating to shopping centre patronage. In particular, this cluster indicated they enjoyed browsing, having fun, socialising with family or friends and killing time at shopping centres. This cluster disagreed with the notion

that ‘shopping is a waste of time’. This cluster comprised almost 80% (n = 220) of the total sample size (N = 280) of this study. On the contrary, Cluster 2 was labelled as ‘Utilitarian Shopper’ because it placed higher importance on ‘efficient’ experiences relating to shopping centre patronage such as convenience. Nevertheless, this cluster was also found to have some interest in novel experiences conveyed shopping centres as they indicated that they would ‘like to see new or different things at shopping centres’. This cluster comprised 20% (n = 60) of the total sample size of this study. This result indicates that the majority of the respondents participated in this study were hedonic shoppers and, thus, the findings of this study may gravitate towards this shopper segment. Future research should attempt to recruit more consumers with utilitarian shopping orientation in order to provide a ‘balanced’ consumer’s perspective on the experiential consumption of special event entertainment. The shopping orientation characteristics and the size of these two clusters are summarised in Table 5.17.

Table 5.17: Shopper clusters based on Shopping Orientation

Measurement items of Shopping Orientation	Mean scores ^a	
	Cluster 1 (n = 220)	Cluster 2 (n = 60)
I like to see new or different things at shopping centres	4.00	4.00
I like browsing at shopping centres	3.00	4.00
I find shopping to be a waste of time	3.00	2.00
I go shopping for fun	3.00	4.00
Shopping allows me to spend time with my family or friends	3.00	4.00
I only go to shopping centres for necessities	4.00	3.00
I only go to shopping centres that are conveniently located	4.00	3.00
I only go to shopping centres that have brand names I like	3.00	3.00
I enjoy going to shopping centres	3.00	4.00
I go to shopping centres to fill in time	2.00	4.00

Notes:^a Items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree

Source: developed for this research

Since the sample sizes of Hedonic Shopper and Utilitarian Shopper were extremely uneven, the equality between these two shopper groups was not met and, thus, this might interfere the estimation results of the multigroup analysis (Kline, 1998). To achieve the equality between Hedonic Shopper and Utilitarian Shopper, 60 respondents were randomly selected from the original cluster size (n = 220) of Hedonic Shopper. These 60 respondents were selected through the ‘select cases –

random sample' function in SPSS. Following this, the demographic characteristics of Hedonic Shopper and Utilitarian Shopper were examined through chi-square tests. In particular, the tests indicated that the demographic profiles of Hedonic Shopper and Utilitarian Shopper were, indeed, homogenous, and no significant differences were found in relation to gender, age categories and household status. The chi-square results provide an indication on the equality between Hedonic Shopper and Utilitarian Shopper. The results from the chi-square tests are summarised in Table 5.18.

Table 5.18: A comparison of the demographic profiles of hedonic and utilitarian shoppers

Demographic characteristics	Shopping Orientation clusters		Chi-square test of difference
	Hedonic Shopper (n = 60) ^a	Utilitarian Shopper (n = 60)	
<u>Gender</u>			$\chi^2 = 2.31$, p = 0.13
Female	38 (69.1%)	48 (81.4%)	
Male	17 (30.9%)	11 (18.6%)	
<u>Age categories</u>			$\chi^2 = 8.74$, p = 0.27
18 – 21	4 (6.7%)	8 (13.3%)	
22 – 25	2 (3.3%)	7 (11.7%)	
26 – 30	11 (18.3%)	6 (10.0%)	
31 – 40	17 (28.3%)	18 (30.0%)	
41 – 50	17 (28.3%)	15 (25.0%)	
51 – 60	6 (10.0%)	2 (3.3%)	
61 – 70	3 (5.0%)	3 (5.0%)	
71 – 80	0 (0.0%)	1 (1.7%)	
<u>Household status</u>			$\chi^2 = 2.40$, p = 0.79
Couple/single with children mainly under 6 years	13 (22.0%)	16 (27.1%)	
Couple/single with children mainly 6 – 12 years	21 (35.6%)	16 (27.1%)	
Couple/single with mainly older/teenager/adult children	8 (13.6%)	8 (13.6%)	
Couple/single with all children living away from home	4 (6.8%)	2 (3.4%)	
Couple without children	8 (13.6%)	9 (15.3%)	
Single without children	5 (8.5%)	8 (13.6%)	
Notes: ^a This sample size was randomly drawn from the original cluster size (n = 220)			

Source: developed for this research

Having established the demographic profiles of Hedonic Shopper and Utilitarian Shopper, the multigroup analysis (using AMOS) was then conducted to test Hypothesis 5a, 5b and 6. In particular, the researcher systematically imposed and released constraints on the paired factors under investigation in order to check their

path coefficients between Hedonic Shopper and Utilitarian Shopper. For instance, when testing Hypothesis 5a, the researcher imposed an equality constraint on the relationship between Perceived Quality of Performers and Enjoyment and, then, compared the path coefficient of this relationship across Hedonic Shopper and Utilitarian Shopper. Kline (1998) suggests that, if chi-square difference is significant ($p < 0.05$), one can conclude that the hypothesised relationship differs across groups. When testing Hypothesis 5b, the researcher released the equality constraint on the relationship between Perceived Quality of Performers and Enjoyment (Hypothesis 5a), and set the equality constraint on the relationship between Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment. The path coefficient between these two factors was, once again, checked across Hedonic Shopper and Utilitarian Shopper. This systematic process of imposing and releasing the equality constraint also applied to the testing of Hypothesis 6, the relationship between Social Crowding and Enjoyment.

The results of the multigroup analysis provided empirical support for the moderating effect of Shopping Orientation on the relationships between: Perceived Quality of Performers and Enjoyment (H5a); Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment (H5b); and Social Crowding and Enjoyment (H6). In particular, the results suggest that, when the quality of the performers and the physical setting at a special event entertainment is perceived to be high, utilitarian shoppers are likely find the event to be more enjoyable than hedonic shoppers do. These results are unexpected, but logical. Utilitarian shoppers can be known as ‘rational decision makers’ who tend to place great emphasis on the functional and tangible attributes of an experience (Batra & Ahtola, 1990; Crowley, Spangenberg, & Hughes, 1992; Voss, et al., 2003). Consequently, the functional attributes surrounding the performers (e.g. the popularity and recognisability of a performer) and the physical setting (e.g. the professional setting, convenient venue and event interactivity) at a special event will appeal to utilitarian shoppers and, in turn, enhance their experiences with the event.

On the contrary, hedonic shoppers can be known as ‘pleasure seekers’ who tend to emphasise the emotional and/or social attributes of an experience (Batra & Ahtola, 1990; Crowley, et al., 1992; Voss, et al., 2003). Consequently, Social Crowding was found to have a much stronger, positive effect on Enjoyment for hedonic shoppers than for utilitarian shoppers. In fact, the positive effect of Social Crowding on

Enjoyment was not significant for utilitarian shoppers. Stated differently, when hedonic shoppers perceive the social crowding at a special event to be positive, it will enhance their enjoyment with the event. On the contrary, when utilitarian shoppers perceive the social crowding at a special event to be positive, it will have no effect or whatsoever on their enjoyment with the event. The results from the multigroup analysis are summarised in Table 5.19.

Table 5.19: Results from multigroup analysis for H5 and H6

Hypothesis	Structural relationship	Standardised path coefficient (t-value)		χ^2 difference	Outcome
		Hedonic Shopper (n = 60) ^a	Utilitarian Shopper (n = 60)		
H5a	Shopping Orientation will moderate the relationship between Perceived Quality of Performers and Enjoyment.	.16 (2.09)*	.24 (2.73)*	27.98*	Accepted
H5b	Shopping Orientation will moderate the relationship between Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment.	.58 (7.67)**	.63 (8.13)**	27.98*	Accepted
H6	Shopping Orientation will moderate the relationship between Social Crowding and Enjoyment.	.32 (3.71)**	.15 (1.75)	27.98*	Accepted
Summary of model fit		$\chi^2 = 38.70$ $\chi^2/df = 2.68$ <p> = .000 GFI = .84 AGFI = .76 RMSEA = .12 SRMR = .14</p>			
Notes: *Significant at $p < 0.05$; **Significant at $p < 0.01$ ^a This small sample size were randomly drawn from the original sample size, n = 220, in order to maintain the equality between the Hedonic and Utilitarian Shopper clusters.					

Source: developed for this research

Having examined Hypotheses 5 and 6, the following section will examine the higher-order relationship between Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment.

5.9 Post-hoc test

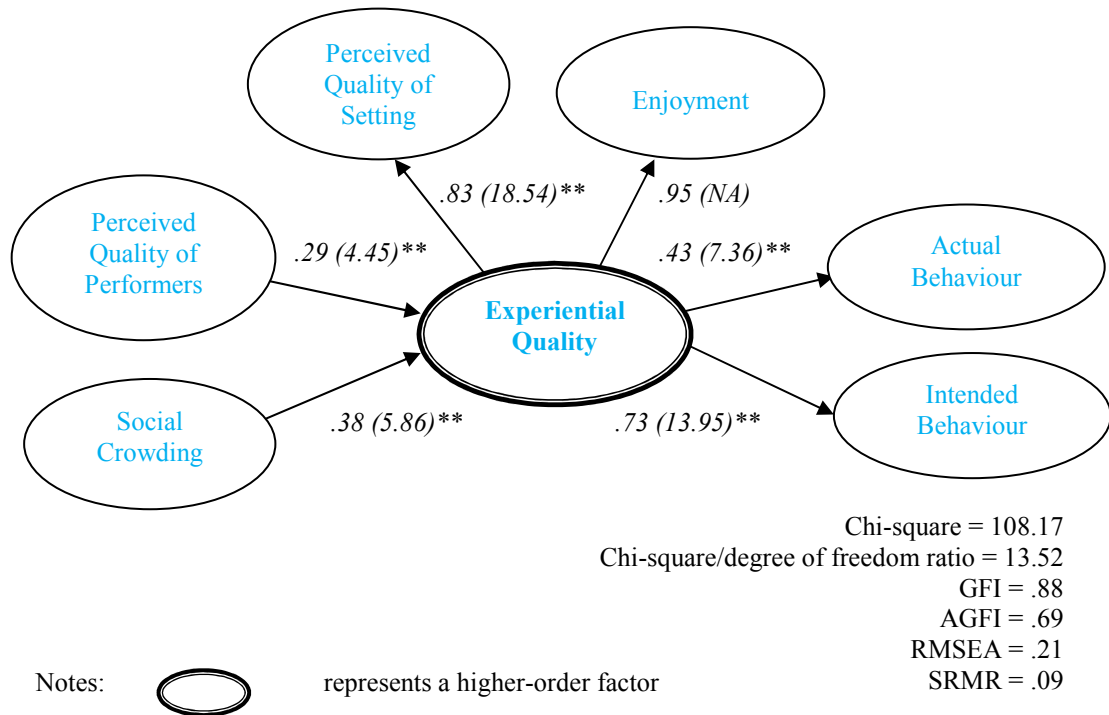
A post-hoc test is generally conducted to explain a pattern or relationship that is not specified *a priori* in a conceptual model (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). In this study, a post-hoc test was conducted to explore: i) the higher-order relationship between

Event Quality (Setting) and Enjoyment; and ii) the significant effect of Social Crowding on Enjoyment.

5.9.1 The higher-order relationship between Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment

As noted in section 5.6.2, Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment were found to have an ‘unusual’ strong correlation, which suggests the lack of discriminant validity between these two factors. The researcher was keen to explore whether the introduction of a higher-order factor reflecting the ‘unusual’ correlation between these two factors would improve the goodness of fit of the expanded model. Accordingly, the expanded model was re-specified and a higher-order factor was introduced. The higher-order factor was labelled as Experiential Quality as some studies (Babin, Lee, Kim, & Griffin, 2005; Berry, Carbone, & Haeckel, 2002; Berry, Wall, & Carbone, 2006; Chen, Lehto, & Choi, 2009; Darden & Babin, 1994) have suggested that the quality assessment of an experience can comprise both functional and affective cues. Figure 5.4 presents the estimation results of the higher-order model which was introduced reflect the high correlation between Perceived Event Quality and Enjoyment.

Figure 5.4: Estimation results of the higher-order model reflecting the relationship between Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment



*Significant at $p < 0.05$, **Significant at $p < 0.01$

NA = t-value is not available as the parameter was set to 1.

Source: developed for this research

As depicted in Figure 5.4, the higher-order model remained as ‘marginal fit’ in explaining consumer experiences special event entertainment. Many fit indices from the higher-order model were still below the recommended thresholds (Kline, 1998). In particular, chi-square/degree of freedom ratio exceeded 3.0, GFI and AGFI was less than 0.90, and RMSEA was over .10. Whilst SRMR was less than 0.10, the improvement on this fit index was marginal. GFI of the original, expanded model and the higher-order model were relatively identical. To further check if the higher-order model had a better fit at the original expanded model, Incremental Fit Index (IFI) was used (Hair, et al., 2006). In particular, IFI showed no significant improvement in the higher-order model. These results suggest that, in comparison to the original expanded model, the higher-order factor did not provide a better fit in

explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment. Table 5.20 presents a comparison of the goodness of fit indices for the original expanded and higher-order models.

Table 5.20: A comparison of the estimation results from the expanded model (Figure 5.3) and the higher-order model (Figure 5.4)

Expanded model (Figure 5.3)	Higher-order model (Figure 5.4)
Chi-square = 108.72 Chi-square/degree of freedom ratio = 7.0 GFI = .88 AGFI = .65 RMSEA = .23 SRMR = .10 IFI = .88	Chi-square = 108.17 Chi-square/degree of freedom ratio = 13.52 GFI = .88 AGFI = .69 RMSEA = .21 SRMR = .09 IFI = .88

Source: developed for this research

5.9.2 Significant effect of Social Crowding on Enjoyment

As noted in previous section, there was a ‘usually’ strong relationship between Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment. The researcher has reason to believe that this strong relationship between Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment might have masked the significant effect of Social Crowding on Enjoyment. As indicated in the structural model analysis (section 5.7), whilst the effect of Social Crowding on Enjoyment was significant, it was very weak ($\beta = 0.10$, t -value = 2.51).

The researcher was keen to explore if the significant effect of Social Crowding on Enjoyment might improve without the presence of Perceived Quality of Setting. Hence, a three-step regression, involving Perceived Quality of Setting, Social Crowding and Enjoyment, was conducted. The first step involved the regression analysis between Social Crowding and Enjoyment and the results showed that the relationship was significant and strong ($\beta = 0.51$, t -value = 9.80). The second step involved the regression analysis between Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment and the results indicated that the relationship was significant and very strong ($\beta = 0.81$, t -value = 22.97). The third and final step involved the regression analysis between Social Crowding, Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment. The results showed that, with the presence of Perceived Quality of Setting, the significant

effect of Social Crowding on Enjoyment dropped dramatically, almost by 60 percent ($\beta = 0.22$, t -value = 6.00). The significant effect of Perceived Quality of Setting on Enjoyment remained very strong and, with the presence of Social Crowding, it only shrunk around 10 percent ($\beta = 0.72$, t -value = 19.93). In brief, the post-hoc test indicated that the ‘usually’ strong relationship between Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment did undermine the significant effect of Social Crowding on Enjoyment.

5.10 Chapter summary

This chapter reported the results of the quantitative research conducted in this study. The quantitative study involved a mall intercept survey with shopping centre patrons who have experienced special event entertainment ($N = 280$). This chapter began with the recapitulation of the conceptual model, its theoretical framework, its underlying factors and the hypothesised relationships among the key factors. Next, this chapter reported the demographic, participation and shopping profiles of the respondents. It followed with the results of the preliminary analysis that aimed to detect missing data, outliers and normality in the data set. The preliminary data analysis also involved a full exploratory factor analysis of the 39 measurement items used in the survey. The data set was found to be marginally non-normal in terms of its distribution and, hence, the maximum likelihood estimation method was used in structural equation modelling. The maximum likelihood estimation method has been suggested to be robust to marginal or moderate non-normality (Hair, et al., 2006; Kline, 1998).

Having cleaned and edited the data set, the next stage of the data analysis was to analyse the measurement and structural components of the conceptual model. In this study, two types of measurement model analysis were conducted, namely, congeneric measurement model analysis and full measurement model analysis. In particular, the congeneric measurement model analysis enabled the researcher to check the validity and reliability of *individual* latent factors (i.e. Perceived Event Quality, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour, Social Crowding). The full measurement model analysis enabled the researcher to check the correlations and

discriminant validity of *all* latent factors under investigation (Cunningham, 2008; Joreskog, 1993). After analysing both the congeneric and full measurement models, the structural model was analysed.

After the measurement model analysis, the structural model analysis was conducted to test Hypotheses 1 to 4, and the multigroup analysis was conducted to test Hypotheses 5 and 6. All hypotheses were supported and the results are summarised in Table 5.21.

Table 5.21: Results of the hypotheses for explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment

Hypothesised relationships	Outcome
H1: Perceived Event Quality will have a significant effect on Enjoyment. That is, when consumers have positive perceptions about the quality of a special event, they will experience enjoyment with the event.	Fully accepted
H1a: Perceived Quality of Performers will have a significant effect on Enjoyment.	Accepted
H1b: Perceived Quality of Setting will have a significant effect on Enjoyment.	Accepted
H2: Social Crowding will have a significant effect on Enjoyment. That is, when consumers have positive perceptions about the social crowding at a special event, they will experience enjoyment with the event.	Fully accepted
H3: Enjoyment will have a significant effect on Actual Behaviour. That is, when consumers experience enjoyment with a special event, they are likely to engage in positive actual behaviours.	Fully accepted

Table 5.21 (continued)

Hypothesised relationships	Outcome
H4: Enjoyment will have a significant effect on Intended Behaviour. That is, when consumers experience enjoyment with a special event, they are likely to engage in positive intended behaviours.	Fully accepted
<p>H5: Shopping Orientation will moderate the relationship between Perceived Event Quality and Enjoyment. That is, consumers with different shopping orientations are likely to have different perceptions about the quality of a special event and, in turn, they are likely to have different levels of enjoyment with the event.</p> <p>H5a: Shopping Orientation will moderate the relationship between Perceived Quality of Performers and Enjoyment.</p> <p>H5b: Shopping Orientation will moderate the relationship between Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment.</p>	<p>Fully accepted</p> <p>Accepted</p> <p>Accepted</p>
H6: Shopping Orientation will moderate the relationship between Social Crowding and Enjoyment. That is, consumers with different shopping orientations are likely to have different perceptions about the social crowding at a special event and, in turn, they are likely to have different levels of enjoyment with the event.	Fully accepted

Source: developed for this research

The theoretical and managerial implications of these hypotheses are discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter Six

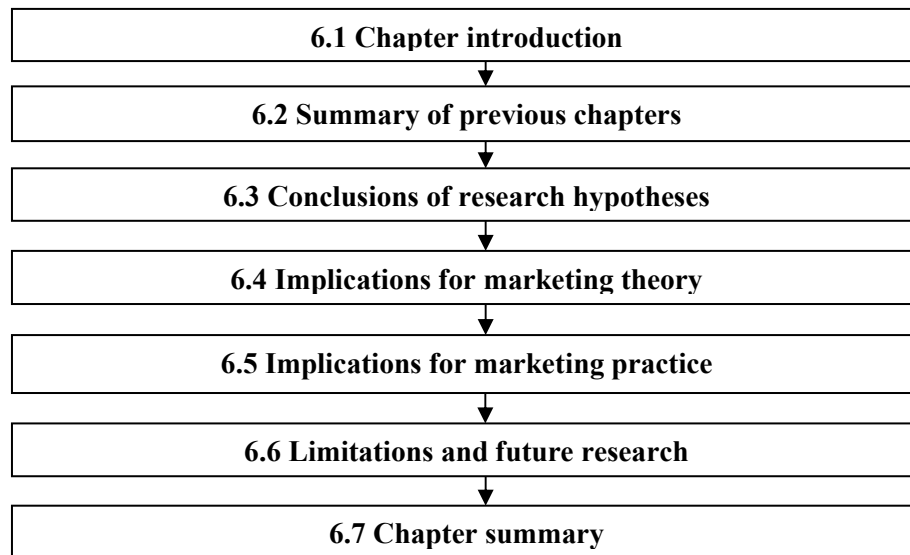
Discussion, Implications, Limitations and Future Research

6.1 Chapter introduction

The previous chapter reported the results of the quantitative research, which involved a mall intercept survey with shopping centre patrons during a special event entertainment. This chapter presents discussions relating to the research hypotheses, the implications from the quantitative results, the limitations and directions for future research.

Firstly, a summary of the previous chapters will be provided (section 6.2). Next, conclusions relating to the tested hypotheses (section 6.3) will be presented. Drawing on these conclusions, the theoretical and practical implications of the research (section 6.4 and 6.5) will be addressed, followed by the research limitations and directions for future research (section 6.6). Finally, this chapter will conclude with a summary (section 6.7). The structure of this chapter is illustrated in Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1: Structure of Chapter Six



Source: developed for this research

6.2 Summary of previous chapters

The primary purpose of this research program is to explain consumers' experiences with special event entertainment convened shopping centres. Special event entertainment refers to a wide range of special events that are planned, staged and promoted by shopping centres on a seasonal, temporary and/or intermittent basis. Popular examples of special event entertainment include school holiday events, fashion events, celebrity appearances and market days (Gentry, 2004; Haeberle, 2001). Moreover, special event entertainment is typically offered free of charge to consumers (Haeberle, 2001). Since consumers do not encounter special event entertainment on a regular basis and these encounters do not normally incur any monetary costs, consumers are thus expected to spend minimal effort and time in planning their participation in special event entertainment (Ward & Hill, 1991). Stated differently, shoppers' experiences with special event entertainment is considered as low-involvement in nature (Ward & Hill, 1991). The findings of this study should, therefore, be interpreted within this delimitation

This study aims to address two specific objectives:

RO1: to determine the key factors that explain consumer experiences with special event entertainment; and

RO2: to determine the relationships between the key factors that explain consumer experiences with special event entertainment.

Chapter 1 explained the context and focus of this study, namely, shopping centres and special event entertainment (sections 1.2 and 1.3). The linkage between shopping centres and special event entertainment was briefly explained. Next, the chapter presented the research question and objectives of this study (section 1.4), followed by a brief rationale on the research question (section 1.5). Following this, an overview of the research design was presented (section 1.6), followed by the definitions of key concepts (section 1.7) and the delimitations of scope of this study were also clarified (section 1.8). The structure of this thesis was then presented (section 1.9). Finally, the chapter concluded with a summary of the research question and objective (section 1.10).

Chapter 2 began with an overview of marketing research on consumer experiences (section 2.2). Next, the definitions and theoretical frameworks for explaining consumer experiences were presented (section 2.3). Two domains of experiential consumption literature were then reviewed to identify factors that are commonly used to explain consumer experiences. These two literature domains related to consumer experiences with shopping and events (sections 2.4 and 2.5). Drawing on the literature review, six factors were identified to be potentially relevant in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment. These six factors were: Cognition; Enjoyment; Actual Behaviour; Intended Behaviour; Social Crowding; and Shopping Orientation (section 2.6). To address the relationships between these six factors, a conceptual model was proposed, together with six hypotheses (section 2.6). This chapter concluded with a summary of the literature review's findings (section 2.7).

Chapter 3 began with an overview of this study's research design and underlying scientific paradigm (section 3.3). Next, it provided the rationale and objectives of conducting the qualitative research (section 3.3). It proceeded with the explanation of the methodology and results of the in-depth interviews with shopping centre managers (i.e. the practitioners of special event entertainment) (sections 3.4 and 3.5). Subsequently, it explained the process and results of the focus group discussions with shopping centre patrons (i.e. the end-users of special event entertainment) (sections 3.6 and 3.7). Drawing on the results of the qualitative research, the conceptual model was revised in terms of the terminology used, but the number of hypothesised relationships in the conceptual model remained unaffected (section 3.8).

In Chapter 4, the methodology of the quantitative research was addressed. It represented the third and final stage of the research design. Similar to Chapter 3, this chapter began with the rationale and objectives of the quantitative research (section 4.2). Next, the sampling strategy of the quantitative study was explained and justified (section 4.3), followed by the questionnaire design and administration (section 4.4). Subsequently, the data analysis strategy was described and justified (section 4.5). Before concluding with a summary (section 4.8), the chapter addressed some ethical considerations relating to the quantitative research (section 4.7).

In Chapter 5, the results of the quantitative research were reported. This chapter commenced a recapitulation of the conceptual model and its six hypotheses (section 5.2). This followed with a discussion on the response rate and the profiles of the respondents, as well as the results of the preliminary analyses (data cleaning, data editing and descriptive statistics) (sections 5.3, 5.4 and 5.5). The results of structural equation modelling (the main data analysis) were then presented in two phases. The first phase focused on the results of measurement model analysis (section 5.6), which was conducted to test the convergent and discriminant validity of the *individual* latent factors under investigation.

In particular, six individual latent factors were tested: Perceived Event Quality, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour, Social Crowding and Shopping Orientation. The second and final phase focused on the results of structural model analysis (section 5.7), which aimed to test the nomological validity (i.e. theoretical relationships) of these five factors. In other words, the structural model analysis was conducted to test the good fit of the conceptual model and the hypothesised relationships listed in the conceptual model. Then, a post-hoc test was conducted to test a possible higher-order relationship between two factors, namely, Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment (section 5.8). The chapter concluded with a summary of the results from the quantitative research (section 5.9).

Chapter 6 provided a summary of previous chapters presented in this thesis (section 6.2). It will then provide conclusions for all hypothesised relationships tested in the quantitative research (section 6.3). These conclusions relating to the hypothesised relationships will involve comparing the findings from the quantitative research with those from the literature review and the qualitative research. This follows with a discussion on the theoretical and practical implications (sections 6.4 and 6.5); and then limitations of this study (section 6.6) and suggested directions for future research (section 6.7). This final chapter concludes with a summary of all chapters of this thesis (section 6.8). The conclusions of the research hypotheses are addressed next.

6.3 Conclusions of research hypotheses

As noted in Chapters 2 and 3, six key factors were proposed to explain consumer experiences with special event entertainment. These six factors were: Perceived Event Quality; Enjoyment; Actual Behaviour; Intended Behaviour; Social Crowding and Shopping Orientation. As presented in Chapter 5, the working definitions of these six factors are as follows:

- *Perceived Event Quality – consumers’ perceptions about the quality of special event entertainment*
- *Enjoyment – the pleasurable feelings with special event entertainment;*
- *Actual Behaviour – the positive behaviours that consumers have actually engaged in during or after special event entertainment;*
- *Intended Behaviour – the positive behaviours that consumers will undertake in the future.*
- *Social Crowding – consumers’ perceptions about the social crowding at special event entertainment, particularly, in terms of its social density and interaction.*
- *Shopping Orientation – consumers’ general disposition towards shopping centre patronage, either being hedonic or utilitarian oriented.*

The hypothesised relationships between these six key factors are summarised in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Descriptions and results of hypotheses tested in the quantitative study

	Hypotheses for explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment	Outcome
H1	Perceived Event Quality will have a significant effect on Enjoyment. That is, when consumers have positive perceptions about the quality of a special event, they are likely to experience enjoyment with the event. H1a: Perceived Quality of Performers will have a significant effect on Enjoyment. H1b: Perceived Quality of Setting will have a significant effect on Enjoyment.	Fully accepted Accepted Accepted
H2	Social Crowding will have a significant effect on Enjoyment. That is, when consumers have positive perceptions about the social crowding at special event entertainment, they are likely to experience enjoyment with special event entertainment.	Fully accepted
H3	Enjoyment will have a significant effect on Actual Behaviour. That is, when consumers experience enjoyment with special event entertainment, they are likely to engage in positive actual behaviours.	Fully accepted
H4	Enjoyment will have a significant effect on Intended Behaviour. That is, when consumers experience enjoyment with special event entertainment, they are likely to undertake positive behaviours in the future.	Fully accepted
H5	Shopping Orientation will moderate the relationship between Perceived Event Quality and Enjoyment. That is, consumers with different shopping orientations are likely to have different perceptions about the quality of a special event and, in turn, they are likely to experience different levels of enjoyment. H5a: Shopping Orientation will moderate the relationship between Perceived Quality of Performers and Enjoyment. H5b: Shopping Orientation will moderate the relationship between Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment.	Fully accepted Accepted Accepted
H6	Shopping Orientation will moderate the relationship between Social Crowding and Enjoyment. That is, consumers with different shopping orientations are likely to have different perceptions about the social crowding at a special event and, in turn, they are likely to have different levels of enjoyment with the event.	Fully accepted

Source: developed for this research

6.3.1 Effect of Perceived Event Quality on Enjoyment (H1)

Hypothesis 1 focused on the relationship between Perceived Event Quality and Enjoyment. This hypothesis consisted of two sub-hypotheses as Perceived Event Quality comprised two sub-factors, namely, Perceived Quality of Performers and Perceived Quality of Setting. In general, Perceived Event Quality was found to have a significant effect on Enjoyment, and the effect was positive. The measurement model analysis indicated that Perceived Event Quality is a two-dimensional factor

and these two dimensions were labelled ‘Perceived Quality of Performers’ and ‘Perceived Quality of Setting’. These two dimensions were treated as two separate factors in the conceptual model as they were likely to have different roles in explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment. Indeed, the structural model analysis revealed that both Perceived Quality of Performer and Perceived Quality of Setting were positively significant in influencing consumers’ emotional responses to special event entertainment. This means that these results indicated that when consumers have positive perceptions about the quality of the performer(s) involved with a Special Event Entertainment experience that they are more likely to enjoy that particular event. Further, when the physical setting at a special event is perceived as pleasant then shoppers are more likely to experience enjoyment with the event.

Perceived Quality of Performers and Perceived Quality of Setting were found to have different strengths in explaining consumers’ emotional responses to special event entertainment. In particular, Perceived Quality of Setting ($\beta = 0.70$, $t\text{-value} = 20.36$) was found to have triple the positive effect on Enjoyment than Perceived Quality of Performers ($\beta = 0.21$, $t\text{-value} = 5.27$).

The ‘unusual’ connection between Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment can be explained by the servicescapes theory, which asserts that consumers are inseparable from the physical setting of a service (Bitner, 1990, 1992). That is, similar to service consumption, the experiential consumption of special event entertainment requires people to be physically present at the venue where a particular special event entertainment is being produced or staged (Bitner, 1992; Darden & Babin, 1994). Hence, when asked to evaluate their emotional responses to a special event, people inevitably associate their emotive evaluation with the physical elements of venue of the event (Bitner, 1992; Darden & Babin, 1994).

Darden and Babin’s study (Darden & Babin, 1994) indicates that perceived quality and emotion may, indeed, belong to one factor. In particular, Darden and Babin (1994) also suggest that retail quality, generally, consist of two dimensions, namely, functional quality and affective quality. In particular, functional quality focuses on the functional, objective attributes of retail experience such as discount price, store

personnel, general quality and crowding. Affective quality emphasises the emotional, subjective attributes of retail experience such as pleasantness, unpleasantness, activeness and sleepiness. – not sure of the relevance of this to your findings? Make more explicit??

6.3.2 Effect of social crowding on Enjoyment (H2)

Hypothesis 2 related to the relationship between Social Crowding and Enjoyment. In particular, Social Crowding was found to have a significant effect on Enjoyment and the effect was positive ($\beta = 0.10$, $t\text{-value} = 2.51$). According to Kline's (1998) guideline on effect size, the positive effect of Social Crowding on Enjoyment is classified as 'weak' because its path coefficient is around 0.10.

These findings reinforce the notion that social crowding can positively contribute to consumer experiences with events, including special events conveyed by shopping centres. This notion is typically discussed in the event literature. In particular, previous studies on experiential consumption in the event literature have asserted that people generally expect the presence of other individuals at an event, and people generally desire the social interactions with other individuals at the event (see section 2.5.5). This is because an event is typically a collective experience, which is co-produced and co-consumed with a mass of people (Ng, et al., 2007).

There is a tenable explanation for the weak effect of Social Crowding on Enjoyment. That is, the 'unusually' strong relationship between Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment may have masked the significant effect of Social Crowding on Enjoyment. As noted in the measurement model analysis (section 5.6.2), the correlation between Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment was 0.85 (which was considered as very high) and the correlation between Social Crowding and Enjoyment was 0.51 (which was considered as moderate). The researcher was interested in examining the significant effect of Social Crowding on Enjoyment without the presence of Perceived Quality of Setting, a post-hoc test, involving regression analysis, between these three factors was conducted (see section 5.8). The post-hoc results showed that, without the presence of Perceived Quality of Setting, the significant effect of Social Crowding on Enjoyment increased considerably. In

particular, the path coefficient of Social Crowding increased from 0.10 (t-value = 2.51) to 0.22 (t-value = 6.0).

The results from the post-hoc tests suggest that consumers' perceptions about the social crowding at a special event can have a moderate, positive effect on their enjoyment with the event. However, when asked to evaluate the social crowding and physical simultaneously, consumers are likely to pay more attention to the physical setting and the social crowding. Nevertheless, the results reinforced the notion that social crowding could be a positive factor of consumer experiences with events, as suggested by the event consumption literature (see section 2.5.5).

6.3.3 Effect of enjoyment on actual and intended behaviour (H3 & H4)

Hypotheses 3 and 4 were about the relationship of Enjoyment with Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour. In particular, Enjoyment was found to have a significant, positive effect on Actual Behaviour ($\beta = 0.37$, t-value = 6.63) and Intended Behaviour ($\beta = 0.69$, t-value = 16.01). These results suggest that when consumers experience enjoyment with a special event, they are likely to stay longer and buy some food and/or non-food items at the shopping centre. Moreover, consumers are also likely to revisit the shopping centre for more special events, they are likely to recommend the experience to other people, and they are willing to receive invitations for future special events. These results are parallel to the literature review's findings, which have shown that consumers' positive emotional responses to an activity will extend their duration of stay, encourage them to spend more, and entice them to re-participate in the activity (see sections 2.4.4 and 2.4.5).

Although Enjoyment is found to have a positive effect on both Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour, the strength of the effect is not identical. In particular, Enjoyment is found to have twice the positive effect on Intended Behaviour than on Actual Behaviour. This 'asymmetrical' effect of Enjoyment on Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour is seldom reported in the literature. This is because previous studies on experiential consumption in the shopping centre and event literature have predominantly focused on *either* actual behaviour *or* intended behaviour, and not both (see sections 2.4.4 and 2.5.4). Nevertheless, the results suggest that when

consumers truly enjoy a special event, they are very likely to come back for upcoming special events, they are very likely to recommend the experience to other people, and they are mostly willing to accept invitations for upcoming special events. For these reasons, shopping centre managers should strive to create enjoyable experiences of special event entertainment if they seek to entice consumers' repeat patronage to their shopping precincts.

6.3.4 Moderating effect of Shopping Orientation on the relationship between Perceived Event Quality and Enjoyment (H5)

Hypothesis 5 focused on the moderating effect of Shopping Orientation on the relationship between Perceived Event Quality and Enjoyment. Using Shopping Orientation as the segmentation criterion, two shopper segments were identified and labelled as the 'Hedonic Shopper' and 'Utilitarian Shopper'. The multigroup analysis indicated that Perceived Event Quality had a stronger, positive effect on Enjoyment for the Utilitarian Shopper than for the Hedonic Shopper (see Table 5.19). Stated differently, when a special event comprises quality performers and quality setting, consumers with utilitarian shopping orientations are likely to experience greater enjoyment with special event entertainment than their counterparts with hedonic shopping orientation. These results are not unexpected as several studies have suggested that utilitarian shoppers are generally 'rational decision makers' who typically emphasise the functional and objective attributes of a product (Crowley, et al., 1992; Voss, et al., 2003). In comparison to the Utilitarian Shopper, the Hedonic Shopper appears to place less emphasis on the quality of the performers and physical setting at special event entertainment as these functional attributes are found to have weaker, positive effects on their enjoyment with special event entertainment. This can be due to the fact that hedonic shoppers are generally 'pleasure seekers' who emphasise the non-functional and/or social elements of an experience (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Shim & Gehrt, 1996).

6.3.5 Moderating effect of Shopping Orientation on the relationship between Social Crowding and Enjoyment (H6)

Hypothesis 6 looked at the moderating effect of Shopping Orientation on the relationship between Social Crowding and Enjoyment. Similar to Hypothesis 5, the Hedonic Shopper and Utilitarian Shopper were found to have different perceptions about the social crowding and levels of enjoyment with special event entertainment. In particular, Social Crowding was found to have a significant, positive effect on Enjoyment for the Hedonic Shopper, but not for the Utilitarian Shopper (see Table 5.19). Stated differently, the presence of other individuals at a special event is likely to create enjoyable experiences for hedonic shoppers, but not for utilitarian shoppers. The results further reinforce the notion that utilitarian shoppers are typically ‘rational consumers’ who put greater emphasis on the functional and tangible attributes of an experience (Crowley, et al., 1992; Voss, et al., 2003), and hedonic shoppers are ‘pleasure seekers’ who place greater weighting on the intangible, social attributes of an experience (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Shim & Gehrt, 1996). The results also reinforce the notion that social crowding is constructive in shaping consumer experiences with collective events, as suggested by the event consumption literature (see section 2.5.5).

Drawing on these results, shopping centre managers can consider segmenting their patrons into different psychographic groups based on their shopping orientation profiles. Subsequently, shopping centre managers can ‘customise’ their strategies of special event entertainment to appeal to different psychographic groups. Having discussed the conclusions of the research hypotheses, the theoretical and practical implications of these conclusions are considered next.

6.4 Implications for marketing theory

This study offers theoretical implications in three areas: i) an extension to existing experiential consumption literature; ii) the development of a conceptual model for low-involvement, ad-hoc events; and iii) the data collection and analysis strategy used. Each of these theoretical areas is now discussed in detail.

Extension to experiential consumption literature. This study provides an extension to experiential consumption literature, especially in relation to consumers' experiences with special event entertainment convened by shopping centres. Whilst special event entertainment represents a popular experiential activity in the shopping centre habitat (Gentry, 2004; Haeberle, 2001) and yet no study seems to have paid attention to this ubiquitous consumption activity. In shopping centre literature, previous studies on experiential consumption have typically focused on people's experiences with shopping (Babin, et al., 2004; El-Adly, 2007; Michon, et al., 2008; Raajpoot, et al., 2008; Taylor & Cosenza, 2002). In event literature, previous studies on experiential consumption have largely focused on people's experiences with festival events (Thrane, 2002; Xie, 2004; Zyl & Botha, 2004) and sporting events (Madrigal, 2006; Madrigal, 2008; Martin, et al., 2008). No study seems to have integrated these two domains of experiential consumption literature by examining people's experiences with special events convened by retailers like special event entertainment by shopping centres. Hence, this research program provides a starting point to bridge the gap on consumers' experiences with special events supplied by retailers.

Development of a theoretical model for low-involvement special events convened by retailers. Previous studies in the event literature have predominantly focused on people's experiences with high-involvement, outdoor events like festival events (Gursoy, Spangenberg, & Rutherford, 2006; Xie, 2004; Zyl & Botha, 2004) and sporting events (Madrigal, 2006; Madrigal, 2008; Martin, et al., 2008). That is, people generally have enduring or ongoing interests in festival and sporting events and consequently many people tend to subscribe themselves as members to these events (Havitz & Mannell, 2005). For instance, the Woodstock Festival appeals to people who have continuing passion for country music and art. Similarly, the Super Bowl appeals to people who are constantly avid about the national football league. Because of their high enduring involvement in these events, people generally put a great deal of effort and time into the planning process, people normally sign up to the newsletters of these events to get latest information (e.g. the time and location of seasonal matches for football events) (Hightower, et al., 2002).

In comparison to festival and sporting events, the special events (e.g. school holiday events or fashion events) convened by a shopping centre are considered as low enduring involvement in nature. That is, not many people will have ongoing interest in the special events, will actively search for information from various sources about the special events staged by a shopping centre, and will spend a great of time on weighting up the pros and cons before deciding whether to participate in a special event or not. Furthermore, while some people may be disappointed or dissatisfied with the special event if it was poor quality, very few will experience a great deal of post-participation dissonance. After all, their consumption of the special events is typically free of charge. Indeed, as indicated by both the qualitative and quantitative research, people's participation in the special events convened by shopping centres is frequently unplanned and ad-hoc (see section 3.7.1 and 5.4.2).

People can have situational involvement (temporary interest) in the special events, but this situational involvement is transient and its intensity can be influenced by various factors accompany a consumption situation. These factors may include task definition, social surrounding, temporal perspective etc. This research program has attempted to measure the situational involvement of the participants at the special events under study, and the quantitative research showed that the majority of the participants were moderately interested in the special events (see Table 5.2). However, a limitation of this research program is that it does not examine the factors that influence the participants' situational involvement in the special events under study, and this can be a fruitful future research direction, which will be addressed in section 6.6.

In brief, special event entertainment can be summarised as low involvement at the enduring level and moderate involvement at the situational level. Nevertheless, it represents a popular marketing strategy in shopping centre retailing. Special event entertainment can be used to facilitate shopping centre managers in enticing consumers' visits, extending their duration of stay and encouraging their spending. Yet, there is a lack of theoretical and empirical research examining shoppers' experiences with special event entertainment (see section 2.2). Hence, this research program provides a starting point for future research that seeks to examine consumers' experiences with low-involvement special events convened by retailers.

Several studies have shown that consumers are likely to have different cognitive, emotional and behavioural responses to low-involvement contexts as compared to high-involvement contexts (MacInnis & Park, 1991; Mano & Oliver, 1993; Yi & Jeon, 2003).

In particular, this research program has presented a model that seeks to explain consumers' experiences with low-involvement special events convened by retailers and this model consists of six factors, namely, Perceived Quality of Performers, Perceived Quality of Setting, Enjoyment, Social Crowding Actual Behaviour and Intended Behaviour. These six factors are inter-related positively. In particular, the perceived quality of the performer, the physical setting and the social crowding at a special event are deemed to be important in influencing shoppers' enjoyment with the event. In turn, shoppers' enjoyment with the special event is likely to influence their subsequent shopping behaviours and behavioural intention. Furthermore, how shoppers perceive the quality of the performer, the physical setting and the social crowding at the special event is likely to be shaped by the nature of their shopping orientation. The findings of this research program suggest that consumers with utilitarian shopping orientation are likely to have weak positive perceptions of the quality of the performer, the physical setting and the social crowding at the special event, whereas their opponents with hedonic shopping orientation are likely to have strong positive perception of the similar attributes.

'Real-time' data collection. Previous studies in the shopping centre and event literature have, for the most part, adopted a retrospective data collection approach when examining consumer experience (Greenwell, et al., 2007; Michon, et al., 2007, 2008). That is, consumers are typically asked to recall their evaluation, emotion and positive behaviours. Unlike those previous studies in shopping centre and event literature, this research study has adopted a 'real-time' approach by surveying consumers directly during special event entertainment. In comparison to the retrospective approach, the real-time approach is believed to be more accurate in terms of capturing the intensity of consumers' cognitive, emotional and behavioural responses to an experience (Wakefield & Barnes, 1996).

6.5 Implications for marketing practice

Using special event entertainment, shopping centre managers ultimately seek to entice shopper patronage and drive retail sales (Haeberle, 2001; Parsons, 2003). The findings from this study have implications for planning, promoting and evaluating special event entertainment.

This study demonstrates that special event entertainment can have positive effects on shoppers' behaviours, both actual and intended behaviours. In particular, the actual behaviours can entail longer duration of stay, purchase of food items and purchase of non-food items. On the other hand, the future behaviours can involve the likelihood of return for more special event entertainment, to accept invitations to future special event entertainment and to make recommendations to others. To promote the positive actual and intended behaviours of shoppers, shopping centre managers should focus on consumer enjoyment special event entertainment. In order to create consumers' enjoyment with special event entertainment, shopping centre marketing can consider three key attributes: the quality of performers; the quality of physical setting; and the social crowding.

Shopping centre managers need an understanding of how consumers respond to special event entertainment, particularly, what they think, how they feel and how they behave in relation to special event entertainment. Without this understanding, too much is left to instinct or intuition; thereby assessment of the effectiveness of special event entertainment (as a marketing strategy) can be speculative or unreliable. This study has developed a survey instrument that shopping centre managers can use to collect quantitative data to diagnose the effectiveness of special event entertainment. That is, the extent to which a particular special event entertainment has promoted positive actual and intended behaviours of shoppers. The results from the diagnosis will indicate whether the investment in special event entertainment is worthwhile.

The survey instrument can also be used as an internal audit of consumer experience with special event entertainment. The provision of positive experience of special event entertainment is important because it can serve as a point of difference for a

shopping centre. Unlike a tangible atmospheric (e.g. colour scheme), positive experience is personal and subjective and, thus, it is harder to be mimicked by competitors (Schmitt, 1999a).

Consequently, positive experience can serve as a competitive edge and enhance the positioning of a shopping centre. The survey instrument consists of a list of attributes that are relevant in defining consumer experience with special event entertainment. Using the survey instrument, shopping centre managers can identify attributes that are most emphasised and least emphasised by their patrons when evaluating special event entertainment. This knowledge will then enable shopping centre managers to manipulate those important attributes to promote positive experience with special event entertainment and, in turn, may help promote shopper loyalty (Schmitt, 1999a). The survey instrument can also be used as an ‘internal audit’ tool to check the effectiveness of special event entertainment—that is, to what extent a particular special event entertainment has promoted positive actual and intended behaviours. As with any study, some limitations exist on the generalisability of this research and these limitations are addressed next.

6.6 Limitations and future research

Seven limitations exist in this study. Each of these limitations is addressed in detail.

Other types of special event entertainment. This research has mainly focused on family-oriented special event entertainment. More research is needed to test the conceptual model with other types of special event entertainment such as fashion-related events (e.g. fashion catwalks and modelling contests), food-related events (e.g. food and wine festivals and market days) and celebrity appearances. Further validation of the conceptual model with other types of special event entertainment will provide further insights into this research area. For instance, will the tested relationships among Perceived Event Quality, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour and Social Crowding hold in other types of special event entertainment? Will consumers have similar perceptions about the Quality of Performers, Quality of Setting and Social Crowding in other types of special event entertainment? Will consumers perceive Perceived Quality of Setting and Enjoyment

as one holistic factor or two distinct factors in other types of special event entertainment?

Other retail formats. This research study has mainly encompassed special event entertainment offered by shopping centres and, as such, the findings may or may not transfer directly to special event entertainment offered by other retail formats such as supermarkets, department stores or specialty stores. In these different retail formats, consumers may exhibit different evaluation, emotion and behaviours relative to special event entertainment. Hence, more research is needed to validate the conceptual model with special event entertainment offered by other retail formats.

Other factors explaining consumer experiences with special event entertainment. This study has identified six factors to define the experiential consumption of special event entertainment, namely Perceived Event Quality, Social Crowding, Enjoyment, Actual Behaviour, Intended Behaviour and Shopping Orientation. Whilst these four factors are found to be valid and reliable, there may be other relevant factors to define the experiential consumption of special event entertainment and future research may help answer such questions.

Other sampling unit. This research program has primarily surveyed adult shoppers who are aged 18 years and above. An interesting extension to this research program is to survey other sampling units such as adolescent shoppers (aged between 12 and 18 years). In particular, adolescent shoppers represent lucrative segments of shopping centres (Anthony, 1985; Baker & Haytko, 2000; Taylor & Cosenza, 2002) and are active entertainment seekers at shopping centres. Furthermore, future research can also compare and contrast if young shoppers exhibit different evaluation, emotion and behaviour relative to special event entertainment than their adult counterparts. Another fruitful research avenue is to measure both the children's and parents' experiences at a family-oriented special event and then examine if the children's favourable (unfavourable) experiences with the event has a significant positive (negative) effect on their parents' experiences with the event and subsequent shopping behaviours.

Use of other methodology. This research program has drawn on the critical realism paradigm and used a mixed methodology to explain shopping centre patrons' experiences with special event entertainment. The mixed methodology mainly consisted of in-depth interviews, focus group discussions and a mall intercept survey. Future research may consider applying different scientific paradigms involving different methodology, such as positivism with experiment and constructivism with ethnography, to enrich our understanding of this experiential consumption phenomenon. In particular, experimental design is a research method that involves the manipulation of one or more independent variables (e.g. Perceived Quality of Performers) and measuring their effects on one or more dependent variables (e.g. Enjoyment), while controlling for the extraneous variables (e.g. types of special event entertainment). On the other hand, ethnography is a research approach based upon the observation of the customs, habits and differences between people in everyday situations (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1986). In the context of special event entertainment, ethnography can be used to observe participants' behaviours before, during, and after the consumption experience. Alternatively, ethnography can be used to observe the behavioural differences between participants and non-participants of special event entertainment.

Besides applying different scientific paradigms and using different methodology, future research may also consider comparing the results of real-time and retrospective data collection approaches. This research program has mainly applied a real-time approach, more specifically, a mall-intercept survey with shopping centre patrons during the happening of special events. Whilst scholars such as Close, Krishen and Latour (2009) and Wakefield and Barnes (1996) have asserted that a real-time data collection approach captures the intensity of consumers' responses to an event more accurately, but such assertion is yet to be substantiated. A comparison of real-time and retrospective data collection approaches, in terms of the validity and reliability of the results, will provide a methodological contribution to the existing event literature as previous studies on consumers' experiences with events have largely focused on a retrospective approach (see section 2.5).

Examination of non-participants. This study did not sample shopping centre patrons who have not experienced special event entertainment. It is not known what

factors discourage people from experiencing special event entertainment. Since shopping centre managers invest thousands of dollars in special event entertainment, they need to know what factors discourage people from experiencing special event entertainment. This knowledge can be insightful in devising marketing strategies to counteract the non-participation of shoppers relative to special event entertainment.

Other personal and situational factors. Future research may consider examining other personal and situational factors in the experiential consumption of special event entertainment such as shopping involvement, shopping centre loyalty and degree of time pressure. An examination of other personal and situational factors may provide a more holistic understanding of the experiential consumption of special event entertainment.

Poor SEM fit of the conceptual model. Whilst every attempt was made to ensure the data were collected and analysed in a rigorous manner, the conceptual model developed in this study fails to achieve satisfactory fit indices, at both full measurement model and structural levels (see section 5.6.2 and 5.17). Hence, more research is needed to substantiate the good fit of the measurement and structural components of the conceptual model. For instance, the conceptual model should be replicated and tested with other similar family-oriented special event entertainment in order to check its fit indices (e.g. GFI, AGFI and RMSEA). If the fit indices of the conceptual model (the measurement and structural components) remain less satisfactory in other family-oriented special event entertainment, a revision of the conceptual model in terms of its underlying factors and the relationship between these factors may be required.

6.7 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented a summary of all chapters in this thesis. In particular, it consists of the conclusions relating to the conceptual model and hypotheses tested in this research program, discussions on the implications for marketing theory and practice, several limitations of this research program, and several directions for future research.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 3.1: Shopping centre classifications in Australia

Type	Concept	Total gross lettable area retail	Key features
1) City centre	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> retail premises within an arcade or mall, the development owned by one company firm or person and promoted as an entity within a major Central Business District 	> 1000 sq m	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> dominated by specialty shops likely to have frontage on a mall or major CBD road generally does not include supermarkets often coexists with large department stores
2) Super regional centres	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a major shopping centre typically incorporating two full-line department stores, one or more full-line discount department stores, supermarkets and around 250 speciality shops 	> 85,000 sq m	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> one-stop shopping comprehensive coverage of the full range of retail needs (including specialised retail) containing a combination of full-line department stores, full-line discount department store, supermarkets, services, chain and other speciality retailers typically includes a number of entertainment and leisure attractions such as cinemas, arcade games and soft-play centres and provide a broad range of shopper facilities (car parking, food court) and amenities (rest rooms, seating)
3) Major regional centre	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a major shopping centre typically incorporating at least one full-line department store, one or more full-line discount department store, one or more supermarkets and around 150 specialty shops 	50,000 to 85,000 sq m	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> one-stop shopping extensive coverage of a broad range of retail needs (including specialised retail) containing a combination of full-line department stores, full-line discount department stores, supermarkets, services, chain and other specialty retailers typically includes a number of entertainment and leisure attractions such as cinemas, arcade games and soft play centres provides a broad range of shopper facilities (car parking, food court) and amenities (rest rooms, seating)

4) Regional centre	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ A shopping centre typically incorporating one-full line department store, a full-line discount department store, one or more supermarkets and around 100 or more specialty shops. 	30 000 to 50 000 sq. metres	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ extensive coverage of a broad range of retail needs (including specialised retail) ♦ contains a combination of full-line department stores, full-line discount department stores, supermarkets, banks, chain and other specialty retailers ♦ provides a broad range of shopper facilities and amenities
5) Sub-regional centre	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ A medium-sized shopping centre typically incorporating at least one full-line discount department store, a major supermarket and around 40 or more specialty shops. 	10 000 to 30 000 sq. metres	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ provides a broad range of sub-regional retail needs ♦ typically dominated by a full-line discount department store or major supermarket
6) Neighbourhood centre	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ a local shopping centre comprising a supermarket and up to 35 specialty shops 	< 10,000 sq m	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ typically located in residential areas ▪ services immediate residential neighbourhood ▪ usually has extended trading hours ▪ caters for basic day to day retail needs
7) Market	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ a covered centre of at least 5,000 sq m dominated by food retailing with at least 50 stalls or outlets ▪ operates on a permanent or irregular basis 	N/A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ includes areas with refrigeration facilities and air conditioning, as well as areas without these facilities

Source: Property Council of Australia (1999)

Appendix 3.2: Consent form for in-depth interviews and focus group discussions

Consent Form for Doctoral Research

Title of the Research: Understanding consumer experience with special event entertainment in shopping centres

Researcher: Jason Sit, BBus (Hons) USQ.
Doctoral student and Associate Lecturer at the University of Southern Queensland (Toowoomba campus)

Purpose of the Research: This research aims to understand consumer experience with special event entertainment in shopping centres and the key factors that are important to define consumer experience with special event entertainment.

You have been selected for the valuable input you can provide to this university research project. You have been identified for your knowledge and expertise in the research topic and thus are invited to participate in a conversationally based interview.

During our discussion, you will be asked to express your opinion about special event entertainment in terms of its significance and role in the shopping centre environment. Your permission to audio record the group discussion will be sought.

There are no known physical, emotional psychological or economic risks associated with your participation. The research is simply interested in your opinion about special event entertainment in terms of its significance and role in the shopping centre environment. Nevertheless, a transcript of the interview will be made available should you request.

Your confidentiality will be respected at all times. The interview audio tape will be coded before it is transcribed and thus your identity will not be associated directly with your responses.

Your participation is completely voluntary. You not only have the right to refuse t, but you can discontinue your participation at any time during the interview. There are no negative consequences associated not participating. Should you have any queries or concerns, you may contact my principal supervisor, Dr Melissa Johnson Morgan on 07-4631-1299 or email morganm@usq.edu.au or myself, Jason Sit on 07-4631-1363 or email sitj@usq.edu.au.

Should you choose to participate, your input will contribute to the academic knowledge of experiential consumption of special event entertainment in the shopping centre environment.

As a final point, if you have any concern regarding the implementation of the project, you are welcome to contact The Secretary, Human Research Ethics Committee, USQ on 07-4631-2956.

Consent – I have read and understand the consent information. By signing the consent form, I am agreeing to participate in the academic research.

Participant/Interviewee

/ /
Day Mth Yr

Researcher/Interviewer

/ /
Day Mth Yr

Audiotape – I agree to an audiotape of the interview.

Participant/Interviewee

/ /
Day Mth Yr

Researcher/Interviewer

/ /
Day Mth Yr

The raw data will be protected and stored in accordance with the ethical guidelines for graduate researchers at the University of Southern Queensland.

Should you have any queries regarding the interview process or your participation, please do not hesitate to contact my principal supervisor, Dr Melissa Johnson Morgan on 07-4631-1299 or email morganm@usq.edu.au or myself, Jason Sit on 07-4631-1363 or email sitj@usq.edu.au.

If you have any ethical concerns regarding the implement of this research project, you are welcome to contact The Secretary, Human Research Ethics Committee, USQ on 07-4631-2956.

Appendix 3.3: Interview protocol for in-depth interviews with shopping centre marketing managers

- **Introduction**
 - Thank you for participating in the interview
 - Brief background of the research
 - Opinions important – no right or wrong answer
 - Signature for the consent form
- **What sort of entertainment events does your Centre normally offer?**
 - Probe: School holiday events? Fashion shows? Celebrity appearances?
- **What are the common reasons for your Centre to offer those entertainment events?**
 - Probe: How do entertainment events benefit your Centre?
- **How does your Centre decide which entertainment events and when?**
 - Probe: What factors drive your decision making process relative to offering entertainment events?
- **How does your Centre normally measure the outcome of those entertainment events?**
 - Probe: How do you know if an entertainment event has been successful or not?
- **In your opinion, how do people normally evaluate their experience with entertainment events at shopping centres?**
 - Probe: What criteria do people use to decide if an entertainment experience is good or bad? Is it about general feelings with the experience?
- **In your opinion, what are the benefits that drive people to participate in entertainment events at shopping centres?**
 - Probe: What benefits do people seek from participating in entertainment events at shopping centres?
- **Conclusion**
 - Thank you for participating in the interview
 - If you think of any idea or question in the future, please feel free to contact me by telephone or email

Appendix 3.4: Interview protocol for focus group discussions with shopping centre patrons

- **Introduction**
 - Thank you for participating in the focus group discussion
 - Brief background of the research
 - Opinions important – no right or wrong answer
 - Signature for the consent form
- **What do you think of entertainment events at shopping centres (e.g. school holiday entertainment, fashion shows etc)?**
 - Probe: Do you like them or do not like about them?
 - Probe: Can you tell me more what you like or do not like about these entertainment events?
- **Have you ever stopped and watched any entertainment events at shopping centres?**
 - Probe: When was it?
 - Probe: What entertainment event was it?
 - Probe: On that day, what made you stop and watch the entertainment event?
- **Thinking back of the entertainment events you have seen, did you like it?**
 - Probe: In what ways you liked the entertainment?
 - Probe: In what ways you did not like the entertainment event?
- **You mentioned that you liked or didn't like the entertainment event, what did you do after that?**
 - Probe: Did you stay longer or leave the centre straight away? Did you buy anything? Did you tell your friend or family?
- **How do you normally decide which entertainment events to watch or not to watch at shopping centres?**
 - Probe: What factors drive your decision?
- **Conclusion**
 - Once again, thank you for taking part in this group discussion
 - If you think of any idea or question in the future, please feel free to contact me by telephone or email.

Appendix 4.1: Survey instrument

Shopping Centre Entertainment Events: A Student Project

My name is Jason Si. I am a PhD student at the University of Southern Queensland. As a requirement of my degree, I am trying to find out what shoppers think and feel about entertainment events at shopping centres. Hence, your help is very much needed to complete this student project. By doing so, you also have a real opportunity to improve your entertainment experience at shopping centres. Any information you provide will remain confidential to the University: **IMPORTANT:** Entertainment events include school holiday entertainment, fashion shows, celebrity appearances, band performances, Santa's arrival etc. Entertainment events do NOT include sales events like stocktake sales, pre-Christmas sales, Boxing Day's sales etc.

1. Did you specifically come to see the entertainment today? (tick one box only)
 No Yes
2. Did you know that there was entertainment at the centre today before you came? (tick one box only)
 No Yes
3. How did you find out about the entertainment today? (you may tick more than one box?)
 Television Radio Local newspaper
 Letterbox/junk mails Centre posters Family/friend
 Other: _____
4. Who were you shopping with today? (you may tick more than one box)
Alone (skip to Question 6)
 With partner
 With friends
 With kids
 With relatives
 Other:
5. Did you stop and watch the entertainment because of the person you were with today? (tick one box only)
 No Yes
6. Please indicate your personal level of interest in the entertainment today. (tick one box only)
 No interest
 Little interest
 Some interest
 Moderate amount of interest
 Quite a lot of interest
 Great deal of interest
7. What are the (other) main reasons you came to the centre today? (you may tick more than one box)
 No main reason Business services (e.g. banking, health insurance etc)
 Groceries/fresh food Medical services (e.g. doctor, physio etc)
 Fashion & accessories Browsing/window shopping
 Homewares/small appliances Meet friends/family
 Retail services (e.g. haircut, dry cleaning etc) Cinema
 Other: _____

8. Please indicate the amount of time pressure you felt on this shopping trip (tick one box only)
- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> No pressure | <input type="checkbox"/> Moderate amount of pressure |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Little pressure | <input type="checkbox"/> Quite a lot of pressure |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Some pressure | <input type="checkbox"/> Great deal of pressure |
9. How often do you come to this centre? (tick one box only)
- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> More than once a week | <input type="checkbox"/> Once a month |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Once a week | <input type="checkbox"/> Less than once a month |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Once a fortnight | <input type="checkbox"/> First time ever |

Entertainment Experience

This section is about your experience with the entertainment today. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements.

At the entertainment today...	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly agree
10. It was entertainment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. It was interactive with the audience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. It suited the age of the audience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. It was appealing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. It was presented professionally	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. It was fun	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. It was held at a convenient time	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. It was held at a convenient location in the centre	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. It was enjoyable	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. The sound system was of good quality	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. It was exciting	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. It had performers that I like	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. It had well-known performers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. It was interesting	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. It had performers that I recognise	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

- | | | | | | |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 25. The costuming of the performers was high quality | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 26. It was crowded | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 27. I enjoyed the crowd | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 28. The crowd added to the experience | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 29. I could move around easily | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 30. I like this type of entertainment overall | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

31. Because of the entertainment today...

- | | | | | | |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 32. I have stayed at the centre longer than I planned to | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 33. I have bought some food and/or drinks that I didn't plan (e.g. coffee, donuts etc) | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 34. I have bought some non-food items that I didn't plan to (e.g. clothes, CDs etc) | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 35. I would back for similar entertainment in the future | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 36. I would like to receive invitations to similar entertainment in the future | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 37. I would say good things about the entertainment today to other people | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Shopper Category

This section is about what you think of yourself as a shopper. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements.

- | | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither | Agree | Strongly agree |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 38. I like to see new or different things at shopping centres | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 39. I like browsing at shopping centres | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 40. I find shopping to be a waste of time | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 41. I go shopping for fun | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 42. Shopping allows me to spend time with my family or friends | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 43. I only go to shopping centres for necessities | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

44. I only go to shopping centres that conveniently located
45. I only go to shopping centres that have brand names I like
46. I enjoy going to shopping centres
47. I go to shopping centres to fill in time

About You

This section is about you in general.

48. Please indicate your gender. (tick one box only)
- Female Male
49. Please indicate your age category. (tick one box only)
- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 18 – 21 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 51 – 60 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 22 – 25 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 61 – 70 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 26 – 30 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 71 – 80 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 31 – 40 years | <input type="checkbox"/> Over 80 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 41 – 50 years | |
50. Please indicate your household status. (tick one box only)
- Couple/single with children mainly under 6 years
- Couple/single with children mainly 6 – 12 years
- Couple/single with mainly older/teenagers/adult children
- Couple/single with all children living away from home
- Couple without children
- Single without children

Thank You

Thank you for completing this survey. Any information you provided will remain confidential to the University of Southern Queensland.