

Chapter 3

Shopping Well-Being and Ill-Being: Toward an Integrated Model

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ABSTRACT

In this chapter, the authors make an attempt to review and integrate much of the research on shopping well-being and ill-being experiences. The integrated model identifies the antecedents of these two focal constructs in terms of situational, individual, and cultural factors. The consequences of shopping well-being and ill-being experiences on life satisfaction (or subjective well-being) are explained through a bottom-up spillover process. Managerial implications and avenues for future research are also discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Over the last several decades much research in retailing has focused on various consequences of shopping activities. One important consequence of shopping is its impact on consumer well being.

Studies found that shopping contributes to the consumer well-being providing consumers with experiences of hedonic enjoyment and satisfaction of various needs (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003, 2012; Babin, Darden, & Griffin, 1994; Timothy,

2005). Other studies found that shopping can have a negative impact on consumer well-being as in the case of compulsive buying and impulse buying (Schor, 1991; Rojek, 2006).

Despite the seemingly significant impact of shopping on consumer's lives, there is a lack of consensus on the impact of shopping on consumer well-being. There is still a need to integrate research from various disciplines to provide answers to effect of shopping on consumer well-being. The question remains. Do shopping experiences

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have a positive or negative impact on the well-being of consumers? What are the factors affecting these negative and positive shopping experiences, which in turn influence consumer well-being? There is a great need to integrate the two diverging perspectives.

The main purpose of this chapter is, therefore, to develop a model that integrates antecedents and consequences of shopping well-being and ill-being experiences. The proposed model developed in this chapter treats shopping well-being and ill-being experiences as two distinct concepts. Shopping well-being experiences deal with the positive aspects of consumers' retail activities, whereas shopping ill-being experiences deal with the negative aspects. The integrated model identifies the antecedents of these two focal constructs in terms of situational, individual, and cultural factors. The consequences of shopping well-being and ill-being experiences on life satisfaction (or subjective well-being) are explained through a bottom-up spillover process.

Understanding those factors affecting shopping well-being experiences and shopping ill-being experiences allow policy makers and retailers develop marketing programs that can effectively enhance consumer well-being while minimizing the negative impact of programs on consumer well-being.

BACKGROUND

Positive Impact of Shopping on Consumer Well-Being

In some cases, shopping contributes to the well-being of consumers by paving way to hedonic enjoyment and satisfaction of self-expressive needs. Retailing scholars have argued that shopping is associated with hedonic value (e.g., Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; 2012; Babin, Darden, & Griffin, 1994), excitement and delight (e.g., Oliver, Rust, & Varki, 1997; Wakefield & Baker, 1998),

and enjoyment (e.g., Beatty & Ferrell, 1998). Hedonic retail activities have been described as a form of "recreation" (e.g., Backstrom, 2006; Guiry, Magi, & Lutz, 2006), entertainment (e.g., Moss, 2007), or related to enthusiasm that creates emotional arousal and joy (e.g., Jin & Sternquist, 2004; Pooler, 2003).

More recently, researchers expressed interest in the idea that retail activities (i.e., shopping) help shoppers express themselves (Timothy, 2005). As such, it can be argued that shopping activities are not only hedonically enjoyable but also self-expressive in that they allow the consumer to become emotionally involved with the purchase thus serving to actualize the consumer's potential in becoming a good mother/father, wife/husband, etc. Much of this discussion is related to *shopping well-being experiences*. This construct is explicitly defined as the degree to which consumers experience hedonic enjoyment and satisfaction of self-expressive needs through their shopping activities.

Negative Impact of Shopping on Consumer Well-Being

By the same token, consumer shopping experiences have a negative impact on the overall sense of well-being of consumers. Shopping ill-being has much to do with the potential dark side of consumers' retail/shopping activities. Studies have argued that shopping may lead to compulsive buying, which creates much ill-being (Faber & O'Quinn, 1992; Hosch & Loewenstein, 1991; Kwak, Zinkman, & Crask, 2003; O'Guinn & Faber, 1989).

Compulsive shopping refers to consumers' tendency to be preoccupied with buying that is revealed through repetitive buying and a lack of impulse control over buying (Ridgeway, Kukar-Kinney, & Monroe 2008). It has been found that internet versus brick and mortar retail shopping has created a tendency toward compulsive shopping manifested in avoiding social interactions (Kukar-Kinney, Ridgway, & Monroe, 2009).

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This is another example of consumers engaging in shopping behavior that reduces social interaction, which may be symptomatic of shopping ill-being. Also, the popular press opined that contemporary lifestyle encourages compulsive shopping and fosters materialism through the purposeful design and creation of desire for the acquisition of more and more material products (Benson, 2000; Faber & Christenson, 1996; Hine, 2002; Schor, 2004).

The desire to “have more” also creates a so-called “work and spend cycle” (Schor, 1991). The author argues that consumers devote more and more hours to work in order to financially and emotionally support their increased level of material acquisition. In a similar vein, Rojek (2006) argues that time spent on shopping (i.e., in the purchase of consumer goods and services) should be viewed as time taken away from more meaningful activities. In this chapter, *shopping ill-being experiences* are defined as the degree to which consumers experience impulsive buying and/or compulsive buying by overspending time, effort, and money in shopping activities.

AN INTEGRATED MODEL OF SHOPPING WELL-BEING AND ILL-BEING

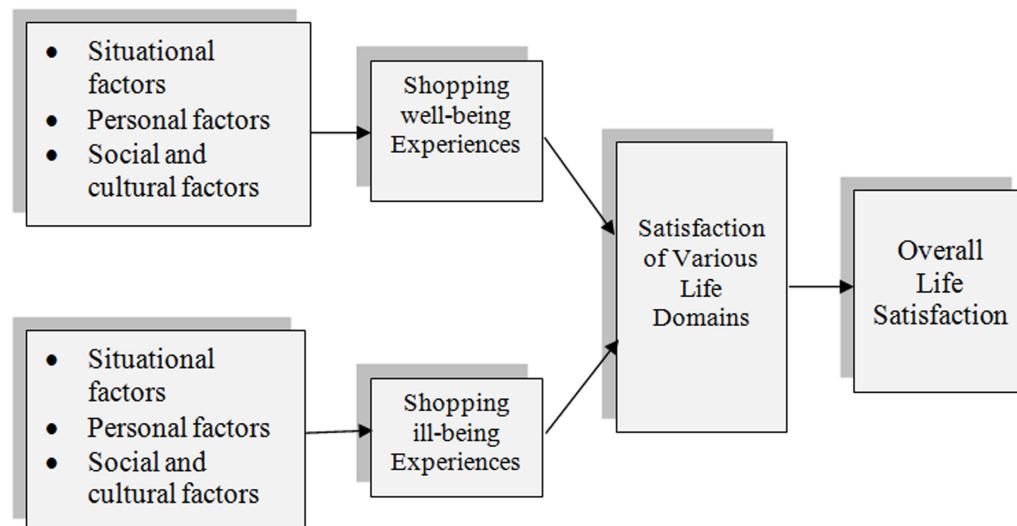
The integrated model is shown in Figure 1. The model shows the two focal constructs of shopping well-being and ill-being experiences, their consequence (overall sense of well-being or life satisfaction), and their antecedents (situational, personal, and social/cultural factors).

The Impact of Shopping Well-Being and Ill-Being Experiences on Overall Life Satisfaction

With respect to *shopping well-being experiences*, there is some suggestive evidence that supports the notion that shopping activity may contribute to one's sense of well-being (Tauber, 1972).

Researchers have long recognized that the psychological life space is multi-dimensional because people segment their emotional experiences in multiple life domains such as social life, work life, family life, spiritual life, shopping life,

Figure 1. An integrated model of shopping well-being and ill-being experiences



etc. (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976; Day, 1978, 1987; Diener, 1984). Specifically, memories related to specific kinds of experiences and feelings are stored in psychological domains that reflect primary activities. And within each life domain the person has certain value-laden beliefs (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976). In other words, people have multiple psychological domains housing value-laden beliefs in relation to education, family, health, job, friends, shopping, etc. Our main focus in this chapter is *positive and negatives shopping experiences affect satisfaction in the shopping life domain.*

A number of quality-of-life studies have shown that life satisfaction can be explained and predicted from satisfaction one experiences within the different life domains (Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976). For example, people may feel satisfied with life as a direct function of their satisfaction with their health, job, family, friends, community, material possessions, shopping experiences, etc.

To fully explain the relationship between the shopping well-being experiences (i.e., satisfaction with shopping life) and overall life satisfaction, we need to discuss the concepts of bottom-up spillover in the context of consumer well-being in general. *Bottom-up spillover* between consumer well-being experiences and life satisfaction is traditionally conceptualized using a satisfaction hierarchy model (Lee & Sirgy, 1995; Meadow, 1988). This model is based on research on consumer satisfaction (Aiello, Czepiel, & Rosenberg, 1977) and life satisfaction (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976). The basic premise is that overall life satisfaction is functionally related to satisfaction with all of life's domains and sub-domains. Most multi-attribute attitude models use bottom-up spillover logic in predicting and explaining attitude. A familiar example is brand attitude models that assume a consumer's attitude toward a product, such as a car, is a direct function of the consumer's evaluations

of the various attributes of the car moderated by the belief strength associated with each attribute (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Satisfaction researchers have used this same logic to conceptualize the determinants of consumer satisfaction (Aiello, Czepiel, & Rosenberg, 1977).

The essence of the bottom-up spillover model is the notion of a satisfaction hierarchy, and that positive and negative affect spill over from concrete events to life domains (e.g., shopping life, work life, leisure life, family life, social life, love life) to overall life. Thus, specific events housed in a given life domain may affect life satisfaction through a "bottom-up spillover" of affect (Diener, 1984; Sirgy, 2002; Sirgy, Kruger, Lee, & Yu, 2011). That is, satisfaction from a life domain or specific experiences within a life domain vertically spills over to more super-ordinate life domains--the affect within a life domain (or sub domain) spills over *bottom-up* to the most super-ordinate domain (life in general), influencing life satisfaction.

There are many advocates of the bottom-up approach to life satisfaction (Bharadwaj & Wilkening, 1977; Heady, Holstrom, & Wearing, 1985). Many studies have been conducted using the bottom-up approach by examining the spillover effects of satisfaction in the consumer life domain in a community context (i.e., at a macro level dealing with goods and service found in the local area, rather than dealing with a particular good or service) on life satisfaction (Sirgy et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2002). Other studies are more micro in focus. That is, studies focused on the spillover effect of satisfaction with a specific product or specific consumption experiences on life satisfaction--personal transportation (Sirgy, Lee, & Kressman, 2006), housing (e.g., Grzeskowiak, Sirgy, Lee, & Claiborne, 2006), healthcare services (e.g., Sirgy, Rahtz, & Lee, 2004; Sirgy, Hansen, & Littlefield, 1994), internet use (Sirgy, Lee, & Bae, 2006), and travel and tourism (Neal, Uysal, & Sirgy, 2004; Sirgy, Kruger, Lee, & Yu, 2011).

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Based on bottom-up spillover theory, one can argue that affective experiences related to shopping (i.e., shopping well-being experiences) may be at the bottom of the satisfaction hierarchy. Satisfaction with various aspects of shopping life may influence

- Satisfaction with social life (i.e., shopping paves way to interact with friends and shopping personnel at the various stores),
- Satisfaction with family life (i.e., shopping provides goods and services to meet family consumption needs),
- Satisfaction with work life (i.e., shopping provides goods and services to help achieve work-related goals),
- Satisfaction with community life (i.e., shopping mall, shopping centers, and large stores provide a variety of venues that allows community residents to interact and feel connected), and
- Satisfaction with financial life (i.e., shopping allows consumers to shop around to find high quality brands for low prices).

The construct of *shopping ill-being experiences* has been conceptually developed (Ekici et al., 2013) but its impact on subjective well-being has not been demonstrated. One such avenue for considering shopping-ill being is that of compulsive buying as defined by Ridgway, Kukar-Kinney, and Monroe (2008). Compulsive buying may result in numerous negative consequences, such as financial problems, emotional harm (e.g., negative feelings, feeling guilty), and social and relationship problems (Faber & O'Guinn, 1992). All factors may influence shopping ill-being experiences which could lead to negative impact on consumer well-being through a bottom-up spillover effect. In other words, spending too much time shopping may detract from opportunities to engage in other activities that can enhance the sense of social well-being, family well-being, work well-being, etc. Furthermore, spending too much money on

material acquisition is likely to lead to financial debt, which may take away from spending on other goods and services essential to social well-being, family well-being, work well-being, etc.

Antecedents of Shopping Well-Being Experiences

To reiterate, *shopping well-being experiences* in this chapter is defined as the degree to which consumers experience hedonic enjoyment and satisfaction of self-expressive needs through shopping activities. Positive affect from shopping well-being experiences are likely to spillover to other life domains including social life, family life, work life, community life, and financial life. That is, shopping well-being experiences are associated with positive emotions (e.g., shopping satisfaction, shopping pleasure, shopping delight) related to shopping activities.

There are several factors that may contribute to those positive emotions, hence the sense of shopping well-being. These factors can be categorized as situational, personal, and social/cultural factors.

Situational Factors: Situational factors that positively affect shopping well-being are mostly the results of retailer-controlled activities. For instance, providing customers with in-store guidance (Gurel-Atay, Giese, & Godek, 2010), employee assistance (Puccinelli et al., 2009), or efficient store layout (Titus & Everett, 1995) may decrease the time and effort spent by customers, thus, leading to satisfying experiences in shopping life.

Indeed, it is suggested that time and effort perceptions, especially by time-strapped customers, impact how those customers assess their shopping pleasure (Baker et al., 2002). For consumers who want to browse and experience the fun side of shopping, on the other hand, retailers can create an exciting and stimulating environment. Other store atmosphere factors, such as background sound (Morin, Dube, & Chebat, 2007) or odors (Spannengberg, Crowley, & Henderson, 1996), can also be used to make the shopping experience pleasant,

resulting in increased shopping well-being (Pan & Zinkhan, 2006). Retail crowding, especially spatial crowding, is another retailer-controlled factor that has an effect on shopping satisfaction, hence shopping well-being. For instance, Machleit, Eroglu, and Mantel (2000) found that when the store is crowded, the excitement of shopping and shopping satisfaction is lessened.

Stock-outs may also affect the level of shopping well-being. Fitzsimons (2000), for instance, found that consumers may enjoy shopping more when “personal commitment to the out-of-stock option is low and the stock-out leads to a decrease in the difficulty of making a product selection.” In other words, when the stock-out option is not important to the consumer, and when the absence of options makes decision making easier for the consumer, consumers may experience higher levels of shopping well-being—perhaps due to the decreased amount of time and effort spent on shopping.

Personal Factors: One important personal factor that affects shopping well-being is the importance of shopping to a consumer. Consumer who perceives shopping as an important part of his/her life is more likely to feel motivated to engage in shopping activities and actually enjoy shopping (Guiry, Magi, & Lutz, 2006; Sansone & Smith, 2000). Consumers who perceive shopping as his/her part of personal identity and use shopping for self-expressiveness are likely to experience shopping well-being (Timothy, 2005).

Consumers’ attitudes may also contribute to shopping well-being. For instance, people who have positive attitudes toward shopping in general, as opposed to people who dislike shopping, are more likely to have an increased level of shopping well-being experiences (Puccinelli et al., 2009). Similarly, people who have low satisfaction thresholds (Mittal & Kamakura, 2001) and a disposition toward satisfaction (Grace, 2005) are likely to have a high level of shopping well-being experiences.

Another personal factor that may affect shopping well-being is shopping efficacy, which is defined as “the degree to which one can efficiently find a particular product for which one is shopping” (Gurel-Atay, Giese, & Godek, 2008). Some people perform better at shopping; they know where to find products they are looking for and buy those items at the best prices in a reasonable amount of time. When these consumers perceive that their shopping is successful, they are likely to experience positive affect (Arnold et al., 2005). In other words, these efficient and effective consumers who feel that they do well in shopping (i.e., buy quality products at low prices) are likely to experience shopping well-being.

A related concept to shopping efficacy is the sense of time urgency (Rizkalla, 1989), or the feeling of time pressure (Gurel-Atay, Giese, & Godek, 2010). Some people are believed to be more sensitive to time and this sensitivity may affect their well-being in general and shopping well-being in particular (Rizkalla, 1989). More specifically, consumers who feel rushed are more likely to dislike shopping (Gurel-Atay, Giese, & Godek, 2010; Rizkalla, 1989), probably because rushing through the shopping process makes product choices more difficult (Dhar & Nowlis, 1999) and results in poor purchase decisions (Johnson & Payne, 1985; Park, Iyer, & Smith, 1989). Therefore, one can hypothesize that shopping efficacy may contribute to the sense of shopping well-being.

Social and Cultural Factors: Because studies on social and cultural differences in shopping well-being are at best limited, we call for future research on this topic. Previous findings in cross-cultural studies related to emotions and shopping activities can be used to generate some working hypotheses to understand how cultural factors may affect shopping well-being. For instance, because the frequency and intensity of positive emotions is stronger in Western cultures than in Asian cultures (Scollon, Diener, Oishi, & Biswas-Diener, 2004) and because Asians tend to report lower levels

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of well-being in general (Valenzuela, Mellers, & Strelbel, 2008), it can be assumed that, compared to Non-Asians, Asians may have decreased levels of shopping well-being.

However, a contradictory finding was obtained by Morgeson et al., (2010). By using a sample of cross-industry satisfaction data from 19 nations, these authors examined the determinants of cross-national variation in customer satisfaction. The results indicated that customer satisfaction is higher for consumers in traditional societies (compared to those in secular-rational societies). In another study, Laroche et al., (2004) compared the satisfaction levels of Japan (a traditional, Asian country) consumers with US and Canada (secular-rational, Western cultures) consumers. Japanese consumers, compared to US and Canadian consumers, reported lower satisfaction ratings when performance was high and higher satisfaction ratings when performance was low. The authors believed that these results were obtained because “Japanese consumers are more conservative in their evaluations of superior service but are less critical (or more forgiving) of inferior service” (Laroche et al., 2004). These contradictory findings come from studies not directly related to shopping well-being; thus, these findings highlight the need for more cross-cultural research to understand differences in shopping well-being experiences.

Antecedents of Shopping Ill-Being Experiences

Shopping ill-being experiences is defined as the degree to which consumers experience impulsive buying and compulsive buying in shopping through overspending time, effort, and money. Here, resources (time, money, and effort) an individual invests in shopping come at the expense of time, money, and effort required in other life domains to maintain a certain level of life satisfaction. This overspending (time, money, and effort) on shopping generally result in complaints among family members, relatives/friends, and/or people

at work. These complaints, in turn, contribute to a significant amount of dissatisfaction in life domains related to family life, social life, work life, and financial life.

Even though shopping well-being and shopping-ill being appears as the opposite side of the same coin, they conceptually represent different constructs. While shopping well-being essentially deals with the individual’s (i.e., shopper’s) positive feelings regarding shopping (that reflect the contribution of shopping to satisfaction in various life domains), shopping ill-being experiences involve the perception of the shopper to the complaints and negative feelings expressed by significant others (e.g., family members, friends and associates) about one’s shopping. As noted, when an individual’s shopping activities are perceived rather “compulsive” by the close friends and/or family members, these activities may adversely affect life satisfaction. This section provides an overview of the situational, personal, and socio-cultural factors that may account for shopping-ill-being.

Situational Factors: Situational factors that contribute to compulsive shopping and shopping ill-being may be classified as payment-, product-, and retailer-originated. Credit usage may be considered as payment-originated contributing to negative outcomes arising from shopping. Research suggests that the number of credit cards regularly used, as well as the amount of credit debt, are both linked to compulsive shopping (Norum, 2008; Park & Burns, 2005; Dittmar, 2005). For example, Norum’s (2008) study, conducted among US college students, reports that irrational credit card use is strongly associated with compulsive buying. As the author argues, American youth have been raised in a credit card society where having money and appearing rich are very important. As a result, “the value placed on status and the acceptance of consumer debt contribute to compulsive buying” (Norum, 2008). In addition, the literature suggests that as compared to “normal” shoppers, compulsive shoppers tend to have more credit cards, less likely to use cash as a payment

method, and more likely to have more than one credit card to maximize their credit limit (Black, 2007; O'Guinn & Faber, 1989).

With respect to product-originated factors, research has shown that certain categories (clothing, jewelry, makeup, and collectibles with women, and electronic equipment and collectables with men) are more likely to be the target of compulsive shopping (Faber et al., 1987; Christenson et al., 1994; O'Guinn & Faber, 1989). These categories are considered as more related to self-esteem and may facilitate positive interaction with sales people, which in turn, may help increase the shopper's self-esteem but also induce the shopper to overspend (Faber et al., 1987).

In addition, design and structure of retail environment may contribute to compulsive shopping and therefore shopping-ill being experiences. Shopping environments are deliberately designed to appeal to all the senses and shoppers with higher compulsive tendencies are more likely to be affected by such design (Pooler, 2003). In fact, Mitchell et al., (2006) suggested that 89 percent of their subjects indicated that their compulsive buying episodes occur in stores. Further, Schlosser et al., (1994) reported shoppers with a compulsive tendency pay particular attention to the store "atmospherics" and be enticed by a variety of stimuli including color, sound, texture, and smell. More recent evidence suggests that today the internet provides an additional context in which compulsive shopping can be stimulated (Browne, Durrett & Wetherbe, 2004). Therefore, the design of commercial/shopping websites may encourage acquisition, compulsive behavior, and shopping ill-being.

Personal Factors: Research has indicated that people with low esteem, mood disorder, depression, compulsive hoarding, and/or impulse control disorders are more likely to demonstrate compulsive behavior (Koran, 2000; Mueller et al., 2007, O'Guinn & Faber, 1989). Although intense shopping activities may provide short-term relief from a negative emotional state (Workman &

Paper, 2010), the same activities may lead to an operant conditioned response—shopping becomes conditioned as a response to emotional distress (Falk, 1981). Other personality traits such as ability to fantasize and (low and high) arousal levels have also been linked to compulsive shopping (Black, 2007; Miller, 1980). Furthermore, research has noted that perfectionism (Nakken, 1988; Peele, 1990), impulsiveness (e.g., Christenson et al., 1994), excitement seeking (Mendelson & Mello, 1986), approval seeking (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989), and general compulsiveness (Albenese, 1988) may account for compulsive shopping.

Research has also indicated that certain demographic segments are more likely to engage in compulsive shopping which may result in shopping ill-being. Several researchers have found that women tend to score higher than men on measures of compulsive shopping (Black 1996; O'Guinn & Faber, 1989). This may occur because shopping seems to be an activity that is sex-typed (i.e., the social norm seems to be that women tend to do spend money, men tend to make money). Even though findings regarding age and income have been mixed (Christensen et al., 1994; Schlosser et al., 1994), it seems that there may be a tendency that lower socioeconomic status consumers are impacted by negative aspects of shopping to a greater extent, compared to their higher socio-economic counterparts.

Materialism also serves as a significant predictor of compulsive shopping. The extant literature suggests that material possessions serve as surrogates for non-satisfying social relationships (Richins & Dawson, 1992). Materialistic consumers tend to place a greater importance on possessions than relationships (Belk, 1985; Dittmar, 2005), and as a result, may engage in compulsive shopping activities that may result in ill-being.

Social and Cultural Factors: Whether a person spends much time, money, and effort on shopping may be shaped by his/her social/family environment and learned consumption habits from

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childhood (Faber & O'Guinn, 1988; Moschis & Cox, 1998). Socio-oriented family communication patterns, as well as learned saving, spending and the use of money may affect children's attitude toward money, consumption, and shopping (Moore & Moschis, 1981). Thus, compulsive shopping habits may be learned from parents' buying habits. In addition, certain consumers may develop disruptive shopping habits in order to gain attention and obtain feelings of approval and self-esteem "during shopping and spending that they may not have received as children" (DeSarbo & Edwards, 1996, p. 240).

Other socio-cultural factors may involve the commercial environment and advertising activities, and the culture in general (Valence, d'Astous, & Fortier, 1988). Some sociologists argue that advertising is particularly responsible for the progressive transmittal of the materialistic ideal. According to McBride (1980), advertising drives individuals to irrational consumption behavior by making use of their achievement needs, by making light of people's emotions, and making use of the anxiety produced by competition (Valence et al., 1988).

Whether pathological shopping patterns (which may lead to shopping ill-being) is a "cultural" phenomena has been investigated in different cultural contexts including Germany (Scherhorn, Reisch, & Raab, 1990), Canada (d'Astous, Maltais, & Roberge, 1990), Mexico (Roberts & Sepulveda, 1999), and South Korea (Kwak, Zinkhan, & Crask, 2003). Using the *German Addictive Buying Indicator* (a measure of compulsive buying adapted from Valance et al., 1988), Scherhorn et al., (1990) reported that German consumers use the act of buying as a means of compensation for coping with stress, frustration, disappointment, distortion of autonomy, and lack of self-esteem. The "compensatory buying" (Scherhorn et al., 1990) finding is consistent with the findings of those conducted in other "western societies" such as the US and Canada (d'Astous et al., 1990).

The Mexican and the South Korean studies employed the *Diagnostic Screener for Compulsive Buying* (DSCB) developed by Faber and O'Guinn (1992). The results from these studies suggest that compulsive shopping may follow a different pattern in the US, Mexico, and South Korea. Kwak et al., (2003) explained their findings by stating that Korean consumers may decompose the concept of compulsive buying into two aspects: "financial outcomes" and "unfettered spending" (p. 167). For example, Korean consumers may "see the problems associated with physical cash flow as being separate from the impulsiveness of the behavior itself" (p. 168). American consumers do not make such this distinction. These results further suggest that even though compulsive shopping is a pervasive human phenomenon and therefore may be considered as "global" phenomenon (Kwak et al., 2003) certain cultural characteristics may shape its formation. Another multi-country study of consumers in Australia, United States, Hong Kong, Singapore, and Malaysia (Kacen & Lee, 2002) show: cultural factors such as individualism versus collectivism and independent versus interdependent self-concept may systematically influence impulsive and compulsive shopping. The study reveals, for example, that as compared to Caucasians, Asian consumers engage in less impulse purchase. "Independence" appears to play a role in certain pathological shopping behavior particularly among Caucasians--for these consumers, the more independent their self-concept, the greater the likelihood of engaging in more impulse buying.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

We recommend that future research should test the links between shopping well-being and life satisfaction through the mediation effects of satisfaction in important life domains such as social life, family life, work life, community life, and financial life. The theory that could help explain

this mediation effect is bottom-up spillover as discussed earlier. Similarly, guided by the same theory, future research should formally test the effect of shopping ill-being on life satisfaction as mediated by dissatisfaction in important life domains such as family life, social life, and work life.

Future research could also examine the effects of shopping efficacy, shopping involvement, and shopping convenience on shopping well-being. Similarly, future research could test the effect of environmental and situational factors affecting shopping ill-being. Additionally, future research could empirically examine the effect of materialism on shopping ill-being. In summary, future research should test the link of certain antecedents (situational, personal, and social/cultural factors), not only in relation to shopping well-being and ill-being experiences, but also in relation to domain satisfaction, and ultimately, life satisfaction. It is also important to understand which antecedent factors (situational factors, personal factors, socio-cultural-factors) have the greatest impact on shopping well-being and ill-being so that specific managerial and policy initiative can be designed to improve satisfaction with life.

CONCLUSION

We made an attempt in this chapter to review and integrate much of the research findings concerning two focal constructs: shopping well-being and ill-being. Based on the research literature, we linked the antecedents of shopping well-being and shopping ill-being through a set of situational, personal, and social/cultural factors. We also explained the link between shopping well-being/ill-being and life satisfaction.

More specifically, we explained the link between shopping well-being experiences and life satisfaction using bottom-up spillover theory (life satisfaction can be explained and predicted from satisfaction one experiences within the different

life domains such as satisfaction with health, job, family, friends, community, material possessions, and shopping). That is, positive affective experiences related to shopping (i.e., experiences related to shopping well-being) may be at the bottom of the satisfaction hierarchy. Satisfaction experiences (shopping well-being) may influence satisfaction in various life domains (social life, family life, work life, community life, and financial life) and overall life satisfaction.

Shopping ill-being may adversely impact life satisfaction through the effects of compulsive shopping. Compulsive shopping causes a great deal of dissatisfaction in various life domains by usurping time, energy, and money from social life, family life, work life, spiritual life, community life, etc. In other words, compulsive shopping serves as an opportunity cost–opportunity to enhance life satisfaction through using the time, energy, and money invested in shopping activities to other activities that can increase satisfaction in important life domains, that ultimately contribute to life satisfaction. Also, compulsive shopping may lead the shopper to debt, which in turn may prevent the shopper from acquiring needed goods and services in social life, family life, work life, etc. Material deprivation may play an important role in decreasing the sense of well-being in those life domains, which in turn may contribute significantly to life dissatisfaction.

With respect to the antecedents of shopping well-being, we identified a set of situational factors (e.g., retailer-controlled activities such as providing customers with in-store guidance, employee assistance, or efficient store layout; shopper-related activities such as store atmosphere for those who like to browse; spatial crowding; and stock-outs), personal factors (e.g., importance of shopping to a consumer, positive attitudes toward shopping in general, a disposition toward satisfaction, shopping efficacy, and sense of time urgency), social/cultural factors (e.g., Western versus Asian cultures and traditional versus secular-rational societies).

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With respect to the antecedents of shopping ill-being experiences, we also identified a different set of situational, personal and social/cultural factors. Situational factors involve payment-related factors (e.g., credit use), product-related factors (e.g., clothing, jewelry, makeup, and collectibles with women, and electronic equipment and collectables with men), and retailer-related factors (shopping environment such as store design and other store atmospherics). As previously discussed in the chapter, one of the situational factors affecting shopping ill-being is the credit use. Excessive reliance on credit cards may contribute to compulsive buying and shopping ill-being. Consumers, at times, use multiple credit cards (each having credit limits well-above their income limits). Some consumers pay only the minimum due while continuing their shopping and debt accumulation. This is of course ill-advised because it is a situation that eventually wrecks havoc on their finances. To reduce the adverse consequences of credit misuse, policy makers should go beyond providing information about the optimal use of credit card. Perhaps, a public policy initiative should be undertaken to limit the total number of credit cards and/or the total amount of credits limit a consumer may have. For example, consumers' maximum credit card limit (on all cards combined) should not exceed their reported income.

Personal factors include personality traits (e.g., materialism, self-esteem, mood disorder, depression, compulsive hoarding, impulse control disorders, ability to fantasize, arousal, perfectionism, impulsiveness, excitement seeking, approval seeking, and general compulsiveness) and demographics (e.g., gender, socioeconomic status). Examples of social and cultural factors include social/family environment and learned consumption habits from childhood, socio-oriented family communication patterns, learned saving and spending, the commercial environment and advertising activities, and culture (western versus Asian).

The managerial and policy implications of this integrated model of shopping well-being and ill-being are important. In order to increase consumer's experiences leading to shopping well-being, retailers could help consumers enhance their shopping efficacy and involvement by providing additional information to make them "better" shoppers (shopping for the highest quality brand at the lowest price). Retailers could make the shopping experience more pleasant and convenient. In addition, retailers could make a concerted effort to reduce consumer experiences leading to shopping ill-being through programs that may ameliorate compulsive shopping.

In sum, retailer could use this research to develop marketing programs to increase shopping well-being and decrease shopping ill-being. Public policy officials could also develop specific policies to encourage retailers to develop programs to increase shopping well-being and decrease shopping ill-being. The research findings as summarized in this chapter should be highly instrumental in developing managerial and public policies to achieve these goals.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Bottom-Up Spillover: The notion of a satisfaction hierarchy, and that positive and negative affect spill over from concrete events to life domains (e.g., shopping life, work life, leisure life, family life, social life, love life) to overall life.

Compulsive Buying: The consumers' tendency to be preoccupied with buying manifested through repetitive buying and lack of impulse control in shopping.

Hedonic Enjoyment in Shopping: The degree to which shopping experiences are associated with increased positive emotions and decreased negative emotions.

Life Satisfaction: A global assessment of a person's quality of life.

Materialism: People who are materialistic place much value of the material life compared to other life domains such as family life, work life, community life, and spiritual life.

Self-Expressiveness in Shopping: The extent to which shopping activities help the shopper express his or her own social identity.

Shopping Ill-Being: The degree to which consumers experience overspending of time, energy, and money in their shopping.

Shopping Well-Being: The degree to which consumers experience hedonic enjoyment and satisfaction of self-expressive needs through shopping activities.