
**HEDONIC AND UTILITARIAN SHOPPING
MOTIVATIONS AMONG SOUTH AFRICAN
BLACK GENERATION Y STUDENTS**

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Vanderbijlpark

November 2013

DECLARATION

I declare that:

“HEDONIC AND UTILITARIAN SHOPPING MOTIVATIONS AMONG SOUTH AFRICAN BLACK GENERATION Y STUDENTS”

is my own work, that all the sources used or quoted have been identified and acknowledged by means of complete references, and that this dissertation has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at any other university.

R.C. Zeeman

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LETTER FROM THE LANGUAGE EDITOR

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To whom it may concern

This is to confirm that I, the undersigned, have language edited the completed research of R.C. Zeeman for the Master of Commerce thesis entitled: *Hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations among South African black Generation Y students*.

The responsibility of implementing the recommended language changes rests with the author of the thesis.

Yours truly,

Linda Scott

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ABSTRACT

HEDONIC AND UTILITARIAN SHOPPING MOTIVATIONS AMONG SOUTH AFRICAN BLACK GENERATION Y STUDENTS

KEY WORDS: shopping experience, shopping motivations, hedonic motivation, utilitarian motivation, black Generation Y, South Africa.

With the South African retail industry being a major and attractive industry, marketers and retailers are pressured to obtain and maintain a competitive advantage by developing marketing strategies that appeal to various consumers. Retailers need to focus on satisfying consumers' needs, as well as offering a full shopping experience. Shopping entails more than the mere selection of products. Consumers' motivation or driving force behind the act of shopping is embedded in satisfying internal needs. These motivations are grouped into two collections, namely hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations. Consumers driven by hedonic shopping motivations are interested in the shopping experience, as well as the experiential and emotional aspects thereof. However, consumers driven by utilitarian shopping motivations are goal-oriented and concerned with the task-related value and the functional aspects of shopping. Marketers and retailers may use consumer-shopping motives to divide the market into segments and develop strategies to target specific segments.

Published literature on the consumer behaviour of the South African black Generation Y cohort is limited and an absence occurs with reference to the shopping motivations of this cohort. In the South African context, individuals born between 1986 and 2005, labelled Generation Y, account for 38 percent of the total South African population, and the black Generation Y individuals represent 83 percent of the total Generation Y cohort. Individuals within the black Generation Y cohort attaining tertiary qualifications are likely to represent the future 'Black Diamonds', enjoying higher earnings and a higher social status, which together is likely to make them opinion leaders amongst their peers. For that reason, the black Generation Y student cohort is an exceptionally attractive market segment, and it is critical for retailers and marketers to understand their shopping behaviour and motivations in order to develop effective marketing strategies.

The purpose of this study was to determine South African black Generation Y students' utilitarian and hedonic shopping motivations.

The target population of this study comprised full-time undergraduate black Generation Y students; aged between 18 and 24 years and enrolled at South African registered public higher education institutions (HEIs). The sampling frame comprised the 23 registered South African public HEIs. A non-probability judgement sample method was utilised to select one traditional university and one university of technology in the Gauteng province, from the sampling frame. For this study, a convenience sample of 600 black Generation Y students enrolled at these two South African HEIs during 2013 was drawn. The relevant primary data was obtained by means of a self-administered questionnaire, which was hand delivered to the contacted lecturers at each of these two HEIs. These lecturers distributed the self-administered questionnaire during one lecture period. This questionnaire requested the participants to indicate on a six-point Likert scale the level of their agreement or disagreement on 26 items designed to measure their utilitarian and hedonic shopping motivations, as well as to provide certain demographic data.

The findings of this study indicate that within the hedonic subscale, black Generation Y students found value and adventure shopping to be the strongest motivators for shopping. Within the utilitarian subscale, black Generation Y students found achievement to be the strongest motivator for shopping. Previous research found gender to have an influence on the hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations of consumers. This study confirms previous findings where statistically significant differences were found between the shopping motivations of male and female black Generation Y students. The study found significant differences concerning the first-, second- and third-year black Generation Y students' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations.

Insights gained from this study will help both marketers and retailers understand the current black Generation Y consumers' motivations for shopping with reference to hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations.

OPSOMMING

MOTIVERINGS VIR HEDONISTIESE EN NUTTIGHEIDSINKOPIES ONDER SWART SUID-AFRIKAANSE GENERASIE Y-STUDENTE

SLEUTELWOORDE: inkopie-ervaring, inkopiemotiverings, hedonistiese motivering, nuttigheidsmotivering, swart Generasie Y, Suid-Afrika.

Met die Suid-Afrikaanse kleinhandelbedryf wat 'n belangrike en aanloklike bedryf is, verkeer bemarkers en kleinhandelaars onder druk om 'n mededingingsvoordeel te verkry deur bemarkingstrategieë te ontwikkel wat vir verskillende soorte verbruikers aanloklik sal wees. Kleinhandelaars moet daarop fokus om verbruikers se behoeftes te bevredig asook om hulle 'n volledige inkopie-ervaring te bied. Inkopies behels meer as die blote uitkies van produkte. Verbruikers se motivering of dryfveer agter die handeling van inkopiesdoen is daarin geleë om interne behoeftes te bevredig. Hierdie motiverings word in twee versamelings gegroepeer, naamlik hedonistiese of genotsugtige en nuttigheidsinkopiemotiverings. Verbruikers wat deur hedonistiese inkopiemotiverings aangevuur word, stel in die inkopie-ervaring asook die ervarings- en emosionele aspekte daarvan belang. Verbruikers wat egter deur nuttigheidsinkopiemotiverings aangevuur word, is doelwitgeoriënteerd en begaan oor die taakverwante waarde en die funksionele aspekte van inkopies. Bemarkers en kleinhandelaars kan verbruiker-inkopiemotiewe gebruik om die mark in segmente te verdeel en strategieë te ontwikkel om spesifieke segmente te teiken.

Gepubliseerde literatuur oor die verbruikersgedrag van die swart Suid-Afrikaanse Generasie Y-groep is beperk en daar is 'n tekort aan verwysings na die inkopiemotiverings van hierdie groep. In die Suid-Afrikaanse konteks staan mense wat tussen 1986 en 2005 gebore is, as “Generasie Y” bekend. Hulle vorm 38 persent van die totale Suid-Afrikaanse bevolking en hierdie swart Generasie Y-individue verteenwoordig 83 persent van die totale Generasie Y-groep. Individue binne die swart Generasie Y-groep wat tersiêre kwalifikasies verwerf, sal waarskynlik die toekomstige ‘Swart Diamante’ verteenwoordig wat meer inkomste verdien en 'n hoër sosiale status geniet. Hierdie twee dinge sal gesamentlik waarskynlik van hulle die meningsvormers onder hul tydgenote maak. Om daardie rede is die swart Generasie Y-studentegroep 'n buitengewoon aantreklike marksegment. Dit is uiters belangrik

dat kleinhandelaars en bemarkers hul inkopiegedrag en -motiverings moet verstaan ten einde doeltreffende bemarkingstrategieë te ontwikkel.

Die doel van hierdie studie was om swart Suid-Afrikaanse Generasie Y-studente se motivering vir nuttigheids- en hedonistiese inkopies te bepaal.

Die teikenpopulasie van hierdie studie het uit voltydse voorgraadse swart Generasie Y-studente tussen die ouderdom van 18 en 24 bestaan wat by Suid-Afrikaans geregistreerde openbare hoërondewysinstellings (HOI's) ingeskryf is. Die monsterraamwerk het uit die 23 geregistreerde Suid-Afrikaanse openbare HOI's bestaan. 'n Nie-waarskynlike monsternemingsmetode is gebruik om een tradisionele universiteit en een universiteit van tegnologie in die Gauteng-provinsie uit die monsterraamwerk te kies. 'n Groep van 600 swart Generasie Y-studente wat gedurende 2013 aan hierdie twee Suid-Afrikaanse HOI's ingeskryf is, is getrek. Die relevante primêre data is deur middel van 'n vraelys verkry wat per hand aan die dosente by elk van hierdie twee HOI's afgelewer is en wat die studente self ingevul het. Hierdie dosente het die vraelys tydens een lesing uitgedeel. Hierdie vraelys het die deelnemers versoek om die vlak van hul instemming of verskil met 26 items op 'n sespunt-Likertskaal aan te dui. Dit is ontwerp om hul nuttigheids- en hedonistiese inkopiemotiverings te meet asook om sekere demografiese data te verskaf.

Die bevindinge van hierdie studie dui aan dat waarde- en avontuurinkopies vir swart Generasie Y-studente binne die hedonistiese subskaal die sterkste motiveerders was om inkopies te doen. Binne die nuttigheidssubskaal was prestasie vir swart Generasie Y-studente die sterkste motiveerder om inkopies te doen. Vorige navorsing het bevind dat geslag 'n invloed op verbruikers se hedonistiese en nuttigheidsinkopiemotiverings het. Hierdie studie bevestig vorige bevindinge wat statisties beduidende verskille tussen manlike en vroulike swart Generasie Y-studente se inkopiemotiverings aangetoon het. Die studie het belangrike verskille aangedui ten opsigte van eerste-, tweede- en derdejaar- swart Generasie Y-studente se motiverings vir hedonistiese en nuttigheidsinkopies.

Insigte wat uit hierdie studie voortgespruit het, sal bemarkers en kleinhandelaars help om die huidige swart Generasie Y-verbruikers se motiverings vir inkopies met verwysing na motiverings vir hedonistiese en nuttigheidsinkopies te verstaan.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Within the sub-Saharan region, the South African retail industry is considered as one of the major retail industries, demonstrating attractive growth opportunities and benefiting from high public spending (Market Research, 2011). The retail industry has experienced significant changes due to various reasons such as retailers offering discounts more frequently, the proliferation of lifestyle retailing formats, as well the use of the Internet as a retail platform (Terblanche, 2013:19). These changes in the industry resulted in consumers having a greater diversity of products and lifestyle choices (Bakewell & Mitchell, 2003:95) and retailers being pressured to implement more entertainment-based activities within the retail environment in order to remain competitive (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003:77).

In addition, brick-and-mortar retailers are responding to the threat of Internet shopping by providing well-trained staff and offering a retail environment that is fun and entertaining, which is not possible on the Internet (Hemalatha & Ravichandran, 2009:170). Frequently, brick-and-mortar retailers also benefit from using sensory stimulation, for example providing consumers with the opportunity to handle the merchandise, listen to background music and smell scents (Jamal *et al.*, 2006:68). According to Kim (2006:58), retailers that tend to focus on implementing strategies based on satisfying the practical and functional needs of the consumers often lack realising the potential of adding the fun element and offering the full shopping experience. Therefore, Michon *et al.* (2007:490) emphasise that shopping entails more than just the product it also involves the experience.

Shopping is an important part of consumers' lives, and it is constantly evolving due to their changing needs (Cardoso & Pinto, 2010:538). Shopping occurs because of different reasons such as when the consumer has a need for a particular product or service, when the consumer seeks attention, when the consumer has free time or wants to spend time with his/her peers (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003:78). Terblanche (2013:51)

concur, stating that consumers shop for reasons other than merely buying; that is, personal and social motives also drive them. Shopping motivations, which are embedded in the consumer's internal needs, are the driving force behind the act of shopping to satisfy those needs (Jin & Kim, 2003:399).

Motivations can be classified in two ways, namely hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations (Cardoso & Pinto, 2010:538). Utilitarian products, such as food and clothes, are products categorised as necessities (Strahilevitz & Myers, 1998:436) and utilitarian shopping is functional, goal-orientated and associated with the task-related value of the shopping experience (Jamal *et al.*, 2006:69), as it refers to routinised shopping (Cardoso & Pinto, 2010:542). Kempf (1999:38) indicates that hedonic products, such as movies or books, are those consumed primarily for effective or sensory gratification purposes. Hedonic shopping is linked to the satisfaction of a consumer's desire and is regarded as experiential, emotional and related to the shopping experience itself rather than to the product (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982:92). According to To *et al.* (2007:775), consumers' utilitarian and hedonic shopping motivations significantly predict and influence their behaviour and are therefore of great importance for retailers and marketers to understand. Hedonic motivations have a direct influence on the consumers' intention to seek products and/or services, as well as an indirect influence on their intention to purchase. In contrast, utilitarian motivations may be used to predict the consumers' intention to seek a product and/or service, as well as their purchase intention.

Arnold and Reynolds (2003:80) investigated hedonic reasons why consumers shop and found six broad categories that motivate shopping, namely adventure, social, gratification, idea, role and value motives. Adventure shopping describes shopping that involves a consumer experiencing various sights, sounds and smells, in other words shopping for fun and excitement (Kim, 2006:58). Social shopping involves interacting with family, friends or individuals who share the same interests (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003:80). Gratification shopping refers to shopping that generates a positive feeling, or shopping that promotes relaxation (Kim, 2006:58), and idea shopping comprises shopping to gather information and to identify trends and innovations (Cardoso & Pinto, 2010:542). According to Arnold and Reynolds (2003:80), role shopping is associated with the satisfaction of shopping, not for

oneself but rather for others, and value shopping relates to discount shopping or bargain hunting, with shoppers seeking sales or low prices. Furthermore, research done by Kim (2006:63) found two categories of utilitarian shopping motivation, which are efficiency and achievement. Efficiency refers to the consumers' need to save time and resources, and achievement refers to the consumer shopping to achieve a specific goal, where success only occurs upon finding a specific product, planned for at the outset of the shopping trip (Kim, 2006:58).

Consumer shopping motives are important to retailers and marketers, as they may be utilised for marketing activities such as in dividing the market into segments and developing strategies targeted at specific segments (Westbrook & Black, 1985:78; Bloch *et al.*, 1994:23). Terblanche (2013:54) concur, stating that consumers' attitudes towards shopping influence their behaviour as shoppers and, therefore, require close attention from retailers and marketers. Morrison *et al.* (2011:559) advocate that providing a unique shopping environment has a significant effect on the consumer's emotions, behaviour, and tendency to purchase, which in turn will have a direct influence on the consumers' shopping motivations. The value the consumer attaches to the total shopping experience will serve as a motivation or demotivation for future shopping (Jamal *et al.*, 2006:68). To *et al.* (2007:775) state that the categorisation of the hedonic and utilitarian motivations can lead to the optimisation of the benefits gained from the retail marketing strategy.

According to the 2013 mid-year population estimates in South Africa, Generation Y accounts for 38 percent of the total South African population, where the African segment of this cohort account for 83 percent of the total Generation Y cohort (Statistics South Africa, 2013). Individuals born between 1986 and 2005 are classified as Generation Y (Markert, 2004:21) and are also known as millennials, echo-boomers or the next generation. Compared to previous generations, Generation Y is more technologically minded as well as street-smart (Cant *et al.*, 2009:53). Black Generation Y members pursuing a tertiary qualification have a higher future earning potential, which is likely to lead to a higher level of consumption, making this an attractive marketing segment to target (Bevan-Dye, 2013:158). According to the Mzinyathi (2012), the average monthly spending of a student is R3 268. This calculates to an annual spending of R39 216 per student, which constitutes a ten

percent increase from 2010. Therefore, due to the size of the South African student population, comprising approximately 850 000 students, including their vast spending power; this is an attractive market segment for marketers and retailers to target (Mzinyathi, 2012). In order to ensure growth and profitability, retailers should concentrate on understanding the Generation Y cohort, and effectively communicating products and services to this target market (Ruzane, 2010:3). Owing to the black Generation Y cohort being such an attractive target segment, it is critical for retailers to understand them, including their hedonic and utilitarian shopping motives, as this will help guide the more effective design of marketing strategies.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Research on hedonic and utilitarian motivations has increased over the past few decades (Cardoso & Pinto, 2010; Jamal *et al.*, 2006; Kim, 2006; Ozen & Kodaz, 2012; To *et al.*, 2007) because of an increased recognition of the importance of understanding consumer shopping motivations (To *et al.*, 2007:776). Babin *et al.* (1994:644) advocate that within the retail industry, it is imperative for retailers and marketers to understand the motivations behind shopping, in order to target a market successfully.

Determining target markets' shopping motivations are critical, as they differ from culture, economic and social factors and, therefore, cannot be generalised (Jin & Kim, 2003:397; Ozen & Kodaz, 2012:82). Furthermore, determining differences between female and male consumers' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations is important because the studies show these differ significantly (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003:90; Babin *et al.*, 1994:647). Bakewell and Mitchell (2003:95) concur, stating that gender is fundamental to understanding and predicting consumers' shopping behaviour. The investigation of these differences and identifying shopper categories will assist in improving and developing effective marketing strategies. Although a study on decision-making styles has been undertaken in South Africa (Radder *et al.*, 2006), it did not focus on shopping motivations, which is crucial for market segmentation and the developing of appropriate marketing strategies.

Similar studies have been conducted in other countries (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Cardoso & Pinto, 2010; Jamal *et al.*, 2006; Kim, 2006; Ozen & Kodaz, 2012; To *et*

al., 2007). However, with the black Generation Y student market segment being extremely attractive, research is required to determine South African black Generation Y students' utilitarian and hedonic shopping motivations. The aim of this study is to measure black Generation Y students' utilitarian and hedonic shopping motivations for the purpose of categorising possible shopper groups and developing different marketing strategies to target this market effectively. The results obtained from this study will assist retailers and marketers in targeting the black Generation Y student cohort more effectively and efficiently.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following objectives were formulated for the study:

1.3.1 Primary objective

The primary objective of this study was to analyse black Generation Y students' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations within the South African context in order to develop marketing strategies for effectively targeting this market.

1.3.2 Theoretical objectives

In order to achieve the primary objective, the following theoretical objectives were formulated for the study:

- Outline the fundamental principles of consumer motivation
- Review the literature on the dynamics and the measurement of consumer motivation
- Review the literature on consumers' hedonic and utilitarian motivations for shopping
- Conduct a review of the literature pertaining to the Generation Y cohort.

1.3.3 Empirical objectives

In accordance with the primary objective of the study, the following empirical objectives were formulated:

- Investigate black Generation Y students' hedonic motivations for shopping

- Investigate black Generation Y students' utilitarian motivations for shopping
- Determine if there is a gender difference concerning black Generation Y students' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations.
- Determine whether black Generation Y students' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations differ according to their level of study (first-, second- and third-year).

1.4 HYPOTHESES

A hypothesis is a statement employed to make an assumption pertaining to the relevant population (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:401). The following six hypotheses were formulated for the study:

Ho1: Black Generation Y students do not exhibit significant positive hedonic shopping motivations

Ha1: Black Generation Y students do exhibit significant positive hedonic shopping motivations

Ho2: Black Generation Y students do not exhibit significant positive utilitarian shopping motivations

Ha2: Black Generation Y students do exhibit significant positive utilitarian shopping motivations

Ho3: There is no difference between male and female black Generation Y students' hedonic shopping motivations including (a) gratification shopping, (b) adventure shopping, (c) idea shopping, (d) social shopping, (e) role shopping, and (f) value shopping

Ha3: There is a difference between male and female black Generation Y students' hedonic shopping motivations including (a) gratification shopping, (b) adventure shopping, (c) idea shopping, (d) social shopping, (e) role shopping, and (f) value shopping

Ho4: There is no difference between male and female black Generation Y students' utilitarian shopping motivations, including (a) achievement, and (b) efficiency

- Ha4:* There is a difference between male and female black Generation Y students' utilitarian shopping motivations, including (a) achievement, and (b) efficiency
- Ho5:* There is no difference concerning first-, second- and third-year black Generation Y students' hedonic shopping motivations
- Ha5:* There is a difference concerning first-, second- and third-year black Generation Y students' hedonic shopping motivations
- Ho6:* There is no difference concerning first-, second- and third-year black Generation Y students' utilitarian shopping motivations
- Ha6:* There is a difference concerning first-, second- and third-year black Generation Y students' utilitarian shopping motivations.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The study comprised a literature review and an empirical study. Quantitative research, using the survey method, was applied for the empirical portion of the study.

1.5.1 Literature review

Secondary data sources were used to support the empirical study by reviewing South African and international literature, including relevant textbooks, journal articles, business articles, academic journals, newspaper articles, the Internet, and online academic databases.

1.5.2 Empirical study

The empirical portion of this study comprises the following methodology dimensions:

1.5.2.1 Target population

The target population for this study are full-time black Generation Y undergraduate students, between the ages of 18 and 24, registered at South African higher education institutions (HEIs). The target population is defined as follows:

- Element: Black Generation Y full-time undergraduate students

- Sampling unit: Two HEIs
- Extent: Gauteng, South Africa
- Period: 2013

1.5.2.2 Sampling frame

The sampling frame comprised 23 registered South African public HEIs, as listed by the Higher Education in South Africa (Higher Education in South Africa, 2013). A judgement sample of two HEI campuses situated in the Gauteng province were selected from the sampling frame – one a traditional university and the other a university of technology. The Gauteng province was chosen as the main sample of this study as it contains the largest share of the South African population. Full-time undergraduate black Generation Y students enrolled at the two HEIs were selected through convenience sampling.

1.5.2.3 Sample method

A non-probability, convenience sample of black Generation Y undergraduate students, between the ages of 18 and 24, was drawn in order to conduct this study. A structured format was applied, whereby lecturers of the appropriate classes were contacted and permission was requested from them to carry out the survey. The lecturers were informed that the questionnaire is to be completed on a voluntary basis only and that no student is to be forced into completing the questionnaire. Thereafter, the full-time black Generation Y undergraduate students were requested, during the scheduled class times, to complete the self-administered questionnaires, which were collected thereafter.

1.5.2.4 Sample size

In accordance with studies conducted by Sands *et al.* (2009) (sample size of 488), Morschett *et al.* (2005) (sample size of 560) and Guido (2006) (sample size of 600), a sample size of 600 full-time undergraduate Generation Y students was considered sufficiently large. For the purpose of representation, this sample size of 600 full-time undergraduate black Generation Y students was split equally between the two selected HEIs, thereby allowing a sample size of 300 full-time undergraduates per HEI.

Thereafter, an attempt was made to obtain an equally split balance between the full-time black Generation Y undergraduate males, and their female counterparts.

1.5.2.5 Measuring instrument and data collection method

A structured self-administered questionnaire was utilised to gather the required data for this study. In order to measure the hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations among South African black Generation Y students, Cardoso and Pinto's (2010) hedonic and utilitarian motivations scale, comprising a hedonic shopping motivations sub-scale and a utilitarian motivations sub-scale, was utilised for the empirical portion of the study. These researchers adapted this scale from Arnold and Reynolds's (2003) hedonic shopping motivation scale, and Kim's (2006) utilitarian shopping motivations scale.

The participants were requested to complete a questionnaire consisting of two sections. The first section (Section A) gathered the participant's demographic data. The second section (Section B) included the items pertaining to hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations, comprising two sub-scales. The 20-item sub-scale measuring hedonic motivations comprised six dimensions, namely adventure shopping (3 items), gratification shopping (3 items), role shopping (3 items), value shopping (4 items), social shopping (4 items), and idea shopping (3 items). The six-item sub-scale measuring the utilitarian motivations included the following dimensions, achievement (4 items), and efficiency (2 items). The students' motivations were measured on a six-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree to 6= strongly agree) based on the participants agreement or disagreement to the statements pertaining shopping motivations.

The questionnaire included a cover letter describing the nature and purpose of the study and requesting participation. In order to ensure reliability, the questionnaire was piloted on a convenience sample of 45 students on a South African HEI campus that did not form part of the sampling frame. The results of the pilot test were coded and tabulated accordingly, and the results were considered when adopting the final questionnaire.

1.5.3 Statistical analysis

The captured data was analysed using the statistical package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 21 for Windows. The following statistical methods were used on the empirical data sets:

- Reliability and validity analysis
- Descriptive analysis
- Significance tests

1.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The research study complied with the ethical standards of academic research, which among other things protect the identities and interest of participants, and guaranteed confidentiality of the information provided by the participants. The participation was voluntary, assuring that no individual person or institution was forced to participate against his or her own will.

1.7 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

Chapter 2 of this study provides an in-depth review of the consumer shopping motivations literature, and the fundamental principles of consumer behaviour. The literature on the shopping motivations of consumers and their consumption values is analysed and discussed. A literature review pertaining to consumers' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations is presented in this chapter. In addition, this chapter provides a brief discussion on the target audience of this study, namely the Generation Y cohort.

Chapter 3 is concerned with the research design and methodology applied in this study. This chapter includes a discussion on the target population, sampling method, sample frame, the measuring instrument and the method applied to collect the data. The data analysis and statistical procedures employed in this study are also discussed.

Chapter 4 presents the reported results from the empirical study. The research findings are analysed, interpreted and evaluated in this chapter. Moreover, the results of the

statistical analysis procedures that were applied to conduct the analysis on the data sets are reported on.

Chapter 5 provides a review of the entire research study and presents the conclusions drawn from the study. The chapter presents recommendations derived from the study and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2

CONSUMER SHOPPING MOTIVATIONS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Evans *et al.* (2009:3), an understanding of what a consumer wants and needs forms part of the foundation of the marketing concept. Hoyer *et al.* (2013:14-15) indicate that research pertaining to consumer behaviour, assists marketers and retailers with understanding what consumers value most, thereby influencing the development of marketing strategies for market segmentation, targeting and positioning, including developing product-specific plans and making decisions pertaining to the marketing mix elements. Blythe (2008:9) and Solomon (2013:33) opine that the development of a successful and effective marketing plan is dependent on having an in-depth understanding of consumers' behaviour and; therefore, critical to marketers. Owing to retailers, manufacturers and service providers being dependant on the consumer's continuous support for insuring long-term profit and success, consumers' acceptance is of paramount importance (Wright, 2006:3). Therefore, understanding consumers and their behaviour is central to developing and implementing marketing strategies successfully. Section 2.2 provides an overview of consumer behaviour. Section 2.3 is concerned with consumer motivation. In Section 2.4, the focus is on shopping values. Section 2.5 and Section 2.6 contain discussions on hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations, respectively. Lastly, Section 2.7 is concerned with the target market of this study, namely Generation Y.

2.2 INTRODUCTION TO CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

This section presents a background on consumer behaviour, which lays the foundation for a discussion on consumer motivation. Given that this study is concerned with consumer motivation, which is a psychological driver of consumer behaviour (Blythe, 2008:19), it is important to define consumer behaviour and describe the consumer decision-making process. The discussion on consumer motivation will follow this section.

2.2.1 Defining consumer behaviour

Schiffman *et al.* (2010:23) define consumer behaviour as the behaviour that consumers demonstrate in “searching for, purchasing, using, evaluating, and disposing of products and services” to satisfy their needs. Erasmus (2013:12) concurs, stating that consumer behaviour encompasses a variety of mental and physical processes associated with consumer decision-making. Consumer behaviour focuses on how consumers spend their available resources, such as time, money and effort, in obtaining products and services (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:23). Quester *et al.* (2011:6) state that consumer behaviour is the understanding of the consumers’ buying behaviour, relating to why and how the consumer purchases a product or service.

Consumer behaviour differs in terms of the nature and dynamics thereof (Arnould *et al.*, 2004:23). Consumers’ actual behaviour forms when personal and environmental factors affect their thoughts, emotions and intended behaviour (Blythe, 2008:7-8). Hoyer *et al.* (2013:10) indicate that consumer behaviour is influenced by various elements, which are grouped into four broad areas, namely the consumer’s culture, relating to an individual’s beliefs, values and customers; psychological core, relating to the inner or intrinsic characteristics of the individual consumer, the decision-making process and the consumer behaviour outcomes and issues.

Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013:6) state that consumer behaviour encompasses the behaviour of individuals, groups or organisations, and in order to completely understand consumer behaviour, an understanding of the processes involved when selecting, purchasing, consuming and disposing of products and services to satisfy their needs and wants are essential. Consumer behaviour is a continuous process, also referred to as the consumption process, consisting of three stages, namely the pre-purchase, purchase and post-purchase stages (Solomon, 2013:32). Understanding the consumer decision-making process provides valuable insight for marketers and retailers into consumers’ behaviour; more importantly to this study, it provides insight into the value of consumer motivation in consumer behaviour.

2.2.2 The consumer decision-making process

Consumer decision-making involves the consumers’ behaviour patterns that lead, determine and follow on the decision process for acquiring need-satisfying products,

services and ideas (Erasmus *et al.*, 2010:82). A consumer decision-making process represents the different stages a consumer experiences when making a decision. From the literature it is evident that various consumer decision-making models, referred to as flow charts of behavioural processes (Du Plessis *et al.*, 1991:18), have been developed, each comprising different stages that are formulated by making use of relevant concepts explaining the activities taking place in consumer decision-making (Botha *et al.*, 2013:326).

For the purpose of this study the simple model of consumer decision-making (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:483) is presented and discussed. As the literature suggests, this model is widely utilised (Noel, 2009:15; Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:483; Botha *et al.*, 2013:339). Schiffman *et al.* (2010:482-483) presents a model of consumer decision-making, offering a complete and integrative view of consumer decision-making by explaining how consumer choices are made, and representing both the rational and emotional consumer decision-making process. The model comprises three key components, namely the input stage, processes stage and the output stage (Botha *et al.*, 2013:337-338). The input stage refers to the external influences affecting the consumer's recognition of a product need. The transformation or process stage focuses on how consumers make decisions, which draws on the psychological factors inherent in each individual such as motivation, perception, learning, personality and attitudes. The output stage refers to the evaluation of the purchase by the consumer, resulting in consumer satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:485; Babin & Harris, 2013:288). Owing to consumer motivation being part of the internal influences in the process stage of consumer decision-making, it is imperative to discuss the abovementioned model for the purpose of this study. Figure 2.1 illustrates the representation of the decision-making process of a consumer compiled by Schiffman *et al.* (2010:483).

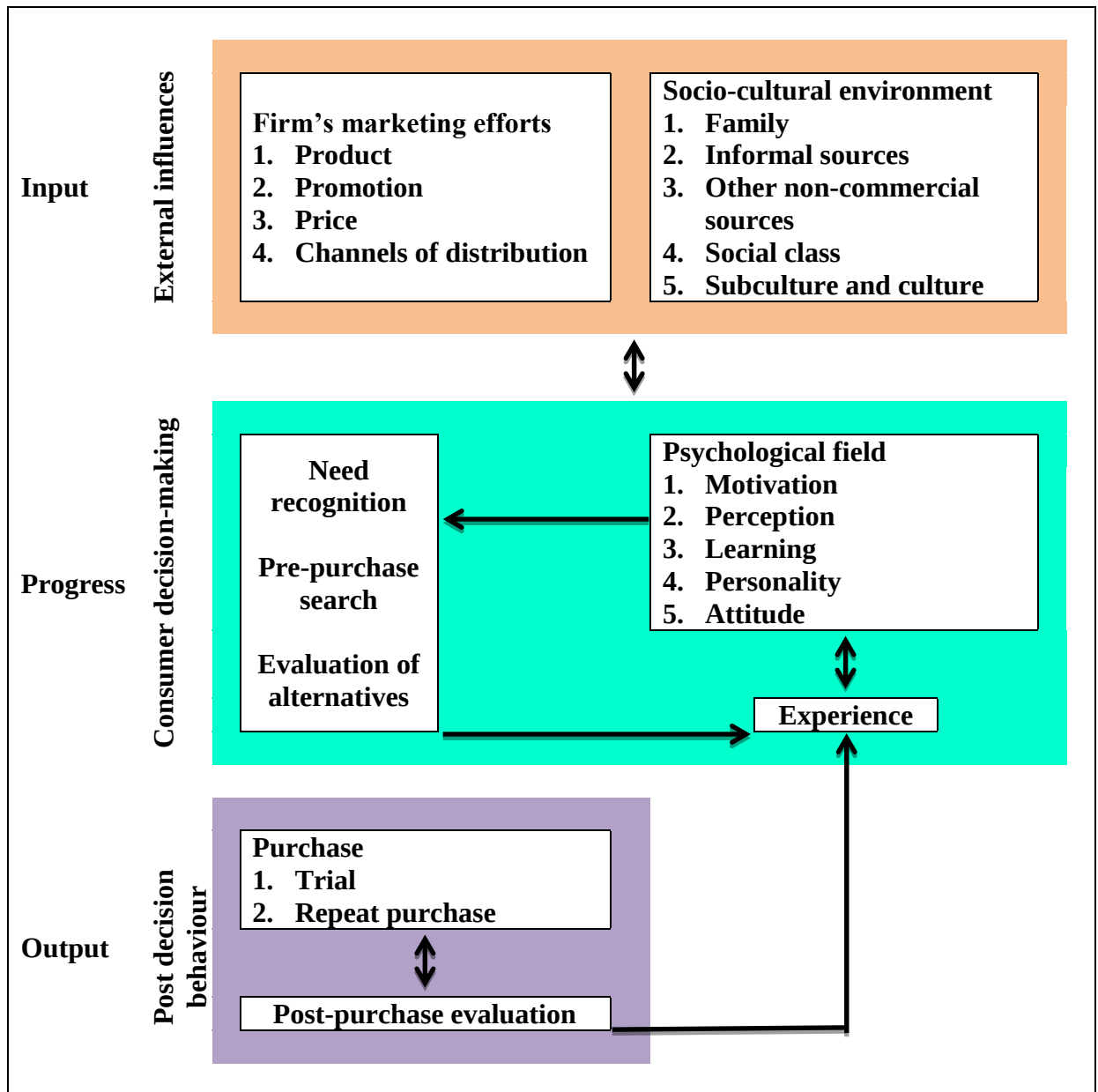


Figure 2.1: Consumer decision-making process (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:483)

The following section briefly outlines each of the three stages of the decision-making process.

- **Input stage**

The first stage of the consumer decision-making process, the input stage, is described as any external influences that provide information about a specific product or service to the consumer and thereby influence a consumer's product-related values, attitudes and behaviour (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:484). According to Assael (2004:32-33), external influences effecting consumer decision-making are divided into two

components, namely socio-cultural influences, and the company's marketing efforts. Schiffman *et al.* (2010:483-484) indicate that socio-cultural influences include influences from a broad spectrum of non-commercial influences such as family members and friends, including influences of social class, culture and subculture. Blackwell *et al.* (2006:74) concur, stating that consumers often obtain information on products or services from family members and peers. The company's marketing activities, which are a direct attempt to reach, inform, and persuade consumers to purchase and use their products, are inputs in the form of specific marketing mix strategies, namely the product, the promotion of the product, the pricing policy and the distribution channels (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:484).

- **Process stage**

The second stage, namely the process stage of the consumer decision-making process, involves the consumer's recognition of a problem or a need, the search for information and the evaluation of alternatives (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:489). Assael (2004:33) state that a consumer will only recognise a need or a problem once the consumer's current situation differs from the desired situation, or when faced with a problem. The search for information starts when the consumer recognises a need or problem and wants to find a solution to the problem and satisfy the need. Blackwell *et al.* (2006:74) suggest that the search for information begins internally, where consumers seek to obtain knowledge from past experiences. When this information is insufficient, external information such as marketing or non-commercial information is collected, which is referred to as the alternative evaluation process.

Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013:513) specify that the alternative evaluation process starts when a consumer considers a list of known brands or products, identified as the awareness set. The awareness set is evaluated against the unawareness set, which includes alternatives that are unfamiliar to the consumer (Quester *et al.*, 2011:99-100). According to Schiffman *et al.* (2010:488-489), the awareness set encompasses three subsections, namely the evoked set, the inert set and the inept set. The evoked set refers to the alternatives the consumer is aware of and willing to consider (Erasmus, 2013:21). The inert set comprises the alternatives the consumer is aware of but uninterested in due to these brands or products perceived as not having any specific

advantages. The inept set involves the alternatives the consumer dislikes and avoids as they are felt to be inferior (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:489).

Of specific importance to this study is that consumers' psychological field, referring to internal influences such as motivation, perception, learning, personality and attitudes, affect consumers' decision-making processes; therefore, requiring the marketer's attention (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:499). As such, an in-depth discussion on consumer motivation will follow this section.

- **Output stage**

The output stage is the final stage of the decision-making process and includes the consumer's purchase behaviour and post-purchase evaluation. Purchase behaviour refers to the types of purchases consumers render, namely trial purchases, repeat purchases and long-term commitment purchases. When rendering a trial purchase, a consumer purchases a small quantity in order to evaluate the product, whereas with repeat purchase behaviour the consumer approves of a product and is willing to purchase it repeatedly. Long-term commitment purchases occur when a consumer is committed to a specific brand, also known as being brand loyal (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:497). According to Blackwell *et al.* (2006:83), consumer satisfaction is determined during post-purchase evaluation. Therefore, for a consumer to be satisfied, the perceived performance should match or exceed the consumer's expectations, thereby increasing the probability of a repurchase. However, a consumer with unfulfilled expectations will avoid future or repeat purchases. Quester *et al.* (2011:191) warns that consumers can experience post-purchase dissonance, also known as cognitive dissonance, implying a consumer being uncertain of the product chosen from the evoked set of products, which often occurs when making an important or permanent purchase decision. Erasmus (2013:23) opines that although cognitive dissonance often occurs after purchasing a relatively expensive product such as a fridge, or a visually significant product such as a car, it is generally relieved shortly after a purchase. Assael (2004:45-46) advises that any negative information concerning a purchase made, may increase post-purchase dissonance; therefore, marketers should reduce any doubt or insecurities concerning the consumer's selection.

From the literature, it is evident that two main factors influence the behaviour of consumers, namely the consumer's psychological characteristics such as motivation, perception, learning, personality, and attitudes, as well as social factors, referring to the influences of other people. Pertaining to the psychological core of the consumer, motivation is of great importance in the decision-making process (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:10). According to Blackwell *et al.* (2006:289), understanding consumer motivation could answer as to why a consumer makes a purchase. Consumer motivation is a complex process that significantly influences consumer behaviour and; therefore, will be discussed next to denote the importance of consumer motivation in this study, which examines consumers' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations.

2.3 CONSUMER MOTIVATION

The previous section defined consumer behaviour and the consumer decision-making process was outlined, indicating how consumer decisions are made. A complete discussion on consumer motivation follows in the subsequent sub-sections, as in accordance with the main topic of this study.

The word 'motivation' originated from the Latin word *movere*, meaning to move. In order for marketers and retailers to influence consumer behaviour, it is important to understand what moves or motivate consumers (Botha *et al.*, 2013:36). Therefore, this sections presents a background on consumer motivation, whereby motivation is defined, an overview of the classic theories of motivation provided, the motivation process presented, and the dynamics of motivation and the important factors in motivation explored, due to their importance in consumer motivation.

2.3.1 Defining motivation

Motivation is the factors that influence the behaviour of humans (Botha *et al.*, 2013:36), and is a basic concept central to understanding consumer behaviour (Evans *et al.*, 2009:6; Watchravesringkan *et al.*, 2010:264). Philosophers have been challenged for centuries in determining the reasons and motivations for people's actions (Botha *et al.*, 2013:35). Over time, different views about motivation have emerged in the literature. Aristotle (384-322BC), the Greek philosopher, suggested that motivation is a movement that originates from envisioning the real or apparent

good in humans, thus inspiring people to avoid the negative and move towards the positive (Botha *et al.*, 2013:35).

Sharing the same views is Blythe (2008:19), who reported that a drive or a motive converts into a motivation when that drive is set on a specific target. Schiffman *et al.* (2010:106) define motivation as the internal energy that drives individuals to act a certain way. Hoyer *et al.* (2013:47) concur, stating that motivation encourages consumers to a mental state of interest in a product, service or activity. Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013:284) describes motivation as the force behind a consumer's behaviour, generated by the consumers' needs and interests. Quester *et al.* (2011:302) differentiates between a motivation and a motive, stating that a motivation is the reason for a consumer's behaviour, whereas a motive is an inner drive that inspires a behavioural reaction. According to Arnould *et al.* (2004:267), the foundation of motivation is formed by various theories that are fundamental in the discussion of consumer motivation. Therefore, the theories of motivation are discussed subsequently.

2.3.2 Theories of motivation

From the literature, there is evidence of the development of different theories of motivation affecting consumer behaviour, and these are valuable to include in the theoretical background of consumer motivation. Some of the theories of motivation considered important in the science of consumer behaviour include Freud's id, ego and super ego theory (1923), Murray's personality theory (1938), Jung's collective unconscious theory (1953) and Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1954) (Botha *et al.*, 2013:36). For the purpose of this study, a discussion on these theories follows.

2.3.2.1 Freud's theory

Arnould *et al.* (2004:267) state that Sigmund Freud's concept of drives theory is empirical to the discussion of consumer motivation. The founding father of psychoanalysis, Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) suggests that people are motivated to avoid pain and instead experience pleasurable effects (Botha *et al.*, 2013:35). According to Sigmund, the mind of the human is categorised into the conscious and unconscious (Arnould *et al.*, 2004:267). The unconscious needs and drives, shaping an individual's personality and motivation forms the basis of Freud's theory.

Schiffman *et al.* (2010:137-138) and Evans *et al.* (2009:15-17) documented that Freud's theory comprises three components, namely the unconscious mind, the superego and the ego, each interacting with one another.

The unconscious mind, also referred to as the id of an individual, consists of those physiological needs an individual wants to satisfy immediately, such as thirst and hunger. The superego, on the contrary, suppresses the id, and represents the ideas and values that society finds appropriate (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:492). Lastly, the ego according to Arnould *et al.* (2004:267-268), is the conscious mind of an individual and comprises the individual's emotions, thoughts, perceptions and memories. The ego is also the component that adds balance to the individual's life (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:137-138) encompassing the need to acquire self-esteem and be ambitious (Botha *et al.*, 2013:37). Botha *et al.* (2013:100) further suggests that marketers use Freud's theory to design products that appeal to all three components, namely the id, the ego and the superego.

2.3.2.2 Murray's theory

Contradictory to Freud's theory, Murray's theory of personality emphasises the motives derived from the consumers set out goals, rather than their internal motives (Arnould *et al.*, 2004:271). Blythe (2008:32-33), who describes Henry Murray's (1893-1988) theory as a summary of the major categories of human motives or needs, states that these categories were developed through Murray's clinical experience. The listed categories of human motives or needs are the foundation for various personality tests utilised in psychometrics, and are divided into two categories, namely biogenic and psychogenic needs (Solomon, 2013:102). According to Arnould *et al.* (2004:271), these human motives or needs include acquisition needs, order needs, retention needs and basic human needs. Murray's comprehensive list of motives is adaptable to different societies as it varies according to the ranking of every individual's needs. Furthermore, this theory is similar to the theories of Freud, Jung, and Maslow, as all of these theories pertain to motives derived from Western psychology. However, this theory differs from the other motivation theories, as it is culture-bound and therefore has to be adapted to be applicable to different cultures.

2.3.2.3 Jung's theory

Carl Jung's concept of archetypes is central to consumer behaviour (Arnould *et al.*, 2004:267). Jung (1875-1961) suggests that the past generations' experiences have an influence on the behaviour of the present generations (Solomon, 2013:242). According to Evans *et al.* (2009:22-23), Jung stated that the unconscious mind plays a significant role in the behaviour of an individual and is divided into two components, the personal unconscious and the collective unconscious. With the development of this theory, the only influence taken into consideration was the unconscious mind. This is contradictory to Freud's theory, which is based on the conscious and unconscious mind. Arnould *et al.* (2004:268) described the personal unconscious as a structure that clusters previously forgotten, repressed or disregarded experiences, and when similar impulses arise, these experiences become conscious again. However, the collective unconscious is described as a collection of the underlying memory traces that originated from the individual's past experience.

2.3.2.4 Maslow's theory

One of the most widespread theories of motivation used in marketing is that of Dr. Abraham Maslow (1954), who proposed a hierarchy of needs, expressed as a pyramid. This well-known theory, referred to as the Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, describes how human motivation relates to consumer behaviour (Botha *et al.*, 2013:36). Evidence from the literature suggests that Maslow's theory is the most accepted theory to utilise when focusing on consumer behaviour and consumer motivation (Arnould *et al.*, 2004:269-270; Evans *et al.*, 2009:11; Joubert, 2010:67; Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:116; Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:169; Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:353). Arnould *et al.* (2004:269-271) concur, stating that this theory is frequently used by marketers, as it is central in designing products and marketing campaigns. Therefore, because consumer motivation is central to this study, a detailed discussion on this theory is important. Figure 2.2 provides an illustration of Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:50).

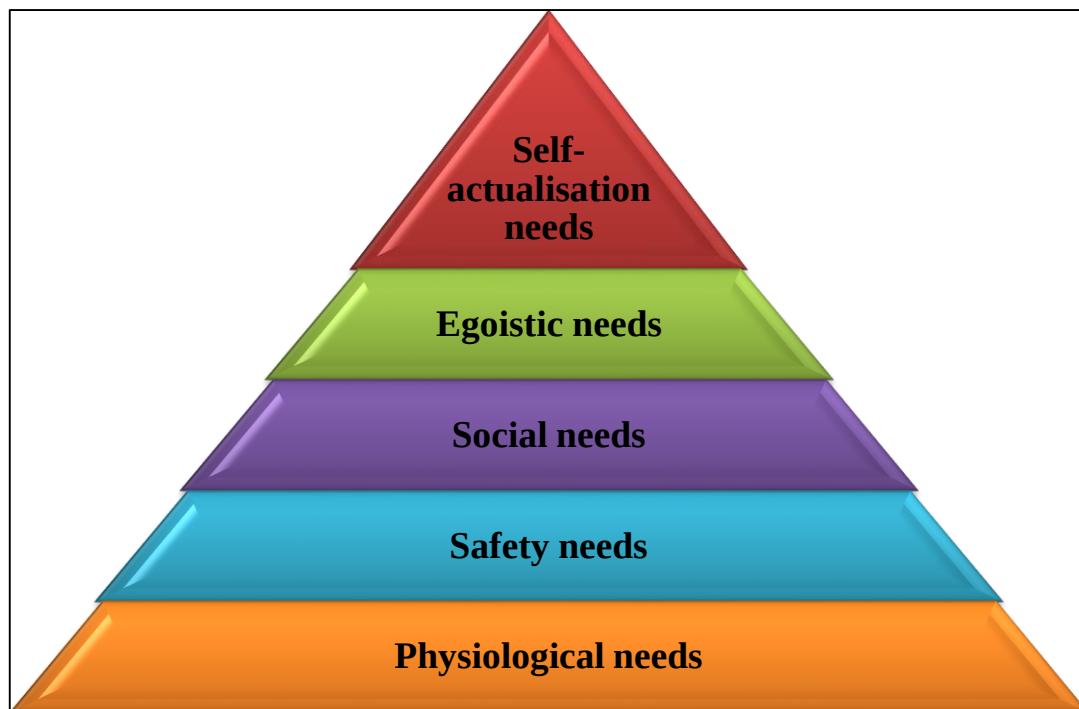


Figure 2.2: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:50)

Maslow explains that human motivation is based on five basic needs, namely physiological, safety, social, egoistic and self-actualisation. In addition, there are two levels, namely higher-order and lower-order needs, that differentiate people from other species. Higher-order needs, including individuals' physiological and safety needs, are controlled by lower-order needs, which include individuals' social, egoistic and self-actualisation needs; therefore, individuals will attempt to satisfy psychological needs first. The second level of needs an individual will attempt to satisfy is the need for safety and security, followed by social needs. Egoistic needs are the fourth level of needs in Maslow's hierarchy an individual will attempt to satisfy, and lastly, the level of self-actualisation needs (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:116-118; Quester *et al.*, 2011:303; Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:353; Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:50). The following section gives attention to Maslow's different levels of needs.

- **Physiological needs**

Evans *et al.* (2009:12) define physiological needs as the basic needs for survival, such as an individual's need for food, drink, sleep and shelter. These physiological needs relate to the biological functioning of the human body (Botha *et al.*, 2013:36).

Blackwell *et al.* (2006:290) describe physiological needs as being the most important need to satisfy, as satisfying these needs are necessary for survival (Blythe, 2008:36).

- **Safety needs**

The need for safety and security comprises the need for familiar environments, stability and control over an individual's life (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:117), including the need for both physical and physiological protection (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:353). The need for safety regarding the information on an individual's personal computer is the most recent addition to the safety needs level (Blythe, 2008:37). For satisfying safety needs, individuals could be interested in products such as residential and motor vehicle alarm systems, life insurance (Solomon, 2013:152), and smoke alarms and preventative medicine (Quester *et al.*, 2011:305). According to Blackwell *et al.* (2006:291), any devices produced to provide protection to an individual could attract consumers with the need for safety.

- **Social needs**

Social needs refer to the need to have relationships with other (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:50), and consist of love, acceptance, friendship, affection, relationships and a sense of belonging Schiffman *et al.* (2010:118). Humans are social beings (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:297) and therefore attempt to find companionship and loving relationships with others (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:118). Quester *et al.*, (2011:304) opine that for some individuals fulfilling social needs or being accepted in a social group is to a certain extent even more important than fulfilling physiological or safety needs. For consumers to satisfy social needs, relevant products include self-grooming items, various forms of entertainment and apparel (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:353).

- **Egoistic needs**

Egoistic needs, also known as esteem needs (Blythe, 2008:37), consist of status, prestige, self-esteem, superiority and accomplishment (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:49). According to Schiffman *et al.* (2010:118), egoistic needs can have an outward or inward sense of direction. While the classification of outward-directed ego needs is the recognition from other individuals, inward-directed ego needs are defined as an individual's feelings toward success and self-worth (Quester *et al.*, 2011:303).

Products pertaining to these needs include apparel, motor vehicles, furniture and hobbies (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:353; Solomon, 2013:152).

- **Need for self-actualisation**

Self-actualisation is the need to feel self-fulfilled and having elevating experiences (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:49). Botha *et al.* (2013:37) concurs, stating that this need level refers to being able to give back to society what a person learnt and experienced during his/her lifetime, while being creative and spontaneous. Different individuals satisfy the need for self-actualisation differently (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:119). According to Assael (2004:34), Maslow stated that very few individuals fulfil egoistic needs sufficiently to be able to move to the self-actualisation need level. Consumers with the need for self-actualisation could be interested in products such as education, hobbies, decadent foods and exclusive holidays (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:353; Quester *et al.*, 2011:305; Solomon, 2013:152).

From this hierarchy, it is evident that for a consumer to move to the next level of needs, their basic needs should be satisfied first (Assael, 2004:34). According to Schiffman *et al.* (2010:116), needs are never fully satisfied, and as such, an overlap between the levels may occur. However, higher-order needs will motivate consumers even though lower-order needs are still unsatisfied. Furthermore, Solomon (2013:153) indicates that one product or activity can satisfy various needs from different levels of the hierarchy. Hoyer *et al.* (2013:49) opine that Maslow's hierarchy does not measure the intensity of the need, and the effect thereof on motivation.

According to Schiffman *et al.* (2010:121), marketers can use Maslow's hierarchy as a basis to develop effective marketing strategies for the advertising of goods and services as well as to assist marketers with the design of products. Hoyer *et al.* (2013:57) add to this by stating that marketers use the consumer's needs when segmenting specific markets. The different levels of needs represented in the hierarchy can be used to advertise products and services to consumers with these various needs (Arnould *et al.*, 2004:271). Evans *et al.* (2009:12) concludes by declaring that Maslow has contributed a sufficient amount to the field of marketing with this hierarchy, as it reveals that needs are more than psychological necessities.

Against this background on the definition and theories of motivation, it is evident that the process of motivation, initiated by the tension created by an unsatisfied need (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:106), is central to consumer motivation; hence, it is important to marketers and retailers. Therefore, a discussion of the motivation process model follows.

2.3.3 Motivation process model

The motivation process describes the way in which consumers behave and relate to the factors causing the specific behaviour of consumers. The motivation process model portrays the steps consumers experience in becoming motivated (Solomon, 2013:98). Figure 2.3 presents the motivational process of a consumer.

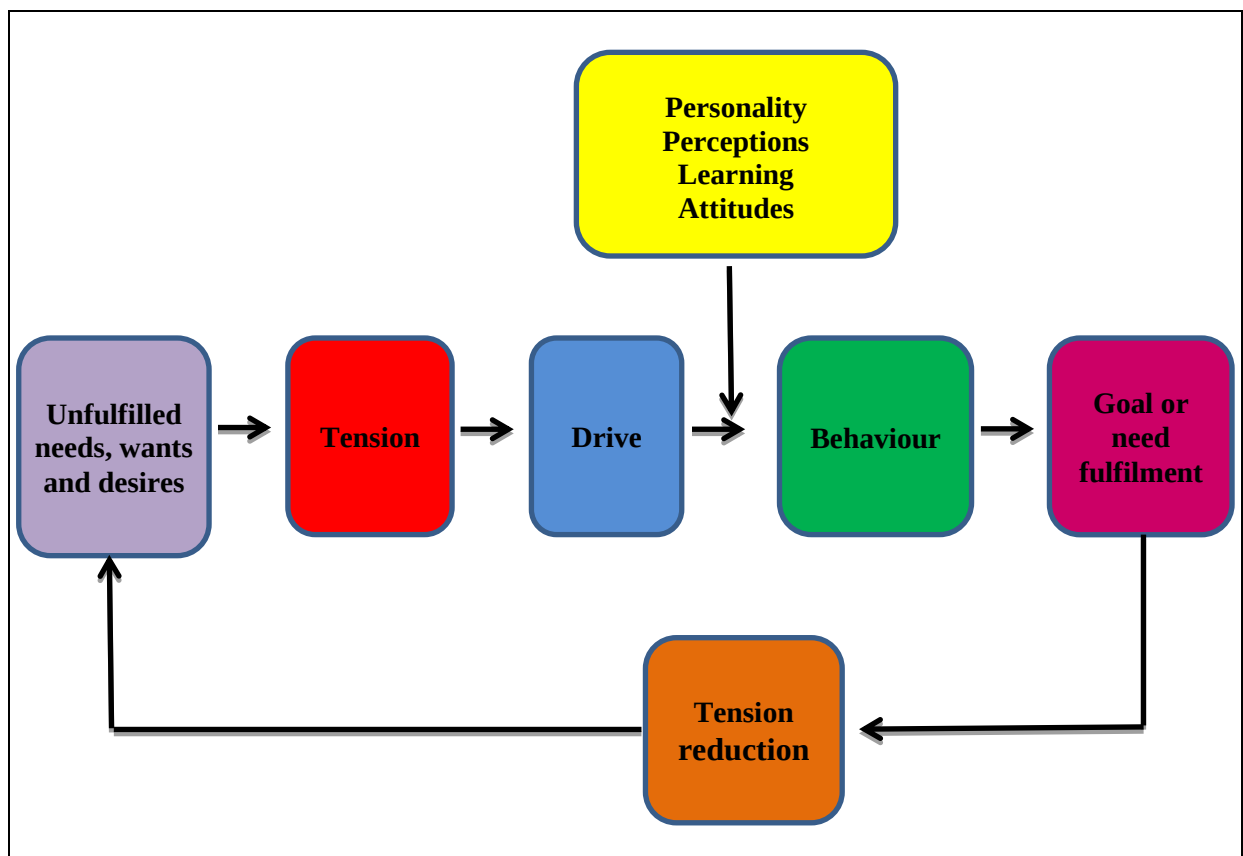


Figure 2.3: Model of the motivation process (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:107)

As illustrated in Figure 2.3, the motivation process starts with a consumer experiencing an aroused or unfulfilled need (want or desire), which forms the basis of the motivation process. Owing to this unfulfilled need, the consumer has to search for ideas on how to satisfy this need, resulting in tension, which in return causes the consumer to focus on satisfying the aroused need. Furthermore, the tension creates

drives and attitudes regarding the desired type of satisfaction, which leads to the consumer searching for information and evaluating the alternatives to satisfy the need, then choosing the best alternative. After selecting the best alternative, the consumer takes action, leading to a reduction of the tension by the consumer achieving a goal, and described as need fulfilment, whereby consumer satisfaction is achieved (Solomon, 2013:98). Schiffman *et al.* (2010:106-107) opine that several influences affects the way a need or goal are fulfilled such as the consumer's personality, perceptions, attitudes and behaviour, including previous experiences. These steps describe the course of action consumers take, which is selected based on consumers cognition and experience, to achieve goals in order to satisfy a need. Therefore, motivation is the force that induces consumption and is of significant value to the marketer and retailer (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:107). Various factors influence motivation, which play an imperative role in consumer motivation and are important to understand, as consumer motivation is central to this study.

2.3.4 Important factors in motivation

Consumers are driven to fulfil a need and to achieve a goal; therefore, these two factors have a significant influence on the consumer's motivation, as is evident from the motivation theories and the motivation process. A discussion on these important factors, including the various types of motivations, follows.

- **Needs**

Arnould *et al.* (2002:379) define a need as the comprehensive natural and emotional requirements that inspire a consumer's behaviour. Every individual has needs of which some needs are innate and others acquired (Evans *et al.*, 2009:12). Innate needs such as the need for water, food and shelter, are physiological and important for sustaining biological life; therefore, primary needs (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010: 113). However, acquired needs such as the need for self-esteem, affection and learning (Evans *et al.*, 2009:12) are considered secondary needs that consumers learn in response to their culture or environment (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010: 113). Solomon (2013:142) states that motivation emerges when a consumer wants to satisfy an awakened need. In addition, the consumer wants to eradicate pressure caused by such an awakened need. Therefore, a need is the origin of a motivation (Blythe, 2008:32)

and intertwines with motives, influencing the consumer's emotions and feelings regarding products (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:50). A need for a product or service is deemed inefficient to motivate a consumer to act, but additionally, the consumer must have the desire to satisfy a need, to be motivated to purchase a product or service (Cant *et al.*, 2006:131). Evans *et al.*, (2009:7) opine that although a standardised need structure can be utilised for all consumers; every individual differs regarding when which needs will be required. According to Schiffman *et al.* (2010:113), consumers select specific goals for satisfying various needs. Joubert (2010:65) adds to this by stating that various diverse goals can be selected to satisfy any specified need.

- **Goals**

Arnould *et al.* (2004:259) describe a goal as the objective that drives the actions or behaviour of a consumer. Therefore, to understand a consumer's goals will assist in understanding the way in which a consumer behaves. Hoyer *et al.* (2013:45) state that consumers will invest more resources such as time and money, and allocate more attention, when motivated to accomplish a goal. Consumers' goals are subject to their physical abilities, personal experiences, fundamental cultural values and customs, the accessibility of these goals, as well as consumers' self-perception (Cant *et al.*, 2006:131). Noel (2009:92) distinguishes between generic goals and product-specific goals, stating that generic goals fulfil consumers' needs, whereas product-specific goals determine what product a consumer chooses to fulfil the need. Hoyer *et al.* (2013:55) state that consumers are motivated to achieve promotion-focussed goals or prevention-focussed goals. Consumers with promotion-focussed goals are motivated to achieve positive outcomes, whereas consumers with prevention-focussed goals are motivated to avoid negative outcomes. Blythe (2008:19) concludes by stating that a goal is the purpose that drives a motive; thus, the reason for a motivation.

- **Positive and negative motivation**

A motivation can be classified as a positive or negative motivation. A positive motivation propels a consumer towards certain behaviour such as purchasing a product or service in order to improve his/her life (Evans *et al.*, 2009:10), whereas a negative motivation drives a consumer to purchase a product or service with the intention of avoiding an undesirable situation (Botha *et al.*, 2013:47). Solomon

(2013:100) concurs, stating that a positive motivation encourages a consumer to find products that will assist in achieving a goal. Schiffman *et al.* (2010:107) opine that although positive motivations are identified as needs, wants or desires, and negative motivations as fears or aversions, both of these motivations are similar in that they serve to initiate and sustain human behaviour.

- **Rational versus emotional motives**

Cardoso and Pinto (2010:541) documented that consumer behaviour entails the fulfilment of rational motives, also referred to as functional motives, and emotional motives. Consumers' emotions toward and perceptions of products are affected by the needs behind the motivation (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:352). Utilitarian motives are defined as rational motives, where the consumer purchases a product for the functional benefits the product offers. On the other hand, hedonic motives are defined as emotional motives, where a consumer needs a product for emotional rather than functional benefits (Assael, 2004:35). Wright (2006:214-215) indicates that consumers will generally purchase a product based on emotional needs, whereas retailers will purchase products based on functional needs. This is evident as consumers purchase products for final use and retailers purchase products for re-sale.

- **Intrinsic and extrinsic motives**

Intrinsic motives relate to the pleasure a consumer obtains from an activity, whereas extrinsic motives refer to the value and meaning a consumer obtains from an activity (Botha *et al.*, 2013:46). Tatzel (2003:409) states that consumers driven by intrinsic motives have the need for personal growth, including self-actualisation and feeling good. Watchravesringkan *et al.* (2010:266) opine that pleasure and satisfaction are determinants of intrinsic motives and rewards, and punishments are determinants of extrinsic motives.

- **Conscious and unconscious motives**

According to Smith and Lux (1993:604-605), a consumer is aware of a conscious need throughout the decision-making process. However, when consumers are unaware of a need at the specific time an act occurs, it is defined as an unconscious need.

Botha *et al.* (2013:47) concur, describing conscious motives as needs that a consumer is aware of, such as the need for food when hungry.

It is evident from the abovementioned factors that motivation is dynamic, and a discussion on the reason for the dynamic nature of motivation follows.

2.3.5 Dynamic nature of motivation

The dynamic nature of motivation refers to the ever-changing reasons why consumers are motivated to behave in a specific manner. Motivation is a concept subject to continuous change in response to an individual's life experiences. According to Blackwell *et al.* (2006:314), the reason consumers are motivated to change is due to the individual's need for a product or service becoming more imperative or less important. Consumers' motivation to satisfy a need is greater when the difference between their anticipated goals and their existing situation is significant (Assael, 2004:33). Motivation is dynamic and is subject to incessant change because of various reasons such as consumers' needs that are never fully satisfied, new needs emerge as old needs are satisfied, consumers' levels of aspiration influence their goals, they select specific goals because they fulfil several needs, and their needs are dependent on the arousal of goals (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:111).

Hoyer *et al.* (2013:51) add to this by stating that the satisfaction of needs is momentary and that a consumer can never completely satisfy a need, such as an individual's need for food. Solomon (2013:51) concurs, stating that consumers constantly attempt to fulfil their changing needs.

According to various authors (Assael, 2004:34; Quester *et al.*, 2011:303; Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:111), consumers satisfy needs based on a hierarchy, suggesting that as soon as lower-order needs are satisfied, the consumer attempts to fulfil higher-order needs, resulting in new needs emerging as old needs are satisfied. Solomon (2013:51) indicates that although a consumer may be aroused to fulfil numerous needs at once, some needs are more important than others are, and the consumer will attempt to satisfy the important needs first.

The success and failure of consumer goals is central to consumer behaviour, as Hoyer *et al.* (2013:53) describes consumers' behaviour as an incessant cycle that pertains to

goal setting, pursuing, determining the success or failure thereof, and adapting their goals accordingly. In addition, consumers use feedback on the achievement of goals for the setting and the pursuit of future goals. Schiffman *et al.* (2010:111) state that the achievement of goals motivates consumers to set higher future goals, and vice versa. Consumers who are unsuccessful in achieving set goals feel frustrated and react differently. First, a consumer may select a substitute goal that is less difficult to achieve, and find a way around the obstacle. Secondly, a consumer may use defence mechanisms to protect his/her ego from feeling disappointed.

A consumer's behaviour can satisfy multiple needs (Quester *et al.*, 2011:304). Different individuals might attempt to satisfy the same need by participating in different activities, whereas some individuals might participate in the same activity, while this activity satisfies different needs for each one of these individuals (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:114). However, before a consumer can satisfy a need, this need must first be aroused in order for him/her to become aware of the need.

Consumers recognise a need when a stimulus is triggered; this is known as need arousal (Cant *et al.*, 2006:132). To be motivated, an individual's need should be aroused first (Blythe, 2008:36). The moment a need is aroused in any way, the consumer wishes to satisfy that need (Solomon, 2013:142). Schiffman *et al.* (2010:114) identified several types of need arousals, namely psychological, emotional, cognitive or environmental arousal. Physiological arousal is involuntarily and based on the physiological or bodily state of the consumer (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:114). Joubert (2010:66) describes a physiological arousal as an internal cue, which causes tension, like feeling hungry. A consumer wants to satisfy needs aroused by physiological cues, as unsatisfied needs provide the consumer with uncomfortable tensions (Cant *et al.*, 2006:132). Emotional arousal originates from daydreaming, resulting in the arousal, also referred to as autistic thinking, or stimulation of latent needs (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:114). Fiore *et al.* (2005:677) describe emotional arousal as an individual feeling stimulated or excited. According to Parumasur and Roberts-Lombard (2013:168), consumers who are bored or frustrated in failing to achieve their planned goals, often engage in daydreaming, in which they imagine themselves in various desirable situations, leading to the arousal of latent needs. The tension caused by this arousal, motivate consumers to satisfy these latent needs. Cant *et al.*

(2006:132) state that a cognitive arousal is often the result of the consumer's random thoughts activated by a remark from another individual or an advertisement. Parumasur and Roberts-Lombard (2013:168) concur, stating a need aroused by an incitement in the consumer's surroundings refers to cognitive arousal. Environmental arousal is activated by stimuli in the environment, for example, the need for coffee may be awakened by the smell of coffee (Cant *et al.*, 2006:132). Similar to cognitive awareness, an incitement in the surroundings of a consumer may lead to a need being triggered (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:168) whereas without these stimuli the needs might remain dormant (Joubert, 2010:66).

This section defined consumer motivation and explored the classic theories of motivation to provide a background on consumer motivation. The motivation process, concerning the action taken by consumers to satisfy an unfulfilled need, was illustrated to illuminate the process behind consumer motivation. An overview of the dynamics of motivation, and the important factors influencing motivation, was provided to conclude the section.

For the purpose of this study, the influence of shopping values on consumer motivation is important due to consumers' shopping values being diverse, and the influence these shopping values has on purchase decisions (Davis & Hodges, 2012:230); therefore, warranting investigating. The next section presents a background on shopping values, thus providing insight into what consumer's value when shopping and the influence shopping values have on consumer behaviour.

2.4 SHOPPING VALUE

Various authors state that shopping value is a description of a consumer's overall shopping experience (Diep & Sweeney, 2008:401; Jackson *et al.*, 2011:3; Stoel *et al.*, 2004:1068). Davis and Hodges (2012:230) state that shopping value is the value a consumer attaches to, and the benefits gained from the complete shopping experience. Numerous factors influence shopping value from a consumer's perspective.

Amanor-Boadu (2009:598) identifies the attractiveness, defined as the consumer's perceptions of the offerings provided, as compared to the actual offerings, and the accessibility of a store, as key functions of the shopping value. The ease and cost involved travelling to the store determines the accessibility of a store, as well as the

opportunity cost of a consumer to go shopping at that specific store. However, Cai and Xu (2011:160) state that shopping value involves shopping process value and shopping enjoyment. Shopping process value is determined by the amount of time and effort a consumer saves throughout the shopping trip, whereas shopping enjoyment is determined by the amount of pleasure gained by the consumer when shopping, without taking the value of the product or service into account. Michon *et al.* (2007:490) opine that shopping value is determined by evaluating the entire shopping experience, placing emphasis on the interaction between a consumer and a product or service. According to Jain and Bagdare (2009:35), the shopping value acquired from a shopping experience has a distinct effect on a consumer's decision to purchase; therefore, warranting the marketer's attention.

Purchase decisions of consumers are based on the amount of shopping value obtained from a retailer (Shukla & Babin, 2013:197). Consumers are motivated to choose a store that offers a distinctive shopping experience (Sands *et al.*, 2009:394). Therefore, for a retailer to gain a competitive advantage, a high level of shopping value should be offered to the consumer, assuring these values correspond with the consumer's requirements (Bonnin & Goudey, 2012:642). Jain and Bagdare (2009:36) advise retailers to develop an experience that astonishes consumers. The products and services a retailer offers are components of this experience.

When evaluating the shopping experience, the in-store shopping experience, involving goods, services and any in-store features influencing the shopping experience, plays an important role (Terblanche & Boshoff, 2004:1-2). Retailers can benefit when making use of in-store themed events, presenting consumers with a visually appealing experience. Furthermore, consumers may find an in-store themed event entertaining, as it provides a feeling of escaping daily routine (Sands *et al.*, 2009:388). Jain and Bagdare (2009:37) suggest that marketers should ensure that the store design, the products offered, logistic strategies, employees, and shopping experience offered are well managed, as all of these facets appeal to the overall shopping experience of a consumer.

Generally, shopping value is divided into the utilitarian and hedonic value of the shopping experience (Jackson *et al.*, 2011:3). A consumer may perceive a shopping experience as valuable when planned goals are achieved, which is known as utilitarian

value, whereas when a shopping experience is valued because a consumer is having fun and enjoys the shopping trip, this consumer is motivated by hedonic value (Jamal *et al.*, 2006:69). Utilitarian values are referred to as functional values (Park & Rabolt 2009:719). An individual who perceives products or services as providing noticeable utility through the physical or functional purposes connects functional value to that product or service. Fiore *et al.* (2005:670) state that utilitarian value is present when shopping is done as efficiently as possible and when the product and product information is logically assessed, and chosen or purchased, as that product will satisfy the consumer's need.

Hedonic values are described as the fun associated with the shopping experience, including the pleasure obtained by means of the sensory elements perceived when shopping (Fiore *et al.*, 2005:671). Kaul (2007:83) suggest that hedonic values, also known as hedonism, pertain to the experience-based aspects of consumption. Rintamaki *et al.* (2006:14) are of the opinion that a consumer perceiving hedonic value will experience exploration and entertainment. Consumers driven by hedonism, according to Hoyer *et al.* (2013:389), search for products and services that provide the satisfaction of feeling good. Furthermore, the number of consumers motivated by hedonism is increasing.

To *et al.* (2007:776) describe utilitarian and hedonic motivations as valuable, because they assist retailers and marketers with the determination of market pricing, promotional campaigns and marketing decisions. Furthermore, utilitarian and hedonic motivations may affect the way a consumer behaves. Cardoso and Pinto (2010:544,555) agree, and add that utilitarian and hedonic motivation has a vital impact on a consumer's buying behaviour; therefore, it is of great importance to study these motivations. Utilitarian and hedonic motivations are beneficial as an instrument used for marketing research, segmentation, and targeting different shopper groups with an improved product offer, store environment and communication approach. Therefore, in order to gain a comprehensive understanding of consumers' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations, as the main heading of this study suggests, further investigation of hedonic and utilitarian motives is vital, and presented in the following section.

2.5 HEDONIC SHOPPING MOTIVATIONS

This section presents a background on hedonic shopping motivations, including a definition of hedonic shopping motivations, a description of various ways to appeal to consumers' hedonic motivations, and the classification of the different categories of hedonic shopping motivations.

2.5.1 Defining hedonic shopping motivations

Assael (2004:35, 51) defines hedonic shopping motivations as the pleasurable consumption of a product or service with an end-result of satisfying emotions and fantasies rather than the mere collection of goods. A consumer with hedonic shopping motivations can perceive shopping as a positive experience (Kim, 2006:58), an escape from the ordinary life, full of fun and connected to emotions (Evans *et al.*, 2009:24). Blythe (2008:43) label hedonic consumers as pleasure seekers, trying to fulfil personal desires (Cardoso & Pinto, 2010:539). To *et al.* (2007:775) describe hedonic motivation as the behaviour of a consumer seeking happiness, pleasure, fantasy, sensuality, and arousal. When a consumer enjoys shopping as an activity it is classified as a hedonic shopping motivations (Jin & Kim, 2003:401). Hoyer *et al.* (2013:389) agree, classifying hedonic motivations as a consumer being motivated by the anticipated pleasure that can be obtained when seeking goods and services, or from the shopping experience itself. Evans *et al.* (2009:24) state that consumers driven by hedonic shopping motivations are less motivated by the physical usefulness of the product. Ozen and Kodaz (2012:81) reiterate that hedonic consumers enjoy the shopping process more than obtaining the object or completing the mission. Cardoso and Pinto (2010:539) describe hedonic shopping as shopping that is experimental of nature. Allied with hedonic shopping is personal enjoyment and expressiveness (Michon *et al.*, 2007:490). According to Solomon (2013:71), hedonic consumption encompasses fantasy, and multi-sensory and emotional facets of the communication between consumers and products.

Arnold and Reynolds (2003:86) state that consumers motivated by the hedonic value of shopping will have an aesthetic appeal. When attempting to fulfil hedonic needs, the evaluation process of products and services are based on emotional criteria (Assael, 2004:35). Consumers strive to increase positive emotions and reduce

negative emotions. However, Blythe (2008:43) adds that an ill-fated emotion that needs to be comforted could cause hedonic purchases. According to Buyn and Mann (2011:287), a relationship exists between emotions and hedonic shopping values. Ozen and Kodaz (2012:81) agree by asserting that consumers with hedonic motivations enjoy the emotional and experiential benefits of shopping. Solomon (2013:142), who identifies that hedonic motivation is triggered by emotions, adds that hedonic needs are empirical and connected to emotions and fantasies.

In recent years, the sensory experiences received from products and services play an even more significant role when choosing among competing options (Solomon, 2013:71), as hedonic behaviour relates to the multi-sensory characteristics of consumption (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003:78). Therefore, marketers should understand all of the abovementioned aspects of hedonic shopping motivation before targeting hedonic motivated consumers. A brief discussion on methods appealing to hedonic-motivated consumer follows.

2.5.2 Appealing to consumer's hedonic shopping motivation (multi-sensory and emotive aspects)

Jamal *et al.* (2006:68) describe a retailer with the capability of providing consumers with various sensory benefits, as a retailer delivering sensory stimulation. Consumers benefit by enjoying scents, in-store background music, as well as the physical handling of the merchandise. Wagner and Rudolph (2010:417) stipulate that sensory stimulation is important when a consumer wants to be in a pleasurable physical setting and longs for the best possible level of stimulation. Kaur and Singh (2007:136) opine that individuals shape their shopping exercise according to sensory stimulation. These researchers classify scent, background music, and how the product feels, as sensory stimulants. When a retailer uses sensory stimulation sufficiently it can positively affect the consumer's decision-making, as well as behaviour (Jain & Bagdare, 2009:41). Consequently, sensory stimulation improves the shopping experience. Morrison *et al.* (2011:558) highlight that for retailers to acquire and maintain a competitive advantage, an innovative and effective atmospheric store layout is of paramount importance.

Jamal *et al.* (2006:76) advise that using experience-based advertising is an effective way to target hedonic-motivated consumers, as a hedonic consumer pays attention to messages that are observed as being relevant to oneself, self-fulfilling, and of high moral or intellectual value. Experience-based advertising focuses on what the consumer feels when using a certain brand or service. According to Guido (2006:66), an effective marketing approach to target hedonic consumers is to satisfy the needs for innovation of consumers, providing uniqueness, and fulfilling the consumer's social needs concerning shopping activities. The factors motivating hedonic consumers can be assembled into various categories.

2.5.3 Categories of hedonic shopping motivations

Hedonic shopping motivations encompass various categories, namely gratification, adventure, idea, social, role and value shopping. The following sections elaborate on each of these categories.

- **Gratification shopping**

Evans *et al.* (2009:25) describe gratification shopping as consumers using shopping to treat themselves, to get rid of stress, or to lighten a foul mood. Jamal *et al.* (2006:68) stipulate that spending money has the potential to lighten a consumer's negative mood. Kim (2006:58) agrees, by stating that a positive feeling can be developed through gratification shopping. Wagner and Rudolph (2010:417,419) identify that consumers motivated by gratification wish to treat themselves, to achieve an outcome of feeling special and positive. Consumers will be able to do this by means of self-rewarding purchases.

- **Adventure shopping**

Arnold and Reynolds (2003:80) describe adventure shopping as a consumer shopping to have a feeling of being in another universe and to feel a sense of adventure or stimulation. Furthermore, consumers wish to attain sensory stimulation along with expressing their own identity with the help of other adventure shoppers, as they motivate each other to be creative during the shopping process. Kim (2006:58) identifies adventure shopping as a consumer being excited to go shopping; shopping arouses various senses, especially when consumers are experiencing different

environments. To *et al.* (2007:778) define the term adventure as a consumer that experience something fascinating and unique. This, as well as the fun of exploration while shopping, motivates a consumer to go shopping.

- **Idea shopping**

Evans *et al.* (2009:25) categorise consumers attempting to keep up with new fashions and trends and trying to find new products and innovations as idea shoppers. Kim (2006:58) concurs, stating that idea shoppers make every effort to gather information about new fashions, trends and products. Wagner and Rudolph (2010:419) add that these consumers want to be knowledgeable about current developments, new products and new ways to use a product. Cardoso and Pinto (2010:554) suggest that retailers targeting idea shoppers should provide new and exciting products, as well as a shopping experience that will arouse and attract these shoppers.

- **Social shopping**

Jamal *et al.* (2006:68) identify social shoppers as consumers seeking opportunities to interact or socialise with other individuals with interests similar to their own, or according to Evans *et al.* (2009:25), to socialise and bond with friends and family. According to Wagner and Rudolph (2010:417), a longing to communicate and to be in the presence of other individuals, such as other shoppers, friends or family is defined as socialising. Assael (2004:51) state that hedonic shoppers view shopping with friends and family as a social excursion. Furthermore, social shoppers perceive a shopping mall as a place to gather for social interaction. Kim (2006:76) agrees by describing a retail environment as a suitable place for spending time with friends and family. To *et al.* (2007:778), who state that social shoppers enjoy taking part in social activities while shopping, opine that these shoppers also value shopping with friends and family. It is evident that social interaction is the driving force for social shoppers to go shopping. Cardoso and Pinto (2010:554) advise retailers to improve the store layout and socialising activities to provide social shoppers with sufficient time and space to socialise with others. Jamal *et al.* (2006:76) state that retailers can also encourage and train staff members to improve the personal dialogue and relationship with social shoppers. These researchers suggest that the marketing message should

include the social element attached to the shopping experience to target this market effectively.

- **Role shopping**

Evans *et al.* (2009:25) describe role shopping as consumers attaining pleasure when shopping for others. Arnold and Reynolds (2003:81), who state that role shopping has an effect on a shopper's emotional state, add that these shoppers seek pleasure in finding the perfect gift for others. Wagner and Rudolph (2010:417) define role shopping, or gift shopping, as consumers representing a role. These roles may include being a good friend or being a good spouse. Cardoso and Pinto (2010:554) suggest targeting role shoppers by means of accentuating gift shopping with in-store communication and taking advantage of seasonal events where gifts play an important role, such as Christmas and Easter.

- **Value shopping**

To *et al.* (2007:778) identify value shoppers as consumers connecting emotionally and enjoying the process of negotiating with sales people for the purpose of obtaining a bargain. Evans *et al.* (2009:25) agree, declaring the classification of value shopping as shopping to find discounts or seek bargains. Chandon *et al.* (2000:6) state that consumers who receive a greater discount feel ingenious about their shopping. According to Morschett *et al.* (2005:425), value shoppers have the attainment of financial advantages in mind when bargaining with retailers. Wagner and Rudolph (2010:417) describe value shopping or bargain hunting as the pleasure consumers feel when challenged to negotiate for discounts and the benefits they enjoy of purchasing products at lower prices. Cardoso and Pinto (2010:554) advise retailers to target these consumers by offering a good price in accordance to the quality of the product. Jamal *et al.* (2006:77) recommend the retailers implement price promotions, as well as marketing messages, supporting the quality of the product or service to target value shoppers.

While hedonic shopping motivations play an important role for certain shoppers when deciding where to shop, utilitarian shopping motivations are also important in influencing consumer behaviour. The following section provides an in-depth discussion on utilitarian shopping motivations.

2.6 UTILITARIAN SHOPPING MOTIVATIONS

According to Jones *et al.* (2006:979), attention must be afforded to utilitarian-motivated consumers as the satisfaction of these consumers possibly results in repeat purchases. Accordingly, the succeeding sub-sections provide a detailed discussion on utilitarian shopping motivations. The first sub-section comprises a definition on utilitarian shopping motivation. The second sub-section involves a description of various ways to appeal to consumers' utilitarian motivations. The third and final sub-section comprises a discussion on the different categories of utilitarian shopping motivations.

2.6.1 Defining utilitarian shopping motivations

Cant *et al.* (2006:131) define utilitarian shopping motivations as task-oriented behaviour; a consumer with utilitarian shopping motivations wants to attain a useful benefit or fulfil an economic need (Kim, 2006:57), as they are using the shopping trip to find a product that they need (Cardoso & Pinto, 2010:539). Davis and Hodges (2012:234) describe finding a product or service needed by the consumer as the functional value of the shopping trip. By achieving functional value, the consumer is completing the anticipated task. A utilitarian consumer is a person who is interested in solving a problem logically (Sarkar, 2011:58), does not find it pleasurable to do shopping (Assael, 2004:51), and does not get influenced by emotions when shopping (Jones *et al.* 2006:974). Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013:419), who concur by stating that utilitarian consumers see shopping as an effort, opine that when marketing to obtain the interest of utilitarian consumers, the function and the value of the product or service should be highlighted. The attributes and purpose of the product or service should be emphasised (Solomon, 2013:145), and the advertisement should be informative to obtain the attention of utilitarian-motivated consumers (Hoyer *et al.*, 2013:146). Appealing to utilitarian consumers is of paramount importance, as all consumers will be driven to shop by utilitarian motivations at a certain stage in their life. A brief discussion on methods appealing to utilitarian-motivated consumer follows.

2.6.2 Appealing to consumer's utilitarian shopping motivations

Schiffman *et al.* (2010:110) describe rational motives, or utilitarian motives, as consumers being motivated to purchase the product or service that provides them with the highest utility. Utilitarian motivation reveals the value connected to the task of the shopping trip (To *et al.*, 2007:774). A shopping trip initiated from a mission or task presents utilitarian motivation. The mission is completed only when the economic need is satisfied or the useful benefit is obtained (To *et al.*, 2007:775). Therefore, the driving force of utilitarian shopping is necessity (Cardoso & Pinto, 2010:539).

To be motivated by utility, also known as functionality, means a consumer is motivated to attain the needed product while seeking value for money (Jin & Kim, 2003:397). To *et al.* (2007:776) agree to this by stating that a consumer with utilitarian motivations wants to obtain the products needed, but in essence, the benefit the product provides. Cardoso and Pinto (2010:542) recognise that consumers, motivated by the utilitarian value of shopping, are motivated to buy a product promptly, taking as little time as possible, and without much effort. These utilitarian motivations are assembled into different categories.

2.6.3 Categories of utilitarian shopping motivations

The motivations forming part of utilitarian shopping are achievement and efficiency. These two categories will be discussed in the subsequent sections.

- **Achievement**

Consumers with utilitarian motivations may evaluate a shopping experience with reference to the achievement of the planned goal (Cardoso & Pinto, 2010:539). Kim (2006:58) concurs by stating that a consumer with achievement as a motivation is set on accomplishing the goal set for the specific shopping trip, in other words locating the precise products. A greater motivator for such a consumer is feeling like a smart shopper (Kaur & Singh, 2007:130). Wagner and Rudolph (2010:416) describe a consumer with a causal goal for a shopping trip as a consumer with purpose-specific shopping motivations. According to Jones *et al.* (2006:974), the acquisition of products are important to these consumers, as individuals with utilitarian shopping motivations are non-emotional consumers focused on completing a specific task.

Shukla and Babin (2013:193-194) concur, describing these consumers as individuals who perceive shopping as being a task to fulfil or a job to be completed.

- **Efficiency**

According to Cardoso and Pinto (2010:549), the definition of the motivation of efficiency is a consumer satisfying the projected needs swiftly. Kim (2006:58) adds that a consumer wanting to attain efficiency has the need to save time and resources. Noble *et al.* (2006:177, 180) identified that consumers with utilitarian motives tend to shop at retail stores that offer convenience and require little effort. A retail store offers convenience when there is a reduction in the time spent by the consumer to acquire the product, and maximised shopping opportunities. Speedy checkouts, the location of the store, availability of convenient parking, and maintenance of cleanliness and hygiene are regarded as basic elements of convenience (Jain & Bagdare, 2009:42). Wagner and Rudolph (2010:417) describe a consumer trying to shop efficiently as trying to shop rapidly and with little effort. A retailer offering breadth and depth of product assortment offers a one-stop shopping convenience, which in turn can help the time-constrained consumer, as well as increasing the overall value associated with shopping. (Shukla & Babin, 2013:200). Understanding these motivations will assist marketers to target utilitarian consumers effectively. A brief discussion on methods that may be utilised for effective targeting of utilitarian consumers follows.

Jamal *et al.* (2006:77) advise that strong brand descriptions that place emphasis on the perceived value and quality attached to the brand are effective marketing communication messages for consumers with utilitarian shopping motivations. Cardoso and Pinto (2010:554) suggest that utilitarian consumers should be targeted by providing a store that is well organised, with an extensive assortment of products, communication that is fair, as well as signs and layouts that are comprehensive and easily understood, especially with regards to price and product comparisons. Millan and Howard (2007:485) opine that appeals focused on merchandise will be more effective than social and recreational appeals. Guido (2006:66) proposes making use of price leadership strategies when targeting utilitarian consumers.

Cardoso and Pinto (2010:541) stipulate that consumers can be motivated in a utilitarian or a hedonic way. Therefore, consumers will not only be motivated from a

rational perspective, or to satisfy a practical need, but will also be motivated emotionally (Jain & Bagdare, 2009:36). Determining the shopping motivations of consumers will assist in designing advertising campaigns to target specific segments. For the purpose of this study, the hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations of the Generation Y cohort were investigated.

2.7 GENERATION Y COHORT

According to Markert (2004:21), the Generation Y cohort is considered to be today's youth. Literature regarding the exact start and end dates of this particular cohort presents some confusion. Bevan-Dye *et al.* (2009:174) define this cohort as individuals born between 1980 and 1994. Chacko *et al.* (2012:107) argue that individuals born between 1977 and 2000 are classified as Generation Y. According to Cant *et al.* (2006:106) and Parumasur and Roberts-Lombard (2013:135), the Generation Y cohort can be divided into three subsections namely, the children, ranging from the age 8 to 12; the teens consisting of individuals between the age of 13 and 18; and the adults ranging from the age of 19 to 24. Broadbridge *et al.* (2007:526) state that Generation Y, also known as the internet generation, millennials or echo-boomers, is a well-educated generation. This generation does not lack confidence, passion or integrity. Litalien and Miller (2012:44) notice that Generation Y is also characterised by the desire to ask questions. Gurau (2012:103) adds that consumers forming part of Generation Y are mindful of the wellbeing of the environment and digitally advanced. Bevan-Dye and Surujlal (2011:47) agree, stating that millennials can obtain current information at the click of a button, and are therefore well informed.

Jang *et al.* (2011:803) are of opinion that the disposable income this group of individuals have is more than what previous generations had. Generation Y is considered a sizeable demographic group with significant buying power (Cui *et al.*, 2003:310; Foscht *et al.* (2009:219). Weidauer (2012:18) suggests that Generation Y will influence the economy tremendously over the next decade. Gurau (2012:110) suggests that effective marketing strategies are the outcome of comprehending the behaviour of certain segments, especially Generation Y, as these consumers are more willing to spend money. Sullivan and Heitmeyer (2008:288) suggest marketers should examine Generation Y, as it is not particularly easy to reach these individuals by

means of advertising. Bakewell and Mitchell (2003:95) agree, recognising that advertising and marketing strategies used to attract previous generations should be changed, as Generation Y consumers are rejecting these strategies (Smith, 2012:87) and is refined concerning decision-making (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013:135). Foscht *et al.* (2009:223) add that Generation Y view the media as untrustworthy.

Casidy (2012:242) state that Generation Y individuals differ extensively from other generations concerning their shopping approach and values (Chacko *et al.*, 2012:107). Sullivan and Heitmeyer (2008:287) identify Generation Y consumers as individuals who are motivated by entertainment. According to Kim *et al.* (2012:386), the level of entertainment and enjoyment students perceive when shopping influences the decision to repeat purchases at that specific store. Weidauer (2012:18) specify that individuals forming part of the Generation Y cohort value the level of pleasure while shopping, in other words, the shopping experience, as a whole, is valuable to these consumers. French (2012:196) states that when entering a store, millennials strive to be stimulated and satisfied.

It is important to understand that Generation Y individuals are not homogeneous. Foscht *et al.* (2009:224) notice that companies target all Generation Y consumers in a similar way. This manner of targeting Generation Y will not be effective. Studies done on Generation Y are focused on the whole generation generally (Noble *et al.*, 2009:618). Consequently, for the purpose of targeting, segmentation and positioning, there is a need to examine the student section of Generation Y.

The Generation Y cohort is known as the first post-apartheid generation, and for that reason the black Generation Y are privileged to enjoy the benefits of being educated, of working, and the pleasure of being successful and prosperous (Bevan-Dye, 2013:158). Because of this development among the black generation in South Africa, the black middle class is growing at a rapid pace. This class is labelled as the 'Black Diamonds', and is classified by being optimistic, ambitious, self-assured and inclined to be educated (Bevan-Dye & Surujlal, 2011:48). Bevan-Dye *et al.* (2009:183) perceive the black Generation Y of South Africa is a noteworthy market to target, as this is a large segment of the South African population. Bevan-Dye and Surujlal (2011:51) recognise that the black portion of the South African Generation Y group

rate physical goods remarkably high on the value scale. These individuals perceive happiness and success as dependent on physical goods.

2.8 SYNOPSIS

Given that the primary objective of this study is to determine Generation Y's hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations for the purpose of developing effective marketing strategies to target this market, this chapter focused on consumer shopping motivation. This chapter provided a theoretical background of this study and included all the factors pertaining to consumer shopping motivations. Understanding consumer shopping motivations will assist in dividing the market into segments. Furthermore, market segmentation can be a helpful tool when targeting specific markets. Consequently, the definitions of consumer behaviour, consumer motivation, shopping values, along with the definitions of hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations were provided. The discussion on consumer behaviour comprised an overview of the decision-making process of consumers. For the purpose of fully comprehending consumer motivation, various theories of motivation, the motivation process, the important factors of motivation and the dynamics of motivation were discussed. As consumer values have an influence on the shopping motivation of consumers, the different types of values were provided. Along with the definitions, the sections regarding hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations comprised a discussion on the methods used to appeal to these consumers, as well as the different categories included in hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations. Furthermore, a discussion on the cohort used for the purpose of this study, namely Generation Y, concluded this chapter.

The following chapter, Chapter 3, provides an overview on the research methodology used for the empirical portion of the study, pertaining to the research design and approach, the sampling strategy and data collection method, the pre-testing and administration of the questionnaire, as well as the preliminary data analysis and statistical analysis.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Malhotra (2010:39) states that marketing research can be employed to assist management in decision making associated with the identification and solution of both problems and opportunities concerning marketing. Marketing research includes the preparation, gathering and analyses of data related to the decision making of marketing, as well as the communication of the outcomes of the findings to management (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:7).

As specified in Chapter 1, the primary objective of this study was to investigate black Generation Y students' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations. This primary objective was then deconstructed into four empirical objectives (refer to Section 1.3.3), which dictated the collection of the following required data:

- Black Generation Y students' hedonic motivations for shopping
- Black Generation Y students' utilitarian motivations for shopping.

This chapter relates to the research methodology used for collecting and analysing the data for this study. The first section, Section 3.2, includes the research design pertaining to this study. The research approach is described in Section 3.3. Section 3.4 describes the development of a sampling strategy, referring to the target population, the sampling frame, the sampling method, and the sample size. The data collection method is discussed in Section 3.5, comprising the questionnaire design, question format and the questionnaire layout. In Section 3.6, the pre-testing of the questionnaire is described. Section 3.7 provides an overview of the operational procedure used to administer the questionnaire. The preliminary data analysis, also known as data preparation is described in Section 3.8. Lastly, Section 3.9 describes the statistical analysis techniques used in this study, namely reliability analysis, validity analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, descriptive analysis and tests of significance. The following section describes the design of the research, which was

employed to ensure that the study made use of reliable procedures and methods of enquiry.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Marketing research can be classified into three categories. These categories include exploratory research, descriptive research and causal research. The selection of the appropriate design is of utmost importance and will be directed by the research objective of the study. The three research designs are discussed:

- Exploratory research is undertaken to provide the researcher with knowledge on and understanding of the problem by probing through or exploring the situation (Malhotra, 2010:102). According to Cant *et al.* (2008:31), secondary data analysis, expert surveys, pilot studies and case studies are methods used to conduct exploratory research.
- Descriptive research is used to describe rather than explain a market situation, attitudes, beliefs and opinions (Bradley, 2010:510). This can be achieved by making use of surveys, panels and observations (Malhotra, 2010:104).
- Causal research is commenced to determine whether one variable causes or controls the values of other variables (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:73) and can be attained by means of experiments (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:234).

For the purpose of this study, descriptive research has been applied, as this study examines the hedonic and utilitarian motivations that drive individuals to go shopping. A single cross-sectional design was used to obtain the data from the sample. Malhotra (2010:108) describes a single cross-sectional design as information being obtained from a sample only once, and the sample used comprises a single sample drawn from the target population. The following section describes the sampling procedure utilised in this study.

3.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

Research can be categorised into two approaches, namely qualitative and quantitative research. Qualitative research and quantitative research can be distinguished by their sample size and structure, as qualitative research is characterised by small samples

and quantitative research by large samples (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:128). Malhotra (2010:171) states that qualitative research is an unstructured approach that is used to acquire knowledge and understanding of the problem or the original motivations or reasons. Quantitative research is a structured approach, used to generalise findings to a larger population (Struwig & Stead, 2010:5). For the purpose of this study, a quantitative research approach was chosen. Cardoso and Pinto's (2010) hedonic and utilitarian motivations scale comprising two sub-scales, namely a hedonic shopping motivations sub-scale (20 items) and a utilitarian shopping motivations sub-scale (six items), was used in this study. This scale was adapted from the original Arnold and Reynolds's (2003) hedonic shopping motivations scale, and Kim's (2006) utilitarian shopping motivations scale. The sampling strategy employed in this study is discussed next.

3.4 SAMPLING STRATEGY

The sampling strategy outlines how the sampling decision associated with the population, sampling frame, sampling unit, method of sampling and sample size were applied (Malhotra, 2010:375). The following sampling process was applied in this study:

3.4.1 Target population

Cant *et al.* (2008:164) describe a target population as the cluster of sampling units to be investigated to acquire a solution to the research problem, where a sampling unit consists of elements of the population to be sampled. The target population is identified on the basis of a combination of geography, demographics, product or service use, or awareness measures (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:376). To identify the target population correctly is of great importance, as a vaguely defined target population will provide inaccurate results (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:336). In regard to this study, the target population was defined as black Generation Y students between the ages of 18 and 24 years, who were enrolled full-time at registered public South African HEIs during 2013.

3.4.2 Sampling frame

The sampling frame comprises a set list of the population units from which the researcher will identify the sample (Malhotra, 2010:373). A telephone directory is an example of such a list (Bradley, 2010:154). The sampling frame for this study consisted of the 23 public registered South African HEIs, comprising 11 universities, six comprehensive universities and six universities of technology, as published by Higher Education in South Africa (2013). From the list of the 23 registered institutions, one sample, which included two HEIs in the Gauteng province, was selected. These two HEIs comprise a traditional university and a university of technology. Given time and cost constraints, a convenience sample of these two HEIs was chosen because of the geographic proximity, making the research more manageable. One group of participants, namely full-time undergraduate registered students, was then selected by means of convenience sampling.

3.4.3 Method of sampling

Berndt and Petzer (2011:173) define the sampling method or the selection thereof as the way the sample units are selected. According to McDaniel and Gates (2007:379), sampling methods can be clustered into two categories, namely probability and non-probability sampling. Probability and non-probability sampling methods are classified into sub-groups, as presented in Figure 3.1.

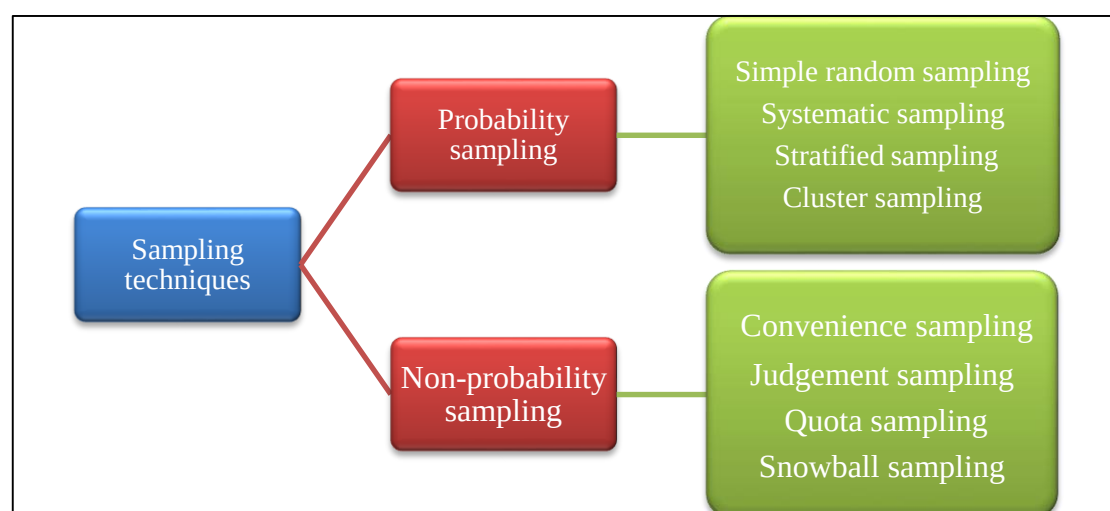


Figure 3.1: Probability and non-probability sampling methods (Wiid & Diggines, 2013:189)

As presented in Figure 3.1, in probability sampling all the population elements have a known probability of being selected to form part of the sample (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:342). The various methods that can be used to select a probability sample include simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling and cluster sampling. With simple random sampling, every sample element has a known and equal possibility of being included in the sample, and the sample elements are selected in a random manner (Cant *et al.*, 2008:168). A modification of random sampling is systematic sampling (Singh, 2010:234), as the starting point is determined randomly, followed by the selection of the sample elements at fixed intervals (Bradley, 2010:161). Stratified sampling is a technique that divides the population into sections and afterwards, by using a random method, selects elements from each section (Malhotra, 2010:384). McDaniel and Gates (2007:390) identify two processes within cluster sampling. First, the population is divided into subcategories, also known as clusters, then by means of a random procedure, clusters are selected and all the elements of the cluster are interviewed.

Non-probability sampling techniques depend on the personal judgment of the researcher rather than using chance as a selection method (Cant *et al.*, 2008:165). The types of non-probability sampling methods include convenience sampling, judgment sampling, quota sampling and snowball sampling. With convenience sampling, the selection of the sample is determined by the accessibility of the population to the researcher (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:174). According to Malhotra (2010:379), judgment sampling is a form of convenience sampling, where the researcher uses personal judgment to select a representative sample from the population. In quota sampling, the population is divided into quotas because they possess specific demographic characteristics, and then a specific number of participants from each quota must be included in the sample (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:351). The snowball sampling method is when the initial participants are asked to identify additional people with specific characteristics for possible participation in the research (Bradley, 2010:167).

For the purpose of this study, a non-probability convenience sample of 600 students was taken from the sampling frame of 23 South African HEIs (Section 3.4.2) in May 2013. From the list of HEIs, registered full-time undergraduate students were

conveniently selected. These HEIs and their locations (Higher Education in South Africa, 2013) are listed in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Registered South African public HEIs

Name of university	Location
Cape Peninsula University of Technology	Western Cape
Central University of Technology	Free State
Durban University of Technology	KwaZulu-Natal
Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University	Eastern Cape and Western Cape
North-West University	North-West and Gauteng
Rhodes University	Eastern Cape
Tshwane University of Technology	Gauteng, Mpumalanga, Limpopo and North-West
University of Cape Town	Western Cape
University of Fort Hare	Eastern Cape
University of the Free State	Free State
University of KwaZulu-Natal	KwaZulu-Natal
University of Johannesburg	Gauteng
University of Limpopo	Limpopo and Gauteng
University of Pretoria	Gauteng
University of South Africa	All provinces
Stellenbosch University	Western Cape
University of Venda for Science and Technology	Limpopo

Table 3.1: Registered South African public HEIs (continued ...)

Name of university	Location
University of the Western Cape	Western Cape
University of the Witwatersrand	Gauteng
University of Zululand	KwaZulu-Natal
Vaal University of Technology	Gauteng, North-West, Mpumalanga and Northern Cape
Walter Sisulu University	Eastern Cape
Mangosuthu University of Technology	KwaZulu-Natal

Source: Higher Education in South Africa (2013)

3.4.4 Sample size

The number of participants that are included in the research study can be classified as the sample size (Malhotra, 2010:374). Cant *et al.* (2005:177) state that it is challenging to determine the sample size for a specific study. Struwig and Stead (2010:120) indicate that when similar study's sample sizes are taken into consideration it empowers the researcher to draw comparisons. A sample size of 600 full time undergraduate black Generation Y students was selected for this study. This sample size is in the range of other studies of this nature such as Guido (2006) (sample size of 600), Morschett *et al.* (2005) (sample size of 560) and Sands *et al.* (2009) (sample size of 488), and therefore was deemed sufficiently large.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION METHOD

According to Berndt and Petzer (2011:202), data collection comprises the actual collection of responses from the identified sample. Quantitative studies utilise two common data collection methods, namely the survey and the observation method (Cant *et al.*, 2008:88). Survey methods are used when the researcher wants to acquire information about the participants, including their opinions, attitudes and behaviour (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:73). Malhotra (2010:211) concur, stating that when using a survey method, an interviewer interacts with the participants, asking specific

questions concerning their attitudes, intentions, behaviour, motivations, awareness, demographic and lifestyle characteristics. Aaker *et al.* (2011:198) state that the participant's opinion of the research topic can be captured by means of a survey. Structured questionnaires are employed typically when using survey methods for systematic and structured data gathering (Walliman, 2011:97).

With drop-off surveys, the researcher or interviewer contacts and explain the purpose of the study to the participant, after which the self-administered questionnaires are delivered to the participants. The researcher or interviewer then leaves the questionnaires with the participants and returns to collect the completed questionnaires after an agreed specified time (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:231). In addition, Malhotra (2010:228) documents that the drop-off surveys are similar to the mail surveys, although they result in higher response rates.

By using the observation method, data is gathered by means of observing the participant without any interaction between the participant and the person observing (Walliman, 2011:100). The observation method is complimented by being an accurate method to gather data because actual behaviour is reported instead of projected or desired behaviour. However, this method is frequently criticised for gathering biased data, as the researcher has little knowledge of the motives, attitudes, preferences and beliefs behind the observed person's behaviour (Malhotra, 2010:237).

The method of data collection chosen for this study was the survey method, where a standardised self-administered questionnaire was utilised to collect the required data specified in Section 3.1. Permission to deliver the self-administered questionnaires was solicited telephonically from lecturers at each of the two HEIs, with permission to distribute the questionnaires to their students. Thereafter, the questionnaires were hand-delivered by the researcher to the contacted staff members residing at the two HEIs, who then distributed the questionnaires to their students for completion during class or after class. The task of the staff members, namely distributing the questionnaires, was made easy by using a structured questionnaire.

The drop-off survey method was applied to collect information pertaining to the South African black Generation Y students' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations, by

means of a structured questionnaire. The research instrument in this study, namely the questionnaire, will be discussed in the next section.

3.5.1 Questionnaire design

A questionnaire is a set of specific questions intended to gather the necessary information from the participants to collect data concerning a problem, in accordance with the research objectives of the study (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:330). According to West (1999:79), the type of data to be gathered, the data analysis process, and the planned number of participants, affects the design of the questionnaire. For a researcher to develop a good quality questionnaire it is critical that the information needed is determined (Cant *et al.*, 2008:148). Malhotra (2010:335) states that it is imperative to design the questionnaire in such a manner that the highest response rate will be attained. Denscombe (2010:163) states that encouraging participants to complete the questionnaire successfully can increase their willingness to participate, thus influencing the success of the questionnaire. Furthermore, Fowler (2009:121) recommends that the instructions and questions included in a self-administered questionnaire should be clear, as the researcher is absent during the data collection process. Therefore, a self-administered questionnaire should include a cover letter (Bradley, 2010:189), introducing the study and explaining the purpose of the survey. The questionnaire should also be appealing and attractive to gain the participant's cooperation and include the researcher's contact details (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:197).

The wording of the questions has a significant influence on the quality of a questionnaire and must therefore be clear. The wording must be stated in such a manner that all the participants interpret each question the same (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:345). Malhotra (2010:348) advises that leading or biasing questions should be avoided, as these questions lead the participant to answer in a particular way. According to West (1999:81), questionnaires should make use of simple wording that matches the participant's level of knowledge. Ambiguous terminology should be avoided, and technical jargon should be minimised in order for the participant to understand each question clearly (Denscombe, 2010:163).

The length of the questionnaire can be described as the average time required for a participant to complete the questionnaire. To ensure quality responses, the length of

the questionnaire should be taken into consideration (Malhotra, 2010:359). McDaniel and Gates (2007:352) propose that the researchers do not exceed 20 minutes when administering questionnaires, particularly in a mall or telephonically. The research method to be used has a direct influence on the length of the questionnaire, as a questionnaire completed by means of a personal interview can be longer than a self-administered questionnaire (West, 1999:88). Although regulating the length of the questionnaire is difficult, it can be done by eliminating redundant questions (Struwig & Stead, 2010:96).

The questionnaire of this study portrayed simple and brief objectives. The phrasing of the questions included in the questionnaire was guided by the aforementioned recommendations. In order for the participants to understand the questions correctly, questions were phrased in a clear manner, using unambiguous and simple words. The questionnaire used in this study could be completed within 10 minutes, which makes the length of the questionnaire acceptable. A cover letter attached to the questionnaire included the purpose of the study and the relevant contact details. The questionnaire is presented in Annexure A, B and C.

3.5.2 Question format

Cardoso and Pinto's (2010) hedonic and utilitarian motivations scale comprising two sub-scales, namely a hedonic shopping motivations sub-scale (20 items) and a utilitarian shopping motivations sub-scale (six items), were used to measure black Generation Y students' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations. The hedonic shopping motivations sub-scale consisted of six constructs, namely adventure shopping (three items), gratification shopping (three items), role shopping (three items), value shopping (four items), social shopping (four items), and idea shopping (three items). The sub-scale comprised 18 items from the original scale, of which two of these items were divided into four to avoid using double-barrel questions (20 items). The two items "I go shopping with my friends or family to socialise" and "I enjoy shopping for my friends and family", were divided into two separate items of which one relates to friends and the other one to family, respectively. The utilitarian shopping motivations sub-scale used comprised two constructs, namely achievement (four items) and efficiency (two items). The sub-scale comprised six items from the original scale. Owing to these sub-scales corresponding with the primary objective of

this study, as formulated in Chapter 1 (Section 1.3.1), they were employed in this study.

The format of a question refers to the amount of freedom given to the participants in providing their responses (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:277). Malhotra (2010:434) differentiates between types of formats, namely a structured or an unstructured questionnaire. A structured questionnaire includes predetermined questions and a series of specified response formats. In contrast, questions included in an unstructured questionnaire are open-ended and the participants are required to use their own words when answering these questions (Bradley, 2010:194). Cant *et al.* (2008:151) accentuate that a participant will more likely complete a self-administered questionnaire when questions are structured. Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:188) add that questionnaires can be classified in two types, namely a disguised questionnaire and an undisguised questionnaire. A disguised questionnaire is suitable when the purpose of the study is not evident to the participant, and an undisguised questionnaire is suitable when the purpose of the study is evident to the participant.

Measurement can be defined as the procedure of assigning numerical values to characteristics of the object being measured (Cant *et al.*, 2008:132). Malhotra (2010:282) states that it is the characteristic of the object being measured rather than the object itself. These characteristics may include the attitude, perception, preference, behaviour or opinion of the object. A scale in the instrument is used to measure these characteristics (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:269); as the scaling procedure creates a pool and places the objects according to the amount of measured characteristics they possess (Wiid & Diggines, 2013:149). Aaker *et al.* (2011:249) emphasise that it is imperative to select a suitable type of scale for the study.

An itemised rating scale refers to a scale with brief descriptions or numerical values connected to each category. By selecting the most appropriate category, the participant rates the object according to the perceived attitude or opinion (Singh, 2010:190; Malhotra, 2010:308; Wiid & Diggines, 2013:156). The three most commonly used itemised rating scales are the semantic differential scale, the Stapel scale and the Likert scale (Malhotra, 2010:308; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:239; Cant *et al.*, 2008:141; Wiid & Diggines, 2013:156).

- Semantic differential scale:** The semantic differential scale consists of two contrasting adjectives at opposite ends of the scale that are related to the object being measured (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:192). Participants are required to indicate a point between these two adjectives which best describes their thoughts, perceptions or feelings concerning the object being evaluated (Shiu *et al.*, 2009:424). Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:241) state that this scale comprises three dimensions, namely evaluation, potency and activity. The evaluation dimension includes contrasting words such as good and bad, the potency dimension is represented by words such as strong and weak, and the activity dimension includes words such as fast and slow. According to Aaker *et al.* (2011:261), this scale consists of seven categories of which the endpoints are opposite adjectives. Numerical values, ranging from one to seven, can also be assigned to these seven categories, and adding the scores will give each participant a total. The negative adjective should randomly be allocated on the right and left side, to force participants to read before responding. This scale is most suitable for investigating strengths and weaknesses of a product or brand image, while being quick, effective and sufficiently reliable (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:304).
- Staple scale:** The Staple scale is similar to the semantic differential scale but is modified in a manner that the statements are measured independently rather than simultaneously. Participants are asked to identify how well the specific phrase describes the subject, but instead of two opposing terms, the phrase only consists of one term (Wiid & Diggines, 2013:158), which according to Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:243), is the main benefit for utilising this scale. Cant *et al.* (2008:144) specify that this scale usually consist of ten numerical categories ranging from -5 to +5. This scale is usually presented in a vertical manner, with the descriptor in the middle, and it has no neutral point (Malhotra, 2010:311). When a participant allocates a high score to an object, that adjective gives a good description of the object (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:262). According to McDaniel and Gates (2007:306), this scale determines the attitude of the participant towards the object, including the intensity of that attitude. The descriptor can be worded as positive, negative or neutral, and this might have an effect on the participant's response.

- **Likert scale:** The Likert scale, also known as the summated scale (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:259), comprises a series of statements that express a favourable or unfavourable attitude in relation to the object being measured (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:307). Burns and Bush (2010:312) point out that the participants are requested to specify the level to which they agree or disagree on a symmetric agree-disagree scale. Numerical numbers are usually assigned to each statement for analysing purposes, whereby participants are asked to rate their relative agreements or disagreements in accordance to the statement, where the most positive statement will have the highest score and the most negative statement will have the lowest score (Cant *et al.*, 2008:142). The Likert scale can be modified by researchers to consist out of five, six or seven points. However, the six-point scale has the advantage of forcing the participant to choose between a negative or positive answer, as a midpoint indicates uncertainty of the participant (Shiu *et al.*, 2009:422). Malhotra (2010:309) specifies that when using this scale, analysis can be done by means of an item-by-item approach, also known as profile analysis, or the total score of each participant can be calculated to determine whether the participant has an overall positive or negative attitude towards the subject being researched. The major advantage, according to Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:241), is that participants find this scale easy to use and it measures the intensity of what the participant is feeling towards the object being measured. However, Malhotra (2010:309) states that the completion of a Likert scale may take longer than other itemised rating scales, as the participant has to read every statement.

For the purpose of this study, a Likert scale was implemented as the measuring instrument to measure the participants' different shopping motivations. In Section B of the questionnaire of this study, a six-point Likert scale was employed to measure the participants' rate of agreement or disagreement with each specific item, which is consistent with other similar studies measuring shopping motivations (Kim, 2006; Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Cardoso & Pinto, 2010; Jamal *et al.*, 2006; Ozen & Kodaz, 2012; To *et al.*, 2007). Each of these statements were unified with numerical values, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6). Wiid and Diggines (2013:160) state that the researcher should decide whether a forced or unforced

response would benefit the study. Therefore, for the purpose of this study the midpoint of the scale, representing the indecisive attitude, was removed.

The question formulation for the measuring instrument used in this study was finalised according to the abovementioned techniques and effects. For the purpose of this study, a self-administered questionnaire consisting of structured questions, measured in an undisguised manner, was used as the measuring instrument. The demographic characteristics of the participants, including the questions directly associated with the topic of the study, were obtained by means of multiple-choice questions.

3.5.3 Questionnaire layout

Burns and Bush (2010:341) define questionnaire layout as the order or flow of statements and questions included in a questionnaire. Aaker *et al.* (2011:289) emphasise that the layout of the questionnaire is critical because of the effect it has on the participant's willingness to complete the questionnaire. According to Cant *et al.* (2001:156), it is imperative to assemble the questions in a logical but interesting manner, placing the easy questions first in order not to intimidate the participants. Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:220) advise that screening questions should be placed in the first section of the questionnaire. Malhotra (2010:352) suggests that although the questionnaire should be divided into several sections, related questions should be clustered together. Struwig and Stead (2010:89) concur, stating that it is essential to group questions pertaining to certain subjects into logical sections.

A questionnaire should consist of several sections, in order to collect various types of information (Malhotra, 2010:352). For the purpose of this study, the questionnaire was divided into two sections, namely Section A and Section B (refer to Annexure B). The participants' demographic information was obtained in Section A. Demographic variables or information can be defined as those properties of a participant that are fixed characteristics that normally cannot be changed by any marketing efforts (Berndt & Petzer (2011:184). As advised by Malhotra (2010:340), two filter questions relating to demographic information were included in Section A to certify that the participants met all the requirements of the sample. The first requirement included the participants' age to ensure that the participants are part of the defined target

population of 18 to 24 years of age. The second requirement included the participants' ethnic group, which was included to ensure that only black Generation Y participants' information was analysed and interpreted.

The second section, Section B, was designed to obtain information pertaining to the research topic and objectives, known as the basic information (Malhotra, 2010:350). The measuring instrument utilised to obtain the topic-related information for this study comprise two sub-scales and was adopted from the measuring instruments of Cardoso and Pinto (2010).

The different items in the two sub-scales address the different research objectives, stated in Chapter 1 (Section 1.3.3). Table 3.2 comprises the various constructs of the two sub-scales relating to hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations, as discussed in Chapter 2 (Section 2.3.3 and Section 2.6.3). Although these constructs were specifically adopted from Cardoso and Pinto (2010), numerous other authors have also researched these constructs in the measurement of hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations.

Table 3.2: Hedonic shopping motivations

Constructs	Authors
Sub-scale: Hedonic shopping motivations	
Gratification shopping	Arnold & Reynolds (2003); Cardoso & Pinto (2010); Guido (2006); Hemalatha & Ravichandran (2009); Jamal <i>et al.</i> (2006); Kaur & Singh (2007); Ozen & Kodaz (2012); Wagner & Rudolph (2010)
Adventure shopping	Arnold & Reynolds (2003); Guido (2006); Hemalatha & Ravichandran (2009); Michon <i>et al.</i> (2007); Ozen & Kodaz (2012); To <i>et al.</i> (2007);
Idea shopping	Arnold & Reynolds (2003); Cardoso & Pinto (2010); Guido (2006); Hemalatha & Ravichandran (2009); Kaur & Singh (2007); Ozen & Kodaz (2012); To <i>et al.</i> (2007); Wagner & Rudolph (2010)

Table 3.2: Hedonic shopping motivations (continued...)

Constructs	Authors
Social shopping	Arnold & Reynolds (2003); Guido (2006); Hemalatha & Ravichandran (2009); Jamal <i>et al.</i> (2006); Cardoso & Pinto (2010); Kaur & Singh (2007); Noble (2006); Ozen & Kodaz (2012); To <i>et al.</i> (2007); Wagner & Rudolph (2010)
Role shopping	Arnold & Reynolds (2003); Cardoso & Pinto (2010); Hemalatha & Ravichandran (2009); Jamal <i>et al.</i> (2006); Kaur & Singh (2007); Wagner & Rudolph (2010)
Value shopping	Arnold & Reynolds (2003); Cardoso & Pinto (2010); Guido (2006); Hemalatha & Ravichandran (2009); Jamal <i>et al.</i> (2006); Kaur & Singh (2007); To <i>et al.</i> (2007); Ozen & Kodaz (2012); Wagner & Rudolph (2010)
Sub-scale: Utilitarian shopping motivations	
Achievement	Cardoso & Pinto (2010); Jamal <i>et al.</i> (2006); Kim (2006); Michon <i>et al.</i> (2007);
Efficiency	Cardoso & Pinto (2010); Eastlick & Feinberg (1999); Jamal <i>et al.</i> (2006); Kaur & Singh (2007); Kim (2006); Noble (2006); Wagner & Rudolph (2010)

The subsequent section comprises a discussion on the methods utilised in the pre-testing of the questionnaire.

3.6 PRE-TESTING OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Before a questionnaire can be employed in a study, it should undergo a pre-test and a pilot study. A questionnaire is pre-tested in order to detect and correct possible problems concerning the understanding and completion of the questionnaire (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:292). According to Shiu *et al.* (2009:348), pretesting can be defined as the administration of the questionnaire to a small representative group of participants who

are requested to complete and evaluate the questionnaire, including making recommendations on how the researcher can improve it. The recommendations made by these participants must be considered and the necessary changes must be made before the questionnaire is administered to the main sample of the study (McDaniel & Gates, (2007:355). Therefore, as stated by Cant *et al.* (2008:156), pre-testing assists in identifying and repairing possible problems. By coding and tabulating the results from the pre-test, it can help guarantee the success of a questionnaire (Iacobucci & Churchill, (2010:224). McDaniel and Gates (2007:353) advise that the pre-test should be executed using the same method as in the main study. Furthermore, the sample used in the pre-test should be representative of the main sample (Malhotra, 2010:354). Pre-tests are necessary to identify the aspects such as words, phrases and instructions that are confusing and difficult to understand, including ensuring the question flow (Burns & Bush, 2010:354). However, there is no guarantee that the pre-testing will expose all the problems in the questionnaire (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:294).

Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:224) suggest that regardless of the method of survey, the pre-test should first be conducted by means of a personal interview, due to this method being effective for observing the attitudes and reactions of the participants. When using the debriefing method the participant completes the questionnaire. Thereafter, the interviewer debriefs the participant by asking whether there were any difficulties in the completion of the questionnaire, whether any question were confusing, and whether the questionnaire can be improved in any way (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:292).

Once the questionnaire for this study was designed, pre-testing was conducted by means of the debriefing approach. Firstly, to identify possible mistakes, the questionnaire was assessed by two experienced researchers. Thereafter, four academic staff members, one of which was a first language English speaker and the other three second language English speakers, were asked to participate in the debriefing process to pre-testing the questionnaire. The main aim of using this approach to the study was to ascertain that the questionnaire could be understood by first language English-, and non-first language English-speaking participants. This is in accordance to the multilingual context of the South African environment. It took the participants approximately 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire, which was sufficient

according to McDaniel and Gates (2007:352). The feedback received from the pre-testing stage was used to refine the items in the questionnaire.

After the questionnaire has been modified, as suggested by the feedback from the pre-test, the questionnaire was then distributed for pilot testing. Shiu *et al.* (2009:348) indicate that a pilot test is done to ensure the validity and reliability, as well as the clarity of the questions. The sample of participants for the pilot test was chosen using convenience sampling. This sample included 44 full-time undergraduate students and was attained from a HEI that did not form part of the main sample. Corrections were made to the questionnaire, according to problems identified within the pilot test. Thereafter, the final questionnaire combined with a cover letter (refer to Annexure A), was distributed for the main survey.

3.7 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Administration of the questionnaire involves the collection of the data (Shiu *et al.*, 2009:486). For the completion of this study, the main survey was conducted on a sample of 600 black Generation Y full-time undergraduate students in April 2013. Permission to conduct the research was obtained from participating academic staff members at each institution to distribute the self-administered questionnaires during class time. One class period was deemed sufficient as it took approximately 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Attached to the questionnaire was a cover letter that explained the nature and purpose of the study, including instructions on how to complete the questionnaire. After permission was solicited, the questionnaire was hand delivered to the participating staff members personally by the researcher. The lecturers were requested to inform their students that participation in the study was voluntary. The questionnaires were collected upon completion from the relevant lecturers.

The final data congregated from this study, was tabulated and analysed with the intention of drawing conclusions and making recommendations. The analysis and findings are presented in Chapter 4.

3.8 PRELIMINARY DATA ANALYSIS

According to Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:350), preliminary data analysis includes data editing, coding, and tabulation. Editing involves ensuring that the data captured is accurate and complete (Wiid & Diggines, 2013:221), by checking for ambiguities, discrepancies and response errors (Cant *et al.*, 2010:189). On completion of the questionnaire editing, the data can be coded. Coding is the process where codes are assigned to each particular response of a question (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:332). Burns and Bush (2010:460) state that coding simplify the data analysis processes due to the numeric codes utilised, thus enabling data capturing to be quick and easy. The final step in the data analysis process is tabulation. By calculating all the responses that can be categorised under several groups, the data is tabulated (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:385). Furthermore, analysis of every question individually is done by tabulation. Shiu *et al.* (2009:510) identify a one-way frequency table as the simplest form of tabulations. This form of tabulation is used to calculate the occurrence of different values of the variable measured (Malhotra, 2010:484).

The questionnaire used in this study was carefully edited, coded and tabulated. The questionnaire was divided into two sections. Section A was designed to collect demographic data and Section B measured the participants shopping motivations. Under the supervision of the study leader, and with the assistance of a statistician, the questionnaire was pre-coded. The statistical analysis procedures implemented to present the data obtained from the survey are discussed next.

3.9 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical analysis is the procedure where statistical techniques are implemented to provide a summary of the data (Shiu *et al.*, 2009:524). Wiid and Diggines (2009:242) stipulate that statistical analysis is used to give a description of the data, to measure the significance, and to do comparisons between empirical data sets.

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) is a sophisticated software package that was developed to assist researchers with a variety of tasks, including defining the research problem, the development of a research approach, up to the analysis and the presentation of the data (Malhotra, 2010:59). In addition, Shiu *et al.*

(2009:523) state that while SPSS is simple to use, it assists with the computing of means, medians, modes, and other data mining activities. For the purpose of managing the analysis of the data for this study, the SPSS program, Version 21 for Microsoft Windows was used. The following statistical techniques were applied on the empirical data sets:

- Reliability analysis
- Validity analysis
- Confirmatory factor analysis
- Descriptive analysis
- Significance tests

The following sections outline the statistical methods applied on the empirical data sets.

3.9.1 Reliability analysis

A reliability analysis measures whether a multi-item scale returns consistent results in repeated measurements, therefore being free of random error (Burns & Bush, 2010:319). A scale is considered reliable when a repeated measurement presents consistent results (Bradley, 2010:60). Aaker *et al.* (2011:270) state that there are two types of errors, namely random and systematic error. Random error is inconsistent and affects the measurement in a transient manner (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:274). Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:254) indicate that systematic error is an error that occurs continuously when the same measuring instrument is used, or it affects the measurement in a constant way. Malhotra (2010:318) emphasise that systematic error does not affect the reliability or causes inconsistency, whereas random error yields inconsistency, as well as reducing reliability.

The assessment of the reliability of a measurement can be done using a number of different approaches, namely test-retest reliability, alternative form reliability and internal consistency reliability (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:275; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:259; Malhotra, 2010:318; Cant *et al.*, 2008:235).

- **Test-retest reliability:** The test-retest reliability technique occurs when the same scale items are tested on the same participants, under similar conditions, at two different points in time (Cant *et al.*, 2008:235). Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:259) advise that the interval between the two tests may affect the results and therefore must range between two to four weeks. Limited differences in the results of the two measurements, which is calculated by the correlation coefficient (Malhotra, 2010:319), are an indication that the scale is reliable (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:270). Malhotra (2010:319) opines that the higher the correlation coefficient is, the higher the reliability of the scale. McDaniel and Gates (2007:275) state that differences in the results of the two measurements may occur due to personal or environmental factors that changed, or a lack of cooperation from the participants for a second testing.
- **Alternative forms reliability:** When using the alternative forms reliability technique, two similar or equivalent instruments are tested on the same participants or objects during the same period (Cant *et al.*, 2008:235). McDaniel and Gates (2007:277) recommend that the two instruments should be administered at two different points in time, with a two-week interval. Furthermore, this method also assesses the reliability by means of calculating the correlation between the scores of the two instruments. According to Malhotra (2010:319), developing two equivalent measuring instruments is found to be time-consuming, expensive and a difficult process, resulting in this approach to be problematic.
- **Internal consistency reliability:** Internal consistency reliability is implemented to determine whether a summated scale is reliable and is done by adding the scale items together to calculate a total score (Malhotra, 2010:319). The split-half reliability measure of internal consistency is considered the most uncomplicated measurement (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:258). This approach involves dividing the scale items in half. This division can be done randomly or by dividing the scale items in half according to odd or even numbered items and then correlating the resulting half scores (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:270). According to McDaniel and Gates (2007:278), the split-half consistency measure can be problematic because the coefficient of reliability changes with the manner in which the scale items are divided. Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:259) state that there is a more accurate way to determine the internal consistency of a scale, namely the coefficient alpha,

otherwise known as the Cronbach's alpha (Cant *et al.*, 2008:235). The Cronbach alpha technique is a popular measure of internal consistency and is frequently used to overcome the problems experienced with split-half reliability (Malhotra, 2010:319). This technique entails splitting scale items in every manner possible, calculating the correlation coefficient of each split and then calculating the mean of all possible split-half coefficients (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:270).

For the purpose of this study, the internal consistency reliability approach was employed in determining the reliability of the scale, through implementing the Cronbach's coefficient alpha technique. A pilot study was conducted prior to the final study to determine if the scale variables were reliable and to ensure consistency. For a measurement instrument to be valid, it has to be reliable, as an unreliable instrument will be inconsistent and of no empirical value (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:278). Therefore, it is important to determine a scales' reliability first before measuring its validity.

3.9.2 Validity analysis

Validity is the extent to which a measure accurately and truthfully represents the characteristics being measured (Burns & Bush, 2010:319). The validity of a scale can be measured by determining whether the scale is actually measuring what it is intended to measure (Bradley, 2010:60). Cant *et al.* (2008:235) state that a scale that represents perfect validity contains no random or systematic error.

Validity can be portioned into two categories, namely internal and external validity, where internal validity determines whether a change in a dependent variable can be the effect of the introduction of a sovereign variable (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:109). Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:107) stipulate that external validity is a necessity when the researcher wants to generalise the data obtained. Validity of a measuring instrument can be determined by means of content validity, criterion validity and construct validity (Malhotra, 2010:320; McDaniel & Gates, 2007:278; Cant *et al.*, 2008:235; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:256; Aaker *et al.*, 2011:269).

- **Content validity:** The content validity of a measuring instrument describes the degree to which the scale items represent the theoretical construct being measured (Shiu *et al.*, 2009:382). Aaker *et al.* (2011:269) state that content validity can also

be referred to as face validity or consensus validity. According to McDaniel and Gates (2007:278), content validity differs from face validity due to face validity being an evaluation of whether the measurement instrument looks like it measures what it is supposed to measure. Malhotra (2010:320) states that a researcher or an expert usually evaluates the content validity of a scale. Cant *et al.* (2008:235) point out that a high correlation between the judgements of an expert and a non-expert on the scale will result in content validity. Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:257) emphasise that the researcher or an expert usually analyses whether the scale items cover the entire domain. For the purpose of ascertaining content validity of the scale employed in this study, the above-mentioned steps were followed and a pilot study was conducted.

- **Criterion validity:** Criterion validity can be defined as the assessment of the measurement instrument to perform as anticipated in relation to other important variables (Cant *et al.*, 2008:235). Malhotra (2010:320) indicates that criterion variables are usually selected pertaining to the following, demographic and psychographic features, attitudinal and behavioural propensities, or measures acquired from a related measuring instrument. McDaniel and Gates (2007:281) state that criterion validity can be divided into two subsets, namely predictive and concurrent validity. Predictive validity refers to assessing the extent to which a current item on a measurement instrument can be utilised to predict a future criterion variable, whereas concurrent validity is based on the present, assessing the linkage between the measure and the criterion variables, occurring in the same interval (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:257).
- **Construct validity:** Cant *et al.* (2008:236) define construct validity as the assessment of the measuring instrument in relation to characteristics within the theoretical context of the topic under study. According to McDaniel and Gates (2007:282), construct validity consists of convergent and discriminant validity, where convergent validity measures a high level of association found amongst diverse measures that is developed to measure an identical concept. Discriminant validity measures a low level of association found amongst diverse measures that are not developed to measure the same concept (Shiu *et al.*, 2009:382). Malhotra (2010:321) identifies another type of construct validity, namely nomological

validity that can be defined by the level that the scale correlates, with measures of different but connected constructs, in a theoretically expected manner.

For the purpose of this study, the measuring instrument was assessed by means of content and construct validity. The construct validity of the utilised scale was determined by making use of inter-item correlations. These correlations should range from 0.15 to 0.50 (Clark & Watson, 1995:316). Following the measurement of reliability and validity of the measuring instrument, confirmatory factor analysis was employed on the captured data. A discussion on the confirmatory factor analysis pertaining to this study follows.

3.9.3 Confirmatory factor analysis

Factor analysis is described as a method used to condense large sets of variables into smaller, manageable sets of factors (Webb, 2003:200). This is done by seeking inter-correlations among a large set of variables to determine the various factors (Malhotra, 2010:636). Two methods of factor analysis are exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis. Etchegaray (2013:170) state that exploratory factor analysis is analytical in nature, and researchers use this type of analysis when the hypotheses are unknown. The purpose of exploratory factor analysis is to determine which variables are either dependently, or independently, inter-correlated (Struwig and Stead, 2010:142). In contrast to exploratory factor analysis, Malhotra (2010:727) describes confirmatory factor analysis as a method used to determine whether the variables of a scale load as expected on their relevant factors, thereby verifying the factor structure of the indicator variables. Struwig and Stead (2010:142) concur that a confirmatory factor analysis confirms or discards the predicted factor structure.

For the purpose of this study, confirmatory factor analysis, using varimax rotation, was used to determine whether the items in the hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations scale, load as expected, based on the Cardoso and Pinto (2010) study. Following confirmatory factor analysis, descriptive analysis were utilised to summarise the captured data. A discussion on the descriptive analysis employed in this study follows.

3.9.4 Descriptive analysis

Descriptive analysis is utilised to summarise the information obtained from the sample to represent the overall pattern and the characteristics of the participants (Burns & Bush, 2010:461). McDaniel and Gates (2007:461) state that descriptive statistical techniques are very effective for simplifying and articulating vast amounts of data. Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:59) stipulate that descriptive analysis can also provide the researcher with an opportunity to determine the frequency of variables and the effect different variables have on one another. Descriptive statistical techniques utilised in this study were measures of location, measures of variability, and measures of shape (Malhotra, 2010:486).

- **Measures of location:** The measures of location, also referred to as measures of central tendency, determine the central point of a distribution or the most frequent response. Measures of location comprise three statistical measures, namely the arithmetic mean, the median and the mode (Malhotra, 2010:486). The mean is used to determine the average score (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:387) and is calculated by determining all the variables obtained from the measuring instrument and then dividing the total with the amount of responses (Shiu *et al.*, 2009:515). The median can be described as the value in the middle of a set of variables, which are ordered either ascending or descending (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:462). Burns and Bush (2010:466) define the value that occurs most frequently in an ordered array of variables as the mode. The measure of location chosen for this study was the mean.
- **Measures of variability:** Measures of variability or dispersion are used to determine the extent to which the data are widely distributed or the differences between the variables in a data set (Burns & Bush, 2010:466). According to McDaniel and Gates (2007:462), the standard deviation, range and variance are all methods for computing measures of variability. Standard deviation is the square root of variance, here variance is the mean squared deviation, from the total values concerning the calculation of the mean (Malhotra, 2010:487). The range symbolises the distribution of the data and the span between the lowest and the highest values (Shiu *et al.*, 2009:515).

- **Measures of shape:** Measures of shape is utilised to comprehend the nature of the distribution of the data. This can be done by assessing the skewness and kurtosis. Skewness can be defined as the assessment of the symmetry of the distribution, and kurtosis describes how flat or peaked the distribution is (Malhotra, 2010:488).

The statistics applied in this study were descriptive in nature. The main reason was to determine if the data was distributed normally and to summarise significant characteristics of the data.

3.9.5 Significance tests

Significance testing is the process used to test the hypothesis formulated for the study. Shiu *et al.* (2009:537) identify the level of significance as the total risk the researcher is prepared to accept pertaining to the accuracy of the hypothesis being tested. In order to accept or reject the hypothesis formulated for the study, the existence of a significant difference between the findings from the sample selected and what the findings would have been if the whole population was taken into account should be determined (Bradley, 2010:327). A hypothesis can be defined as a statement about a parameter pertaining to the population (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:401). Wiid and Diggines (2013:4) state that a null hypothesis (H_0), indicating no variances between different groups, has an opposing alternative hypothesis (H_a), indicating variances between different groups. Malhotra (2010:490) indicates that the null hypothesis is the hypothesis that is tested. Both the hypotheses cannot be accepted; therefore, it is necessary to compare the test statistic's probability with the specified significance level and, accordingly, make the decision of whether to reject or not to reject the null hypothesis (Malhotra, 2010:490). This study involves the hypothesis testing of differences of means between independent samples. For this study, 12 hypotheses were formulated and the significant level was set at $\alpha = 0.05$ (Malhotra, 2010:492). A discussion on the statistical techniques used to test these hypotheses follows.

3.9.5.1 T-tests

According to Malhotra (2010:504), t-tests are utilised for the purpose of drawing conclusions according to the means of the population under study. The one-sample t-test, independent sample t-test and a paired sample t-test can be used in examining the differences between means. A one-sample t-test involves comparing a sample's mean

against an expected mean (Malhotra, 2010:504). Zikmund and Babin (2013:390,406) distinguish between independent-sample t-tests and paired-sample t-tests. An independent-sample t-test tests the variances between the mean scores obtained from two independent samples included in the target population. However, paired-sample t-tests are used to examine the variances between the mean scores obtained by two observations from the same participants.

For the purpose of this study, a one-sample t-test was used to determine whether black Generation Y students' hedonic and utilitarian motivations had a statistically significant influence on their motivation for shopping. In addition, a two-sample independent t-test was carried out to determine whether there were any statistically significant differences between the study's male and female participants concerning their hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations. The significance levels for both t-tests were set at the conventional five percent levels.

3.9.5.2 Cohen's D-statistic

In addition to the t-tests that were utilised to determine whether a statistically significant difference between mean scores exist, the Cohen's D-statistic is employed to determine the practical significance of the differences found (Ofori-Dankwa & Tierman, 2002:280) and can be interpreted using the following guidelines:

- $0.20 \leq d \leq 0.50$: signifies a small, practically non-significant effect
- $0.50 \leq d \leq 0.80$: signifies a medium-sized effect moving towards practical significance
- $0.80 \leq d$: signifies a large effect that has reached practical significance.

3.9.5.3 Analysis of variance

Analysis of variance, universally known as ANOVA, is used for statistically testing two or more means (Aaker *et al.*, 2011:422). Bradley (2010:322) states that ANOVA is utilised to investigate the variances among mean scores. According to Zikmund and Babin (2013:396), ANOVA is a method used to investigate whether independent variables have an effect on dependent variables. Two types of ANOVA are identified, namely one-way ANOVA and two-way or *n*-way ANOVA. One-way ANOVA is defined as involving one factor, where two-way ANOVA involves two or more

factors (Malhotra, 2010:531). For the purpose of this study, one-way ANOVA was conducted.

3.10 SYNOPSIS

This chapter discussed the research methodology implemented for the empirical part of this study, referring to the research design and approach, the sampling strategy as well as the measuring instrument, including the pre-testing and administration thereof, and the statistical procedures followed.

The findings of the empirical part of this study are presented in the following chapter (Chapter 4). This includes the tabulation, interpretation and discussion of the pilot and the main study's results, as well as the results regarding the demographic information, descriptive analyses and hypotheses testing. With Chapter 4 as a foundation, conclusions and recommendations for this study are outlined in the final chapter.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter consists of a discussion pertaining to the analysis and interpretation of the empirical findings of the study's pilot and main survey. Section 4.2 reports on the results found during the pilot test. The preliminary data analysis, including the coding and tabulation of the data, is found in Section 4.3 of this chapter. Section 4.4 encompasses a discussion on the descriptive analysis of the data, including the demographical information of the participants, the reliability and validity of the scale, the confirmatory factor analysis of the scale, the descriptive statistics, as well as the participants' shopping motivations. The different hypotheses for this study are formulated, discussed and tested in Section 4.5.

For the purpose of conducting the data analysis, SPSS Version 21 for Microsoft Windows was used. The data analysis was conducted in two stages. Analysing the results of the pilot testing of the questionnaire was the first stage and the second stage involved analysing the results found within the main survey's data sets.

4.2 RESULTS OF THE PILOT TEST

Before conducting the pilot study, the questionnaire was pre-tested. A pre-test is used for various reasons, such as to detect and correct possible problems (Cant *et al.*, 2008:156), to ensure content and face validity, and to improve the questionnaire, where necessary (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:224). Two experienced researchers and four academic staff members participated in the pre-testing of the questionnaire. The results obtained from the pre-test were used to refine the questionnaire. The refined questionnaire consisted of 20 Likert-scaled items for the hedonic sub-scale, and six Likert-scaled questions for the utilitarian sub-scale. Once the pre-test was completed, the questionnaire was pilot tested in order to establish the reliability of the scale within the questionnaire. The pilot testing of the questionnaire was conducted on a

convenience sample of 44 full-time undergraduate students at a HEI campus that did not form part of the sampling frame of the main study. The results pertaining to the reliability of the two sub-scales found within the pilot test is presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Summary of the pilot testing results

Items	Number of items	Cronbach alpha
Hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations scale	26	0.948
Sub-scale: Hedonic shopping motivations	20	0.959
Construct 1 – Gratification shopping	3	0.913
Construct 2 – Adventure shopping	3	0.897
Construct 3 – Idea shopping	3	0.929
Construct 4 – Social shopping	4	0.917
Construct 5 – Role shopping	4	0.904
Construct 6 – Value shopping	3	0.878
Sub-scale: Utilitarian shopping motivations	6	0.570
Construct 7 – Achievement	4	0.909
Construct 8 – Efficiency	2	*

* Minimum of 3 items required to calculate

The Cronbach alpha coefficient was calculated to determine the reliability of the questionnaire. The six-point scale returned a Cronbach alpha value for the entire scale of 0.948, which is above the recommended level of 0.60 (Wiid & Diggines, 2013:238). The average inter-item correlation of 0.420 for the entire scale falls within the recommended range of 0.15 and 0.5 (Clark & Watson, 1995:316). The hedonic sub-scale (20 items) returned a Cronbach alpha value of 0.959, which exceeds the recommended level of 0.60 and suggests that the sub-scale is reliable (Wiid &

Diggines, 2013:238). Although the average inter-item correlation of the hedonic scale of 0.538 falls slightly outside the recommended inter-item range, the sub-scale was found to be reliable; therefore, none of the variables were removed.

The utilitarian sub-scale delivered a Cronbach alpha value of 0.570. Whilst this falls below the acceptable level, Pallant (2010:97, 100) indicates that an average inter-item correlation of between 0.2 and 0.4 indicates that a scale exhibits internal consistency reliability. The average inter-item correlation for the utilitarian sub-scale equated to 0.212, which falls inside the recommended inter-item range. As such, none of the items included in the utilitarian scale were changed, as this scale was found reliable. These 20 items from the hedonic motivations scale, including the six items from the utilitarian scale, were then used to prepare the main survey questionnaire (refer to Annexure C), which was administered to a larger sample size. Table 4.2 provides an overview of the descriptions of these variables and constructs.

Table 4.2: Description of variables and constructs

Code	Variables	Construct
Sub-scale: Hedonic shopping motivations		
B1	When I am in a down mood, I go shopping to make myself feel better.	Construct 1– Gratification shopping
B2	Shopping makes me feel like I am in my own universe.	
B3	To me, shopping is a way to relieve stress.	
B4	I find shopping stimulating.	Construct 2 – Adventure shopping
B5	To me shopping is an adventure.	
B6	I go shopping when I want to treat myself to something special.	

Table 4.2: Description of variables and constructs (continued...)

Code	Variables	Construct
B7	I go shopping to keep up with the new fashions.	Construct 3- Idea shopping
B8	I go shopping to keep up with the trends.	
B9	I go shopping to see what new products are available.	
B10	I enjoy socialising with others when I shop.	Construct 4 – Social shopping
B11	I go shopping with my friends to socialise.	
B12	I go shopping with my family to socialise.	
B13	Shopping with others is a bonding experience.	
B14	I enjoy shopping for my friends.	Construct 5 – Role shopping
B15	I enjoy shopping for my family.	
B16	I like shopping for others because when they feel good, I feel good.	
B17	I enjoy shopping around to find the perfect gift for someone.	
B18	I enjoy looking for discounts when I shop.	Construct 6 – Value shopping
B19	I enjoy hunting for bargains when I shop.	
B20	Generally, I go shopping when stores are having sales.	

Table 4.2: Description of variables and constructs (continued...)

Sub-scale: Utilitarian shopping motivations		
Code	Variables	Construct
B21	It feels good to know my shopping trip was successful.	Construct 7 – Achievement
B22	On a particular shopping trip, it is important to find items I am looking for.	
B23	It is important to accomplish what I had planned on a particular shopping trip.	
B24	I like to feel clever when I reflect on my shopping trip.	
B25	I prefer if I get my shopping done as fast as possible.	Construct 8 –
B26	I prefer to get all my shopping done in one place, rather than having to go to multiple places.	Efficiency

4.3 PRELIMINARY DATA ANALYSIS

It is recommended that a preliminary data analysis should be conducted before the data set is analysed. This preliminary analysis should be conducted using coding, data gathering and tabulation. Therefore, the following three sections provide an overview of the coding, data gathering process and tabulation employed in this study.

4.3.1 Coding

Wiid and Diggines (2013:222-223) describe coding as the process used to assign a numerical value to each possible response for every question or item forming part of the questionnaire. For the purpose of this study, the questionnaire was divided into two sections, namely Section A and Section B. Section A comprises the demographical information and Section B the 26 items regarding the shopping motivations of the participants. Table 4.3 presents the variables and codes used in Section A and B of the final questionnaire.

Table 4.3: Coding information

Section A: Demographical data		
Question	Construct measured	Code
Question 1	Institution	A1
Question 2	Province of origin	A2
Question 3	Current year of study	A3
Question 4	Gender	A4
Question 5	Ethnic group	A5
Question 6	Mother tongue language	A6
Question 7	Age at last birthday	A7
Section B: Hedonic shopping motivations sub-scale		
Item	Construct measured	Code
Item 1	Gratification shopping	B1
Item 2	Gratification shopping	B2
Item 3	Gratification shopping	B3
Item 4	Adventure shopping	B4
Item 5	Adventure shopping	B5
Item 6	Adventure shopping	B6
Item 7	Idea shopping	B7
Item 8	Idea shopping	B8
Item 9	Idea shopping	B9
Item 10	Social shopping	B10
Item 11	Social shopping	B11
Item 12	Social shopping	B12
Item 13	Social shopping	B13
Item 14	Role shopping	B14

Table 4.3: Coding information (continued...)

Section B: Utilitarian shopping motivations sub-scale		
Item	Construct measured	Code
Item 15	Role shopping	B15
Item 16	Role shopping	B16
Item 17	Role shopping	B17
Item 18	Value shopping	B18
Item 19	Value shopping	B19
Item 20	Value shopping	B20
Item 21	Achievement	B21
Item 22	Achievement	B22
Item 23	Achievement	B23
Item 24	Achievement	B24
Item 25	Efficiency	B25
Item 26	Efficiency	B26

The following section pertains to the data gathering process.

4.3.2 Data gathering process

In accordance with the sampling plan set out in Chapter 3, once permission was obtained from lecturers to distribute the questionnaire, 600 self-administered questionnaires were hand-delivered to the participating lecturers at the two selected HEI campuses (300 questionnaires per HEI), who distributed the questionnaires to students, either during class time or after class. The final questionnaire comprised 33 items, as specified in Chapter 3. The first section, Section A, obtained the participant's demographical information and consisted of seven items. The second section, Section B, determined the participant's shopping motivations and consisted of 26 items. The cover letter, explaining the aim and purpose of the research study, as well as the questionnaire items, formed part of the three-page questionnaire.

Of the 600 questionnaires handed out, 585 completed questionnaires were returned, which indicates a 98 percent response rate. Any questionnaires completed by non-black students or students falling outside the specified 18 to 24 year age range were discarded. The remaining 404 questionnaires translate into an actual response rate of 67 percent. The traditional university returned 226 questionnaires and the university of technology returned 178 questionnaires. The tabulation of the data obtained by this questionnaire is discussed in the succeeding section.

4.3.3 Tabulation

After coding and gathering the data, the data should be tabulated. Struwig and Stead (2010:151) describe tabulation as the process whereby raw data is organised and summarised in a format that shows the number of responses in each response category in a way that will be helpful to the study's objectives. Table 4.4 presents the frequencies obtained from the total sample for Section B of the questionnaire, which aimed at measuring black Generation Y students' hedonic (B1-B20) and utilitarian (B21-B26) shopping motivations.

Table 4.4: Frequency table of responses

Code	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1	110	78	34	72	65	45
B2	60	66	52	86	76	64
B3	81	87	46	73	64	53
B4	40	61	53	97	111	42
B5	39	50	54	92	99	70
B6	23	31	25	75	116	134
B7	46	44	41	102	90	81
B8	39	55	62	104	92	52
B9	33	35	46	85	112	93

Table 4.4: Frequency table of responses (continued...)

Code	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6
B10	51	63	53	70	104	63
B11	47	65	46	88	88	70
B12	55	73	61	81	75	59
B13	30	48	51	85	106	84
B14	93	79	62	66	54	50
B15	37	47	43	80	111	86
B16	58	84	62	104	62	34
B17	22	36	41	88	138	79
B18	18	20	26	56	112	172
B19	26	29	51	85	88	125
B20	29	41	48	100	96	90
B21	11	11	16	59	137	170
B22	4	7	15	48	129	201
B23	4	9	21	54	130	186
B24	19	26	51	79	137	92
B25	42	47	58	82	75	100
B26	98	60	52	45	61	87

Section 4.4 reports on the descriptive statistics computed in this study.

4.4 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

Descriptive statistics is the process used to summarise information obtained from a sample in a way that analyses and determines the basic characteristics of that specific sample (Burns & Bush, 2010:461). An overview of the descriptive statistics of this study's sample is set out below. First, the demographical information of the sample is discussed, followed by a discussion concerning the reliability and validity of the

research instrument, and a discussion regarding the participants' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations.

4.4.1 Demographical information

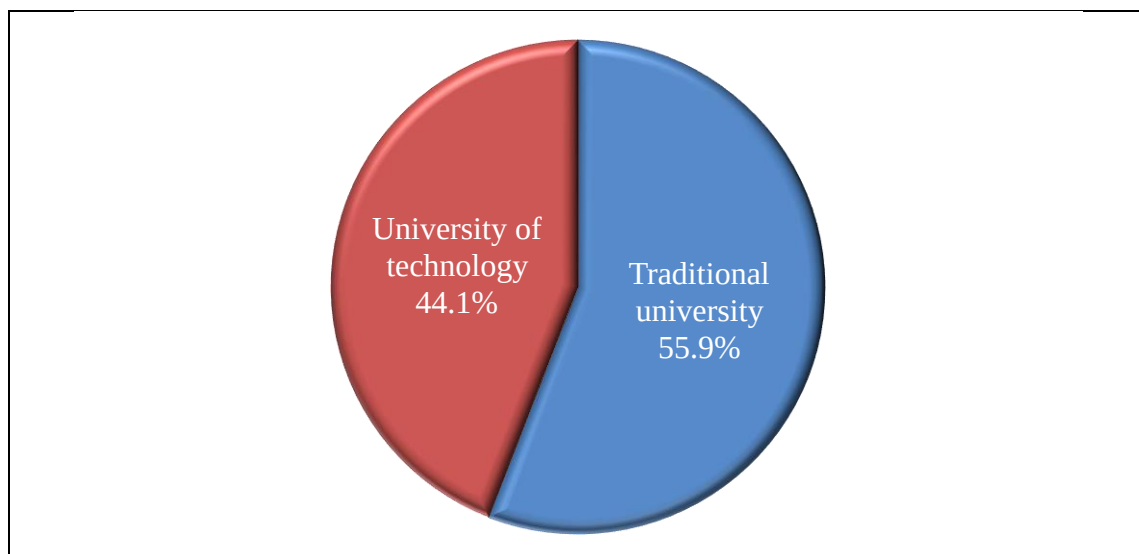
The demographical or classification information of a sample is described as the characteristics of that sample (Malhotra, 2010:350). Section A of the questionnaire pertains to the demographical information of the selected sample and includes the following information of the participants:

- higher education institution
- province of origin
- year of study
- gender
- mother tongue language
- age

Table 4.5 presents a summary of the distribution of the participants between the two institutions.

Table 4.5: Higher education institution

	Frequency <i>f</i>	Percentage %
Traditional university	226	55.9
University of technology	178	44.1
N	404	100.0



The total sample (N) of participants who partook in this study is one sample group made up of participants from two HEIs. This study aimed at achieving an equal ratio of responses from the two HEIs. Table 4.5 illustrates the results from the number of questionnaires obtained from each HEI. As a view of the total sample (N), it can be seen that 55.9 percent of the participants came from a traditional university and 44.1 percent of the participants came from a university of technology.

Table 4.6: Province of origin

	Frequency <i>f</i>	Percentage %
Eastern Cape	17	4.2
Free State	42	10.4
Gauteng	211	52.2
KwaZulu-Natal	13	3.2
Limpopo	62	15.3
Mpumalanga	21	5.2
Northern Cape	3	0.7
North West	29	7.2
Western Cape	2	0.5
Missing	4	1.0
N	404	100.0

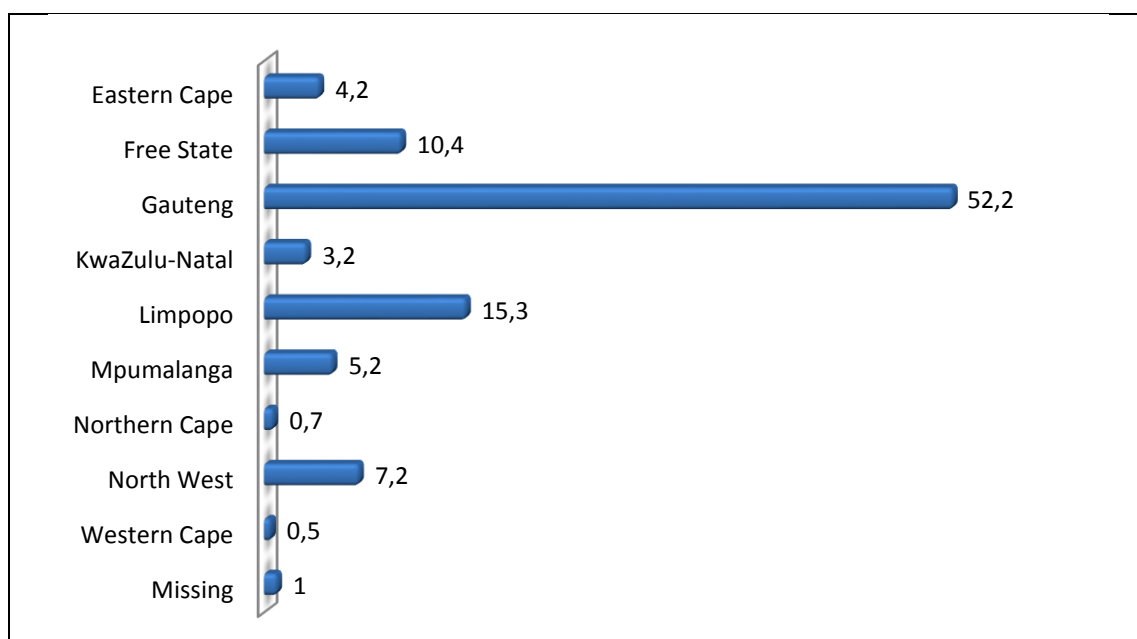
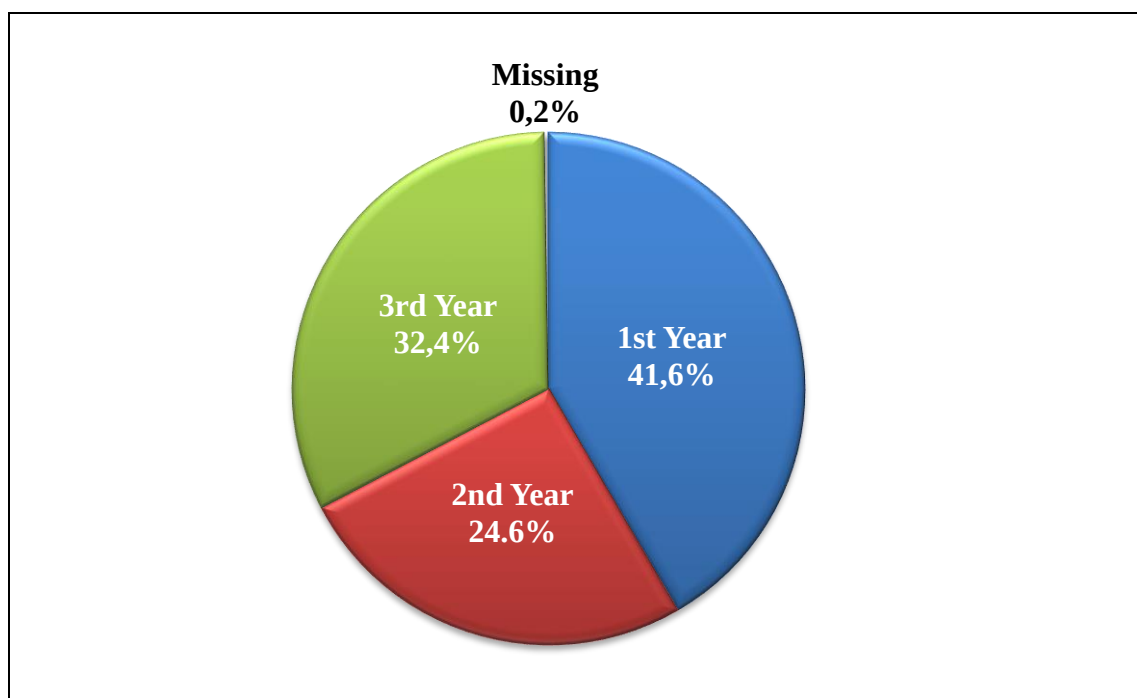


Table 4.6 illustrates the distribution information relating the participants' province of origin. The majority of the participants were originally from the Gauteng province, representing 52.5 percent of the sample. The Limpopo province represented 15.3 percent and the Free State represented 10.4 percent of the sample. North West, Mpumalanga and the Eastern Cape represented 7.2, 5.2 and 4.2 percent of the sample respectively. Participants originally from the province of KwaZulu-Natal represented 3.2 percent. Participants from the Northern Cape represented 0.7 percent, closely followed by the participants from the Western Cape, with 0.5 percent of the sample. Four participants did not complete this question on the classification data, thus signifying one percent of the responses.

Table 4.7: Current year of study

	Frequency <i>f</i>	Percentage %
1st Year	168	41.6
2nd Year	104	25.7
3rd Year	131	32.4
Missing	1	0.2
N	404	100.0



The distribution information pertaining to the participants' current year of study is exhibited in Table 4.7. The largest portion of the sample was first-year students, which represents 41.6 percent, followed by the students in their third year of study, with 32.4 percent. The third largest portion of the sample was the second-year students, exemplifying 24.6 percent. The 0.2 percent represents the missing category, where participants failed to answer this question.

Table 4.8: Gender profile

	Frequency <i>f</i>	Percentage %
Male	136	33.7
Female	268	66.3
N	404	100.0

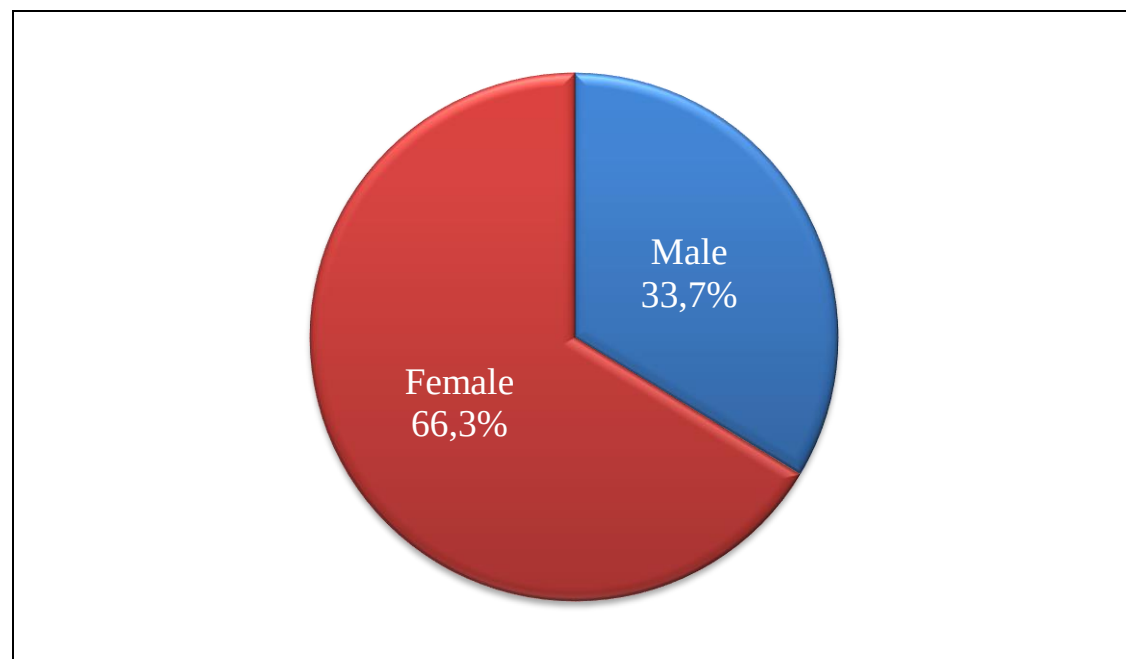
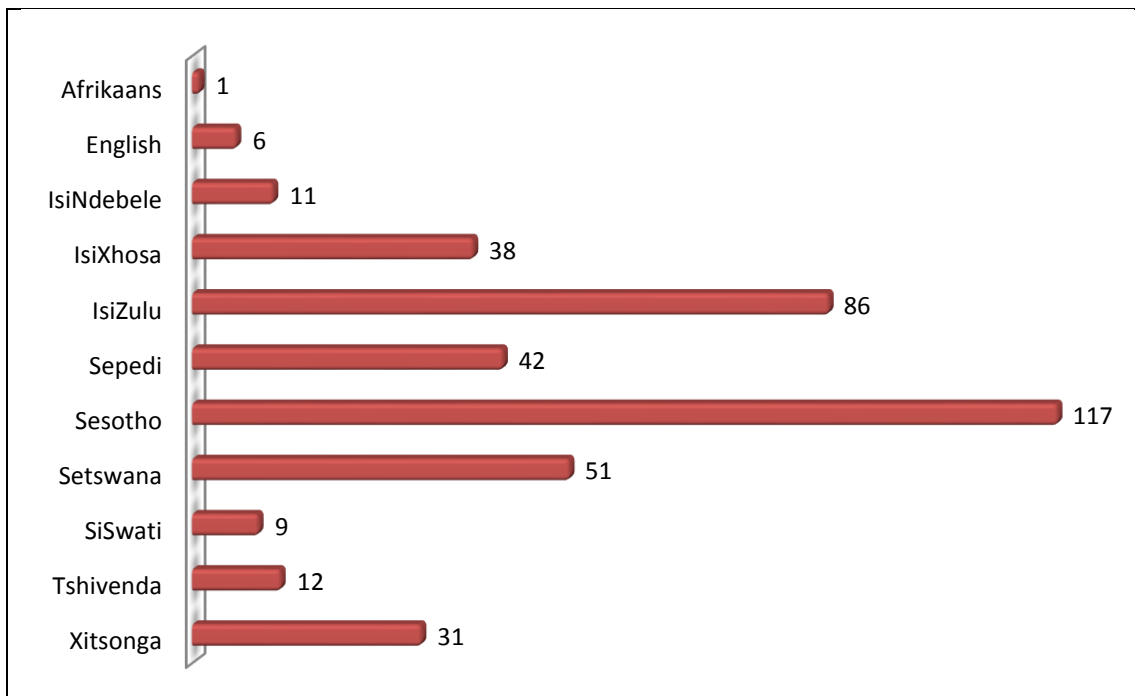


Table 4.8 exhibits the distribution information pertaining to the participants' gender. The gender differences of the sample suggest that 66.3 percent of the participants were female and 33.7 percent of the participants were male, thereby indicating that the majority of the participants were females. A summary on the participants' mother tongue languages is illustrated in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Mother tongue language

	Frequency <i>f</i>	Percentage %
Afrikaans	1	0.2
English	6	1.5
IsiNdebele	11	2.7
IsiXhosa	38	9.4
IsiZulu	86	21.3
Sepedi	42	10.4
Sesotho	117	29.0
Setswana	51	12.6
SiSwati	9	2.2
Tshivenda	12	3.0
Xitsonga	31	7.7
N	404	100.0



The majority of the participants were Sesotho speaking, as indicated by 29.0 percent in Table 4.9. The participants speaking IsiZulu, with a value of 21.3 percent, followed

this. From the sample, 12.6 percent of the participants indicated that they are Setswana speaking, 10.4 percent Sepedi speaking and 9.4 percent IsiXhosa speaking. Furthermore, 7.7 percent indicated that they speak Xitsonga, 3.0 percent speak Tshivende, 2.7 percent speak IsiNdebele, 2.2 percent speak SiSwati, 1.5 percent speaks English and 0.2 percent speaks Afrikaans.

Table 4.10: Age

	Frequency <i>f</i>	Percentage %
18 Years	49	12.1
19 Years	73	18.1
20 Years	112	27.7
21 Years	88	21.8
22 Years	46	11.4
23 Years	27	6.7
24 Years	9	2.2
N	404	100.0

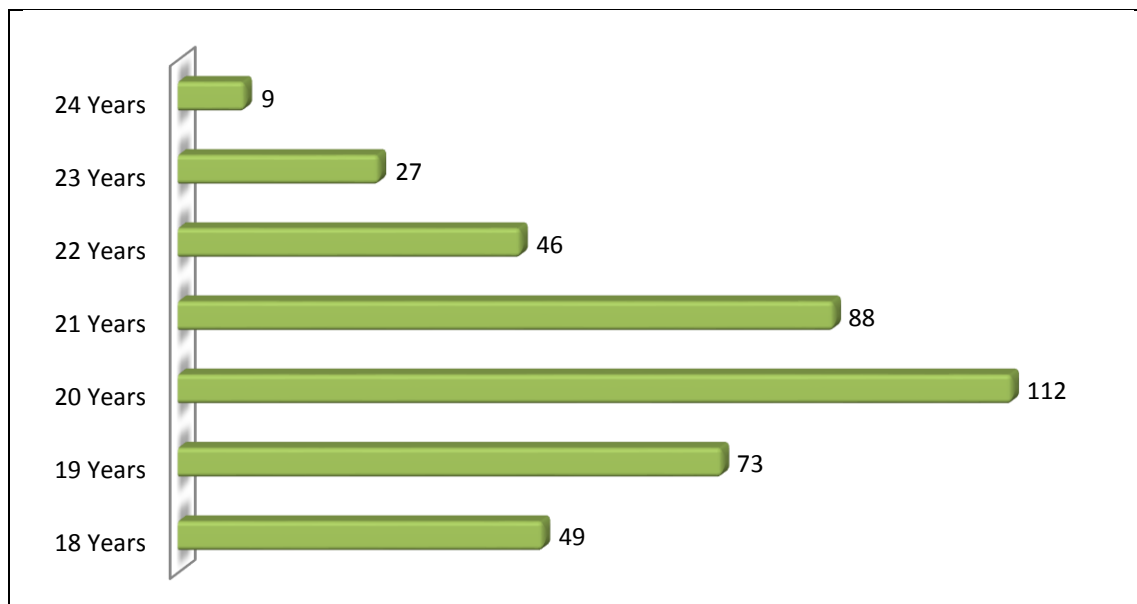


Table 4.10 provides a summary of the distribution information involving the participants' age. As in accordance with the defined target population of students between 18 and 24 years old, age was used as a screening question (refer to Section

3.4.1). From Table 4.10 it can be seen that all the participants qualified to participate in the study. The majority of the participants were 20 years of age, representing 27.7 percent of the sample, followed by the participants 21 years of age (21.8%).

4.4.2 Reliability and validity of the scale

When measuring the reliability of a scale, the consistency between the constructs are being measured (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:258). However, when attempting to determine if the scale is measuring what it is intended to measure, the validity of the scale is assessed (Bradley, 2010:60). This section provides an overview of the reliability and validity measures, namely the Cronbach alpha and the average inter-item correlation, computed in this study. Table 4.11 provides a summary of the reliability and validity measures of the research instrument used in this study.

Table 4.11: Reliability and validity analysis of the scale in the main study

Items	Number of items	Cronbach alpha	Average inter-item correlation
Hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations scale	26	0.874	0.220
Sub-scale: Hedonic shopping motivations	20	0.884	0.275
Construct 1 – Gratification shopping	3	0.847	0.648
Construct 2 – Adventure shopping	3	0.752	0.501
Construct 3 – Idea shopping	3	0.861	0.674
Construct 4 – Social shopping	4	0.804	0.506
Construct 5 – Role shopping	4	0.694	0.364
Construct 6 – Value shopping	3	0.783	0.548
Sub-scale: Utilitarian shopping motivations	6	0.611	0.254
Construct 7 – Achievement	4	0.773	0.478
Construct 8 – Efficiency	2	*	*
*Minimum of 3 items required to calculate			

As shown in Table 4.11, a Cronbach alpha value of 0.874 was computed for the overall scale, and 0.884 and 0.611 for the two sub-scales respectively. The Cronbach alphas for the individual constructs within these two sub-scales ranged between 0.0.694 and 0.861. As all of these values exceed the acceptable level of 0.60 (Malhotra, 2010:319; Wiid & Diggines, 2013:238), it can be said that the Cronbach alpha value obtained for the entire scale, the two sub-scales and for the constructs calculated is good, thus indicating the scale used in this study is reliable.

In addition, the mean average inter-item correlation for the overall scale was calculated for testing internal reliability and construct validity. As shown in Table 4.11, an inter-item correlation value of 0.220 was computed for the entire scale, a value of 0.275 for the hedonic shopping motivations sub-scale (20 items), and a value of 0.254 was computed for the utilitarian shopping motivations sub-scale (6 items), all of which is within the recommended range of 0.15 to 0.50 (Clark & Watson, 1995:316). The average inter-item correlation computed for the constructs in the two sub-scales ranged between 0.254 and 0.674 indicating a strong relationship among the items in each construct (Pallant, 2010:98). Despite the fact that five of these constructs fell outside the inter-item range, it was decided to carry on with the study, since the constructs have proven to be reliable, and the overall scale and two sub-scales have proven to be reliable and valid.

In addition to conducting a reliability and validity analysis, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations, which is discussed in the following section.

4.4.3 Confirmatory factor analysis

Determining the interrelationship found in a large set of variables, including determining the various factors that underpin those variables requires using factor analysis on the data set (Malhotra, 2010:636). Confirmatory factor analysis was used on the data set to determine whether the 20 items used within the hedonic shopping motivations sub-scale, and the six items used within the utilitarian shopping motivations sub-scale, produced the proposed constructs, and to identify whether the variables loaded on the intended constructs. Principle component factor analysis, using the varimax rotation, was conducted on the 20 variables in the hedonic shopping

motivations sub-scale, and on the six variables in the utilitarian shopping motivations sub-scale, in order to determine if the items in the sub-scales loaded the same factors in the South African sample as those loaded in the Cardoso and Pinto (2010) study.

From the hedonic shopping motivations sub-scale, six factors emerged with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. These six factors explained 69.26 percent of the variance. However, certain items in the current study loaded differently to those in the original study (these items are shown in bold). As is evident from Table 4.12, the items in Construct 3, Construct 4 and Construct 6 loaded as expected on Factor 3, Factor 2 and Factor 4, respectively. With regard to Construct 1 and Construct 2, all of the items, except variable B6 that loaded on Factor 5, loaded on one factor (Factor 1). Of the four items in Construct 5, two loaded on Factor 5 and two on Factor 6.

According to Table 4.12, it is evident that the sample did not distinguish between the gratification (Construct 1) and adventure shopping (Construct 2) constructs. A possible reason of this fusion is that both constructs describe shopping as a pleasant and stimulating activity. This is a similar result to Cardoso and Pinto's (2010:545) study on the hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations of Portuguese young adult consumers. Similar studies done by Arnold and Reynolds (2003) and Kim (2006) measured hedonic shopping motivations using six hedonic constructs, where gratification and adventure shopping were separate constructs. In addition to the confirmatory factor analysis, the Cronbach alpha for each of the six constructs, ranging between 0.694 and 0.861, was also taken into consideration and all of these values exceed the acceptable level of 0.60 (Malhotra, 2010:319; Wiid & Diggines, 2013:238). Therefore, while several of the items did not load as expected (these items are shown in bold), six factors did emerge and it was decided to use the six constructs. The following table illustrates the confirmatory factor analysis of the items included in the hedonic constructs.

Table 4.12: Confirmatory factor analysis results: hedonic shopping motivations

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
B1	0.824					
B2	0.789					
B3	0.835					
B4	0.766					
B5	0.616					
B6					0.520	
B7			0.858			
B8			0.890			
B9			0.746			
B10		0.790				
B11		0.797				
B12		0.645				
B13		0.743				
B14		0.421				0.571
B15						0.724
B16					0.581	0.520
B17					0.757	
B18				0.844		
B19				0.828		
B20				0.784		

From the utilitarian shopping motivations sub-scale, two factors emerged with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, which is in accordance to the study conducted by Kim (2006). These two factors explained 64.95 percent of the variance. As is evident from Table 4.13, the items in Construct 7 and Construct 8 loaded as expected on Factor 1

and Factor 2, respectively. Table 4.13 illustrates the confirmatory factor analysis of the utilitarian factors of the questionnaire.

Table 4.13: Confirmatory factor analysis results: utilitarian shopping motivations

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2
B21	0.762	
B22	0.845	
B23	0.800	
B24	0.705	
B25		0.830
B26		0.839

The following section, Section 4.4.4, presents the descriptive statistics of the data.

4.4.4 Descriptive statistics

According to Malhotra (2010:486), it is necessary to calculate measures of location, variability and shape when frequency-related statistics are used. Therefore, these measures, namely the mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis were calculated across all the scaled-items of the questionnaire. The number of completed questionnaires is indicated as the Valid *N* in the table below. Given the six-point Likert scale used ranged from 1=strongly disagree to 6=strongly agree, higher mean values are associated with greater agreement levels. Table 4.14 provides an overview on the descriptive statistics of the study.

Table 4.14: Descriptive statistics summary

Item	Valid N	Mean	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Sub-scale: Hedonic shopping motivations					
	404	3.880	0.880	-0.499	0.038
Gratification shopping (Construct 1)	404	3.330	1.502	0.080	-1.123
B1	404	3.097	1.762	0.222	-1.367
B2	404	3.604	1.671	-0.134	-1.211
B3	404	3.275	1.716	0.145	-1.305
Adventure shopping (Construct 2)	404	4.080	1.238	-0.570	-0.348
B4	404	3.752	1.504	-0.360	-0.939
B5	404	3.921	1.561	-0.403	-0.899
B6	404	4.564	1.477	-0.981	0.037
Idea shopping (Construct 3)	404	3.980	1.371	-0.492	-0.568
B7	404	3.963	1.610	-0.467	-0.873
B8	404	3.770	1.504	-0.302	-0.879
B9	404	4.205	1.535	-0.655	-0.566
Social shopping (Construct 4)	404	3.790	1.281	-0.326	-0.667
B10	404	3.748	1.648	-0.273	-1.182
B11	404	3.780	1.635	-0.268	-1.130
B12	404	3.557	1.637	-0.064	-1.192
B13	404	4.092	1.537	-0.501	-0.801

Table 4.14 Descriptive statistics summary (continued...)

Item	Valid N	Mean	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Role shopping (Construct 5)	404	3.710	1.127	-0.166	-0.488
B14	404	3.146	1.707	0.255	-1.214
B15	404	4.087	1.588	-0.550	-0.827
B16	404	3.322	1.521	0.040	-1.043
B17	404	4.290	1.412	-0.763	-0.238
Value shopping (Construct 6)	404	4.450	1.234	-0.781	0.022
B18	404	4.832	1.399	-1.261	0.797
B19	404	4.374	1.521	-0.683	-0.501
B20	404	4.146	1.511	-0.540	-0.653
Sub-scale: Utilitarian shopping motivations					
	404	4.530	0.817	-0.576	0.498
Achievement (Construct 7)	404	4.930	0.904	-1.165	1.869
B21	404	5.005	1.187	-1.530	2.318
B22	404	5.213	1.018	-1.613	2.949
B23	404	5.116	1.073	-1.410	1.957
B24	404	4.399	1.379	-0.799	-0.090
Efficiency (Construct 8)	404	3.710	1.500	-0.138	-0.950
B25	404	3.993	1.651	-0.370	-1.035
B26	404	3.427	1.900	0.054	-1.502

As shown in Table 4.14, means above three were computed on all of the constructs in both the hedonic and utilitarian sub-scales. This suggests that black Generation Y consumers exhibit both hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations. Shopping for

achievement (Construct 7) within the utilitarian sub-scale, scored the highest mean (mean = 4.930), which suggests that black Generation Y consumers find shopping for achievement motives, which relates to finding specific products that were planned for at the outset of the trip, as the most important motives driving them to shop. The second highest mean was recorded for value shopping (Construct 6) within the hedonic sub-scale (mean = 4.450), which suggests that black Generation Y consumers find shopping for sales, looking for discounts and hunting for bargains as a strong motive to shop. Adventure shopping (Construct 2) within the hedonic sub-scale was ranked third with a mean value of 4.080, followed by idea shopping (Construct 3) (mean = 3.980). The succeeding highest mean was computed at 3.790, pertaining to social shopping (Construct 4) within the hedonic sub-scale, which suggests that black Generation Y consumers are motivated to shop for the enjoyment of shopping with friends and family, socialising while shopping and bonding with other people while shopping. The lowest mean (mean = 3.330) was recorded on gratification shopping (Construct 1) within the hedonic sub-scale, suggesting that black Generation Y consumers find shopping to alleviate a negative mood, shopping for a special treat and shopping for stress relief, to be the least important motives driving them to shop.

The highest standard deviations, indicating more dispersion of agreement amongst participants, were computed for gratification shopping (Construct 1) (Std. Dev. = 1.502) within the hedonic sub-scale and efficiency, (Construct 2) (Std. Dev. = 1.500) within the utilitarian sub-scale, followed by idea shopping (Construct 3) (Std. Dev. = 1.371), and social shopping (Construct 2) (Std. Dev. = 1.281) within the hedonic sub-scale. Lower standard deviations, indicating less dispersion of agreement amongst participants, were recorded on adventure shopping (Construct 2) (Std. Dev. = 1.238), and value shopping (Construct 6) (Std. Dev. = 1.234), followed by role shopping (Construct 5) (Std. Dev. = 1.127), within the hedonic sub-scale. The lowest standard deviation was computed for achievement (Construct 1) within the utilitarian sub-scale (Std. Dev. = 0.904).

The utilitarian sub-scale scored the highest mean value of 4.530 and a standard deviation value of 0.817. This suggest that utilitarian motivations are important motives in driving black Generation Y students to shop and that there is relatively strong agreement amongst them regarding these motivations. The hedonic sub-scale

scored the lowest mean value of 3.880 and a standard deviation value of 0.880. This suggest that while utilitarian motivations are important motives in driving black Generation Y students to shop, they are less driven by hedonic motivations to shop and that there is a relatively strong agreement amongst them regarding these motivations.

Skewness refers to the symmetry of distribution, where a cluster of negative values represents a negatively skewed symmetry of distribution and a cluster of positive values represents a positively skewed symmetry of distribution (Gray, 2009:465). A kurtosis calculation represents information on the peakedness of the distribution. A cluster of positive kurtosis values (value > 0) indicate a peaked distribution and a cluster of negative kurtosis values (value < 0) indicate a flat distribution (Malhotra, 2010:488-489). As can be seen from Table 4.14, both sub-scales may be classified as normally distributed, since none of the skewness scores fall outside the -2 or +2 range. Regarding the peakedness of the data distribution pertaining to the hedonic sub-scale, the kurtosis values indicate a relatively flat distribution. Whereas the kurtosis values of the utilitarian sub-scale suggest a relatively normal data distribution.

4.4.5 Participants' hedonic shopping motivations

This section reports on the participants' hedonic shopping motivations with reference to the six categories of hedonic motivations, namely gratification shopping, adventure shopping, idea shopping, social shopping, role shopping, and value shopping.

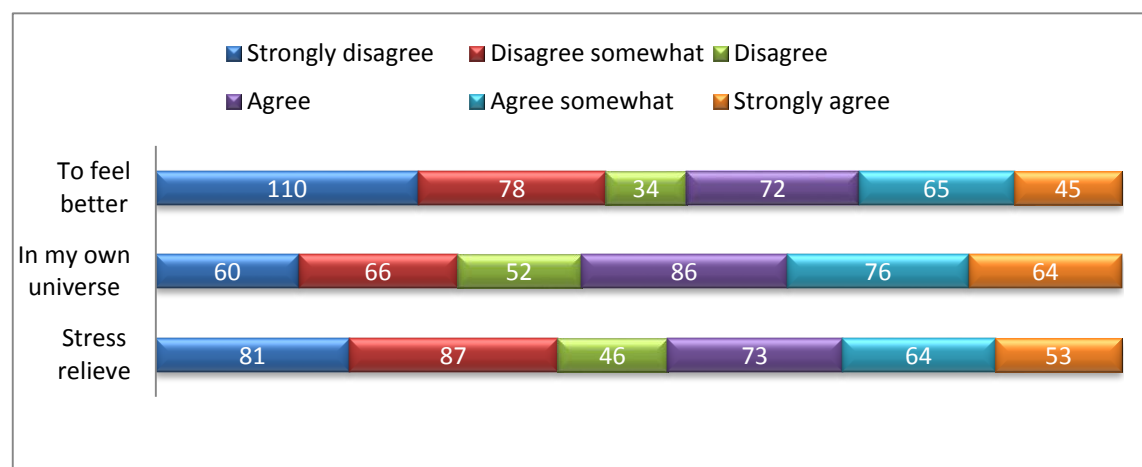


Figure 4.1: Construct 1: Gratification shopping

According to the data summarised in Figure 4.1, the majority of participants reported shopping to be ‘in my own universe’ as their most important gratification shopping motivation, and shopping ‘to feel better’ as the least important motive in this construct.

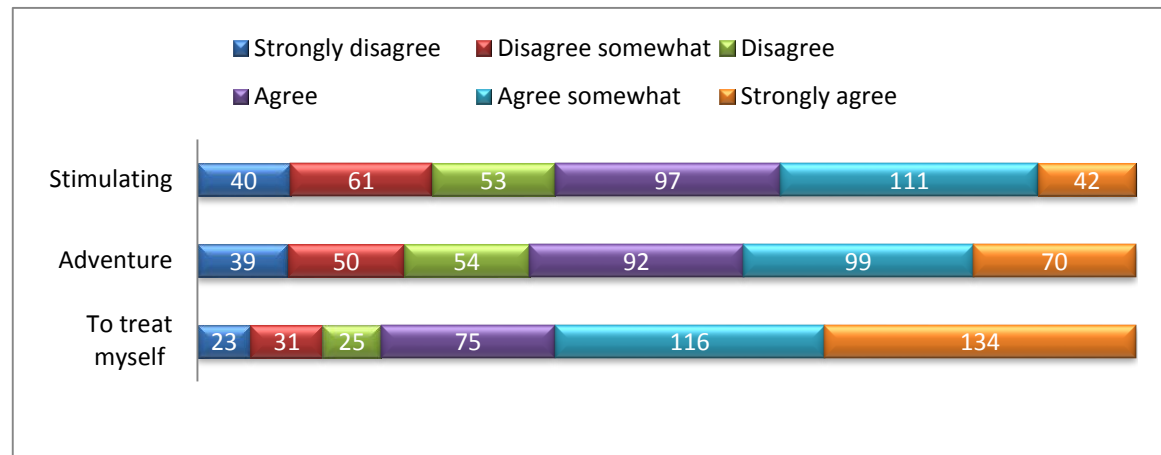


Figure 4.2: Construct 2: Adventure shopping

According to the data summarised in Figure 4.2, the majority of participants reported shopping to ‘treat myself’ as their most important adventure shopping motivation and shopping ‘is stimulating’ as the least important motive in this construct.

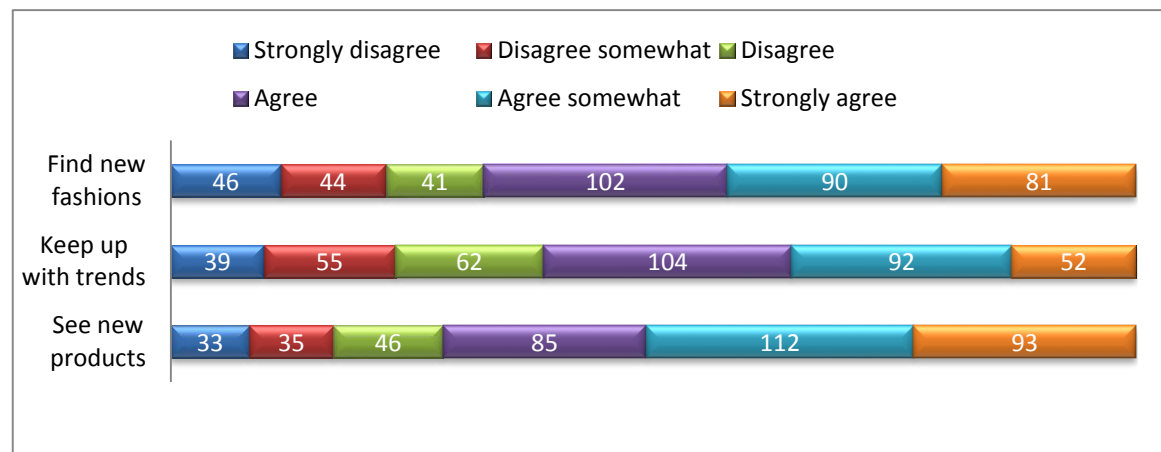


Figure 4.3: Construct 3: Idea shopping

As is evident from the data summarised in Figure 4.3, the majority of participants reported shopping to ‘see new products’ as their most important idea shopping motivation and shopping to ‘keep up with trends’ as the least important motive in this construct.

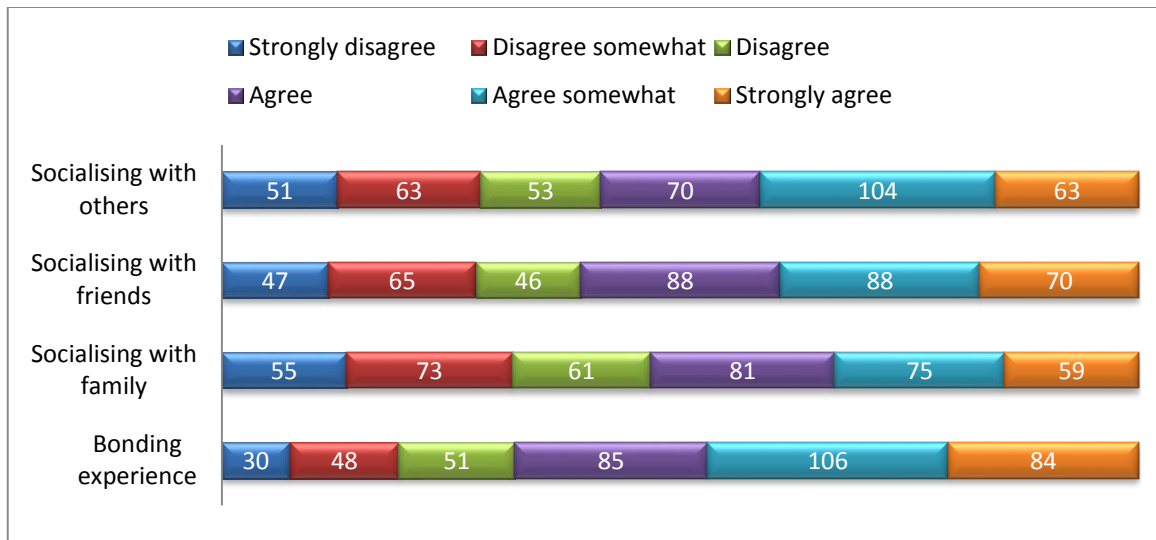


Figure 4.4: Construct 4: Social shopping

According to the data summarised in Figure 4.4, the majority of participants reported shopping to be ‘a bonding experience’ as their most important social shopping motivation and shopping ‘to socialise with family’ as the least important motive in this construct.

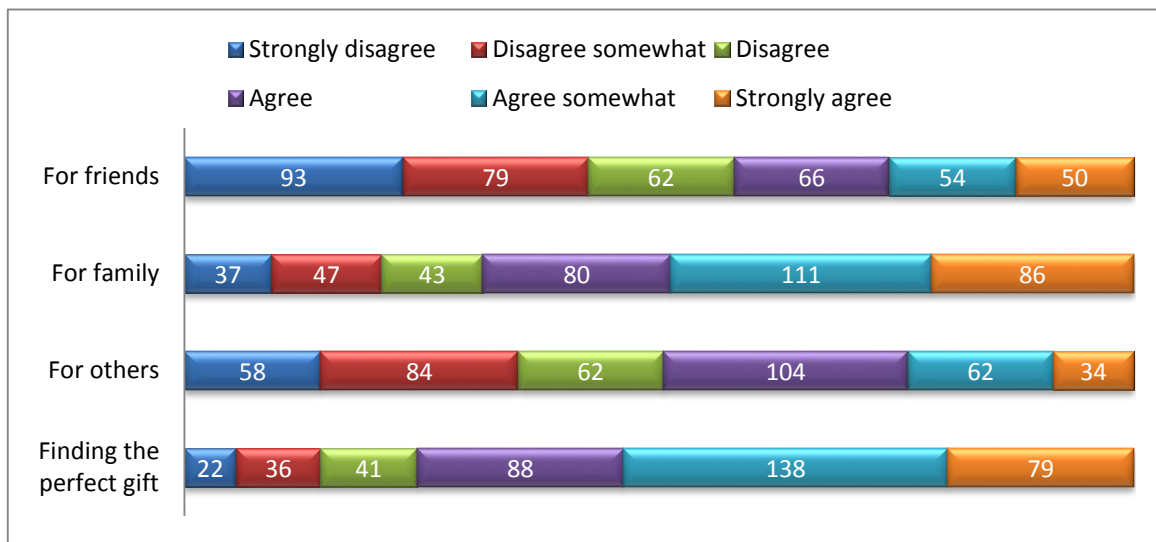


Figure 4.5: Construct 5: Role shopping

As is evident from the data summarised in Figure 4.5, the majority of participants reported shopping to ‘find the perfect gift’ as their most important role shopping motivation and shopping ‘for friends’ as the least important motive in this construct.

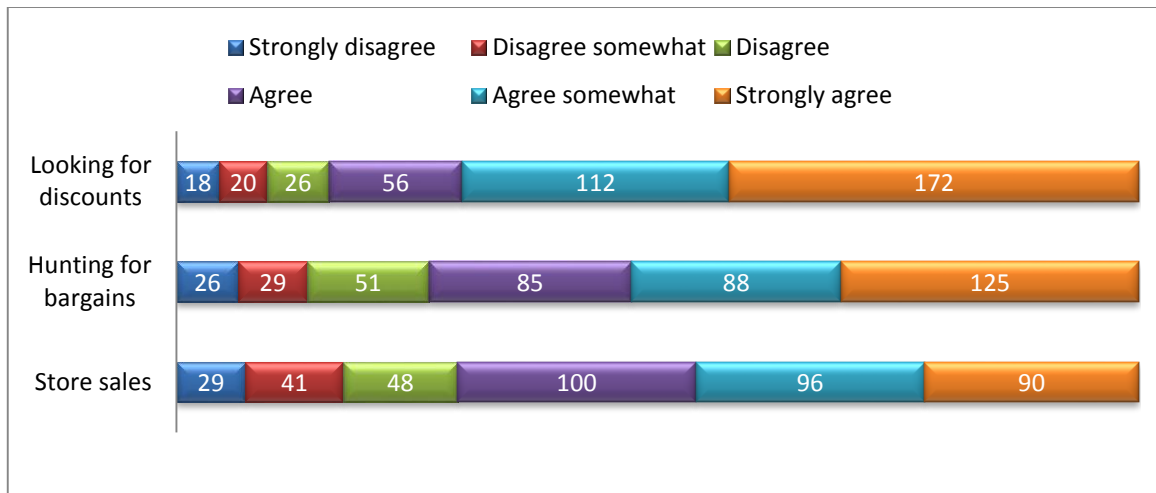


Figure 4.6: Construct 6: Value shopping

According to the data summarised in Figure 4.6 the majority of participants reported shopping to ‘look for discounts’ as their most important value shopping motivation and shopping ‘when stores are having sales’ as the least important motive in this construct.

4.4.6 Participants’ utilitarian shopping motivations

This section reports on the participants’ utilitarian motivations with reference to the two categories of utilitarian motivations, namely achievement shopping and efficiency shopping.

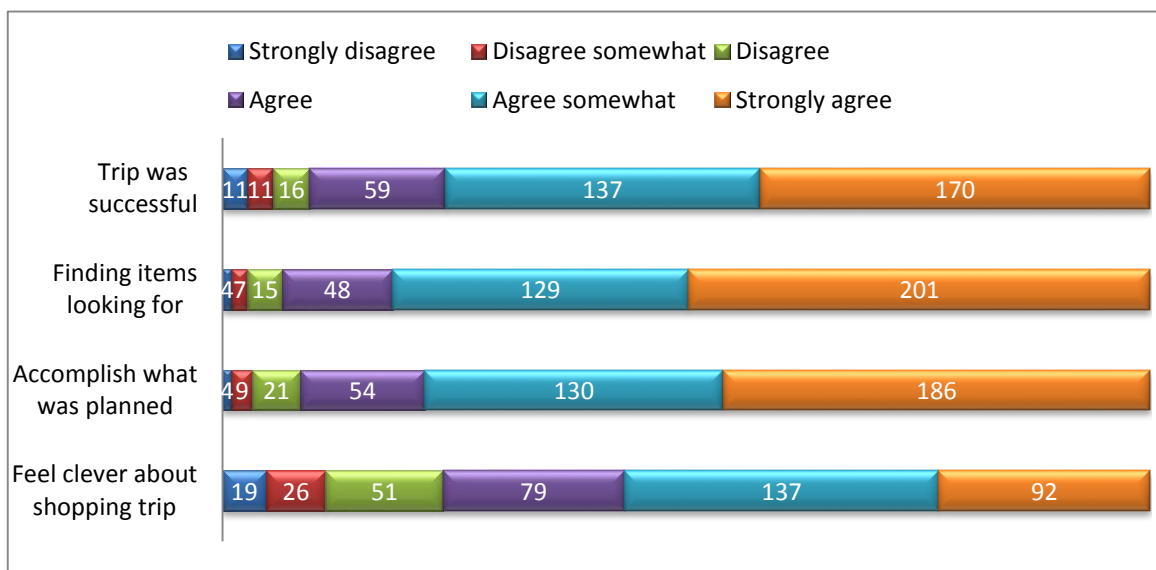


Figure 4.7: Construct 7: Achievement

According to the data summarised in Figure 4.7 the majority of participants reported shopping to ‘finding items looking for’ as their most important achievement shopping motivation and shopping ‘to feel clever about the shopping trip’ as the least important motive in this construct.

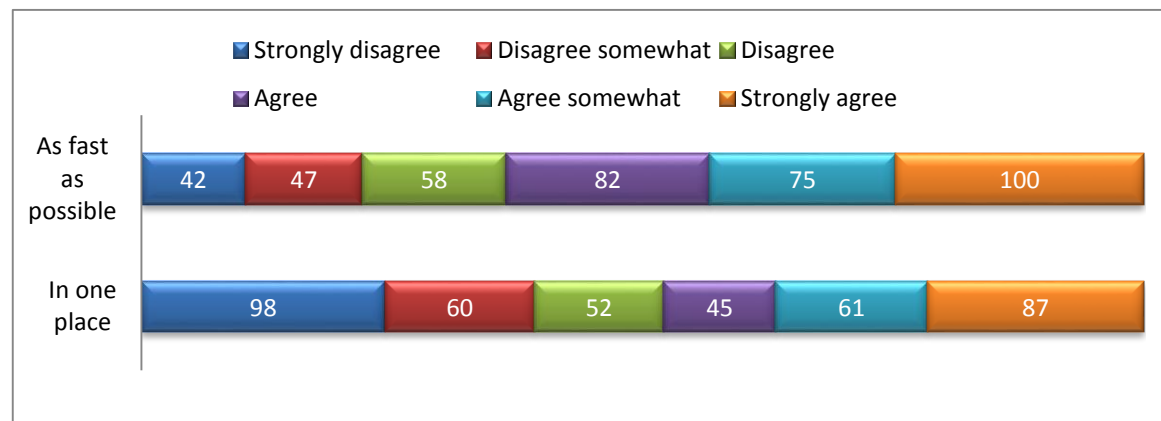


Figure 4.8: Construct 8: Efficiency

As is evident from the data summarised in Figure 4.8, the majority of participants reported shopping to be ‘as fast as possible’, as their most important achievement shopping motivation and shopping to be ‘in one place’, as the least important motive in this construct.

In the previous section, the descriptive statistics were discussed to determine whether the data were distributed normally. A discussion relating to the reliability and validity analysis, including students’ hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations was also included. The next section will relate to the hypotheses testing conducted in this study.

4.5 HYPOTHESES TESTING

Aaker *et al.* (2011:401) describe a hypothesis as a statement made pertaining to a specified population. A hypothesis is tested to determine whether the empirical evidence found in a sample is sufficient to accept or not accept the hypothesis (Wiid & Diggins, 2013:259). For the purpose of this study, comparative analysis in the form of t-tests was used for the hypotheses testing, in order to determine the degree of difference, or no difference on the participants’ hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations. Significance tests were conducted for determining whether the results

obtained from the sample used for this study are consistent with the hypotheses outlined. For these significance tests the significance level is regularly set at five percent, that is, $\alpha = 0.05$ (Malhotra, 2010:492). Furthermore, the decision rules applicable is as follows:

- If $p\text{-value} \geq \alpha$, conclude H_0
- If $p\text{-value} < \alpha$, conclude H_a

Cohen's D calculations were computed to determine whether there were any practically significant differences in the means between the students' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations. The following guidelines, according to Pallant (2007:208), are employed for the purpose of determining the strength of the various effect sizes:

- $0.20 \leq d < 0.50$ – small effect, practically non-significant
- $0.50 \leq d < 0.80$ – medium effect, points towards being practically significant
- $0.80 \leq d$ – large effect and the results are practically significant.

The following sections report on the results obtained from the tests undertaken for determining the statistical and practical significant differences among the student's hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations. One-sample t -tests were used to examine if there is a difference between students hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations.

4.5.1 One sample t -test

For the purpose of addressing the first empirical objective of this study, formulated in Chapter 1 (refer to Section 1.3.3), a single-tailed one sample t -test was conducted to determine whether black Generation Y students have significant positive hedonic shopping motivations. The expected mean was set at $X > 3$. The hypothesis follows:

H₀₁: Black Generation Y students do not exhibit significant positive hedonic shopping motivations.

H_{a1}: Black Generation Y students do exhibit significant positive hedonic shopping motivations.

Table 4.15 reports on the findings pertaining to the statistical calculations of the participants' hedonic shopping motivations.

Table 4.15: Black Generation Y students' hedonic shopping motivations

Constructs	Mean	Standard deviation	t-value	p-value
Hedonic shopping motivations	3.876	0.880	20.011	0.000*
Gratification shopping (C1)	3.325	1.502	4.512	0.000*
Adventure shopping (C2)	4.079	1.238	4.351	0.000*
Idea shopping (C3)	3.979	1.371	17.521	0.000*
Social shopping (C4)	3.794	1.281	14.358	0.000*
Role shopping (C5)	3.711	1.127	12.457	0.000*
Value shopping (C6)	4.451	1.234	12.685	0.000*
* significant at the 0.05 level				

Table 4.15 illustrates a p-value of $p=0.000<0.05$ was calculated on all the constructs pertaining to hedonic shopping motivations. This infers that the null hypothesis, H_01 , be rejected and the alternative, H_{a1} , concluded. This suggests that black Generation Y students' exhibit statistically significant positive hedonic shopping motivations, in terms of their gratification shopping, adventure shopping, idea shopping, social shopping, role shopping and value shopping motivations.

The second empirical objective of this study was also addressed by means of a single-tailed one-sample t-test. This t-test was conducted to ascertain whether black Generation Y students have significant positive utilitarian shopping motivations. The hypothesis was formulated as follows:

Ho2: Black Generation Y students do not exhibit significant positive utilitarian shopping motivations.

Ha2: Black Generation Y students do exhibit significant positive utilitarian shopping motivations.

Table 4.16 reports on the findings relating to the statistical calculations of the participants' utilitarian shopping motivations.

Table 4.16: Black Generation Y students' utilitarian shopping motivations

Constructs	Mean	Standard deviation	t-value	p-value
Utilitarian shopping motivations	4.526	0.817	37.523	0.000*
Achievement (C7)	4.933	0.904	42.968	0.000*
Efficiency (C8)	3.707	1.500	9.474	0.000*

* significant at the 0.5 level

According to the findings presented in Table 4.16, a p-value of $p=0.000<0.05$ was calculated on both of the two constructs pertaining to utilitarian shopping motivations. This infers that the null hypothesis, *Ho2*, be rejected and the alternative, *Ha2*, concluded. This suggests that black Generation Y students exhibit statistically significant positive utilitarian shopping motivations, in terms of their achievement shopping and efficiency shopping motivations.

4.5.2 Independent sample t-tests

For the purpose of addressing the third empirical objective of this study, formulated in Chapter 1 (refer to Section 1.3.3), independent sample t-tests were utilised to determine if there were any significant gender differences concerning black Generation Y students' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations.

4.5.2.1 Gender differences: hedonic shopping motivations

The results recorded by Kim (2006:62) indicate that there may be meaningful differences in hedonic shopping motivations based on gender. Therefore, an independent sample t-test was conducted to determine whether the South African black Generation Y cohort showed any differences with regard to gender. The hypothesis for determining if there is a gender difference concerning hedonic shopping motivations was formulated as follows:

Ho3: There is no difference between male and female black Generation Y students' hedonic shopping motivations, including (a) gratification shopping, (b) adventure shopping, (c) idea shopping, (d) social shopping, (e) role shopping and (f) value shopping.

Ha3: There is a difference between male and female black Generation Y students' hedonic shopping motivations, including (a) gratification shopping, (b) adventure shopping, (c) idea shopping, (d) social shopping, (e) role shopping and (f) value shopping.

Table 4.17 reports on the mean, standard deviation, t-statistic, p-value and d-value of the hedonic shopping motivations of the different genders of the sample.

Table 4.17 Gender difference on hedonic shopping motivations

Constructs	Male		Female		t-value	p-value	Cohen's D
	Mean N=136	Std. Dev.	Mean N=268	Std. Dev.			
Gratification shopping (C1)	2.674	1.409	3.656	1.440	-6.520	0.000*	0.682***
Adventure shopping (C2)	3.525	1.319	4.361	1.094	-6.762	0.000*	0.634***
Idea shopping (C3)	3.767	1.399	4.087	1.346	-2.227	0.026*	0.229**
Social shopping (C4)	3.340	1.299	4.024	1.210	-5.237	0.000*	0.527***
Role shopping (C5)	3.208	1.141	3.966	1.031	-6.740	0.000*	0.664***
Value shopping (C6)	4.005	1.402	4.677	1.074	-5.344	0.000*	0.479**

Table 4.17 Gender difference on hedonic shopping motivations (continued...)

*	Statistically significant at $p < 0.05$
**	Small effect, practically non-significant
***	Medium effect and moving toward practical significance
****	Large effect, practically significant
*****	Cohen's D-statistic not calculated as the variable was not statistically significant

Table 4.17 illustrates a p-value of $p=0.000<0.05$ was calculated on all the constructs between male and female black Generation Y students' hedonic shopping motivations. Therefore, H_{o3} is rejected and H_{a3} is concluded. This suggests that gender does have a significant influence on black Generation Y students' hedonic shopping motivations. Male and female black Generation Y students' appear to have statistically significant different hedonic shopping motivations.

Cohen's D calculations were computed for determining the practically significant influences found between male and female South African black Generation Y student's hedonic shopping motivations. As presented by Table 4.17, the P-values on each of the six constructs were statistically significant, thus enabling the Cohen's D calculations. The Cohen's D value computed indicated a medium effect size of 0.682, 0.634, 0.527 and 0.664 for gratification, adventure, social and role shopping motivations categories respectively, thus indicating moving towards practical significant influence on the participants' gender as a motivation to shop. For the idea and value shopping constructs, a small effect size of 0.229 and 0.479, respectively, was returned, indicating these motivation categories have a practical non-significant influence on the participants' gender as a motivation to shop.

4.5.2.2 Gender differences: utilitarian shopping motivations

The hypothesis for determining if there is a gender difference concerning utilitarian shopping motivations was formulated as follows:

H_{o4}: There is no difference between male and female black Generation Y students' utilitarian shopping motivations including (a) achievement and (b) efficiency.

Ha4: There is a difference between male and female black Generation Y students' utilitarian shopping motivations including (a) achievement and (b) efficiency.

Table 4.18 shows the mean, standard deviation, t-statistic and p-value of the hedonic shopping motivations of the different genders of the sample.

Table 4.18: Gender difference on utilitarian shopping motivations

Constructs	Male Mean N=136	Male Std. Dev.	Female Mean N=268	Female Std. Dev.	t-value	p-value	Cohen's D
C1 – Achievement	4.588	1.041	5.108	0.771	-5.668	0.000*	0.500***
C2 – Efficiency	4.213	1.438	3.450	1.467	4.977	0.000*	0.520***
* Statistically significant at $p < 0.05$							
** Small effect, practically non-significant							
*** Medium effect and moving toward practical significance							
**** Large effect, practically significant							
***** Cohen's D-statistic not calculated as the variable was not statistically significant							

According to the results presented in Table 4.18, it is evident that there is a statistically significant difference between the male and female black Generation Y students' utilitarian shopping motivations, as both the constructs' p-values are smaller than 0.05. For that reason, the null hypothesis, H_04 , is rejected and the alternative, H_{a4} concluded. This suggests that there is a significant difference between male and female black Generation Y student's utilitarian shopping motivations.

Cohen's D calculations were computed for determining the practically significant influences found between male and female South African black Generation Y student's utilitarian shopping motivations. As presented by Table 4.18, the p-values on each of the two constructs were statistically significant, thus enabling the Cohen's D calculations. The Cohen's D value computed indicated a medium effect size of 0.500 and 0.520 for achievement and efficiency motivation categories, respectively, thus indicating moving towards practical significant influence on the participants' gender as a motivation to shop.

4.5.3 One-way analysis of variance ANOVA

According to Malhotra (2010:532), one-way analysis of variance is utilised for the purpose of inspecting differences in the mean values of various dependent categories and one independent factor. One-way ANOVA was used to determine whether there are any differences between students' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations among the students at different year-levels of study. The assumption here was that, due to older students being more experienced and educated, their shopping motivations differ from those of younger students.

4.5.3.1 ANOVA and effect of current year of study on students' hedonic shopping motivations

This section reports on the tests utilised to determine whether there are any significant variances between the first-year, second-year and third-year undergraduate students' hedonic shopping motivations. The hypothesis was formulated as follows:

Ho5: There is no difference concerning first-, second- and third-year black Generation Y students' hedonic shopping motivations.

Ha5: There is a difference concerning first-, second- and third-year black Generation Y students' hedonic shopping motivations.

Table 4.19 provides an overview of the findings regarding the statistical differences between the participants' year of study with regards to their hedonic shopping motivations.

Table 4.19: Effects of year of study on hedonic shopping motivations

Construct		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F-ratio	Sig
Sub-scale: Hedonic shopping motivations	Between groups	3.928	2	1.964	0.4344	0.648
	Within groups	308.058	400	0.770		
	Total	311.986	402			

**Table 4.19: Effects of year of study on hedonic shopping motivations
(continued ...)**

Construct		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F-ratio	Sig
Gratification shopping (C1)	Between groups	26.079	2	13.040	5.946	0.003*
	Within groups	877.141	400	2.193		
	Total	903.220	402			
Adventure shopping (C2)	Between groups	14.476	2	7.238	4.801	0.009*
	Within groups	603.041	400	1.508		
	Total	617.517	402			
Idea shopping (C3)	Between groups	8.699	2	4.350	2.325	0.099
	Within groups	748.377	400	1.871		
	Total	757.076	402			
Social shopping (C4)	Between groups	1.392	2	0.696	0.422	0.656
	Within groups	659.683	400	1.649		
	Total	661.074	402			
Role shopping (C5)	Between groups	.323	2	0.161	0.126	0.881
	Within groups	510.502	400	1.276		
	Total	510.824	402			
Value shopping (C6)	Between groups	4.490	2	2.245	1.474	0.230
	Within groups	609.284	400	1.523		
	Total	613.774	402			

* Significant at $p < 0.05$

The participants that did not answer the demographic question relating to year of study were excluded when conducting the ANOVA on the effect of shopping motivations. The results presented in Table 4.19 suggest that a significant difference was found between the students' different years of study with regards to their hedonic

shopping motivations. As indicated in Table 4.19, statistically significant differences were found in the gratification shopping motivations category ($p=0.003<0.05$) and adventure shopping motivations category ($p=0.009<0.05$), thus rejecting H_{o5} and concluding H_{a5} . This suggests there is a difference concerning first-, second- and third-year black Generation Y students' hedonic shopping motivations. The statistical differences found among gratification and adventure shopping motivations categories were investigated further with a Tukey HSD test. The purpose of using the Tukey HSD test was to determine where the specific differences lay.

Table 4.20 indicates, that there are significant differences found between the different years of study with regards to students' hedonic shopping motivations; gratification shopping significant at $p=0.003$, and adventure shopping significant at $p=0.009$. From Table 4.20 it is evident that the significant differences exist between the second and first years ($p=0.049$), and the second and third years ($p=0.002$), with regards to gratification shopping. The same groups showed significant differences on adventure shopping ($p=0.018$ for the second and first year groups and $p=0.015$ for the second and third year groups). The differences between the first and third year groups were not significant. The results presented in the table below, suggest that the first, second and third year undergraduate students differ in terms of second year students being less motivated by gratification and adventure shopping than first and third year students

Table 4.20: Tukey HSD results of year of study on hedonic shopping motivations

Hedonic motivations	(I) Year	(J) Year	Mean difference (I- J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Gratification shopping (C1)	1.0	2.0	0.436	0.185	0.049*
		3.0	-0.229	0.173	0.381
	2.0	1.0	-0.436	0.185	0.049*
		3.0	-0.665	0.195	0.002*
	3.0	1.0	0.229	0.173	0.381
		2.0	0.665	0.195	0.002*

Table 4.20: Tukey HSD results of year of study on hedonic shopping motivations (continued ...)

Hedonic motivations	(I) Year	(J) Year	Mean difference (I- J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Adventure shopping (C2)	1.0	2.0	0.419	0.153	0.018*
		3.0	-0.030	0.143	0.976
	2.0	1.0	-0.419	0.153	0.018*
		3.0	-0.449	0.161	0.015*
	3.0	1.0	0.030	0.143	0.976
		2.0	0.449	0.161	0.015*

* Significant at $p < 0.05$

4.5.3.2 ANOVA and effect of current year of study on students' utilitarian shopping motivations

This section reports on the tests utilised to determine whether there are any significant differences between the first-year, second-year and third-year undergraduate students with regards to their utilitarian shopping motivations. The hypothesis was formulated as follows:

Ho6: There is no difference concerning first-, second- and third-year black Generation Y students' utilitarian shopping motivations.

Ha6: There is a difference concerning first-, second- and third-year black Generation Y students' utilitarian shopping motivations.

Table 4.21 provide an overview of the findings regarding the statistical differences between the participants' utilitarian shopping motivations.

Table 4.21: Effects of year of study on utilitarian shopping motivations

Construct		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F-ratio	Sig
Sub-scale: Utilitarian shopping motivations	Between groups	.582	2	0.291	0.434	0.648
	Within groups	267.914	400	0.670		
	Total	268.495	402			
Achievement (C1)	Between groups	5.843	2	2.921	3.625	0.028*
	Within groups	322.325	400	0.806		
	Total	328.167	402			
Efficiency (C2)	Between groups	7.053	2	3.526	1.568	0.210
	Within groups	899.396	400	2.248		
	Total	906.449	402			

* Significant at $p < 0.05$

The results presented in Table 4.21 suggest that a significant difference was found between the different years of study with regards to the students' utilitarian shopping. As indicated in Table 4.21, statistically significant differences were found among the achievement category ($p=0.028<0.05$) of students' motivation to shop, thus rejecting H_06 and concluding H_{a6} . This suggests there is a difference concerning first-, second- and third-year black Generation Y students' utilitarian shopping motivations. These statistical differences were investigated further with a Tukey HSD test. The purpose of using the Tukey HSD test was to determine where the specific differences lay.

The ANOVA indicates that there are only significant differences between the different year groups with regard to the achievement construct of the utilitarian sub-scale. No significant differences were found with regards to the other constructs. Table 4.22 indicates, through the Tukey HSD test, that the differences with regard to

achievement exist between the first and second year undergraduate ($p=0.028$). These results are presented in the table below

Table 4.22: Tukey HSD results of year of study on utilitarian shopping motivations

Utilitarian factors	(I) Year	(J) Year	Mean difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Achievement (C1)	1.0	2.0	0.297	0.112	0.023*
		3.0	0.158	0.105	0.290
	2.0	1.0	-0.297	0.112	0.023*
		3.0	-0.140	0.118	0.463
	3.0	1.0	-0.158	0.105	0.290
		2.0	0.140	0.118	0.463

* Significant at $p < 0.05$

From the abovementioned analysis, it can be inferred that first-year, second-year and third-year undergraduate students' shopping motivations differ with regard to three of the constructs. This indicates that the first-year, second-year and third-year undergraduate students' shopping motivations are similar on five of the constructs.

4.6 SYNOPSIS

This chapter reports on the results found in the empirical portion of the study. Section 4.2, the first section, provides an overview on the results of the pilot test. These results include the reliability and validity. Section 4.3 comprised the preliminary data analysis, including a discussion on the coding, tabulation and the data gathering process. In the subsequent section (Section 4.4), the descriptive analysis of the data sets was presented, including the demographic information, reliability and validity, confirmatory factor analysis, as well as a discussion on the descriptive statistics.

Section 4.5 reports on the hypotheses testing of the study. For the purpose of determining whether hedonic as well as utilitarian shopping motivations have a

significant influence on black Generation Y students' motivation for shopping, single-tailed one-sample t-tests were conducted. Moreover, independent sample t-tests were utilised to conclude if there were any differences between male and female black Generation Y students' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA.) was applied to determine if there were any significant variances with regards to the participants' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations, and their current year of study.

The succeeding chapter, Chapter 5, provides an overview of the study. The contributions of the study, recommendations, limitations and future research opportunities will be included in the overview. Furthermore, an overall conclusion of this study concludes this chapter.

CHAPTER 5

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The retail industry is subject to continuous change, and for retailers to remain competitive in a changing environment it is essential to offer a retail environment that attracts consumers. Understanding a consumer's wants and needs is of paramount importance to marketers and retailers, as this is vital to attract consumers and a key factor to the foundation of the marketing concept. Consequently, for marketers to develop effective marketing strategies, the behaviour of consumers should be understood. As aforementioned, a retailer's main goal is to increase profit margins by maintaining a competitive advantage. Comprehending the motivation stimulating a consumer's behaviour is significant in maintaining a competitive advantage. Successful marketing strategies include strategies focusing on rational and emotional consumers and strategies appealing to different consumer motives. Successful strategies place the emphasis on the product as well as the shopping experience. Therefore, it is imperative for marketers to know what the value-adding factors of consumers' shopping experiences are for the purpose of engaging consumers with utilitarian and hedonic shopping motivations (Chapter 2).

In order for marketers to incorporate utilitarian and hedonic shopping motivations in marketing strategies, the target market's different motivations should be determined (Section 1.1). Accordingly, this study was pursued to determine the hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations of black Generation Y students. This study focused on black Generation Y students because first, this group has more disposable income than previous generations, secondly, this group has a willingness to spend money and thirdly, it is challenging to appeal to Generation Y individuals through advertising.

This chapter comprises an overview of the study (Section 5.2), the main findings of the study (Section 5.3) and recommendations (Section 5.4) based on the findings of the study. Section 5.5 includes a detailed discussion on the contributions of the study,

whereas Section 5.6 provides an overview of the limitations and future research opportunities. This chapter closes with Section 5.7, concluding remarks.

5.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

For the purpose of providing impartial recommendations, it is essential to discuss the insights gained over the previous four chapters. Reviewed in Section 5.2.1 is the primary objective of the study, followed by Section 5.2.2 and Section 5.2.3, comprising the theoretical and empirical objectives, respectively.

Chapter 1 was utilised to introduce the study and to provide the problem statement. Included in Chapter 1 were the objectives and the design of the study.

The objectives of the study were as follows (Section 1.3):

5.2.1 Primary objective

The primary purpose of this study was to analyse black Generation Y students' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations within the South African context in order to develop marketing strategies for effectively targeting this market.

5.2.2 Theoretical objectives

In order to achieve the primary objective, the following theoretical objectives were formulated for the study:

- Outline the fundamental principles of consumer motivation
- Review the literature on the dynamics and the measurement of consumer motivation
- Review the literature on consumers' hedonic and utilitarian motivations for shopping
- Conduct a review of the literature pertaining to the Generation Y cohort.

5.2.3 Empirical objectives

In accordance with the primary objective of the study, the following empirical objectives were formulated:

- Investigate black Generation Y students' hedonic motivations for shopping
- Investigate black Generation Y students' utilitarian motivations for shopping
- Determine if there is a gender difference concerning black Generation Y students' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations
- Determine whether black Generation Y students' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations differ according to their level of study (first-, second- and third-year).

Chapter 2 encompassed a literature review explaining the theoretical objectives as formulated in Chapter 1. Included in Chapter 2 is a detailed discussion on consumer behaviour, regarding a definition (Section 2.2.1) and the decision-making process (Section 2.2.2). The section on consumer motivation (Section 2.3) involved a definition (Section 2.3.1), the different theories of motivation (Section 2.3.2), the model of the motivation process (Section 2.3.3), important factors in motivation (Section 2.3.4), and the dynamic nature of motivation (Section 2.3.5). Shopping value was discussed in Section 2.4. Section 2.5 comprised a discussion on hedonic shopping motivations and Section 2.6, comprised an overview on utilitarian shopping motivations. This chapter was concluded with a discussion on the target market of this study, the Generation Y cohort (Section 2.7).

The research methodology utilised for the purpose of this study was described in Chapter 3. This chapter included an overview of the research design of the study (Section 3.2); the research approach (Section 3.3); the sampling strategy (Section 3.4); the method applied for collecting the data (Section 3.5); the pre-testing of the questionnaire (Section 3.6); and the administration of the questionnaire (Section 3.7). The preliminary data analysis (Section 3.8), as well as the statistical analysis (Section 3.9) concluded this chapter.

Chapter 4 comprised a discussion on the analysis and interpretation of the empirical findings of this study. The results concluded in this chapter are in accordance with the empirical objectives formulated in Chapter 1.

5.3 MAIN FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The main findings obtained from this study, in accordance with the empirical objectives of this study, are discussed below:

5.3.1 Black Generation Y students' hedonic shopping motivations

The first empirical objective outlined in Chapter 1 was to investigate black Generation Y students' hedonic motivations for shopping. To investigate these shopping motivations a single-tailed, one-sample t-test, with an expected mean of mean >3 was employed. Hypotheses (*Ho1* and *Ha1*) were formulated to determine the degree of difference or no difference on black Generation Y students' hedonic shopping motivations. According to the results presented in Table 4.15 (Section 4.5.1), it is evident that black Generation Y students exhibit statistically positive hedonic shopping motivations in terms of their gratification, adventure, idea, social, role, and value shopping motivations.

The descriptive statistics, illustrated in Table 4.14 (Section 4.4.4) indicate that, within the hedonic subscale, black Generation Y students find value and adventure shopping to have a significant influence on their motivation for shopping. Idea and social shopping have a less significant influence on their motivation for shopping. However, role and gratification shopping has the least significant influence on their motivation for shopping.

These findings contradict the findings of previous research studies. Arnold and Reynolds (2003) found role shopping to be the greatest motivator for shopping, within the hedonic sub scale. Ozen and Kodaz (2012) found gratification shopping to have the most significant influence on Turkish students' motivation for online shopping, and social shopping to be the strongest motivator for online shopping amongst American students. Hemelatha (2009) found social shopping to be the primary motivator for shopping, and Jamal *et al.* (2006) found gratification shopping to be the strongest motivator. However, the findings of this study confirm the findings from the research study done by Kim (2006), as they found value shopping to be the greatest motivator for shopping, within the hedonic sub scale.

5.3.2 Black Generation Y students' utilitarian shopping motivations

The second empirical objective set out in Chapter 1 was to investigate black Generation Y students' utilitarian motivations for shopping. A single-tailed one-sample t-test, where the expected mean was set at mean >3 , was employed. Hypotheses (*Ho2* and *Ha2*) were formulated to determine the degree of difference or

no difference on black Generation Y students' utilitarian shopping motivations. The results presented in Table 4.16 (Section 4.5.1) indicate that black Generation Y students exhibit statistically positive utilitarian shopping motivations in terms of their achievement and efficiency shopping motivations.

The descriptive statistics presented in Table 4.14 (Section 4.4.4), suggest that black Generation Y students are strongly motivated to achieve set goals for a particular shopping trip. However, efficiency has a smaller influence on black Generation Y students' motivations for shopping. These findings are consistent with previous research studies done by Kim (2006) and O'Brien (2010), as they found achievement to be the greatest motivator for shopping. However, the findings from this study are contradictory to the findings from the study done by Wagner and Rudolph (2010) as they found efficiency to have a greater influence on the consumer's motivation for shopping.

5.3.3 Gender difference concerning black Generation Y students' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations

The third empirical objective formulated in Chapter 1 was to determine whether male and female black Generation Y students differ in terms of their motivations for shopping, pertaining to hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations. Independent sample t-tests were conducted to determine whether there are any gender differences among black Generation Y students concerning their hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations. Hypotheses (*Ho3* and *Ha3*) were formulated to determine whether there is a significant difference concerning male and female black Generation Y students' hedonic shopping motivations. Table 4.17 (Section 4.5.2.1), indicates that male and female black Generation Y students' appear to have statistically significant different hedonic shopping motivations. The findings presented in this table suggest that value shopping has the greatest influence on both male and female black Generation Y students. However, the degree of motivation differs slightly as female black Generation Y students find value shopping to be a greater motivator than male black Generation Y students do. Idea shopping is the second greatest motivator for male black Generation Y students, whereas adventure shopping has the second greatest influence on female black Generation Y students.

The Cohen's D value computed for gratification, adventure, social and role shopping motivations categories indicated a medium effect moving towards practical significant influence on the participants' gender as a motivation to shop. For the idea and value shopping constructs, a small effect was returned, indicating these motivation categories have a practical non-significant influence on the participants' gender as a motivation to shop.

Hypotheses (*Ho4* and *Ha4*) were formulated to determine whether there is a significant difference concerning male and female black Generation Y students' utilitarian motivations for shopping. Similarly, Table 4.18 (Section 4.5.2.2), specifies that there is a significant difference between male and female black Generation Y student's utilitarian shopping motivations. This table suggests that both male and female black Generation Y students find achievement to be the strongest motivator to shop. However female students' level of agreement on achievement as a shopping motivation was the highest.

The Cohen's D value computed for achievement and efficiency motivation categories indicated a medium effect moving towards practical significant influence on the participants' gender as a motivation to shop.

The findings of this study are consistent with some of the similar studies done, such as Arnold and Reynolds (2003), Jamal *et al.* (2006), and Kim (2006) who found a gender difference regarding the participants' shopping motivations.

5.3.4 Black Generation Y students' current year of study differences concerning hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations

The fourth empirical objective formulated in Chapter 1 was to determine whether the current year of study of black Generation Y students has an influence on their motivations for shopping, pertaining to hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations. One-way ANOVA was used to determine empirically the outcome of this objective. Hypotheses (*Ho5* and *Ha5*) were formulated to determine whether there is a significant difference concerning first-, second- and third-year black Generation Y students' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations. As indicated in Table 4.19, statistically significant differences were found between the different levels of study within the black Generation Y cohort concerning their hedonic shopping motivations

(Section 4.5.3.1). The statistical differences found among gratification- and adventure-shopping motivations were investigated further by means of a Tukey HSD test. The Tukey HSD test indicated significant differences between second- and first-year students and second- and third-year students with regards to gratification and adventure shopping.

According to the results presented in Table 4.21, it is evident that statistically significant differences were found between the different levels of study within the black Generation Y cohort concerning their utilitarian shopping motivations (Section 4.5.3.2). These statistical differences found within the achievement shopping motivation were investigated further with a Tukey HSD test. The Tukey HSD test indicated significant differences between first- and second-year students with regard to achievement as motivation for shopping.

Table 5.1: Overview of hypotheses

Hypothesis	Results
<i>Ho1:</i> Black Generation Y students do not exhibit significant positive hedonic shopping motivations	Accepted
<i>Ho2:</i> Black Generation Y students do not exhibit significant positive utilitarian shopping motivations	Rejected
<i>Ho3:</i> There is no difference between male and female black Generation Y students' hedonic shopping motivations including (a) gratification shopping, (b) adventure shopping, (c) idea shopping, (d) social shopping, (e) role shopping, and (f) value shopping	Accepted
<i>Ho4:</i> There is no difference between male and female black Generation Y students' utilitarian shopping motivations, including (a) achievement, and (b) efficiency	Rejected

Table 5.1: Overview of hypotheses (continued ...)

Hypothesis	Results
<i>Ho5:</i> There is no difference concerning first-, second- and third-year black Generation Y students' hedonic shopping motivations	Rejected
<i>Ho6:</i> There is no difference concerning first-, second- and third-year black Generation Y students' utilitarian shopping motivations	Rejected

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following section comprises a discussion on recommendations based on the literature review (Chapter 2) along with the empirical findings (Chapter 4) obtained from the sample (South African black Generation Y students) regarding hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations. The findings of this study suggest that black Generation Y students exhibit statistically significant positive hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations, especially in terms of their achievement shopping motives, which relates to finding specific products that were planned for at the outset of the trip and value shopping motives, including shopping for sales, looking for discounts and hunting for bargains. The following recommendations, pertaining to hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations, should be considered by marketers and retailers targeting the black Generation Y cohort.

5.4.1 Appeal to the hedonic motivated consumer

Consumers motivated by hedonic shopping motivations shop for various reasons, namely to enlighten a mood, to be adventurous, to keep up with new trends, fashions and products, to enjoy socialising while shopping, to play a certain role in society or to find value for money. Section 4.4.5 provides an overview of the different hedonic shopping motivations. This study concluded that black Generation Y students exhibit statistically significant positive hedonic shopping motivations of which value and adventure shopping motives are the most positive motivations to shop, followed by

idea and social shopping and then role and gratification shopping being the least positive motivation for shopping. Therefore, marketers and retailers should consider ways to increase the value and adventure experience of shopping to appeal to this target market.

It is recommended that marketers targeting South African black Generation Y students should increase their gratification shopping motivations by making use of advertisements highlighting a shopping experience that provides an opportunity to escape out of their daily routine and their ordinary life. The youth of South Africa are subject to a stressful lifestyle and find shopping to be a stress relieving activity. Marketers should design advertisements that portray the store as a stress-free environment. On the contrary, marketing strategies that emphasise the adventure and satisfaction of treating oneself, as well as the stimulation offered by the specific shopping experience should be utilised to appeal to this target market's positive hedonic shopping motivations. In order to appeal to this target market positive idea shopping motivations, exciting new products should be offered, and marketers should make use of advertisements that highlight new products, trends and fashions (Section 2.6.3.3).

In order to appeal to this target market's positive social shopping motivations, marketers have to focus their advertisements on accentuating a shopping experience that offers a social element. A retailer providing consumers with an opportunity to socialise while partaking in a shopping activity will encourage social shopping. Retailers should change the store layout to attract social shoppers by providing them with ample time and space for socialising (Section 2.6.3.4). Therefore, incorporating a coffee shop or café inside a store is a good way to appeal to, and target this consumer segment. In order to appeal to this target market's positive role shopping motivations, marketers should design advertisements to stress that consumers will find the perfect gift when visiting a specific store. Another method to attract role shoppers would be to draw attention to gift shopping seasons, namely Easter, Christmas, Valentine's day, Mother's day and Father's day, among other (Section 2.6.3.5). In order to appeal to the South African black Generation Y student cohorts' positive value shopping motivations, marketers should focus on advertising campaigns that emphasises value

for money, ongoing sales, and promotions. Retailers should highlight that good quality products are offered at discounted prices (Section 2.6.3.6).

5.4.2 Appeal to the utilitarian-motivated consumer

Utilitarian consumers are driven to go shopping by motivations such as achievement and efficiency. Consumers motivated by achievement want to achieve a goal when shopping, whereas efficiency-motivated consumers want to do shopping in an efficient manner, saving time and resources. The findings pertaining to the sample's utilitarian shopping motivations are presented in Section 4.4.6. Based on these findings, this study concluded that black Generation Y students exhibit statistically significant positive achievement and efficiency shopping motivations of which achievement shopping motives being the most positive motivation, followed by efficiency shopping motivations. Therefore, marketers and retailers should consider ways to assist consumers of this target market in achieving their planned shopping goals and making shopping experiences more efficient in order to appeal to this target market. Marketers should employ advertisements accentuating individuals that feel good when shopping at a particular store, as they achieved what was set out to achieve. Marketing campaigns should emphasise intelligent decision-making as part of the shopping experience offered by the retailer. Retailers should ensure that they offer all the possible products consumers would want to buy when visiting the store (Section 2.7.2). Retailers and marketers should focus on using objective communication with regards to advertisements and in-store displays. Staff should be well trained and equipped with the necessary skills to attend to the needs of all customers effectively. Post-purchase services should be of good quality, eliminating post-purchase dissonance. With reference to efficiency, black Generation Y students residing in South Africa are more positively motivated to get shopping done as fast as possible, compared to getting shopping done in one place. Therefore, advertisements emphasising a shopping trip taking as little time as possible would appeal to this target market. Retailers should design the store and train staff in such a way that shopping will be done swiftly and with little effort in order to appeal to this target market (Section 2.7.2).

5.4.3 Utilise similar appeal to target black Generation Y males and females

This study, along with previous research, indicates that male and female consumers are motivated by different shopping motivations (Section 1.2 and Section 4.5.2.1). As aforementioned, these differences mostly occur in the significance level of the motivation. Both male and female black Generation Y students find value shopping to be the greatest motivator with regard to hedonic shopping motivations. Furthermore, both male and female black Generation Y students find achievement to be the strongest motivator pertaining to the utilitarian construct. With reference to hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations, achievement as a shopping motivation has the strongest influence on both male and female black Generation Y students. However, the level of agreement differs, as female students' level of agreement is higher than that of male students. For that reason, marketers should target both genders similarly pertaining to hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations.

5.4.4 Appeal to target market of different year of study groups within the black Generation Y cohort

The findings of this study suggest that first-year, second-year and third-year students' shopping motivations differ pertaining to three of the constructs, namely gratification shopping, adventure shopping (Section 4.5.3.1), and achievement (Section 4.5.3.2). However, no significant differences were found with regard to the remaining five motivations for shopping of the first-year, second-year and third-year students, namely idea shopping, social shopping, role shopping, value shopping (Section 4.5.3.1) and efficiency shopping (Section 4.5.3.2). For that reason, marketing strategies to appeal to the different year of study groups within the black Generation Y student cohort should not differ with regards to idea shoppers, social shoppers, role shoppers and value shoppers. Conversely, marketing strategies to appeal to the different year of study groups within the black Generation Y student cohort should differ with regards to gratification shoppers, adventure shoppers and consumers shopping for achievement.

It is imperative for retailers to determine their target market as well as to determine the target market's motivations for shopping. By determining the motivations for

shopping, the retailer can appeal to this target segment by employing the appropriate marketing strategies. According to Farrag *et al.* (2013:113), offering various in-store activities and services would attract hedonic and utilitarian consumers. Furthermore, these authors also suggest that marketing plans should be designed to attract the different types of shoppers separately, rather than making use of mass marketing strategies.

5.5 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

The South African retail industry is a major industry with attractive growth and a high public spending. As the amount of retail companies and outlets increase, the competition in this industry is severe. Accordingly, it is imperative for retailers to maintain a competitive advantage by implementing marketing strategies that attract consumers. For retailers to implement the correct marketing strategies, it is necessary to determine the target market and their motivations for shopping. Marketers should recognise the specific target market's shopping motivations and use it when designing marketing strategies to attract this segment. The black Generation Y cohort is known as the future 'Black Diamonds' and are therefore an attractive target market. By measuring the black Generation Y student cohorts' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations, retailers and marketers are able to understand this attractive market's shopping motivations better.

Findings from this study contributes to the growing body of research on consumer shopping behaviour by shedding light on the hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations of South African black Generation Y students. Marketing academics and practitioners could use the insights gained from this study when designing marketing strategies to attract black Generation Y students. Retailers could use the results of this study to increase loyalty by the development of marketing strategies that accentuate specific shopping motivations to different segments. Another contribution of this study is that retailers can ensure satisfaction of consumers and thereby positively influence consumer behaviour, including positive word of mouth and revisiting the store, among others.

5.6 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES

This study examined South African black Generation Y students' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations by means of the quantitative research approach. By making use of a qualitative research approach, the reasons why the participants are driven by certain shopping motivations could be determined. Furthermore, the sample for this study was selected using a non-probability convenience sampling approach. For that reason, the interpretation of these results should be done with care.

This study is limited, as participants from only two HEIs in one province formed the sample for this study. As a result, there is an opportunity to conduct this study on a wider scale, including other HEIs within other provinces. This will improve the accuracy of the data obtained. Comparisons could be made between the different HEIs and the different provinces. This study could be performed in various countries, and the result could also be utilised for the purpose of drawing comparisons, as Millan and Howard (2007:484) suggest that a relationship between a country's economic development and consumers' shopping motivations exist.

The sample used for the purpose of this study comprised only full-time undergraduate students enrolled at two HEIs. This provides an opportunity for future research, as studies could be conducted to examine part-time, post-graduates as well as the non-student segment of the South African Generation Y cohort, with regards to these individuals' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations. Furthermore, this study did not target all ethnic groups, but only black Generation Y aged from 18 to 24. Jamal *et al.* (2006) stated that the ethnic group the participant forms part of might influence shopping motivations. Therefore, opportunities exist to evaluate the hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations of individuals forming part of other ethnic groups, as well as younger and older Generation Y members. In addition, shopping motivations of individuals from developing consumer societies may differ from individuals from developed consumer societies. For that reason, there is an opportunity to investigate any possible differences pertaining to different consumer societies.

As this study only determined whether the participants were driven by hedonic or utilitarian shopping motivations, future studies can be conducted in order to determine

various shopper groups. This also provides an opportunity to determine the combination of shopping motivations for participants. Future research can be conducted to examine the influence of other shopping determinants in conjunction with hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations.

5.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Developing effective marketing strategies to attract a specific target market is imperative in the current competitive retail industry. Understanding how and why consumers purchase products, thus their behaviour, is central in developing effective marketing strategies. The shopping behaviour of consumers is one of the most influential factors, as it determines the success or failure of a retail company. Therefore, it is essential for retailers to understand the shopping behaviour or shopping motivations of their consumers. The essential phase in this process, and the one addressed by this study, is to determine the hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations, and to use the results for segmentation and to develop effective marketing strategies for the specific target segment, which in this study are black Generation Y students.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE – COVER LETTER



GENERATION Y STUDENTS' HEDONIC AND UTILITARIAN SHOPPING MOTIVATIONS

I am currently working towards completing my dissertation under the supervision of Dr N de Klerk as part of the requirements for completing my M.Com in Marketing Management at the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus). The purpose of this research project is to determine Generation Y students' hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations.

Please assist me by completing the attached questionnaire. The questionnaire is user-friendly and should take approximately 10 minutes to complete. All responses are confidential and the results will only be used for research purposes, outlined in the form of statistical data.

Thank you - your assistance and contribution is highly appreciated.

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School of Economic Sciences & IT

Department of Marketing & Business Management

North-West University (Vaal Campus)

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE – DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

SECTION A: Demographical Information.

Please mark the appropriate box with a cross(X).

A1	Name of your institution:	North-West University	Vaal University of Technology	
A2	Province of origin:			
	Eastern Cape	Free State	Gauteng	KwaZulu-Natal
	Mpumalanga	Northern Cape	North West	Western Cape
A3	Current year of study:	1 st year	2 nd year	3 rd year
				Post graduate
A4	Gender:	Male	Female	
A5	Ethnic group:	Black/African	Coloured	Indian/Asian
	Other (Please specify)			
A6	Please indicate your mother tongue language:	Afrikaans		English
	IsiNdebele	IsiXhosa	IsiZulu	Sesotho sa Leboa
	Setswana	SiSwati	Tshivenda	Xitsonga
A7	Age at your last birthday:	<18	18	19
		20	21	22
		23	24	25
		25>		

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE - SCALES

SECTION B: Shopping motivations.

Please indicate the extent to which you disagree/agree with each of the following statements by placing a mark in the appropriate box; 1 being strongly disagree and 6 strongly agree.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
B1	When I am in a down mood, I go shopping to make myself feel better.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2	Shopping makes me feel like I am in my own universe.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B3	To me, shopping is a way to relieve stress.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B4	I find shopping stimulating.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B5	To me shopping is an adventure.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B6	I go shopping when I want to treat myself to something special.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B7	I go shopping to keep up with the new fashions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B8	I go shopping to keep up with the trends.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B9	I go shopping to see what new products are available.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B10	I enjoy socialising with others when I shop.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B11	I go shopping with my friends to socialise.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B12	I go shopping with my family to socialise.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B13	Shopping with others is a bonding experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B14	I enjoy shopping for my friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B15	I enjoy shopping for my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
B16	I like shopping for others because when they feel good, I feel good.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B17	I enjoy shopping around to find the perfect gift for someone.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B18	I enjoy looking for discounts when I shop.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B19	I enjoy hunting for bargains when I shop.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B20	Generally, I go shopping when stores are having sales.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B21	It feels good to know that my shopping trip was successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B22	On a particular shopping trip, it is important to find items I am looking for.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B23	It is important to accomplish what I had planned on a particular shopping trip.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B24	I like to feel clever when I reflect on my shopping trip.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B25	I prefer if I get my shopping done as fast as possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B26	I prefer to get all my shopping done in one place, rather than having to go to multiple places.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Thank you very much for your participation!