MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS OF MALL SHOPPERS:
Effects of Ethnicity and Age

Jikyeong Kang
Assistant Professor, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, WI

Youn-Kyung Kim
Assistant Professor, University of North Texas, Denton, TX

Wen-Jan Tuan
Graduate Student, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, WI

Overview

The objective of the study was to investigate the relative importance of various shopping motivations of mall shoppers for different ethnic groups. Data were collected in major metropolitan areas in the states of New York, Texas, and California using a mall-intercept survey method. The sample included 2,112 Whites, African Americans, Hispanic Americans, Chinese Americans, and Korean Americans in three age groups (12–19, 20–49, and 50 or older). The shopping motivations of mall shoppers were evaluated through 35 items, which were successfully captured by six factors: *Aesthetic Ambience, Economic Incentives, Diversion/Browsing, Social Experience, Convenient Service Availability,* and *Consumption of Meal/Snack.* Results from MANCOVA revealed main effects of ethnicity, gender, household income, and self-identified ethnic strength on the importance placed on the six shopping motivation factors. In addition, there was a significant two-way interaction effect between shoppers' ethnicity and their age level.

■ Background

The phenomenal growth of shopping malls during the 1950s and 1960s has yielded some remarkable shifts in retail sales statistics (Roy, 1994). For example, in 1991, mall transactions accounted for 50% of all retail sales dollars and 13% of the U.S. GNP (Feinberg and Meoli, 1991). Furthermore, surveys indicate that 75% of Americans go to a mall at least once a month and that shopping malls have become the third most frequented location for Americans after home and work (Laing, 1992; Ping and Carusone, 1994).

Historically, following the initial emergence of the planned shopping center and its widespread development, the trend toward larger stores and larger centers led to the development of regional and super regional mall centers in metropolitan market areas across the United States. Then, as metropolitan markets started to saturate, development began to expand into smaller cities, so that by the end of the 1970s virtually every community with a population over 25,000 showed some evidence of retail trade decentralization - that is, the physical dispersion of retail markets outward from the central business district (Carusone, 1978). However, anticipation of continued growth has contributed toward the erroneous overextensions of the 1980s; thus, in many geographic areas more retail space is available than is necessary for the present, or any foreseeable, population (Rudnitsky, 1992).

Traditionally, consumers were attracted to malls by the availability of a wide assortment of stores and merchandise in a single location. However, in recent years they have been going to malls less frequently, visiting fewer stores, and spending less time and money while at the mall. More specifically, between 1982 and 1990, the number of stores visited by the average mall shopper declined from 3.6 to 2.6, and the average shopping time dropped from 90 to 69 minutes (Walker, 1991). In addition, there is evidence that recession-weary consumers are shying away from regional shopping malls and favoring discount stores, outlet malls, and other price-oriented formats. In sum, increased competition from new formats and nonstore retailers, over-saturation, and overleveraging of department stores have all affected shopping center traffic and sales. Further, many malls are now nearly 30 years old and need refurbishing (Nunnink, 1993). The malls built to serve the consumers of the 1960s and 1970s need to be revamped and repositioned to create a new image and to serve today's consumers better. It is extremely vital to consider that these consumers may or may not have the same demographic profiles or shopping attitudes and behaviors as past consumers, thus pointing to the need for new strategic approaches in mall management and marketing.

Review of Literature

Benefits of Shopping Malls

The most significant distinction in shopping benefits relevant to the present study is utilitarian versus hedonic values: utilitarian values involve satisfying basic physiological needs (e.g., clothing, food, and shelter) and assuring the security of satisfactory purchase performance; hedonic values involve fun, gratification (e.g., exciting life), and pleasure. In Campbell's (1987) view, utilitarianism involves an attempt to reduce needs arising from states of deprivation, whereas hedonism involves pleasure-seeking rather than pain avoidance. Hedonism is a key feature of the consumer culture and results in an endless and ultimately unfulfilling quest for novelty, primarily through consumption (Campbell, 1987; Tse, Belk and Zhou, 1989). Below is a brief background of these two values considered as benefit factors of shopping malls.

Utilitarian (Functional) Benefits

Consumers may be drawn to a particular shopping center because of the existence of a special store that appeals to them (Nevin and Houston, 1980). For example, anchor stores, consisting of a mix of mass merchandise anchors and department store anchors, help draw customers to a shopping center. Nonanchors can also serve as super performers having a high drawing power (Anderson, 1985). The smaller specialty stores typically found in shopping malls include bookshops, music stores, gift shops, apparel and shoe stores, and so forth. Merchants frequently seek to locate their stores in close proximity to their direct competitors, reasoning that the consumer's desire for convenient comparison of shopping goods is an important motive for patronizing a shopping mall.

Overall, it is well known that the agglomeration of diverse retailers in particular towns or shopping centers increases the attractiveness of those places for consumer shopping (Kimball, 1991). Furthermore, to reduce the time and cost of shopping, consumers may sometimes bypass closer stores to visit agglomerated stores which are farther away in order to shop for different types of goods on the same trip. This phenomenon of multipurpose shopping (Ghosh, 1986) can offer "one-stop for all needs" to more cost- and time-efficient functional shoppers.

Hedonic (Emotional) Benefits

Because an increasing number of consumers use convenience as a primary basis for making purchase decisions, retailers have tended to focus on consumers' purchase patterns and to ignore the emotional benefits that can be provided during shopping activities (Babin et al., 1994). However, consumers shop not only for goods and services or specific information but for experiential and emotional reasons (Babin et al., 1994; Tauber, 1972; Westbrook and Black, 1985). Indeed, the mall itself offers experiences that are consumable, and mall managers have built on this trend by instituting many special events such as home improvement expos, walking clubs, art exhibits, health screenings, auto shows, and live music (Christman, 1988).

From their inception, enclosed malls have offered patrons the advantage of climatic comfort and freedom from the noise and traffic that characterize other shopping venues. Some shoppers may be interested in "seeing new items and learning about new trends"; others may go shopping when they feel a need for exercise or leisure time (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Tauber, 1972). Malls have also become important places that provide opportunities for social experiences outside the home (e.g., meeting friends, watching people), especially for young people and for mature consumers (Richardson, 1993). Many people enjoy the pleasant, park-like atmosphere (Balazs, 1994). More recently, mall interiors have evolved from comfortable yet mediocre spaces to architecturally rich spaces with lavish materials and sophisticated design elements such as multilevel atriums and curved escalators (Gregorson, 1988).

The regional shopping mall, for example, offers maximum opportunity for browsing, and browsers are often considered to be essential to the success of such an institution (Jarboe and McDaniel, 1987). Browsers, although they may not have specific purchase plans, may in fact make unplanned purchases because of in-store promotions and exposure to new products. They also gather information in advance of future purchasing (Bloch, Ridgway, and Sherrell, 1989). Another important characteristic of browsers in regional malls may be that they are not only potential impulse buyers but are also likely to be effective word-of-mouth advertisers, peer influencers, and trendsetters, especially for socially visible products (Jarboe and McDaniel, 1987). Indeed, it is often suggested that without these browsers, who frequently become buyers, many stores would be forced to close their doors permanently (Jarboe and McDaniel, 1987).

Mall Shoppers

This study focused on two demographic factors related to the retail industry that have exhibited dramatic changes in recent years: a) changes in the age distribution of the population; and b) increases in diverse ethnic populations.

Teens and Mature Consumers

Mall owners must understand how the changing demographics affect consumer spending habits. The frequent mall shopper typically has been identified as an individual who is 40–60 years old, has a relatively high income, has a household size greater than three, is not particularly sensitive to deals, and considers shopping an enjoyable recreational experience (Bloch, Ridgway, and Dawson, 1994). In addition, according to Richardson (1993), the only consumer groups shopping at malls in greater numbers today are teens and senior citizens. Both groups have more free time for recreational shopping than do baby boomers. In fact, teens are definitely the most frequent visitors to shopping malls. While at the mall, teens spend an average of $32.68 per visit, according to the survey. Nearly seven in 10 teenagers report that they are spending more time in shopping malls than a year or two ago, whereas 78.6% say they have more money to spend now than they did then (*Chain Store Age Executive*, 1994). Malls would be much more deserted and stores would be much less profitable without the under-20 population. Consequently, many industry experts believe that the teenage market is clearly critical to the success of practically every shopping mall in America (*Chain Store Age Executive*, 1994).

Another critical segment of mall shoppers is the mature consumers, the fastest growing demographic segment in the United States. According to the Census Bureau, there are currently 32.5 million or 13% of Americans over the age of 65. It is anticipated that one out of five Americans will be age 65 or over by 2010 (Longino, 1994). In particular, mature consumers over age 50 have been targeted by retailers and marketing practitioners because of their market size, growth rate, and spending power. People aged 50 and over control more than three-fourths of the nation's wealth and about half the nation's discretionary income, and this market is likely to increase in importance in the future (Longino, 1994). However, retailers who wish to serve the special needs of this relatively untapped mature consumer market should respond through adjustments in the retailing mix (Lumpkin and Hite, 1988). The majority of today's mature consumers, who are for the most part active and affluent, enjoy shopping and especially mall shopping (Gill, 1988). For them, it is an opportunity to gather information, meet friends, and enjoy the mall decor (Balazs, 1994).

Ethnic Consumers

The United States is becoming more multicultural, with a growing presence of immigrants from Latin America and Asia in particular. An imminent shift is expected from a society dominated by Whites and rooted in Western culture to a world society characterized by three large ethnic groups: African Americans, Hispanic Americans, and Asian Americans. During the 1980s the number of African Americans increased 13.2% to a total of 30 million, Hispanic Americans grew 53% to 22.4 million, and Asian Americans increased 108% to 7.3 million. In contrast, the number of non-Hispanic American Whites grew just 4.4% to 188.1 million. The White majority is expected to continue its relative decline, and it has been predicted that as early as 2060, no ethnic majority will exist in the U.S. (Henricks, 1992).

Three ethnic consumer markets - African American, Hispanic American, and Asian American - represent the most logical source of expansion and market share growth opportunity for shopping center retailers. The rapid growth and rising income of these consumer groups render them lucrative markets, and the geographic concentration of ethnic consumers provides relatively easy and effective access for marketers (Henricks, 1992). In his report on marketing to minorities, Henricks illustrated several benefits of ethnic marketing: a) about one in five shoppers at regional malls, including those in the suburbs, is a member of a minority group; b) African Americans make more shopping trips than any other consumers; c) Hispanic Americans, at $50.42 per store visit, outspend all groups, including Whites, at $44.10 per visit; and d) Asian Americans are more affluent than any other ethnic group, including Whites.

The African American market segment traditionally has been of interest to marketing researchers examining consumer innovativeness because of the greater propensity of this group to buy new fashions. According to Goldsmith, Stith, and White (1987), there has been little current research on this topic; nonetheless, going shopping (50%) has been identified as the second most frequent leisure activity among African Americans, following watching TV (66%) (Miller, 1993).

The U.S. Hispanic American population is expected to increase by nearly 40% (21.4 million to 29.7 million) from 1990 to 2000. By 2010, the U.S. Hispanic American population should number 38.5 million (Exter, 1993). Furthermore, the rapidly rising per capita income of Hispanic Americans offers the promise of a lucrative consumer market, and shopping (51%) is the second most enjoyed leisure activity following watching TV (63%) (Miller, 1993).

Asian Americans, in general, are younger, are better educated, and have higher incomes than the average American. They like to shop for fun (Fost, 1990). The top three leisure activities mentioned by Asians were watching TV (58%), reading (39%), and going shopping (38%) (Miller, 1993).

Hispanic Americans and Asians spend relatively more of their free time shopping in large family groups rather than alone; buying decisions are often finalized by the family elders; and the product will benefit the group and group relations rather than the individual person. Because this collective decision-making is extensive in Hispanic and Asian cultures, marketers will have to change their selling strategy to appeal to the decision-making style of the extended family (Zaichkowsky, 1991).

The growth in size and purchasing power of ethnic groups is making the targeting of ethnic populations a popular marketing strategy. Many retailers target ethnic consumers by varying retail assortments and merchandising practices to match the characteristics of shoppers in ethnic market areas. For example, recent retail practices include specialized retail stores for minority consumers (*Wall Street Journal*, 1989) and the hiring of ethnic marketing specialists (*Advertising Age*, 1991). However, a more thorough understanding of ethnic consumers will allow us to target and promote products and services more effectively to different segments of ethnic markets (O'Guinn and Faber, 1985).

Research Objectives

Based on the circumstances surrounding the shopping mall industry and the literature regarding shopping behavior, this study was designed to ask "What is the relative importance of different shopping mall benefits for these groups?" This question was studied for two major demographic factors - age and ethnic group. More specifically, the teen (under 20) and the mature consumers (50 or older) markets were compared and contrasted to the middle age market, and major ethnic groups (African American, Hispanic American, Chinese, and Korean) were compared and contrasted with Whites.

■ Methodology

Mall-intercept surveys were conducted in major metropolitan areas in the states of New York, Texas, and California. The sample included 2,112 Whites, African Americans, Hispanic Americans, and Asian Americans in three age ranges (12–19, 20–49, and 50 or older).

Sampling

In addition to Whites, African Americans, and Hispanic Americans, two of the five largest Asian population groups - Chinese Americans (first) and Korean Americans (fifth) - were included in the sample. Filipino (second) and Asian Indian (fourth) were not chosen because of their long-standing ties with Western culture and the common use of English in their home country. Japanese (third) were excluded because they do not reside in the select cities with the same degree of concentration as the other two Asian groups, and thus presented difficulties for data collection.

Development of the Survey Instrument

The survey instrument was first developed after conducting an in-depth review of the relevant literature discussing the major variables included in the study. A detailed discussion of each variable is provided in the subsequent section.

Translation and back-translation techniques were used to ensure the equivalence of the instruments written in four languages, that is, English, Spanish, Mandarin, and Korean. More specifically, after the instrument was initially developed in English, a first group of bilingual experts translated the questionnaire into a native language. Next, a second group of bilingual experts back-translated the native language version into English (with no previous exposure to the original English version) until the versions in both languages were judged to be the same by a third group of bilingual experts. Brislin (1970) has stated that this method ensures that any problems with language equivalency can be identified and resolved.

Measures

In this study, three major sets of variables (shopping motivations, self-identified ethnic strength, and demographic characteristics) were included.

Shopping Motivations

Items were drawn from several studies focusing on traditionally studied functional aspects of consumer behavior (Bellinger, Robertson, and Greenberg, 1977; Bloch, Ridgway and Dawson, 1994; Nevin and Houston, 1982) as well as studies dealing with experiential or hedonic benefits available to mall consumers. The latter tapped such behaviors as browsing, socializing, eating, exercising, and being entertained. Specific factors included a) quality of the shopping center (e.g., security, attractiveness of decor, courtesy of personnel, quality of merchandise, cleanliness, and atmosphere); b) presence of related services (e.g., availability of bank and restaurants/refreshments); c) variety under one roof (e.g., variety of stores, number of department stores, number of specialty stores, and presence of new fashions); d) convenience (e.g., convenient location from home, parking facilities, and layout of area); e) social experience (e.g., spending time with friends or family, and people watching); f) comfort areas (e.g., great place to take children and great place to spend a few hours); g) browsing; h) information gathering (e.g., good place to find out what is new); i) special sales/promotions; and j) recreational services (e.g., special events/exhibits, movie theater, and video game parlor). Respondents were asked to indicate, on a seven-point Likert-type scale, the importance they placed on each of the items that ask for the reasons why they visit shopping centers or malls.

Self-Identified Ethnic Strength

In this measure, respondents were asked to indicate, on a seven-point Likert-type scale, how strongly they identify with the racial/ethnic group to which they consider they belong.

Demographics

Lastly, the survey instrument also solicited information on demographic variables expected to affect mall shopping, such as gender, age, marital status, household income, education, and occupation.

Pretest

The initially developed instruments were refined via pretests. First, a sample of students from a major Midwest land-grant university was instructed to complete an English version of the instrument. According to Graham (1988), young adults are a convenient pretesting group who are also considered useful because they are of particular interest to the shopping center industry. Based on factor analyses and reliability tests of shopping motivation items, the initial item pool was revised and a second pretest was performed with a new student sample as well as a convenience sample of mature consumers. Any necessary revisions of wording, instructions, or formats were accordingly made to the native language versions of the instrument upon consultation with bilingual experts.

Data Collection

As previously stated, this study used a mall intercept survey method rather than a mail or telephone survey. The latter would involve identifying ethnic groups through surname designation, a procedure that would exclude ethnic Americans with non-ethnic last names but might include non-ethnic Americans whose last names were judged ethnic, for example, married women. In fact, findings concerning the validity of the Spanish surname designation suggest that this technique is one of the major sources of error in designating Hispanic American households (Soruco and Meyer, 1993).

Data were collected from large local or regional shopping malls located in the New York, Houston, Dallas and Los Angeles areas. The first stage of mall selection involved identifying all local and regional malls in the select cities having the desired ethnic composition of the study's sampling frame. In addition to the ethnic composition criteria, malls also had to be anchored by major department stores to be included in the initial list.

Once the list was compiled, each of the mall managers was first sent an invitation letter asking her/him to participate in the study. One week later, the researchers telephoned each mall manager to inquire whether they would be interested in participation and also to explore the feasibility of data collection at their malls during the specified time period. This screening was an essential part of the selection procedure because some malls do not allow any solicitors on their premises, and mall-intercept interviews were considered a form of solicitation by most mall management. Some would allow data collection, but only if we used their in-house marketing/research center and their personnel at cost, which was a rather prohibitive rate for this study. In fact, for this reason, Chicago was excluded from the sampling frame, although it was a preferred choice of the researchers: most qualifying Chicago area malls have an in-house facility and do not allow data collection by outsiders.

From the initial list, four or five malls in each state were randomly selected as the final data collection sites. The actual data collection was completed by four trained graduate students who travelled to each site for a total of approximately four weeks' time. The graduate student research team included one Spanish-English bilingual, one Chinese-English bilingual, and one Korean-English bilingual. In most cases, student researchers were under the supervision of one of the two faculty researchers.

At each shopping center or mall, mall management provided a set of tables and chairs at central locations. Shoppers walking by the research station area were intercepted and asked if they would be interested in participating in a university research project investigating shopping motivations. Although respondents were chosen on a "catch as catch can" basis (Blair, 1983), approaching the next available shopper, the interview schedule used a stratified quota sampling technique, because interviewers solicited mall shoppers' participation based on their perception of approximate age and ethnicity and used a set of screening questions before asking the shopper to complete the survey instrument. To ensure adequate sample diversity, data collection was implemented at a variety of times and days of the week in accordance with Blair's (1983) methodological suggestions. To secure participation, respondents were offered a $2 cash payment.

Results and Discussion

Description of the Sample

A total of 2,112 respondents participated in the study. Geographically speaking, 37.69% (n=796) were from New York, 35.18% (n=743) from Texas, and 27.13% (n=573) from California. Selected demographic characteristics of the sample, including ethnicity, gender, marital status, age, household income, education, and job status are presented in Table 1. As briefly mentioned earlier, data collection was done with an ethnicity and age stratification plan; thus, the distribution of the sample on the select demographic characteristics does not necessarily follow the characteristics of the population. For example, due to a proportionately larger number of teenagers participating in the study, the sample includes a significant proportion of participants having lower household income.

Shopping Motivations

Shopping motivations of mall shoppers were evaluated through 35 items, such as "I come to malls to hunt for a real bargain" or "I come

TABLE 1. DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

	N	%		N	%
Ethnicity			**Household Income**		
White	534	(25.3)	Less than $10,000	546	(29.3)
Black	387	(18.3)	$10,000–$19,999	211	(11.2)
Hispanic	313	(14.8)	$20,000–$29,999	251	(13.4)
Chinese American	515	(24.4)	$30,000–$39,999	218	(11.6)
Korean American	342	(16.2)	$40,000–$49,999	222	(11.8)
Gender			$50,000–$59,999	130	(6.9)
Male	913	(43.2)	More than $60,000	298	(15.5)
Female	1199	(56.8)	**Education**		
Age			High school or less	1151	(55.2)
12–19	775	(36.7)	Associate/two-year college degree	421	(20.2)
20–49	961	(45.5)	Bachelor's degree	348	(16.7)
50 or older	376	(17.8)	Graduate degree	165	(7.9)
Marital Status			**Job Status**		
Single	1163	(55.8)	Full time	661	(32.4)
Living with a partner	76	(3.6)	Part time	353	(17.3)
Married	682	(32.7)	Housekeeper	94	(4.6)
Separated	26	(1.2)	Unemployed	707	(34.7)
Divorced	75	(3.6)	Retired	224	(11.0)
Widowed	64	(3.1)			

Note—Due to missing data, the sum of percentages may not be equal to 100%.

to malls just to browse." Response to each question was recorded on a seven-point Likert-type scale. Inter-item correlations were first observed to detect any patterns underlying the shopping motivation items. Results from the Pearson Product Moment correlation matrix suggested a rather apparent pattern of associations among the items. For example, there was a positive correlation between the item, "to watch people," and the item, "to simply enjoy the crowds" (r =.56, p<.01). However, the correlation between the items "to watch people" and "to find exactly what I want in the least amount of time" was not significant (r =.02, p=.33). Therefore, it was considered that factor analysis would serve as a useful and meaningful data reduction technique.

Table 2 summarizes the results of the factor analysis which was run using the Principal Component Approach with a varimax rotation. Results indicate that the 35 items can be successfully captured by six factors whose eigenvalues were greater than or equal to 1 and together

TABLE 2. FACTOR ANALYSIS OF SHOPPING MOTIVATION ITEMS

Factor Labels and Items	Rotated Factor Loadings	Reliability Coefficient
Aesthetic Ambience		.75
To look at the interior design of malls	.85	
To enjoy the architecture of malls	.78	
To find unique crafts	.66	
Economic Incentives		.75
To find good prices	.84	
To comparison-shop to find the best for my money	.81	
To hunt for a real bargain	.79	
Diversion/Browsing		.73
Just so that I can get out of the house	.80	
When I am bored	.79	
Just to browse	.76	
Social Experience		.71
To talk with other shoppers	.77	
To simply enjoy the crowds	.76	
To watch people	.72	
Convenient Service Availability		.64
To visit medical/dental/vision care office(s)	.74	
To use hair salon services	.73	
To use banking services	.64	
Meal/Snack Consumption		.71
To have a meal at a restaurant	.82	
To have a meal at the food court	.80	
When I want to get a snack	.60	

accounted for 65.14% of the total variance. In interpretation and labeling of the rotated factors, the items which loaded at least ±.55 were included. In addition, intercorrelations among the items within each factor were examined as a measure of reliability ensuring internal consistency. Reliability coefficients of the factors ranged from .75 to .64. More detailed descriptions of the factors are presented in the next section.

Aesthetic Ambience

There have been numerous reports concerning a recent trend reflecting consumers' desire for a more pleasant atmosphere when they go shopping. In other words, instead of following more traditional purchasing or consumption motives, consumers also go to a mall or shopping center because it presents an attractive decor or interesting interior design. In fact, in recent years, mall interiors have developed from comfortable yet mediocre spaces into architecturally rich spaces with lavish materials and sophisticated design elements (Gregorson, 1988). The results in Table 2 confirm such trends. As captured in Factor 1, consumers go to malls "to look at the interior design of malls," "to enjoy the architecture of malls," and "to find unique crafts." This suggests that consumers may choose the malls based on some hedonic influences such as fitting their personal image and aesthetic preference, and may have a higher chance of visiting those malls or shopping centers providing such desirable aesthetic ambience.

Economic Incentives

The items included in the second motivational factor are "to find good prices," "to comparison-shop to find the best for my money," and "to hunt for a real bargain." In other words, consumers may go shopping at a specific shopping center or mall because it provides better prices or economic incentives compared to other stores or shopping centers.

Diversion/Browsing

Three items were included in this motivational factor: "just so that I can get out of the house," "when I am bored," and "just to browse." In other words, consumers sometimes go to malls or shopping centers because they feel bored and want to create some diversion from their routine rather than because of actual purchasing motivations. This particular factor can be considered as hedonic shopping motivation, as compared to utilitarian motivation.

Social Experience

Three items were involved in this factor, which is labeled social experience motivation: "to talk with other shoppers," "to simply enjoy the crowds," and "to watch people." Similar to the motivational factors of *Aesthetic Ambience* or *Diversion/Browsing, Social Experience* is considered hedonic motivation. Indeed, Richardson (1993) has argued that malls may have become important locations for providing opportunities for social experience outside the home, such as meeting friends and watching people. Furthermore, many reports have stated that more and more teenagers and elderly consumers go to malls and shopping centers not only for purchase or consumption purposes but for socializing, because malls, especially enclosed malls, usually provide a more comfortable environment than other public locations.

Convenient Service Availability

Items in this factor include: "to visit medical/dental/vision care office(s)," "to use hair salon services," and "to use banking services." Obviously, for some consumers, an important incentive for going to malls or shopping centers is because they provide a variety of related services, such as banks and clinics. As consumers perceive their time to be increasingly limited and valuable, they are increasingly concerned with accomplishing different tasks on the same shopping trip. Thus, as displayed in this factor, utilitarian motivation is extended to combine assorted tasks in achieving the greatest efficiency and time saving. The use of the related services at malls reflects such incentives.

Consumption of Meal/Snack

Items included in this factor are "to have a meal at a restaurant," "to have a meal at the food court," and "when I want to get a snack." As indicated in many studies of shopping centers or malls, food consumption has become an important part of shopping at such places. Like the other services which shopping centers or malls provide, such as retail stores or recreation features, an excellent restaurant or food court providing unique dining opportunities may give consumers a particular reason to go to that specific shopping center or mall.

In sum, the shopping motivational factors of *Economic Incentives, Convenient Store Availability,* and *Meal/Snack Consumption* reflect motivations of shoppers which are attributable to their utilitarian considerations. In other words, consumers visit shopping centers or malls to satisfy their basic functional needs. In contrast, the shopping motivational factors of *Aesthetic Ambience, Diversion/Browsing,* and *Social Experience* reflect motivations of shoppers which are attributable to their hedonic considerations. In other words, consumers visit shopping centers or malls to have fun, gratification and pleasure in order to satisfy their basic psychological needs or desires.

Comparison of Shopping Motivations Among Ethnic Groups

To examine whether the five ethnic groups have distinctively different shopping motivations, multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted. Dependent variables consisted of the six shopping motivational factors - *Aesthetic Ambience, Economic Incentives, Diversion/Browsing, Social Experience, Convenient Service Availability,* and *Consumption of Meal/Snack.* Categorical independent variables included shopper's ethnicity with five levels (Whites, African Americans, Hispanic Americans, Chinese Americans, and Korean Americans), gender with two levels (male and female), age with three levels (12–19 years old, 20–49, and 50 or older), and education with four levels (high school or less, associate or two-year college degree, bachelor's degree, and graduate degree or more). Continuous independent variables (covariates) involved household income and the self-identified ethnic strength.

Results from MANCOVA revealed significant differences among (a) the five ethnic groups ($F(24, 5454)=9.47$, *Wilks' Lambda*=.86, $p<.01$); (b) the two gender groups ($F(1, 1563)=13.33$, *Wilks' Lambda*=.95, $p<.01$); (c) household income level groups ($F(6, 1536)=5.89$, *Wilks' Lambda*=.98, $p<.01$); and (d) self-identified ethnic strength level groups ($F(6, 1563)=5.04$, *Wilks' Lambda*=.98, $p<.01$) in the importance placed on the six different shopping motivational factors. However, groups with the four different educational levels were found not to differ significantly in the importance placed on the six different shopping motivational factors ($F(18, 4421)=1.08$, *Wilks' Lambda*=.02, $p<.36$). In addition, a two-way interaction between shoppers' ethnicity and their age level was also significant ($F(48, 7695)=6.16$, *Wilks' Lambda*=.83, $p<.01$).

Because the results from MANCOVA showed that ethnicity, gender, age, household income, and self-identified ethnic strength have strong effects on the importance placed on the six different shopping motivational factors, univariate analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was followed. The results are reported in Table 3 and are summarized in the following section.

Interaction Effects of Ethnicity and Age

Figure 1 displays the interaction plots based on the least square means of the importance placed on the six different shopping motivational factors by ethnicity and age. For the *Aesthetic Ambience* motivation factor (Figure 1a), both young and mature Asian American shoppers (Chinese and Korean) had lower mean scores than Asian American shoppers who were in the middle age group; in contrast, for White, African American, and Hispanic American groups, older shoppers exhibited higher scores than the two younger shopper groups. In other words, Asian American shoppers in the middle age group considered

TABLE 3. ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE FOR SHOPPING MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS

	F value					
Shopping Motivation Factors	Ethnicity	Gender	Age	Income	Self-Identified Ethnic Strength	Ethnicity* Age
Aesthetic Ambience	30.91**	N.S.	19.44**	24.20**	N.S.	4.39**
Economic Incentives	45.00**	N.S.	48.67*	6.97*	30.14**	2.27*
Diversion/ Browsing	26.82**	10.27**	34.94**	19.78**	6.71**	7.32**
Social Experience	26.67**	33.55**	57.57**	10.23*	N.S.	18.40**
Convenient Service Availability	26.27**	N.S.	4.24*	26.07**	4.73*	1.97*
Meal/Snack Consumption	8.77**	4.16*	4.15*	11.11*	4.65*	4.69**

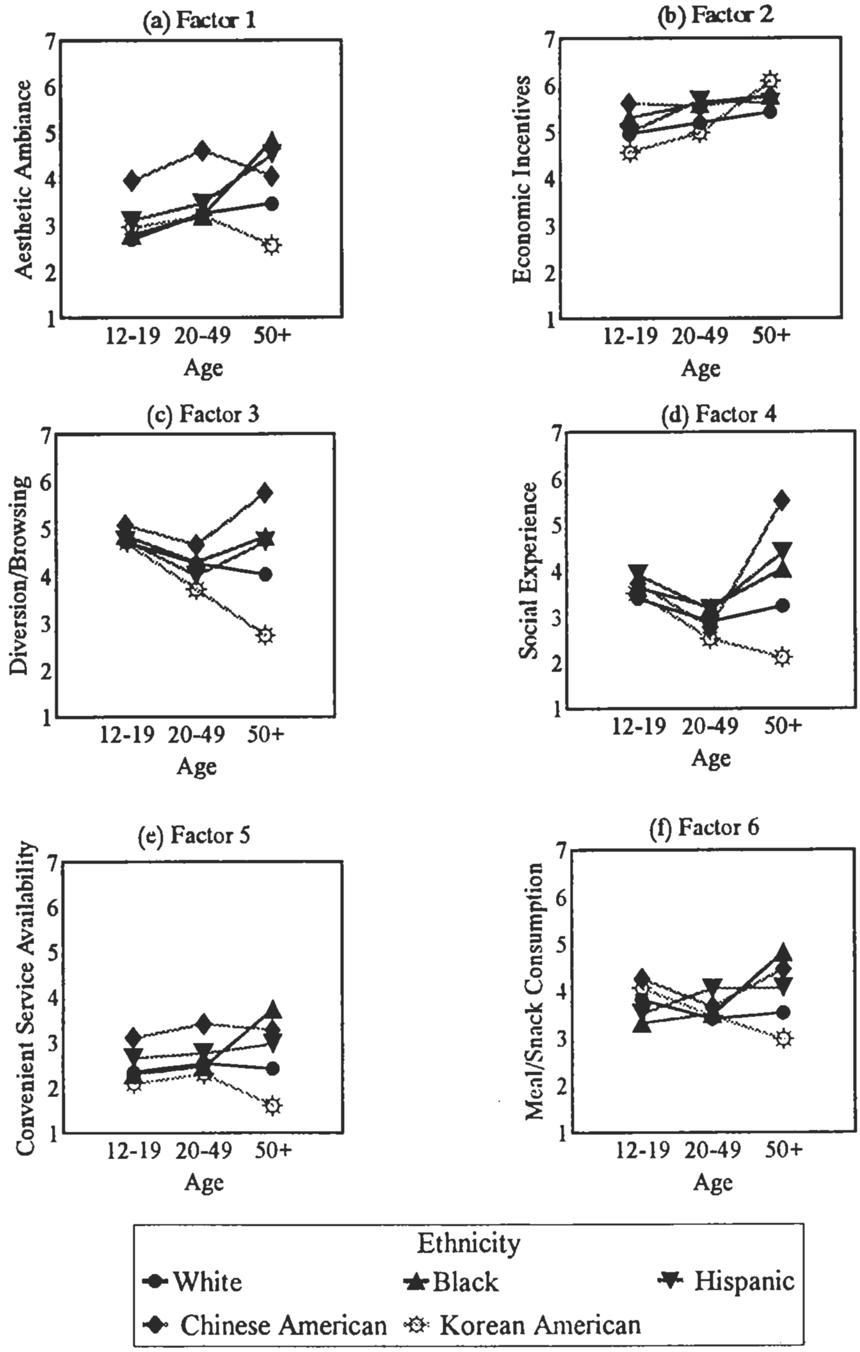
*$p < .05$.
**$p < .01$.
N.S. indicates that the effect was not significant at .05 level.

the aesthetic ambience of shopping centers or malls more important than did young and mature Asian American shoppers. Overall, older African American shoppers exhibited the highest and older Korean shoppers the lowest level of enthusiasm toward the aesthetic ambience of shopping centers or malls.

For the *Economic Incentives* motivation factor (Figure 1b), there appeared to be no significantly different mean scores among the five ethnic groups of different ages, except for Korean American shoppers. A positive trend showed that younger Korean American shoppers put significantly less importance on economic incentives than older Korean American shoppers. Indeed, for this factor, younger Korean American shoppers showed the lowest and older Korean American shoppers showed the highest ratings of all subgroups by age and ethnicity. Furthermore, for Korean Americans, this is the only factor of all six factors in which age has a positive relationship with the importance placed on the factor. In other words, for Koreans, the *Economic Incentives* factor is the only one on which older shoppers place more importance than the two other age groups.

For the *Diversion/Browsing* motivation factor (Figure 1c), younger White and younger Korean American shoppers had higher mean scores than their older counterparts. In fact, for these two ethnic shopper

FIGURE 1. INTERACTION EFFECTS OF ETHNICITY AND AGE ON SHOPPING MOTIVATION FACTORS



groups, age seems to have a negative relationship to the importance they place on this factor. On the other hand, for African Americans, Hispanic Americans, and Chinese Americans, the mean scores of the middle age groups were lower than for shoppers in the other two age groups. In other words, younger and older shoppers of these ethnic groups had a higher level of motivation for diversion and/or browsing than shoppers in the middle age group. Overall, however, younger groups, regardless of ethnicity, were more motivated by this factor than middle or older age groups. It is also interesting to note that, at the youngest age, all five ethnic groups exhibited rather similar levels of the *Diversion/Browsing* factor, whereas, as the ages of shoppers get older, the variances across the five ethnic groups within the two age groups become greater.

Similar to the previous factor, for the *Social Experience* factor (Figure 1d), younger Korean American shoppers exhibited stronger *Social Experience* motivation than older Korean American shoppers, as shown in the downward trend of the mean scores over age groups. For Whites, African Americans, Hispanic Americans, and Chinese Americans, the middle age group shoppers displayed lower *Social Experience* motivations than the shoppers in the other two age groups. This implies that, except for the Korean Americans, shoppers in the middle age group evaluated the *Social Experience* motivation to be less important than did shoppers in the rest of the age groups.

For the *Convenient Service Availability* motivation factor (Figure 1e), the mean scores of the younger African American shoppers were significantly lower than those of the older African American shoppers. In fact, the older African American shopper group was the one that placed the highest importance on this factor among all the subgroups of ethnicity and age. Similarly, although with less magnitude, this trend was observed for Hispanic Americans. On the other hand, for White, Chinese American, and Korean American shoppers, the mean scores of the middle age group were greater than the mean scores of the other two age groups. Thus, for these ethnic groups, shoppers in the middle age group considered the *Convenient Service Availability* of shopping centers or malls to be more important than did the other two age group shoppers.

For the *Meal/Snack Consumption* motivation factor (Figure 1f), similarly to the *Diversion/Browsing* and *Social Experience* factors, the age of Korean American shoppers seemed to have a negative relationship on the importance they place on this motivation factor. In other words, for these three factors, the older the age of Korean shoppers, the less importance is placed on those motivational factors. This trend is the opposite of the result found with the *Economic Incentives* factor. In fact, for older Korean American shoppers, one very obvious observation can be made by simultaneously reviewing all six plots: they are always plotted with the lowest scores, except for the factor of *Economic Incentives*, on which they place the greatest importance compared to all other subgroups. In other words, it appears that, to older Korean Americans, all motivational factors other than the *Economic Incentives* motivational factor are not very significant with regard to their mall or shopping center visits.

Generally speaking, as demonstrated in the plots with a higher overall mean score than others, for all ethnic groups the *Economic Incentives* factor was more important than any other type of motivation. In contrast, the *Convenient Service Availability* factor, having the lowest average mean score of all six factors, was the least important to shoppers.

Effects of Gender

Since we found the main effect of gender on the six shopping motivation factors, multiple comparisons using least-squares means were performed to learn where specific differences exist. As shown in Table 4, there appears to be a statistically significant difference between male and female shoppers in terms of the importance they place on the *Economic Incentives, Diversion/Browsing, Social Experience*, and *Meal/Snack Consumption* motivations; on the other hand, the gender difference on the *Aesthetic Ambience* and *Convenient Service Availability* motivations were not significant. More specifically, the mean importance score which the male shoppers placed on *Economic Incentives* ($M_{Male}=5.52$) was significantly greater than that for the female shoppers ($M_{Female}=5.15$). Also, perhaps contrary to popular belief, the statistics indicate that the male shoppers ($M_{Male}=4.58$) placed more importance on the *Diversion/Browsing* motivation factor of mall shopping compared to the female shoppers ($M_{Female}=4.44$). Similarly, the male shoppers placed more importance on the *Social Experience* and *Meal/Snack Consumption* factors than did the female shoppers ($M_{Male}=3.60$ and $M_{Female}=3.13$; $M_{Male}=4.84$ and $M_{Female}=4.64$, respectively). Further examination of Table 4 indicates that, whether or not a statistical difference exists, the male shoppers' levels of importance for all six shopping motivation factors were higher than those of the female shoppers.

Effects of Covariates

In our MANOVA model, the importance ratings were adjusted by the two variables considered as covariates. The results shown in Table 3 are discussed below.

TABLE 4. MULTIPLE COMPARISONS OF IMPORTANCES OF SHOPPING MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS BY GENDER

	Mean		
Shopping Motivation Factors	Male Shoppers	Female Shoppers	*t*-value
Aesthetic Ambience	3.53	3.39	1.35
Economic Incentives	5.52	5.15	6.21**
Diversion/Browsing	4.58	4.44	3.20*
Social Experience	3.60	3.13	5.79**
Convenient Service Availability	2.71	2.65	.10
Meal/Snack Consumption	4.84	4.64	2.04*

$^*p < .05$.
$^{**}p < .01$.

Household Income

As shown in Table 3, household income had a significant effect on the importance which shoppers placed on all six shopping motivation factors. More specifically, the estimates of household income for each of the motivation factors were: $-.06$ ($p<.01$), $-.02$ ($p<.05$), $-.05$ ($p<.01$), $-.04$ ($p<.05$), $-.06$ ($p<.01$), and $-.04$ (p<,05) for the motivations of *Aesthetic Ambience, Economic Incentives, Diversion/Browsing, Social Experience, Convenient Service Availability,* and *Meal/Snack Consumption*, respectively. A negative estimate suggests a negative relationship between shoppers' household income and the importance that they place on each of the six shopping motivation factors. In other words, shoppers with a higher level of household income are not as motivated in terms of why they go to shopping centers or malls by these particular shopping motivations as are shoppers with a lower level of household income.

It may be the case that, compared to those with a lower level of household income, consumers having a higher level of household income are less concerned about the economic aspects of shopping, and therefore do not place much importance on functional motivations such as *Economic Incentives*. Similarly, it can also be speculated that more well-to-do consumers might more easily find other social activities or places that satisfy their hedonic motivations, thus placing less importance on shopping motivational factors such as *Aesthetic Ambience, Diversion/Browsing,* and *Social Experience.*

Self-Identified Ethnic Strength

Similar to household income, the self-identified ethnic strength was used as a covariate to adjust variations of the importance ratings of the shopping motivations. Results in Table 3 show that the shopping motivations of *Economic Incentives, Diversion/Browsing, Convenient Ser-*

vice Availability, and *Meal/Snack Consumption* are significantly influenced by the self-identified ethnic strength of the shoppers. The estimates for *Economic Incentives* and *Diversion/Browsing* were positive (estimate=.09, $p<.01$ and estimate=.06, $p<.01$, respectively), suggesting that shoppers with a stronger level of self-identified ethnic strength are more concerned with their economic conditions, and also that they have a greater tendency to come to shopping centers or malls to browse or to seek diversion in their life. In contrast, the estimates for the *Convenient Service Availability* and *Meal/Snack Consumption* motivations were negative (estimate=−.05, $p<.05$ and estimate=−.05, $p<.05$, respectively), implying that consumers with a weaker self-identified ethnicity place more importance on such shopping motivation factors as *Convenient Service Availability* and *Meal/Snack Consumption*.

■ Conclusions and Implications for Future Research

Given the glorious history as well as the current lackluster circumstances of the malls, it is surprising that research on shopping malls has been relatively scarce. Furthermore, the research emphasis of the past has been primarily on the store rather than the mall as the unit of analysis. However, as Bloch, Ridgway, and Dawson (1994) have pointed out, because malls should be viewed as more than just assemblages of stores, we believe the examination of mall-related shopping behaviors is a potentially valuable avenue of study. Thus, the current study was first designed to better our understanding of consumers' motivations for visiting different shopping centers or malls.

Yet, we believe another important issue also needs to be considered: the prominent demographic shifts in the U.S. that are occurring at an ever-increasing rate. As was stated in the 1994–95 ICSC Educational Foundation Research Priorities Statement, there has been strong evidence to suggest that the research on various ethnic groups has ignored such critical considerations as country of origin, knowledge of English, or social and economic position. In addition, another vital demographic characteristic of this society that has been neglected in the research arena is the increasing number of mature consumers and their functions in the retail industry. Hence, this study was also planned to investigate these two understudied issues while analyzing consumer shopping motivations within the context of the shopping mall industry.

We found six distinct motivation factors of mall shoppers: *Aesthetic Ambience, Economic Incentives, Diversion/Browsing, Social Experience, Convenient Service Availability*, and *Consumption of Meal/Snack*. Furthermore, statistical analyses revealed that the importance of shopping motivations varies significantly according to ethnicity, gender, household income, and self-identified ethnic strength. In addition, the importance placed on the six shopping motivation factors displayed an interaction effect by ethnicity and age.

In sum, the current study shed some light on the complex issues surrounding shopping centers and malls by concurrently investigating prominent demographic variables (teen and mature shoppers as well as various ethnic groups) and shopping motivation factors of the select consumer groups. More specifically, the findings of the project provided the researchers with bases for making suggestions to the industry for improving the current predicament by using such strategies as image positioning schemes, benefit segmentation methods, and marketing tactics pertaining to various ethnic groups and to mature consumers.

For future options for research in the particular area dealing with ethnicity, we provide the following suggestions: 1) investigate whether ethnic consumers' shopping mall behaviors, including consumption outputs, depend on the types of shopping motivations, and 2) investigate whether ethnic consumers exhibit varying types and levels of shopping motivations and distinct shopping mall behaviors according to their level of assimilation. Furthermore, it is recommended that researchers examine how various individual characteristics (such as ethnicity or age), shopping center or mall attributes, and utilitarian or functional benefit factors affect consumers' shopping output (shopping expenditures, shopping values, and future purchase intentions).

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