The efficacy of shopping value in predicting destination loyalty

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The Efficacy of Shopping Value in Predicting Destination Loyalty

Abstract

Recognizing the importance of tourism’s experiential aspects, this research examines how hedonic and utilitarian values relate to tourist’s overall shopping experience satisfaction and destination loyalty. Study findings suggest both hedonic and utilitarian shopping values are strongly linked to overall shopping satisfaction. Overall shopping satisfaction fully mediates utilitarian shopping value’s effect on destination repatronage intention (DRI), destination word-of-mouth (DWoM), and partially mediates hedonic shopping value’s (HSV) effect on DRI and DWoM. Study results advance consumer behavior theory and offer managerial implications for retailers operating in a rapidly maturing tourism destination in Turkey’s Mediterranean region.

Keywords: Hedonic Shopping Value, Utilitarian Shopping Value, Destination Loyalty, Tourist Satisfaction, Tourism Retailing, Tourist Shopping
1. Introduction

Arguably, shopping serves as an important tourist destination pull-factor and provides an integral component to trip experiences (Jansen-Verbeke, 1991; Hueng and Qu, 1998; Choi, Chan, and Wu, 1999; Litrell, Paige and Song, 2004; Yu and Litrell, 2005). In fact, shopping ranks as the top leisure activity for travelers (Hong & Littrell, 2003). Tourists purchase variety of goods when they travel. They shop for local crafts, goods, arts as souvenirs, and essential utilitarian items such as toothpaste and batteries for personal use. Shopping also entertains tourists as they gaze around local shops, flea markets, and shopping malls when searching for authentic music and foods. While they shop, chatting and bargaining with shop owners or sales people offer tourists an opportunity to interact with the locals. The shopping activities entertain and enrich tourism experiences. Hosany and Gilbert (2010:521) state “tourists’ emotional [shopping] experiences play an important role in influencing destination satisfaction and intention to recommend.”

Previous studies report that shopping expenditures account for nearly one-third of total travel spending (Kim and Littrell, 2001; Wong and Law, 2003). Destination choice studies regard shopping as a prime motivator for short trips. Accordingly, tourists visit destinations (e.g., New York, Milan, Paris, and Hong-Kong) or they take cross-border trips primarily for shopping (Snepenger, Murphy, O’Connell and Gregg, 2003; Yu and Litrell, 2005). Similarly, limited shopping opportunities reduce the attractiveness of long haul destination visits.

Shopping affects the tourist’s emotional state, stimulates cultural interactions between hosts and guests, and contributes to the local economy. Tourism researchers argue shopping is a core contributor to visitor satisfaction and overall destination experience (Crouch and Richie, 1999; Dwyer, Mellor, Livaic, Edwards, and Kim, 2004; Gallarza and Saura, 2006; Fallon and Schofield, 2006; Yuksel and Yuksel, 2007; Huang and Sarigollu, 2008; Croes, Shani, and Walls, 2010). Shopping revenues provide both primary and secondary benefits to local economies. For example, Lee and Kwon (1995) report a 223 percent economic value for every dollar foreign tourists spend on shopping in Korea. This effect increases nearly a seven-fold from primary to secondary effects implying a large percentage of expenditures are retained in the economy. Every dollar spent shopping generates 2.23 dollars for the local economy. Their results show shopping provides an economic boost. As tourism destinations become more competitive, destination managers and
government officials dedicate more resources to increase visitor satisfaction and destination loyalty.

Understanding the relationship between tourists’ shopping experiences and destination loyalty is paramount. Previous research uncovers some critical outcome variables of shopping value. For example, retail industry research investigates how hedonic and utilitarian shopping values affect overall shopping satisfaction, store loyalty (Carpenter, 2008; Reynolds, Jones, Musgrove and Gillison, 2011; Jones, Reynolds and Arnold, 2006), and online shopping loyalty (Overby and Lee, 2006). In the tourism industry Huang and Hsu (2009) note that shopping experience is precursor to destination revisit intentions, but they omit shopping values’ affective and cognitive components. Hernandez-Lobato et al. (2006) identify tourism’s affective component as being more influential than the cognitive component to create overall satisfaction and destination loyalty; however, they disregard shopping’s hedonic and utilitarian aspects. Other studies investigate hedonic and utilitarian shopping values on overall satisfaction and behavioral intentions within the same product category (e.g., restaurants, hotels) as opposed to two independent but related product categories including consumer retailing and tourism destinations (Babin, Lee, Kim and Griffin, 2005; Ryu, Han and Jang, 2010). Understanding the efficacy of both the cognitive and affective components on tourists’ shopping experiences and delineating these retail consumption relationships with overall shopping satisfaction (OSS) and destination loyalty advances the tourist behavior literature and theory. Thus, this study examines cognitive and affective shopping value as antecedents to OSS and destination loyalty. From a theoretical perspective, this research extends shopping’s value into the tourism context and explores the efficacy of shopping experiences-as delineated by hedonic and utilitarian values-in predicting tourist’s overall satisfaction (OSS) with shopping experience, destination repatronage intentions (DRI) and destination word-of-mouth (DWoM).
2. Conceptual framework

2.1 Shopping Value and Destination Loyalty

The current study examines the efficacy of tourists’ hedonic and utilitarian shopping values in predicting overall shopping satisfaction, and destination loyalty. Consumer behavior literature examines customer value from many perspectives, including price and product benefits (Zeithaml 1988:13). Value often is described as “a trade-off between overall benefits gained and sacrifices made by the customer” (Olaru and Purchase & Peterson 2008) or “what one gets for what s/he gives up” (Zeithaml 1988). Despite the existence various value conceptualizations, the literature coalesces around two value concepts: Monroe’s acquisition and transaction value (Monroe 1979 in Galarza and Saura 2006) versus Holbrook and Hirschman’s (1982) hedonic and utilitarian value approach. Al-Sabbahy, Ekinci and Riley (2004) question the validity of Monroe’s approach finding that the transaction value does not emerge in a tourism context.

The current study adopts the latter conceptualization as operationalized by Babin and his colleagues. Babin et al. (1994) develop and validate a scale measuring hedonic (HSV) and utilitarian shopping value (USV) in order to capture shopping’s joy aspects (hedonic) and instrumental (utilitarian) nature. Shopping’s **hedonic value** is subjective, emotional, and fun. Shoppers experience what Csikszentmihalyi (1990) calls a state of “flow experience” (losing a sense of time due to total immersion into an activity) or a **true state of leisure**, akin to the opposite of work. In this sense, one does not need to purchase a product for enjoyment to take place; the pure engagement in shopping creates a state of satisfaction or euphoria. Tourists taking part in shopping (not necessarily the purchase though) might find the activity enjoyable. Accordingly, shopping amenities and opportunities serve as important pull factors at tourism destinations (Sirakaya, McLellan and Uysal, 1996). Babin et al.’s (1994:651) findings indicate “consumers may use shopping as a form of mental therapy in managing their emotions” and that “perceived hedonic value is significantly related to a single-item satisfaction measure, albeit positing weak relationship between the two.”

Over the last three decades, the growing emphasis on studying guest satisfaction in tourism research is because of tourism’s experiential nature. Understanding tourist satisfaction is critical for successful and sustainable tourism industry. Oliver’s (1981) “expectancy-disconfirmation model” provides an early conceptualization of consumer satisfaction. The expectancy-disconfirmation model contends
consumers form expectations prior to a consumption experience through a cognitive process involving semantic meaning of product and service attributes. After consumption, the consumer evaluates the experience relative to the expectations, leading to satisfaction or dissatisfaction. If the evaluation is positive, a state of satisfaction occurs. Customer satisfaction conceptualization includes both cognitive and emotional responses to direct product experiences whereas satisfaction positively influences future intentions. Jones et al. (2006, p. 975) conclude satisfaction judgments “rely on the accumulated affective experiences with a product or service, and beliefs and other cognitions which are retained and updated over time”. Ekinci, Dawes and Massey (2008) extend existing consumer satisfaction models by suggesting that a variety of functional (e.g., service quality, perceived value) and symbolic values (self-concept) experienced at service encounters influence consumer satisfaction.

Dick and Basu (1994) describe loyalty as “the strength of relationship between the relative attitude and repeat patronage” (p. 99). Repeat purchase behavior may occur due to perceived time/energy costs, perceived risk, perceived absence of choice, probability or bias, temporary selling incentives, or legal and corporate policy constraints (Jacob and Kyner, 1973). In contrast, loyalty also involves a psychological bond to the entity (seller). Emotions and affective cues likely precede loyalty (Dick and Basu, 1994; Jones et al., 2006).

Figure 1 displays the relationships between the constructs based on the aforementioned research.

[Insert Figure 1]

As can be seen Figure 1, OSS fully mediates hedonic and utilitarian shopping values’ effects on destination loyalty operationalized by intention to return and WoM measures.

Figure 2 shows the partial mediation model as an alternative model which posits shopping value’s direct effect on destination loyalty.

[Insert Figure 2]
3. Hypothesis Development

3.1. Shopping values’ effect on overall shopping satisfaction (OSS)

Extant retailing research demonstrates hedonic and utilitarian values determine the shopping experience’s outcome. Value constructs help explain satisfaction and behavioral loyalty. Reynolds and Beatty (1999) find that functional and social benefits driven from a sales transaction result in customer satisfaction that lead to loyalty. Confirming Reynolds and Betty (1999), Jones et al. (2006) report hedonic and utilitarian values affect satisfaction differently. On the one hand, they posit that “critical outcome variables such as satisfaction with the retailer, WoM, and repatronage intentions - are influenced more by the non-product-related, hedonic aspects of shopping than traditional utilitarian orientations. On the other hand, utilitarian shopping value is more strongly related to repatronage intentions. Specifically, utilitarian shopping value may well be a necessary, but not sufficient condition for building store loyalty (p. 979).”

More recently, Carpenter’s (2008) study shows that both utilitarian and hedonic shopping values predict consumer satisfaction with trip experiences and WoM for Wal-Mart, Target, and K-Mart shoppers. Customer satisfaction serves as an antecedent to consumer loyalty and explains intention to return and WoM (Paridon and Carraher 2009; Söderlund 2006). Applying the retailing study constructs to a cross-cultural hospitality research setting results in similar findings. Babin et al.’s (2005) restaurant customer study confirms both hedonic and utilitarian values positively relate to consumer satisfaction and WoM. Both utilitarian and hedonic shopping values play equally important roles in determining customer satisfaction in a tangible retail setting. However, research in an online shopping environment reveals that only the utilitarian value significantly affects consumer satisfaction and WoM (Overby and Lee, 2006). To date, corresponding tourist retail experience studies tend to focus on intangible experiences. Primarily, tourist shopping studies examine limited product purchases experiences (e.g., souvenirs and gifts and local produce for longer-term tourists). Because tourism involves events that can create memorable experiences, hedonic value or the fun side of shopping as well as utilitarian shopping value likely exhibit positive relationship with satisfaction. The previous studies postulate the following hypotheses.

\[ H1_a: \text{Hedonic shopping value positively influences overall shopping satisfaction.} \]

\[ H1_b: \text{Utilitarian shopping value positively influences overall shopping satisfaction.} \]
3.2. Overall shopping satisfaction effects on destination loyalty

Shopping research demonstrates a link between consumer satisfaction and store loyalty (Oliver, 1980; Fornell, 1992; Macintosh and Lockshin, 1997; Reynolds and Beatty, 1999; Reynolds and Arnold, 2000; Jones et al., 2006; Carpenter, 2008). The tourism literature supports a strong relationship exists between tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty (Chen and Gursoy, 2001; Kozak et al., 2004; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Hernandez-Lobato et al., 2006; Chi and Qu, 2008; Kim, 2008; Mechinda et al., 2009). Compelling evidence supports the proposition that a direct relationship exists between hedonic shopping value and retail store loyalty (Jones et al., 2006). Moreover, several tourist behavior studies demonstrate that shoppers’ emotions (e.g., pleasure, arousal, and enjoyment) effect loyalty formation (Hernandez-Lobato et al., 2006; Yuksel and Yuksel, 2007; Mechinda et al., 2009). These studies posit the following hypotheses.

\[ H_2: \text{Overall shopping satisfaction positively (OSS) influences destination repatronage intentions (DRI).} \]

\[ H_3: \text{Overall shopping satisfaction (OSS) positively influences destination word-of-mouth (DWoM).} \]

3.3. Destination repatronage intentions effects on destination word-of-mouth

Extant tourism and retailing research conceptualize both the destination repatronage intentions and WoM as discrete antecedents to destination loyalty. Moreover, empirical studies reveal that both constructs relate to each other; however, they tend to be better predictors of loyalty when measured separately. Westbrook (1987, p. 261) defines WoM as “informal communications directed at other consumers about the ownership, usage or characteristics of particular goods and services and/or their sellers”. Research demonstrates that WoM communication is a significant source of consumer and tourist information (Hingie, Feick, and Price, 1987; Klenosky and Gitelson, 1998).

One study of 281 shoppers concludes repeat purchase frequency positively influences WoM communication resulting from positive and negative shopping experiences (Pariton and Carranher, 2009). Carpenter (2005) finds consumers’ intentions to return leads to their WoM communications about the retail store brand. Tourism studies find similar patterns, although not conclusive. For example Bigne, Sanchez
and Sanchez (2001) investigate the relationships between destination image, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions and find a reciprocal relationship between return-intentions and willingness to recommend. Studying conference attendees’ motivations, Severt, Wang, Chen and Breiter (2007) find travelers satisfied with educational benefits are more likely to return and to recommend the conference to others. In summary, retailing and tourism study findings suggest that repeat purchase influences WoM. On the basis of the above discussion, this study proposes the following hypothesis.

\[ H_4: \text{Destination repatronage intentions (DRI) positively influence destination word-of-mouth (DWoM).} \]

3.4. Overall shopping satisfaction’s mediating role

When evaluating the network of relationships among consumer loyalty antecedents, Gallarza and Saura (2006:448) find a distinct pattern: “perceived quality is an antecedent of perceived value and satisfaction is the behavioral consequence of perceived value and attitudinal loyalty being the final outcome.” These findings suggest that utilitarian value relates to loyalty behavior, and hedonistic value relates to consumer satisfaction. In a recent study, Ryu et al. (2010) examine the relationships among hedonic and utilitarian values, customer satisfaction, and behavioral intentions for fast food and casual dining restaurants. Study results suggest consumer satisfaction is an antecedent to behavioral intentions, and hedonic and utilitarian values predict satisfaction. Further, the authors test consumer satisfaction’s mediation effect on behavioral intentions and find that satisfaction mediates between both utilitarian and hedonic values and the customers’ behavioral intentions. Their study further indicates that while hedonic dining aspects predict repeat patronage, utilitarian values also play an essential role in defining this relationship. To date, this model remains untested in a tourism destination setting, especially for all-inclusive tour packages requiring time-pressure tactics. To explore this relationship and further research in different tourism settings (see Cronin et al., 2000), the following hypotheses advance overall shopping satisfaction’s mediating role on destination repatronage intention and DWoM.
Overall shopping satisfaction (OSS) mediates hedonic shopping value’s effect on destination repatronage intentions (DRI) \((H_{5a})\) and destination word-of-mouth (DWoM) \((H_{5b})\).

Overall shopping satisfaction (OSS) mediates utilitarian shopping value’s effect on destination repatronage intentions (DRI) \((H_{6a})\) and destination word-of-mouth (DWoM) \((H_{6b})\).

4. Method

4.1. Data Collection and Sample

The data were collected through semi-structured, face-to-face interviews and a short survey instrument. Respondents were tourists visiting the Mediterranean resort city of Antalya, Turkey. The interview script (a short survey instrument) was first translated into German by professional translators and then back to English by one of the authors who is bilingual; the back-translation by the author might be viewed problematic; however, back-translation was reexamined and reedited by two professional tour guides who are fluent in German. Moreover, the translation was then checked for accuracy, meaning, and grammar by interviewees. Interviewee comments helped refine the survey instrument and adjustments were made before the final German version was approved for data collection.

After obtaining necessary permissions to go beyond the customs area of the Airport, a random sampling scheme was developed. Airport authorities helped identify outbound flights. Although a mixed randomization process using alternating the days, times to interview visitors, systematic departing flight and passenger selection was planned, a statistically randomization sample was not possible due to the unknown sampling frame, airport’s rush environment. Moreover, a few interviews were disrupted by undercover security officers who thought the interviewers were agents working for a foreign country (USA). Thus, the events beyond the researcher’s control prevented full deployment of the intended sampling scheme. Although these data may not capture all passenger attitudes, the study results are intended to test theory. Study participation was completely voluntary and anonymous. German speaking interviewers were dispatched to the airport after intensive, three-day training sessions. By participating in
the study, tourists were entered automatically into a drawing for a one-week vacation (airfare and accommodation only) in Turkey; the rewards were later distributed following a notarized drawing.

From a targeted 600 interviews, a total of 506 interviews were completed within a ten-day period; most respondents (383) reported that they shopped and made purchases while in Antalya and they were included in data analysis. Due to missing data, 38 surveys were deemed unusable leaving effectively 345 completed surveys for the data analysis. After cleaning the data from multivariate and univariate outliers, inferential statistical analyses were conducted using 345 completed interviews and surveys. According to descriptive results, respondents reported spending an average of €1,256 while shopping in Turkey. Purchases include a range of items such as authentic Turkish carpets, leather, jewelry, clothing, footwear, perfume, cosmetics, souvenirs, and handcrafts. Table 1 illustrates summary figures for items purchased and amount spent.

[Insert Table 1 About Here]

Most respondents are German (88%), while 8 percent are Austrian, and 4 percent are Swiss. The majority of respondents report that they have never before visited Antalya (62%), while 20 percent report they previously visited Antalya only once. The remaining respondents indicate that they previously visited Antalya between two to five times. On average, respondents report spending seven nights on their current trip to Turkey. The respondents’ ages range from 21 to 83 years, with an average of 59 years. Respondents are well-educated, nearly one-fourth hold graduate degrees (23%), 37 percent completing some graduate school, 7 percent completing a four year degree, and 4 percent completing a two year degree. Twenty-three percent of respondents report holding less than college degree, and the remaining 6 percent did not answer the question. Most respondents are either retired (48%) or employed full-time (36%). Thirty-eight percent of respondents report annual household pre-tax incomes between €10,000 and €29,999, while an additional 38 percent indicate incomes between €30,000 and €59,999. Ten percent report incomes between €60,000 and €89,999, and 4 percent state incomes of €90,000 or more. The remaining respondents (10%) report incomes less than €10,000.
4.2. Measurement

The study’s scales adapt marketing’s loyalty literature to fit the context of loyalty to a tourist destination. Hedonic shopping value measures adapt Babin et al.’s (1994) scale, overall shopping satisfaction and destination loyalty adapt Reynolds and Beatty’s (1999) scale, and DWoM adapts Harrison-Walker’s (2001) scale. All scale items use five-point agree-disagree ratings anchored by ‘strongly disagree’ and ‘strongly agree’. Appendix 1 displays the study’s scales.

5. Findings and conclusion

5.1. Validity and reliability of the measures

Before testing the model, the measures’ validity and reliability were established. According to Malhotra (1999), exploratory or confirmatory factor analysis help assess scale validity. Following the validity check, Cronbach Alpha establishes the scale reliability. Confirmatory factor analysis using the Maximum Likelihood estimator of LISREL 8.80 tested the measure’s convergent and discriminant validity (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1996). Each scale’s discriminant validity was checked by Fornell and Larcker’s (1981) formula. Discriminant validity is established when the average variance extracted (AVE) of each construct is greater than the square of the inter-correlations. Table 2 shows descriptive statistics, bi-variate correlations, and AVEs for the research model’s variables.

Table 2 shows the five measurement scales meeting the discriminant validity criterion as the AVE for HSV (0.45), USV (0.37), OSS (0.67), DRI (0.53), and DWoM (0.51). The five scales’ measurement properties indicate the factor loadings are high and statistically significant ($p < .05$), satisfying the criteria for convergent validity. In addition, the Cronbach Alpha reliabilities of the measurement scales ($\alpha_{HSV} = 0.82$, $\alpha_{USV} = 0.70$, $\alpha_{OSS} = 0.79$, $\alpha_{DRI} = 0.80$, $\alpha_{WOM} = 0.83$) meet or exceed Nunnally and Bernstein’s (1994) recommendation.
The primary testing method was the structural equations modeling using LISREL - 8.80, Maximum Likelihood estimation and the covariance matrix as input (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1993). This testing confirms a model’s ‘goodness of fit’, and the hypothesized paths. Before testing the structural model, moderate normality of the variables was confirmed by checking their z scores (absolute values were less than 1.96), skewness and kurtosis scores (absolute values were less than 1.00). PRELIS generated the covariance matrix as the input and the structural model’s overall fit was determined initially by examining the $\chi^2$ statistic. The $\chi^2$ statistic ($\chi^2(224df) = 671.88$) and the associated probability value were statistically significant ($p < .001$). This finding suggests the potential for an inadequate fit; however, sample size and model complexity can influence the $\chi^2$ statistic and rejecting a model based only on this result is insufficient (Bollen, 1989; Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1996). Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Norm Fit Index (NFI), and Critical Fit Index (CFI) help assess goodness of fit (Hu and Bentler, 1999). Accordingly, Table 3 shows the structural equation model results and the fit indices.

Table 3’s structural model shows the results support the measure’s validity and the proposed model. Both the RMSEA (0.06) is less than .07 and the other goodness of fit indices (GFI = 0.88, NFI = 0.94, CFI = 0.96) suggest the overall model’s predictive ability is good (Hair et al., 2006). The two shopping value scales explain 40 percent of the variance in OSS and 54 percent of the variance in WoM.

5.2. Hypothesis Testing

As predicted in $H_{1a}$, results show HSV has a positive relationship with OSS (SPC = 0.46, $t = 6.30$, $p < 0.001$). Results also strongly support $H_{1b}$ (SPC = 0.23, $t = 2.98$, $p < 0.01$) suggesting USV and OSS relate positively. Both findings indicate that the two shopping value constructs strongly influence OSS, a finding that is consistent with the literature.
H2 and H3 posit OSS positively associates with DRI and DWoM communication. The study supports H2 (SPC = 0.43, t = 7.93, p < 0.001) and H3 (SPC = 0.23, t = 4.55, p < 0.001). Similarly, results support H4 which states that DRI positively relates to DWoM communication about the tourism destination (SPC = 0.61, t = 9.97, p < 0.001).

As can be seen in Table 3, the partial mediation model also demonstrates good overall model fit results ($\chi^2_{(220)} = 596.40, p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.06, GFI = 0.90, NFI = 0.95, CFI = 0.97). Because the first model is nested within the second model, a $\chi^2$ difference test was performed to determine whether OSS fully or partially mediates the two shopping value’s effect on DRI and DWoM (Brown, Mowen, Todd and Licata, 2002). Accordingly, the partial mediation model fits the data better ($\Delta \chi^2_{(4)} = 75.48, p < 0.01$). Following the results of the partial mediation model, the shopping value’s direct impact on destination loyalty was examined.

H5a and H5b suggest that OSS partially mediates hedonic shopping value’s effect on destination loyalty. Table 3 shows statistically significant results of the partial mediation model by supporting HSV’s effect on DRI (SPC = 0.30, t = 6.09, p < 0.001), and WoM (SPC = 0.30, t = 3.63, p < 0.001). USV’s effect on DRI (SPC = -0.08, t = -1.03, p > 0.05), and WoM (SPC = -0.07, t = -0.98, p > 0.05) were not statistically significant. Therefore, the premises that OSS mediates USV’s effect on destination loyalty are supported fully as proposed by H5a and H5b. To sum up, the study supports the premise that USV’s effect on destination loyalty is fully mediated by OSS, therefore the results support H5a and H5b. This finding indicates that USV is necessary but not a sufficient condition for building destination loyalty. Utilitarian aspects of shopping only influence OSS whereas OSS, in turn, influences destination loyalty.

Although shopping is the most popular leisure activity at tourism destinations, the activity remains at the periphery of the mainstream tourism research. Very few studies contribution to shopping’s role in tourism research (e.g., Litrell et al., 2004; Yu and Litrell, 2005; Hong and Litrell, 2003). The call for more research into tourist shopping’s experiential aspects (e.g., Hernandez-Lobato et al., 2006; Yuksel & Yuksel, 2007; Huang & Hsu, 2009), combined with Bosnjak et al. ’s (2010) study findings suggest the need to further investigate how shopping experiences help create destination loyalty. The dearth of tourism literature pertaining to shopping in general and specifically tourism shopping’s experiential role (e.g.,
hedonic shopping value) on destination loyalty warrants further attention to examine relationships between shopping satisfaction and destination loyalty. Retailing research’s inquiry into hedonic aspects of the shopping experience (e.g., excitement, enjoyment, escapism) offers tourism scholars an opportunity to examine how specific aspects of shopping affect loyalty to tourism destinations.

This research highlights the HSV’s role as an important component of OSS and destination loyalty. Specifically, the results suggest that HSV makes a significant contribution to OSS, destination repatronage intentions (DRI), and destination word-of-mouth (DWoM). Perhaps the most interesting, the findings support the direct relationships between HVS and destination loyalty as well as OSS and destination loyalty. These findings further support Jones et al. (2006), suggesting that HSV impacts OSS, DRI, and DWoM. Within this study’s context, creating shopping excitement and enjoyment appears to be crucial to affect the tourist’s DRI. Fulfilling the need for a memorable tourist shopping experience clearly is an important strategic marketing issue.

This study’s findings also support Yuksel and Yuksel (2007) who suggest shopping’s hedonic aspects can be a significant factor for purchasing. Investing to increase the shopping experience’s emotional aspects likely will pay great dividends to destination managers. Since USV does not seem to affect DRI and DWoM, providing higher HSV plays an important role for developing destination loyalty. The study results confirm tourism promotions should emphasize the shopping’s emotional aspects (e.g., joy). Tourism retailers in Antalya and elsewhere would benefit from creating a hedonic atmosphere in their shops. For example, Antalya is known for its ancient Roman theatre of Aspendos, this site could be re-erected as a new modern shopping site with shops designs and services reflecting the ancient times’ shopping atmosphere. Tourists want to see authentic products, souvenirs, and carpets sold in a fantasy-world-like atmosphere. In some respects, these inauthentic forms of authentic shopping experiences can be created by introducing entertainment and culturally modified events found in Las Vegas, USA. When building tourism supra-structures (e.g., hotels and malls), care should be given to design elements that bring shopping’s emotional aspects to support the tourist’s overall destination experience.

In sum, extant research involving consumer shopping values in tourism settings are not conclusive or ambiguous at best. The current study finds USV may well be necessary; however, HSV plays a more
significant part in developing loyalty to tourism destinations. Do tourists shop because they have to (need to get their daily supplies, and necessities), or do they want to experience the excitement and joy? Perhaps shopping offers tourists other intangible benefits such as opportunities to interact with locals? The current study offers strong evidence that HSV directly affects destination loyalty. What remains to be discovered are the specific nature of emotions emanated from tourism shopping. Tourists searching for cultural interaction with locals likely engage in shopping to fulfill this desire. Future studies should investigate tourists visiting Antalya from different cultures and countries such as Russia, the Netherlands, and Britain to determine whether the hedonic and utilitarian shopping values attached to shopping differ. Future research could study moderating effects of other factors like attitudes of local sales people toward tourists. Moreover examination of how demographics affect shopping values may be useful for market segmentation and targeting.
Table 1. Product purchased and amount spent (n=506)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Products purchased</th>
<th>Percent of respondents</th>
<th>Average amount (€)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Carpets</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>251.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leather</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>186.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jewelry</td>
<td>33.2</td>
<td>352.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothing</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>32.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local tours</td>
<td>37.7</td>
<td>52.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cosmetics and Perfume</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groceries</td>
<td>25.1</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imitation Brands</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Souvenirs</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Products</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 1. Full mediation model

Hedonic Shopping Value (HSV) → H1a (+) → Overall Shopping Satisfaction (OSS) → H2 (+) → Destination Repatronage Intention (DRI)

Utilitarian Shopping Value (USV) → H1b (+) → Overall Shopping Satisfaction (OSS) → H3 (+) → Destination Word of Mouth (DWoM)
Figure 2. Partial mediation model

--- Direct effect

-- Indirect effect
Table 2. Descriptive statistics, correlations and average variances extracted

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Hedonic Shopping Value</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td><strong>0.45</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.46</strong>**</td>
<td><strong>0.50</strong>**</td>
<td><strong>0.47</strong>**</td>
<td><strong>0.50</strong>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Utilitarian Shopping Value</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td><strong>0.21</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.37</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.39</strong>**</td>
<td><strong>0.26</strong>**</td>
<td><strong>0.25</strong>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Overall Shopping Satisfaction</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td><strong>0.67</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.33</strong>**</td>
<td><strong>0.40</strong>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Destination Repatronage Intentions</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td><strong>0.53</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.59</strong>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Destination Word-of-Mouth</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td><strong>0.51</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (two-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed).

The diagonal figures in bold indicate the average variances extracted (AVE) for each construct. The upper diagonal scores are correlations and lower diagonal scores are the squares of the correlations.
Table 3. Results of structural equation analysis for full and partial mediation models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Relationship</th>
<th>Full mediation</th>
<th>Partial mediation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>standardised path coefficient</td>
<td>t-value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1a</td>
<td>Hedonic Shopping Value → OSS</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>6.30***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1b</td>
<td>Utilitarian Shopping Value → OSS</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>2.98**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2</td>
<td>Overall Shopping Satisfaction → DRI</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>7.93***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3</td>
<td>Overall Shopping Satisfaction → DWoM</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>4.55***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4</td>
<td>Destination Repatronage Intentions (DRI) → DWoM</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>9.97***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5a</td>
<td>Hedonic Shopping Value → DRI</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>6.09***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5b</td>
<td>Hedonic Shopping Value → DWoM</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>3.63***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6a</td>
<td>Utilitarian Shopping Value → DRI</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6b</td>
<td>Utilitarian Shopping Value → DWoM</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>-0.98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Model fit statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Full mediation</th>
<th>Partial mediation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \chi^2 )</td>
<td>671.88</td>
<td>596.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Df</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFI</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Variance explained (\( R^2 \))

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Full mediation</th>
<th>Partial mediation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall Shopping Satisfaction</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destination-repatronage-intentions (DRI)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destination Word of Mouth (DWoM)</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* \( p < 0.05 \) ** \( p < 0.01 \) *** \( p < 0.001 \).

Note: OSS: Overall Shopping Satisfaction, DRI: Destination repatronage intentions, DWoM: Destination Word-of-Mouth, RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, GFI: Goodness of Fit Index, NFI: Norm Fit Index, CFI: Critical Fit Index.
Appendix 1. Measurement properties

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale/Item</th>
<th>Standardized loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hedonic Shopping Value (a=0.82)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Shopping in Antalya was truly a joy</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Compared to other things I could have done, the time spent shopping was truly enjoyable</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I enjoyed shopping in Antalya for its own sake, not just for the items I may have purchased</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I had a good time because I was able to act on the “spur of the moment”</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I enjoy being immersed in exciting new products</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I continued to shop, not because I had to, but because I wanted to</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Utilitarian Shopping Value (a=0.70)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I accomplished just what I wanted to during my shopping in Antalya</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I couldn’t buy what I really needed* (reverse coded)</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. While shopping in Antalya, I found just the item(s) I was looking for. (reverse coded)</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I was disappointed because I did not find what I needed (reverse coded)</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall Shopping Satisfaction (a=0.89)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I am pleased with the outcome of my shopping in Antalya</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I am happy with the outcome of my shopping in Antalya</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I am contented with the outcome of my shopping in Antalya</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Overall, I am satisfied with the outcome of my shopping in Antalya</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Destination Repatronage Intentions (a=0.80)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I am very loyal to Antalya as a vacation destination</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. In the future, I plan to return to Antalya for vacation</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. I am very committed to vacationing in Antalya</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. I don’t consider myself to be very loyal to Antalya as a vacation destination</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Destination Word-of-Mouth (a=0.83)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. I will mention Antalya as a vacation destination to others quite frequently</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. I will tell more people about Antalya than I’ve told about most other destinations I’ve visited</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. I will seldom miss an opportunity to tell others about Antalya</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. When I tell others about Antalya, I will talk about the city in great detail</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. I am proud to tell others that I visit Antalya</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Cronbach Alpha reliabilities are provided. All factor loadings are significant at the \( p < .001 \) level.
References


