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Social shopping for fashion

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SOCIAL SHOPPING FOR FASHION

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

in

The School of Human Ecology

by

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May 2010

DEDICATION

With all my heart, I dedicate this dissertation to the memory of my father, Moon Kang, for always being generous and giving me strength; to my mother, Bong-Ae Choi, for her endless encouragement, patience, and faith in me; to my sisters, Ji-Young, Ji-Na, and Ji-Min, for being my mentors throughout my entire life; and finally to my husband, Dr. Sungmin Yoon, for his everlasting love and for making all of this possible.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	iii
LIST OF TABLES.....	ix
LIST OF FIGURES.....	x
ABSTRACT.....	xi
INTRODUCTION.....	1
Research Purpose.....	2
Research Significance.....	2
Definition of Terms.....	4
STUDY 1. DEVELOPING AND VALIDATING A SCALE OF SOCIAL SHOPPING FOR FASHION.....	5
Introduction.....	5
Literature Review.....	7
Scale Development and Validation.....	8
Qualitative Inquiry for Domain Specification.....	9
Scale Purification.....	13
Scale Validation.....	16
Discussion.....	30
STUDY 2. ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF SOCIAL SHOPPING FOR FASHION.....	35
Introduction.....	35
Literature Review.....	38
Theory of Social Comparison.....	38
Social Comparison as an Antecedent of Social Shopping for Fashion.....	45
Consumer Satisfaction as a Consequence of Social Shopping for Fashion....	49
Method.....	54
Sampling and Data Collection.....	54
Instruments.....	55
Analysis.....	57
Results.....	58
Sample Description.....	58
Measurement Model.....	58
Structural Model.....	65
Discussion.....	72
Limitations and Future Research.....	76

CONCLUSIONS.....	80
REFERENCES.....	82
APPENDIX A: INITIAL INVENTORY OF BEHAVIORAL ITEMS.....	92
APPENDIX B: IRB APPROVAL FORM.....	94
APPENDIX C: INITIAL E-MAIL INVITATION.....	95
APPENDIX D: E-MAIL REMINDER.....	96
APPENDIX E: THE FORMAT OF ONLINE QUESTIONNAIRE.....	97
VITA.....	102

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Exploratory Factor Analysis Results	15
Table 2. Final Scale Properties of Social Shopping for Fashion	21
Table 3. Discriminant Validity Assessment Matrix.....	23
Table 4. Measures Used to Test Nomological Validity	27
Table 5. Descriptive Properties of Items in the Final Measurement Model	62
Table 6. Results of Final Measurement Model.....	64
Table 7. Discriminant Validity Assessment Matrix of the Measurement Model	66
Table 8. Correlation Matrix of the Measurements.....	67
Table 9. Decomposition of Total, Direct, and Indirect Effects of the Structural Model.....	71

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. The scale development procedure	9
Figure 2. Conceptual model of social shopping process.....	54
Figure 3. Initial measurement model specification.....	60
Figure 4. Structural model specification.....	68
Figure 5. Hypothesis testing results	70

ABSTRACT

In spite of the significance of social shopping in the context of fashion consumption, its definitions, boundaries, and explanations have not yet been systematically established in literature. The purpose of Study 1 was to develop a reliable and valid scale of social shopping for fashion. With the scale, Study 2 aimed to develop and test a structural model of social shopping process. In Study 1, a three-step procedure for scale development was followed: item generation, scale purification, and scale validation. As a result, a five-dimensional scale, along with sixteen behavioral items, was developed representing distinctive dimension of social shopping for fashion. The result suggests that social shopping for fashion involves dynamic and complex direct/indirect interpersonal exchanges and activities. Study 1 adds significant value to the literature in three ways. First, the scale is the first attempt to synthesize dispersed concepts of social shopping. Second, by providing a reliable and valid measure of social shopping for fashion, the results advance the area of research. Third, the scale is useful for a wide range of marketing and retailing applications. In Study 2, an online survey was conducted with a random sample consisting of a total of 5,280 undergraduates aged 18 to 29 years old enrolled at a large southeastern university. A total of 858 responses were analyzed using structural equation modeling. A structural model including motivational forces and consequences of social shopping behavior was developed and tested. The results indicated that social comparison orientations were generally found to be motivators of social shopping for fashion, and social shopping contributed to shopping satisfaction. The results, however, suggest that each dimension is driven by different dimensions of social comparison orientation and generates different types of satisfaction. This study increases the understanding of social shopping by simultaneously examining a causal model depicting comprehensive motivational forces and consequences of

social shopping behavior. The results contribute to building a rigor of social comparison theory and consumer satisfaction theory in the context of fashion consumption. The results also provide industry professionals with strategic cues for creation of shopping environments wherein consumers' social needs are better served and satisfied.

INTRODUCTION

“I have a 15 year old daughter who goes to the mall to hang out and buy stuff. Shopping is a social experience for her.” (as quoted in Holahan, 2007, p.6)

“Sometimes we just go to the malls, like Karen and I...but we enjoy going around the malls and looking at things together...I enjoy people. I like seeing a lot of different people, especially the way some of them dress and look.” (as quoted in Prus & Dawson, 1991, p.150)

As illustrated by these quotes, shopping is not simply limited to the spending of money on products; rather, shopping is also an important socializing and engaging exercise that provides opportunities to see and be with others (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Dawson, Bloch, & Ridgway, 1990; Holahan, 2007; Joung & Miller, 2002; Moschis, 1976; Reynolds & Beatty, 1999; Stone, 1954; Tauber, 1972; Westbrook & Black, 1985). Fashion shopping environments, in particular, inherently involve social and interpersonal activities (Bloch, Ridgway, & Dawson, 1994; Cowan, Cowan, & Swann, 2004). Such social behaviors are critically meaningful in a fashion consumption context because fashion essentially carries symbolic, interactive meanings and plays a role as visible and nonverbal communication media in many social settings (Kaiser, 1997). Moreover, given contemporary advances in fashion retail systems and information technologies, social shopping experiences have become even more complex and complicated.

In spite of the significance of social shopping in fashion consumption, its exclusive definitions, descriptions, boundaries, and explanations have not yet been systematically established in the literature. Studies have either measured social shopping with a limited number of indicators, or they have identified shopping outcomes associated with social shopping without providing theoretical explanations of the relationships (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Dawson et al., 1990; Moschis, 1976; Reynolds & Beatty, 1999; Stone, 1954;

Tauber, 1972; Westbrook & Black, 1985). Hence, an attempt must be first made to identify a contemporary, exhaustive definition of social shopping for fashion and its operationalization in order to advance research in social shopping. Furthermore, an explanation of the social shopping process along with its motivational antecedents and consequences is also necessary to enhance our scientific understanding of social shopping for fashion.

Research Purpose

The purpose of the current research was to define social shopping for fashion and examine the process of social shopping for fashion. The current research consists of two studies: Study 1 and Study 2. The objectives of Study 1 were a) to develop a comprehensive inventory of social shopping behaviors in fashion consumption and b) to develop a reliable and valid scale of social shopping for fashion. With the scale developed in Study 1, the objective of Study 2 was to develop and test a structural model of social shopping for fashion depicting its motivational antecedents and consequences. Study 2 specifically examined social comparison orientation as an antecedent and consumers' shopping satisfaction as a consequence of social shopping for fashion.

Research Significance

This current research theoretically contributes to the fields of consumer behavior and fashion merchandising. This research is the first attempt to synthesize dispersed concepts of social shopping. While having become increasingly important and prevalent in market places, social shopping has not yet been exclusively studied in the literature. By developing and validating a scale of social shopping for fashion, the results provide researchers with an empirical definition and an effective measure of social shopping. Future studies will be able to employ the scale to establish the concept of social shopping in the sphere of fashion and examine

its roles and surrounding factors in fashion consumption. By developing and testing a comprehensive structural model of social shopping for fashion, this study provides an in-depth understanding of the social shopping process. The results contribute to building the rigor of the social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954) by demonstrating fashion shopping behaviors are driven by human social comparison tendencies. Furthermore, the results also contribute to the further development of the consumer satisfaction theory (Mano & Oliver, 1993) in the context of fashion consumption by demonstrating two types of satisfaction (cognitive and affective) are accounted as consequences of social shopping behaviors.

In addition to the theoretical implications, this current research provides practical insights into the fashion industry. The comprehensive definition of social shopping for fashion allows retailers and marketers to have a scientific tool to assist in consumer identification, segmentation, and target marketing. Social activities occurring in shopping and shoppers' satisfaction of social needs have been found associated with positive retailing and marketing performances (Babin, Darden, & Griffinet, 1994; Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Jones, 1999; Paridon, 2004). Therefore, retailing and marketing outcomes can be improved by incorporating the social shopping component in retail planning. By explaining the underlying motivations and consequences of their consumers' behavior, this research provides managers the confidence and strategic ideas to incorporate and embrace social shopping experiences in their retail environments. Ultimately, shopping environments where consumers' social needs are better served ought to contribute to overall consumer satisfaction and retail performance.

Definition of Terms

Social shopping for fashion: Interpersonal exchanges and activities that take place verbally and nonverbally in shopping processes for fashion products

Shopping: Consumer behavior related to pre-purchasing, purchasing, and post-purchasing

Fashion products: Clothing, shoes, handbags, and related accessories

Social comparison orientation: Propensity to make social comparison across life domains; that is, the extent of engagement in comparison of ability and opinion with others in daily life (Gibbons & Buunk, 1999)

Shopping satisfaction: Cognitive and affective evaluations and reactions to shopping experiences (c.f., Giese & Cote, 2002).

STUDY 1. DEVELOPING AND VALIDATING A SCALE OF SOCIAL SHOPPING FOR FASHION

Introduction

Shopping does not consist simply of spending money on products; rather, it is a socially engaging experience and a fun activity for many people (Holahan, 2007). In fact, numerous studies have recognized that one of the most important reasons for consumers to go shopping is to socialize with others and to satisfy their social needs (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Dawson et al., 1990; Moschis, 1976; Reynolds & Beatty, 1999; Stone, 1954; Tauber, 1972; Westbrook & Black, 1985). To consumers, from teenagers (Piacentini & Mailer, 2004) to the older generation (Joung & Miller, 2002), shopping is an important socializing and engaging tool that provides them opportunities to see and be with others.

Social activities or satisfying social needs while shopping are likely to be associated with successful retailing and marketing performances, such as store patronage, positive attitudes toward a store/brand, and extended shopping time and spending (Babin et al., 1994; Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Jones, 1999; Paridon, 2004). Moreover, socially engaged behaviors during shopping have been found to provide consumers with enjoyment (Chang, Burns, & Francis, 2004; Reynolds & Beatty, 1999) and support for their purchasing decisions (Paridon, 2004; Wesley, LeHew, & Woodside, 2006). In spite of the significance of social activities during shopping toward positive marketing outcomes and consumer satisfaction, social shopping has not yet been systematically studied and methodically defined.

In the literature, social shopping has been regarded as only one of several motivational bases for shopping, and consequently, it has been measured with a limited number of items without considering the complex and varying dimensions of social shopping (e.g., Arnold &

Reynolds, 2003; Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Bloch, Ridgway, & Dawson, 1994; Dawson, Bloch, & Ridgway, 1990). In reality, however, as fashion retail systems and information technologies advance further, shoppers have even more options in terms of where they shop, how they shop, and with whom they shop. Therefore, consumers constantly extend their social shopping experiences, in so many different ways, to various, continuously evolving fashion retailing environments. Thus, a contemporary definition of social shopping for fashion and its operationalization are critical to advance research in social shopping. To fill the gap in the literature, this study aimed to comprehensively identify behavioral specifications of social shopping for fashion. The objectives of this study were a) to develop a comprehensive inventory of social shopping behaviors in the context of fashion consumption and b) to develop a reliable and valid scale of social shopping for fashion.

This study adds an exclusive value to the literature in the fashion consumer behavior area. Scholars have acknowledged the fact that fashion is a visible and critical media for nonverbal communication in social settings (Kaiser, 1997), and that consumers are somehow socializing during shopping for fashion (e.g., Ellen, 2007; Phau & Lo, 2004; Piacentini & Mailer, 2004). However, an exclusive definition, descriptions, and boundaries of social shopping have not yet been systematically established in the literature. By developing a reliable and valid scale of social shopping for fashion, the results will provide researchers with an empirical definition and a scientific measure of social shopping. With this scale, future studies will be able to establish the concept of social shopping and examine its role and surrounding factors in fashion consumption.

This study also provides practical insights into the fashion industry by providing a tangible definition of consumers' social shopping behaviors in today's dynamic shopping

environments. Based on the information this study provides, retailers and marketers in the industry can create shopping environments where certain consumers' social needs are better served and satisfied.

Literature Review

In this study, social shopping for fashion denotes consumer behaviors of exchanging and interacting with others in the process of shopping for fashion products (i.e., clothing, shoes, handbags, and related accessories). Social shopping is not limited to actual purchase of products; rather, it includes interaction with others, verbally and nonverbally, physically and nonphysically, during the entire shopping processes. Although there is no study directly identifying the concept of social shopping for fashion, discussions in the literature suggest the existence of social behaviors in various shopping contexts.

A number of studies have identified social activities in various shopping contexts by socially oriented shoppers. Jones and Gerard (1967) introduced the concept of “co-oriented peers,” which was defined as similar and close reference groups. Consumers often shop with them and ask them for opinions about their selection of products. Moschis (1976) identified a consumer group, termed *psychosocializing shoppers*, who tended to emulate intimate others (e.g., friends and neighbors) in terms of consumption behavior. Moschis found that psychosocializing shoppers preferred friends and neighbors as information sources to advertisements or salespersons when they purchased a new brand. While shopping with their close friends or reference groups, socially oriented consumers pay attention to what their friends or reference groups try on, select, and purchase (Luo, 2005; Tauber, 1972). These close referents provide consumers with subjective and normative standards for their selections or purchases, and

feedback from this group reinforce the consumer's selection as the right one (Mangleburg, Doney, & Bristol, 2004).

Studies have also recognized that consumers who shop in a mall often want to learn what products are popular with others and request information from store personnel who know more about products than they do (Moschis, 1976; Reynolds & Beatty, 1999). Past studies have also recognized the connection between social activities and fashion information exchanges and leadership behaviors. Research on various fashion purchasing behaviors has identified that certain individuals have a high need for fashion information exchange and social interactions (Bertrandias & Goldsmith, 2006; Goldsmith & Clark, 2008; Polegato & Wall, 1980). Polegato & Wall (1980) found that consumers who were more engaged in giving fashion information to others tended to participate in more social activities and be more sociable than those who were less engaged in such information giving. Furthermore, those who actively provided fashion information to others (i.e., fashion opinion leaders) were also found to be highly attentive to social comparison information and others' reactions to their own behaviors (Bertrandias & Goldsmith, 2006; Goldsmith & Clark, 2008). These previous studies have provided a foundation for understanding behavioral indicators of social shopping for fashion.

Scale Development and Validation

The scale development procedure in this study was based primarily on Churchill's (1979) paradigm for scale development. Churchill's paradigm is an universally accepted framework of development for a scale especially in marketing and retailing disciplines (e.g., Arnold & Reynolds, 2003) and it has been supported and expanded by many researchers (e.g., Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Gerbing & Anderson, 1988). In addition, previous empirical studies on scale development have provided further guidance (Arnold & Reynolds,

2003; Babin et al., 1994; Bearden, Netemeyer, & Teel, 1989). Based on the paradigm and these guidelines, we followed a three-step procedure: item generation, scale purification, and scale validation. Figure 1 illustrates the procedure and details of each step.

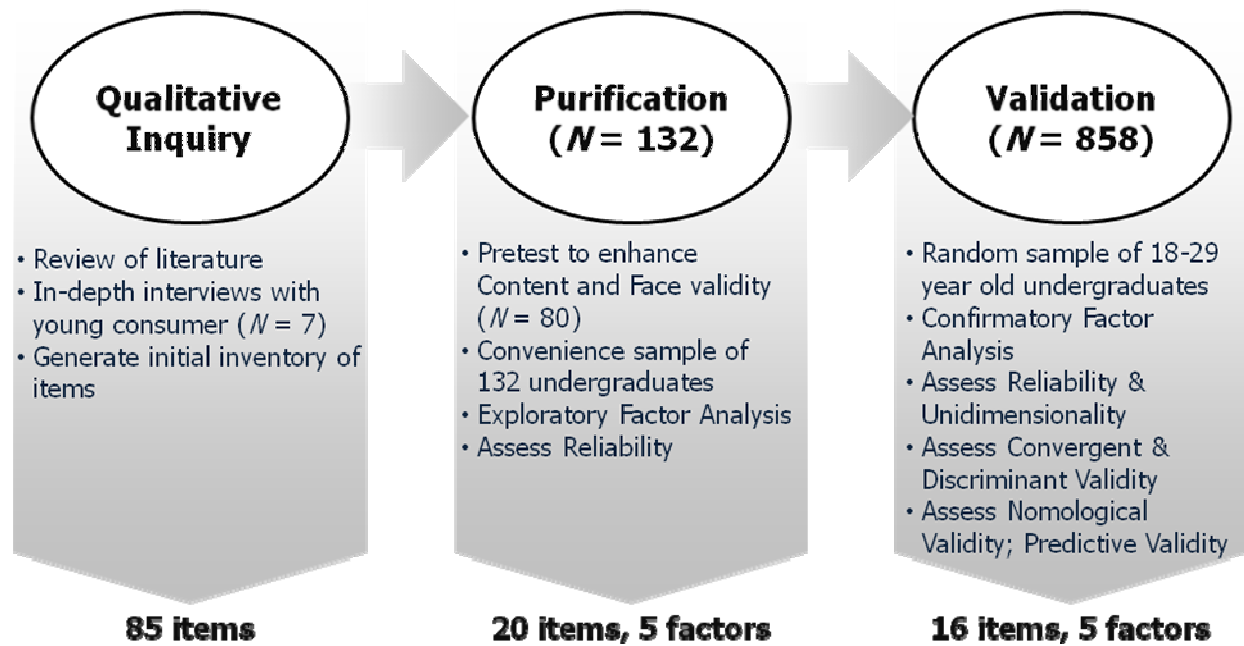


Figure 1. The scale development procedure

Qualitative Inquiry for Domain Specification

According to the traditional paradigm of scale development (Churchill, 1979), the first step was to specify domain of construct, social shopping for fashion. In this study, behavioral items of social shopping for fashion were generated through literature review, media screening, and interviews. Activities associated with social behaviors in shopping for fashion were compiled through a comprehensive review of existing literature on consumer shopping behaviors (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Dawson et al., 1990; Moschis, 1976; Reynolds & Beatty, 1999; Stone, 1954; Tauber, 1972), a review of recent media (such as newspapers, online articles, magazine articles) depicting current social behaviors associated with

shopping (Bustos, 2007, 2008; Ellen, 2007; Gaile-Sarkane, 2008; Gordon, 2007; Iskold, 2006; Kooser, 2008; Kuchinskias, 2005; Lazarus, 2006; Vascellaro, 2007), and in-depth interviews with seven young consumers. In-depth interviews were conducted with each individual student aged from 18 to 29 in a large southeastern university. Each interview lasted approximately 30 – 40 minutes. They were asked about their behavioral patterns and interactions with others (e.g., friends, sales persons, and other shoppers) in fashion shopping. In order to gain comprehensive ideas about young consumers' shopping and social behaviors, they were also asked about their close friends' behaviors in addition to their own behaviors. In addition to the questions on behavioral patterns and social activities in shopping, each interviewee was allowed to freely talk about behavioral observations, thoughts they have had in their shopping experience, and motivations behind certain behaviors. The initial inventory of social shopping behaviors was intentionally broad in order for us to include a wide scope of social shopping behaviors in the fashion consumption environment.

Based on the qualitative investigation, five categories emerged and were initially labeled as “Social exploratory behavior and fashion following,” “Socializing with friends and family,” “Opinion giving and fashion leading,” “Power and status seeking,” and “Communication and social engaging with other shoppers and sales personnel.”

Social Exploratory Behavior and Fashion Following

Consumers often observe other people in a shopping environment, either with a purpose (e.g., for acquiring shopping information) or without (e.g., just for fun) and can collect significant amounts of information in this way (Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980). Some shoppers enjoy exploring and window shopping (McDaniel, 1987). Arnold and Reynolds (2003) reported that a substantial portion of respondents of their study went shopping to keep up with trends and

new fashion and find out about new products and innovations. In fact, many consumers, the so-called fashion followers, were found to adopt new fashion styles after they saw others (e.g., fashion leaders) purchasing or wearing those styles (Phau & Lo, 2004; Polegato & Wall, 1980).

Socializing with Friends and Family and Opinion Seeking

Consumers have been empirically found to socialize with friends or family and to seek advice and informal information from them. In Arnold and Reynolds' (2003) study, respondents frequently stated that "shopping is the way to spend time together with friends and/or family members" (p. 80). According to Tauber (1972), shopping significantly reflects one's desire to be with a peer group and/or a reference group to which he/she aspires to belong. In a study by Bloch et al. (1994), over forty percent of their respondents indicated that they engaged in socializing activities with friends and family at the mall. Teens in particular shop primarily with friends and like to be with friends during shopping (Mangleburg et al., 2004). Shoppers were found to prefer going shopping with friends because these friends provided assistance in the decision-making process (Mangleburg et al., 2004).

Opinion Giving and Fashion Leading

Some consumers like to give opinions to others, which often leads to new fashion adoption or fashion trend setting (Bertrandias & Goldsmith, 2006; Ellen, 2007; Sproles, 1979; Westbrook & Black, 1985). For some consumers, the primary goal of shopping is to express themselves (Westbrook & Black, 1985). Others can be labeled as fashion opinion leaders as they like to influence others through interpersonal communications (Sproles, 1979) and be recognized for their opinions and tastes regarding fashion shopping (Bertrandias & Goldsmith, 2006). In addition, consumers today who have access to the media (e.g., online forums) are actively engaged in showing their expertise and sharing shopping experience. This can be exemplified by

the following quote by an online user on a social shopping site: "I'm a really good shopper in fashion and beauty...The great thing is I can share my expertise"(as quoted in Ellen, 2007, p.2).

Power and Status Seeking

Attention drawing or status seeking behaviors by consumers during shopping processes are often seen. Tauber (1972) recognized that individuals command attention and respect through shopping. Tauber explained this with an example of a customer who attains a feeling of status and power through a limited “master–servant” relationship in which he/she can expect to be waited on without having to pay for it. Tauber also indicated that some consumers enjoy a sense of power through shopping that is gained when store personnel compete for his/her favor. These consumers even “delay a purchase decision since it terminates the attention they are receiving” (p. 48). Similarly, Parsons (2002) identified that online shoppers want an elevated social status in the eyes of friends and colleagues. These studies suggest that consumers like the attention of store personnel and peers and interact with them in order to feel respected or powerful.

Communication and Social Engagement with Other Shoppers and Sales Personnel

Many shoppers actively communicate with other shoppers or sales personnel, and some of these shoppers even pursue closer relationships with them. According to Arnold and Reynolds (2003), shopping provides consumers with a chance to connect with other shoppers. Bloch et al. (1994) interviewed shoppers in a mall and reported that approximately twenty-three percent of respondents engaged in conversation with other shoppers they met that day in the mall. Frequent interaction with sales personnel has also been found by researchers (Reynolds & Beatty, 1999; Stone, 1954). When lacking self-confidence, consumers can acquire style guidance and reassurance from sales personnel (Reynolds & Beatty, 1999). Some consumers even have social relationships with sales personnel, and consumers frequently describe sales personnel as friends

(Reynolds & Beatty, 1999). Similarly, in another study by Stone (1954), almost thirty percent of the respondents stated that they had formed strong attachments with store personnel and they rated a salesperson according to whether he/she treated them in a personal, intimate manner.

Based on the results of the qualitative inquiry, eighty-five behavioral items (See Appendix A) were identified and included in the initial, multi-item behavioral inventory of social shopping for fashion. The inventory was pretested to enhance its content and face validity as a measure of social shopping for fashion. Undergraduate students (18–28-years old) at a large southeastern university participated in the pretest ($N = 80$). The participants were asked to indicate, on a paper–pencil-based questionnaire, the extent to which they engage in each item of the initial behavioral inventory. They were also asked to mark awkward sentences or items that were not applicable, incomprehensible, and/or confusing. The content and face validities of the inventory were enhanced by revising wording and eliminating the items according to the responses. The resulting inventory of social shopping for fashion contained seventy-eight items, which were used in the following scale purification process.

Scale Purification

The scale purification process involved item reduction and an initial assessment of the scale's dimensionality. An online survey was used for this process. The data were gathered from a separate pool of undergraduate students enrolled in three courses at a large southeastern university ($N = 132$).

Exploratory Factor Analysis

An exploratory factor analysis with principle axis factoring, using a Varimax rotation, was conducted. The scree plot examination suggested a five-factor extraction. Items that exhibited low-factor loadings ($< .40$), high cross-loadings ($> .40$), or low communalities ($< .30$)

were eliminated (c.f., Arnold & Reynolds, 2003). As a result, a five-factor model with twenty items emerged. All factor loadings ranged from .67 to .92. All items except two were deemed excellent, and these two were deemed very good (c.f., Tabachnick & Fidell, 2006). The five-factor solution accounted for approximately seventy-five percent of the total variance and exhibited a KMO measure of sampling adequacy of .82. All communalities ranged from .55 to .90. Table 1 illustrates the factor structure with the twenty-items.

The five factors were labeled: “Social browsing,” “Relationship building,” “Opinion showing,” “Power shopping,” and “New socio-networking.” Each of these factors was subject to validation using a confirmatory factor analysis. The reliability coefficients of the factors ranged from .80 to .94, which are considered good (c.f., Gibbons & Buunk, 1999). The following explains the contents of each factor.

- **Social browsing ($\alpha = .90$).** The first factor labeled “Social browsing” consisted of six items. The items illustrate behaviors related to exploring fashion trends/products that are popular among others (e.g., I often look for new fashion products and/or brands that are popular among my friends) and following fashion trends by talking with or searching for cues from others (e.g., I usually buy fashion products similar to those others are wearing).

- **Relationship building ($\alpha = .94$).** The second factor consisted of five items and was labeled “Relationship building.” This factor had items associated with going shopping with and “hanging out” in shopping places with close friends or family (e.g., I often hang out with friends and/or family when shopping for fashion; I often spend a lot of time with friends and/or family when shopping for fashion).

Table 1**Exploratory Factor Analysis Results**

Items	Factors					Eigen value	α
	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5		
I often buy fashion products similar to those others are wearing.	.83	.12	.11	.08	.04		
I often search for fashion shopping deals that other people have recommended.	.75	.16	.13	-.06	.16		
I often look for new fashion products and/or brands that are popular among my friends.	.86	.15	.01	.10	.03		
I often buy fashion products that I see my friends wearing.	.82	.27	.08	.26	-.04		
I usually get information about a fashion product from friends and/or family before I buy it.	.72	.18	.08	.12	.09		
I usually purchase fashion products that many others have also bought.	.74	.09	.00	-.08	.06	6.62	.90
I often go shopping for fashion with friends and/or family.	.22	.88	.84	.04	-.01		
I often spend a lot of time with friends and/or family when shopping for fashion.	.11	.92	.11	.13	.03		
I often hang out with friends and/or family when shopping for fashion.	.17	.89	.07	.13	-.03		
Friends and/or family often accompany me, even when I make a fashion purchase for myself.	.13	.89	.04	.13	.13		
I often look for a companion to go with me when I go shopping for fashion.	.33	.79	-.05	.02	.18	2.80	.94
I often participate in conversations about fashion and shopping.	.13	.11	.85	.08	.03		
I often give others my personal opinions about fashion products.	.10	.15	.85	.04	.13		
I am often complimented or noticed by friends when I wear fashionable products that I have bought.	-.11	-.01	.83	.07	.00		
I often recommend fashion shopping places/brands/products to friends and/or family.	.22	-.03	.67	.20	-.01	2.45	.83
When I enter a store, I often receive attention from store personnel.	-.02	.10	.19	.85	.14		
I often notice that store personnel make an effort to sell fashion products to me.	.13	.14	.09	.86	.15		
I often talk with store personnel while shopping for fashion.	.10	.11	.08	.71	.23	2.10	.80
I often make new friends through fashion shopping and/or fashion talk.	.10	.10	.14	.22	.89		
I often meet new people when shopping for fashion.	.17	.09	-.02	.38	.85	1.03	.88

Note. Principal axis factoring with varimax rotation was used. KMO measure of sampling adequacy = .82. Cumulative variance extracted = 75%. Factor 1 is labeled as “Social browsing”; factor 2 as “Relationship building”; factor 3 as “Opinion showing”, factor 4 as “Power shopping”, and factor 5 as “New socio-networking”.

• **Opinion showing ($\alpha = .83$).** The third factor consisted of four items and was labeled “Opinion showing.” This factor included such items as showing fashion knowledge or fashion shopping information to others verbally or nonverbally (e.g., I often give others my personal opinion about fashion products; I am often complimented or noticed by friends when I am wearing fashion products that I bought).

• **Power shopping ($\alpha = .80$).** The fourth factor consisted of three items and was labeled “Power shopping.” This factor had behavioral items associated with an attention-drawing tendency during shopping (e.g., When I enter a store, I often draw attention from store personnel) and perceiving a sense of power/authority over others (e.g., I often notice that store personnel make an effort to sell fashion products to me).

• **New socio-networking ($\alpha = .88$).** The fifth factor consisted of two items and was labeled “New socio-networking.” This factor reflects behaviors associated with verbal or nonverbal interactions with other shoppers through conversation and developing new friendships with new people through these processes (e.g., I often meet new people when shopping for fashion; I often make new friends through fashion shopping and/or fashion talk).

Scale Validation

The scale validation procedure was as follows: 1) a confirmatory factor analysis to confirm the factor structure and 2) assessment of the reliability and validity of the scale in terms of unidimensionality and reliability and convergent, discriminant, nomological, and predictive validities. An online survey with a large and independent sample was conducted for scale validation.

Sampling and Data Collection Procedure

The IRB procedure preceded the empirical examinations with human subjects; and the exemption from institutional oversight was approved (IRB #4245, See Appendix B). The sample for this validation was 18 to 29 years old undergraduate students enrolled in a large southeastern university. Given the sample boundary, a random sampling method was used to enhance external validity. With an institutional permission, an email list of randomly selected undergraduate students, evenly divided between male and female, was obtained. The list contained 25% of the total undergraduate student body enrolled in spring 2009.

Random sampling was assured by using the following procedure: First, based on the use of a random number generator function in the SAS program, a random number was assigned to each of the students in the total body of undergraduates from the university registrar record. Second, the pool was sorted by the random numbers. Third, those within the first twenty-five percent were extracted from the pool. This sampling procedure provided a rigorous random sample and resulted in a total of 5,280 undergraduate students, comprised of equal number of males and females (2,640 each).

An online survey method was chosen for data collection. When compared to traditional pencil-and-paper surveys, online surveys have various advantages, such as lower financial and coding costs, fewer coding errors, and more privacy and convenience to respondents (Kang & Park-Poaps, forthcoming). Online survey methods are also useful for obtaining a diverse sample of respondents and producing no significant differences in participants' responses when compared to traditional methods (Reilly & Rudd, 2009). These benefits could negate the weaknesses of online surveys, such as a potential low level of obligation to participation and the possibility of repeated participation (Birnbaum, 2004). However, we employed the following

strategies to overcome these shortcomings. Subjects were reminded multiple times by email and encouraged to participate in the survey with incentives. They were also asked to answer a mandatory question, “Have you ever participated in this survey before?” prior to proceeding with the questionnaire.

The data collection was conducted for ten days in spring 2009. The survey was posted on a commercial online survey site, and the link to the survey site was included in the email invitation. The email invitation letter contained an introduction to the purpose of the study, a link to the survey site, researchers’ contact information, and instructions for entering a lottery to win a gift card. A week after the initial email sent, a second email was sent to remind the participants of the survey and its closing date. The first email and second email are shown in Appendix C and Appendix D.

Among the initial list ($N = 5,280$), a total of 914 responses were obtained (response rate of 17.3%). Data screening eliminated early drop-out responses ($n = 47$) and responses by subjects aged 30 years or older ($n = 9$). The final responses, consisting of 858 (94% of total receipts), were used for subsequent analyses.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

We conducted confirmatory factor analyses to “improve congeneric measurement properties of the scale” (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988 cited by Arnold & Reynolds, 2003, p.83). A twenty-item, five-dimension, confirmatory factor model was estimated using LISREL 8.8 software. An initial inspection of model fit revealed that the fit indices were a little below acceptable thresholds ($\chi^2_{(df=160)} = 920.58$, $p = .00$; GFI = .90; AGFI = .87; CFI = .97; NNFI = .96; standardized RMR = .055; RMSEA = .074). Item squared multiple correlations (SMCs) ranged from .31 to .86. An inspection of the modification indices (MIs) indicated three items were the

sources of the misfit (MIs ranging from 168.07 to 60). Each item was then examined for domain representativeness, and items that do not well represent the domain of interest can be removed to improve reliability and model fit (c.f., Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

The item with the highest significant MI score was, “I often talk with store personnel while shopping for fashion,” which was assigned to factor 4, power shopping. The item did not seem to well represent “authority or attention,” the core component of power shopping, and had little congruency with other items in the factor. Another item with a high MI score was “I often look for a companion to go with me when I go shopping for fashion,” in factor 2, relationship building. This item was similar to another item in the same factor, “I often go shopping for fashion with friends and/or family.” The third item, “I often search for fashion shopping deals that other people have recommended,” in which the meanings implied in the term *deals* were too broad and thus different with other items focusing on fashion products/styles/brands in the same factor. Therefore, these three items were removed from the model.

After the removal of the three items, the second confirmatory model was estimated with the remaining 17 items. Model fit was substantially improved: $\chi^2_{(df=109)} = 424.87$, $p = .00$; GFI = .94; AGFI = .92; CFI = .98; NNFI = .98; standardized RMR = .044; RMSEA = .058. Item SMCs ranged from .30 to .87. One item having the largest modification index (52.63) was further inspected for its domain representativeness. The item was “I usually get information about a fashion product from friends and/or family before I buy it.” This was judged not representing the domain of social browsing factor—fashion following via exploratory behaviors by looking at or concerning what others buy or wear—but rather representing information-seeking. Therefore, this item was removed from the model.

A final confirmatory model was then estimated on the remaining sixteen items. The model exhibited an excellent fit: $\chi^2_{(df=94)} = 334.69$, $p = .00$; GFI = .95; AGFI = .93; CFI = .98; NNFI = .98; standardized RMR = .033; RMSEA = .055. All modification indices showed no critical problems of misfit, and all item SMCs ranged from .46 to .87. Therefore, we determined that the sixteen items reasonably represent the five dimensions of social shopping for fashion and that each item taps into a unique domain of each dimension (c.f., Arnold & Reynolds, 2003). Table 2 provides measurement properties of the final sixteen-item scale with five dimensions.

Unidimensionality and Reliability

The scale was examined in terms of its unidimensionality and reliability. Unidimensionality refers to “the existence of a single trait or construct underlying a set of measures” (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988, p. 186). Reliability is internal consistency (Kline, 2005). Coefficient alpha estimates ranged from .74 to .94. The composite reliability estimates ranged from .74 to .91. These coefficients indicate a satisfactory level of reliability of the factor measurements (c.f., Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Item-to-total correlations ranged from .58 to .89. All variance-extracted estimates ranged from .56 to .83, which exceeded the recommended .50 threshold (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). These results indicate that the measurements of the factors are unidimensional and reliable.

Convergent and Discriminant Validity

Convergent validity refers to “the extent to which independent measures of a construct represent that same construct” (Park, 2001, p. 99). Convergent validity can be assessed from the measurement model by determining whether each indicator’s (i.e., measurement item) estimated pattern coefficient (i.e., estimated maximum likelihood loading) on its underlying construct factor is significant (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Arnold & Reynolds, 2003). Convergent validity

Table 2

Final Scale Properties of Social Shopping for Fashion

Dimensions/Items	M	SD	CFA item loading ^a	t-value	S.E	α	Composite reliability ^b	Variance extracted estimate ^c	Corrected item-total r	Squared multiple r^2
Social browsing										
I often buy fashion products similar to those others are wearing.	2.90	1.03	.77	-	-				.72	.60
I often look for new fashion products and/or brands that are popular among my friends.	2.82	1.06	.85	25.75**	.04				.76	.72
I often buy fashion products that I see my friends wearing.	2.71	1.02	.87	26.39*	.04				.80	.76
I usually purchase fashion products that many others have also bought.	2.63	1.02	.72	21.62*	.04	.88	.87	.64	.68	.53
Relationship building										
I often go shopping for fashion with friends and/or family.	3.24	1.23	.85	-					.83	.72
I often spend a lot of time with friends and/or family when shopping for fashion.	2.92	1.24	.93	37.80*	.03				.88	.86
I often hang out with friends and/or family when shopping for fashion.	3.06	1.24	.93	38.44*	.03				.89	.87
Friends and/or family often accompany me, even when I make a fashion purchase for myself.	3.08	1.21	.85	32.07*	.03	.94	.91	.72	.83	.72

Table 2

Continued

Dimensions/Items	M	SD	CFA item loading ^a	t-value	S.E	α	Composite reliability ^b	Variance extracted estimate ^c	Corrected item-total r	Squared multiple r^2
Opinion showing										
I often participate in conversations about fashion and shopping.	2.67	1.18	.82	-	-				.73	.67
I often give others my personal opinions about fashion products.	3.06	1.21	.82	26.38*	.04				.76	.67
I am often complimented or noticed by friends when I wear fashionable products that I have bought.	3.48	1.05	.68	20.72*	.04				.62	.46
I often recommend fashion shopping places/brands/products to friends and/or family.	3.07	1.21	.85	27.37*	.04	.87	.83	.56	.77	.72
Power shopping										
When I enter a store, I often receive attention from store personnel.	3.23	.99	.75	-	-				.58	.56
I often notice that store personnel make an effort to sell fashion products to me.	3.12	1.00	.78	13.19*	.08	.74	.74	.59	.58	.61
New socio-networking										
I often make new friends through fashion shopping and/or fashion talk.	1.98	.93	.93	-	-				.82	.87
I often meet new people when shopping for fashion.	2.11	1.02	.88	25.07*	.04	.90	.91	.83	.82	.78

Note. ^a Standardized estimates. ^b $(\sum \text{std. Loadings})^2 / (\sum \text{std. Loadings})^2 + \sum \text{measurement error}$. ^c $\sum \text{std. Loadings}^2 / \sum \text{std. Loadings}^2 + \sum \text{measurement error}$

** $p < .001$

can also be confirmed by examining the variance-extracted estimates and construct reliability (i.e., composite reliability) (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). All standardized confirmatory factor loadings exceeded .68, and they were all significant (i.e., *t*-values ranging from a low of 19.33 to a high of 35.91). Also, the composite reliability estimates, ranging from .74 to .91, and the variance-extracted estimates, ranging from .56 to .83, exceeded the recommended .50 threshold (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Therefore, convergent validity of all factor measures was established.

Social shopping for fashion dimensions are conceptually related to each other yet are also expected to demonstrate discriminant validity (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003). In other word, discriminant validity is distinctiveness of one construct from other relevant constructs (Kline, 2005). The inter-factor correlations between the five social shopping dimensions, estimated by the phi-coefficients, ranged from .25 to .54. Discriminant properties between the constructs were evident because all variance-extracted estimates, ranging from .58 to .84, exceeded squared phi correlations between the constructs, ranging from .07 to .29 (c.f., Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The matrix of variance-extracted estimates and phi correlation estimates is shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Discriminant Validity Assessment Matrix

	Social browsing	Relationship building	Opinion showing	Power shopping	New socio- networking
Social browsing	.64 ^b				
Relationship building	.41 ^a	.72 ^b			
Opinion showing	.42 ^a	.48 ^a	.56 ^b		
Power shopping	.27 ^a	.30 ^a	.49 ^a	.59 ^b	
New socio- networking	.25 ^a	.32 ^a	.54 ^a	.48 ^a	.83 ^b

Note. ^a Inter-factor correlations estimated by phi coefficient *r*. ^b Variance extracted estimates

Nomological Validity

Nomological validity refers to the degree to which a construct behaves as it should within a system of related constructs called a nomological network (Bagozzi, 1981). Nomological validity can be tested by examining whether a scale or a dimension of a multidimensional scale is statistically correlated to other measures that are theoretically related (Babin et al., 1994).

Accordingly, to examine nomological validity of the scale of social shopping for fashion, the correlations between each of the five dimensions (i.e., factors) and theoretically and conceptually related constructs were tested. The constructs included social shopping motivation (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003), consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence (Bearden et al., 1989), attention to social comparison information (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984), fashion opinion leadership (Flynn, Goldsmith, & Eastman, 1996; Goldsmith, Stith, & White, 1987), and social risk toward fashion (Halepete, Littrell, & Park, 2009). The measurement items of the constructs adapted from previous studies are summarized in Table 4.

- **Correlations with social shopping motivation.** Social shopping motivation (SSM) refers to the enjoyment of shopping through socializing and bonding with friends and family (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003). SSM was expected to be positively correlated with the *relationship building* dimension because relationship building captures behaviors related to going shopping and spending time together with close referents while shopping for fashion. Meanwhile, SSM also embraces enjoyment acquired from socializing with other people and seeing new people in shopping places (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003). Therefore, the *new socio-networking* dimension, which recognizes such behaviors as meeting new people and making new friends through shopping, was also expected to be positively correlated to SSM. Consistent with this line of thought, significant correlations were identified between SSM and relationship building

($r = .66$; $p < .01$) and between SSM and new socio-networking ($r = .34$; $p < .01$).

• **Correlations with consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence.** Consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence recognizes “the need to enhance one's image in the opinion of significant others and the willingness to conform to the expectations of others” (Bearden et al., 1989, p. 473). Bearden et al. developed a reliable and valid measure of the two dimensions of consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence: informational influence and normative influence. According to Bearden et al., susceptibility to informational influence (SII) is the tendency to learn about products and services by observing others and/or seeking information from others; susceptibility to normative influence (SNI) is the tendency to conform to the expectations of others and to comply with the expectations of others to achieve rewards or avoid punishments. Those two measures were expected to be positively correlated with the *social browsing* dimension which conceptualizes behaviors associated with exploring/searching fashion trends/products popular among others, following these fashion trends, and purchasing similar items to what others already have. Consistent with this expectation, social browsing was correlated positively with SII ($r = .55$; $p < .01$) and with SNI ($r = .56$; $p < .01$).

• **Correlations with attention to social comparison information.** Attention to social comparison information (ATSCI) refers to “the extent to which one is aware of the reactions of others to one’s behavior and is concerned about or sensitive to the nature of those reactions” (Paridon, 2004, p. 88). Lennox and Wolfe (1984) recognized that ATSCI reflects the fear of a negative evaluation from others and social anxiety and developed a reliable and valid measure of ATSCI. The *social browsing* dimension in this study captures the behaviors associated with paying attention to what others wear and purchase and following what others prefer and purchase. Therefore the dimension was expected to be related with ATSCI. Consistent with this line of

thought, a significant positive correlation was identified between ATSCI and social browsing ($r = .56, p < .01$).

• **Correlations with fashion opinion leadership.** Fashion opinion leadership (FOL) is the ability or tendency of a consumer to convey information regarding a new fashion in a way that influences successive purchasers to accept or reject it (Workman & Johnson, 1993). The *opinion showing* dimension reflects such behaviors as leading and influencing others by providing personal opinion and information about fashion verbally and/or nonverbally, and thus it is expected to be correlated with FOL. Meanwhile, FOL has been known to be associated with fashion confidence and influential power toward other people (Goldsmith & Clark, 2008). Therefore, the *power shopping* dimension was also expected to correlate with FOL. As expected, the analyses revealed that FOL was strongly correlated with opinion showing ($r = .68, p < .01$) and with power shopping ($r = .34, p < .01$).

• **Correlations with social risk toward fashion.** It is well known that the higher the symbolic values and social visibility of a product, the higher the social risk perceived by consumers (Veloutsou & Xuemei, 2008). Therefore, it is not surprising that social risk with fashion products is great (Halepete et al., 2009). A consumer's perceived social risk toward fashion includes such anxieties as worrying about what friends may think about his/her clothes and about whether the clothes he or she bought might not be in fashion (Halepete et al., 2009). Since the *social browsing* dimension embraces following and purchasing fashions that are confirmed by many other people, social risk toward fashion was expected to be related with social browsing. Indeed, social risks toward fashion was found correlated with social browsing ($r = .47, p < .01$).

Table 4**Measures Used to Test Nomological Validity**

Constructs/Items	M	SD	Min-Max (sum)	α	Source
Social shopping motivation					
I go shopping for fashion with my friends or family to socialize.					Arnold & Reynolds (2003)
I enjoy socializing with others when I shop for fashion.					
Shopping for fashion with others is a bonding experience.	9.38	3.01	3-15	.88	
Susceptibility to informative influence					
To make sure I buy the right fashion product or brand, I often observe what others are buying and using.					Bearden et al. (1989)
If I have little experience with a fashion product, I often ask my friends about the product.					
I often consult other people to help choose the best alternative available from a fashion product class.	8.73	2.69	3-15	.79	
Susceptibility to normative influence					
It is important that others like the fashion products and brands I buy.					Bearden et al. (1989)
If other people can see me using a fashion product, I often purchase the brand they expect me to buy.					
I rarely purchase the latest fashion styles until I am sure my friends approve of them.	6.85	2.52	3-15	.81	

Table 4**Continued**

Constructs/Items	M	SD	Min-Max (sum)	α	Source
Attention to social comparison information					
I actively avoid wearing clothes that are not in style.					Lenox & Wolfe (1984)
I tend to pay attention to what others are wearing.					
I usually keep up with fashion style changes by watching what others wear.	9.05	2.72	3-15	.78	
Fashion opinion leadership					
I often persuade other people to buy the fashion I like.					Flynn et al. (1996)
People that I know pick fashion products based on what I have told them.					
I often influence people's opinions about fashion products.	7.83	3.00	3-15	.91	
Social risk toward fashion					
I am worried about what others will think of my fashion sense.					Halepete et al. (2009)
I worry that my friends might think I look funny in/with my fashion items.					
I fear that what I buy might not be in fashion.	7.33	2.81	3-15	.88	

Predictive Validity

Predictive validity refers to “the ability of a measuring instrument to estimate some criterion behavior that is external to the measuring instrument itself,” and it can be established by “significant correlations between the instrument and the criterion variable” (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994, cited by Arnold & Reynold, 2003, p. 88). Social activities in shopping or socially oriented shopper behaviors have been known to result in increased time spent per shopping trip, increased frequency of unplanned purchases, and increased possibility of continuing shopping after a purchase, which ultimately leads to increased spending (Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Paridon, 2004; Reynolds & Beatty, 1999). Meanwhile, the shopper group who had the highest level of social needs were found to have higher levels of shopping enjoyment than other groups of shoppers (Reynolds & Beatty, 1999). Therefore, in order to assess predictive validity of the social shopping for fashion scale, a measure of fashion shopping expenditure and shopping enjoyment for fashion products were determined appropriate as the criterion variables.

To measure fashion shopping expenditure, monthly spending on fashion was analyzed. We adapted three items from Reynolds and Beatty’s (1999) and Forsythe and Bailey’s (1996) studies to measure shopping enjoyment for fashion products. An example of the items is “Shopping for fashion is entertaining.” Each item was measured on a five-point scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.”

Correlation analyses revealed positive, significant correlations between fashion shopping expenditure and the five dimensions of social shopping for fashion: social browsing ($r = .20$, $p < .01$), relationship building ($r = .17$, $p < .01$), opinion showing ($r = .37$, $p < .01$), power shopping ($r = .25$, $p < .01$), and new socio-networking ($r = .37$, $p < .01$). Additional correlation

analyses also revealed that shopping enjoyment for fashion products was correlated positively with the five dimensions of social shopping for fashion: social browsing ($r = .35, p < .01$), relationship building ($r = .40, p < .01$), opinion showing ($r = .70, p < .01$), power shopping ($r = .28, p < .01$), and new socio-networking ($r = .40, p < .01$).

Discussion

The purpose of Study 1 was to develop a scale of social shopping for fashion. We found a five-dimensional scale along with sixteen behavioral items representing distinctive dimensions of social shopping for fashion: social browsing, relationship building, opinion showing, power shopping, and new socio-networking. The validation process of this multidimensional scale demonstrated its unidimensionality, reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. Nomological validity and predictive validity of each dimension was also established by the process that confirmed its significant association with other theoretically related constructs and external criterion constructs.

It is significant to note that the scale revealed the multidimensionality of the concept. This indicates that unlike the traditional thoughts in which social shopping is considered as a simple unidimensional concept, social shopping for fashion involves much more dynamic and complex, direct and indirect interpersonal exchanges and activities. The scale developed in this study is also the first attempt to synthesize dispersed concepts of social shopping in the literature and provides researchers a reliable and valid measure for further examinations of social shopping to produce implications for a wide range of marketing and retailing applications.

The behavioral specifications identified in the scale of social shopping for fashion will also contribute to research attempting to identify ascendants and motivations of social shopping

behaviors. There may be special motivations and their combinations that drive such social shopping behavior in the fashion context, such as concern for appropriateness (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984), desire for social confirmation (Solomon & Rabolt, 2006), and needs for affiliation (Sproles, 1979), or motivation for social comparison (Festinger, 1954). Using the multidimensional scale, researchers can attempt to examine how such motivations drive diverse social shopping dimensions and how they interact with them. This will also help validation of the dimensionality of the scale as well as confirming the fact that social shopping for fashion is a multidimensional phenomenon. Together, the research can be an exclusive contribution to establishing the rigor of the motivation theory (Maslow, 1970; McGuire, 1974; Murray, 1938) and psychological theories of fashion (Sproles, 1979).

In addition to the ascendants, consequences of social shopping for fashion can also be scientifically examined using the scale. Past studies have suggested that social activities occurring in shopping or satisfaction of social needs during shopping are positively linked to retailing and marketing performance, such as consumer store patronage, positive attitudes toward a store/brand, and shopping time/spending (Babin et al., 1994; Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Jones, 1999; Paridon, 2004). The scale developed in this study will provide a conceptual and operational foundation for investigators to examine the effects of social shopping behavior, either its types or magnitude, on significant marketing and retailing outcomes.

This study not only identified a wide range of dimensions and their behavioral indicators of social shopping for fashion but also provided evidence that social shopping and its dimensions are linked to other existing, key fashion constructs, such as fashion opinion leadership (c.f., Flynn et al., 1996) or social risks toward fashions (c.f., Halepete et al., 2009). The results suggest that the dimensions of social shopping are interrelated with other significant fashion behaviors

and socio-psychological factors of fashion. Future researchers should further investigate direct relationships between social shopping dimensions and other fashion constructs. It is possible that social shopping is a factor that determines individual differences or a medium in fashion decision-making process.

This study provides practical insights into the fashion industry by providing a tangible understanding of the latest intangible behavioral trends of consumers in today's dynamic shopping environments. The scale developed is a scientific tool that marketers and retailers can use to identify and define their customers' behaviors associated with various social shopping activities, such as socializing, communicating, and interacting with other shoppers and sales personnel. This will provide the industry professionals strategic ideas and cues for improving social shopping in their stores that may increase sales, consumer loyalty, and consumer satisfaction.

Another use of the scale developed in this study is for segmentation. Retailers and marketers can segment their consumers into groups based on their social shopping patterns. Brand managers may also use this information to make a decision about their strategic or core consumer group(s). Understanding customers' social behaviors will also allow the professionals to provide their customer segment(s) with appropriate services and environments in a more effective way or even to reposition their products and services for the segment(s). For instance, operating live movie clips of current fashion on the streets or around the world or displaying a visual rank board of best selling fashion items would be effective merchandising strategies for the consumer group who shows a high level of social browsing.

This scale established satisfactory validity indicators. However, further research is needed to refine the scale by examining the new ways that interactions and communications

emerge over time or across contexts. It is also possible that critical behaviors for younger or older populations may have not been included in the scale development process due to the limitation in informants. Likewise, because of investigator subjectivity (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003), there could be other behavioral indicators not captured in this study. Future studies can test the validities of this scale across different samples and examine the stability of its factor solution (Babin et al., 1994).

The assumption of this study is that social shopping is one of the behavioral tendencies in individual's daily lives. However, external conditions or situational factors can affect patterns of an individual's social shopping behaviors. A consumer may behave differently when he/she goes shopping to purchase products for himself/herself compared to when purchasing gifts for others (Lee & Kim, 2009). He/she may show different patterns when he/she goes shopping with friends and when shopping with family (Luo, 2005). Therefore, future studies can attempt to investigate how social shopping and its dimensions are realized in various shopping situations.

Since this study focuses on the fashion consumption context, extension of this study will establish the validity of the scale by replicating an equivalent procedure with different products (e.g., durable goods or personal electronic devices) or in different channels (e.g., online shopping). For example, social motives and social shopping activities are crucial for brick and mortar shopping, but are also significant today for online shopping (Dennis, Fenech, & Merrilees, 2004). Consumers are now actively engaged in social activities online through social shopping sites (Bustos, 2008; Iskold, 2006; Kooser, 2008). Beyond simple writing and reading reviews and real-time chatting with online store personnel (Hargrave, 2008; Kooser, 2008), consumers eagerly seek help from others in online shopping environments in a similar manner to the way that they lean on their friends for suggestions and support in physical retail environment (Dennis

et al., 2004; Kooser, 2008; Ng, 2003). Comparisons of the results from those studies in different contexts with the current results from this study will provide insights on whether the dimensionality of social shopping is universal or varies across the contexts.

STUDY 2. ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF SOCIAL SHOPPING FOR FASHION

Introduction

One of the most important reasons for consumers to go shopping is to socialize with others and to satisfy social needs (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Dawson et al., 1990; Moschis, 1976; Reynolds & Beatty, 1999; Stone, 1954; Tauber, 1972; Westbrook & Black, 1985). Socially engaging and interpersonal activities in shopping have particular significance in the fashion context because fashion is a visible and critical medium for nonverbal communications and interactions in social settings (Kaiser, 1997). For the fashion industry, social shopping for fashion carries a significant meaning because previous studies have indicated that social activities occurring in shopping to shoppers' satisfaction of social needs contributes to retailing and marketing performances such as store patronage, positive attitudes toward a store/brand, and extended shopping time and spending (Babin et al., 1994; Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Jones, 1999; Paridon, 2004). Thus, it is important to incorporate the social shopping component in fashion retail planning to generate desirable retailing and marketing outcomes.

To facilitate social shopping in the fashion retailing environments, the following questions need to be answered: What motivates consumers to engage in social activities while shopping for fashion? If social shopping is a medium to satisfy the motivational desire, what are the outcomes of social shopping? Despite the significance of social shopping for fashion, these questions have not been answered in the literature. There has been a lack of concrete explanations about the motivators that drive such social behaviors in shopping for fashion. Studies have only identified associated shopping outcomes without providing theoretical

explanations (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Dawson et al., 1990; Moschis, 1976; Reynolds & Beatty, 1999; Stone, 1954; Tauber, 1972; Westbrook & Black, 1985).

The theory of social comparison is essential in explaining social shopping for fashion. Social comparison, a humans' fundamental desire to evaluate themselves by comparing themselves with other people, is a key motivation that drives social behaviors (Festinger, 1954). Such social comparison is likely to occur in fashion shopping environments in particular because shopping behaviors inherently involve social and interpersonal activities (Bloch et al., 1994; Cowan et al., 2004; Tauber, 1972) and fashion is "so peripheral or so visual that it becomes an easy target for social comparison" (Kaiser, 1997, p. 171). The latest fashion shopping contexts offer consumers a broad range of complex options and thus increase consumers' uncertainty about their choices. In this type of context, consumers are more likely to be engaged in social comparison because there is ambivalence in terms of objective standards (Festinger, 1954; Gibbons & Buunk, 1999).

On the other hand, consumer shopping experiences determine consumer satisfaction (Terblanche & Boshoff, 2006), which suggests that social shopping experiences and satisfaction of social needs through the experience may lead to consumer satisfaction. Consumer satisfaction has been regarded as the ultimate goal of the industry (Otieno, Harrow, & Lea-Greenwood, 2005; Taylor & Baker, 1994) because it results in purchase intention, repurchase, brand loyalty, and word-of-mouth (Otieno et al., 2005). There are two types of consumer satisfaction: cognitive evaluation and response to products and/or services (Solomon & Rabolt, 2006) and emotions/feelings evoked by the consumption process (Chang et al., 2004; Ladhari, 2007; Mano & Oliver, 1993). The literature on shopping behaviors, although indirectly, indicates that social

shopping may provide consumers with support for their decision making (Paridon, 2004; Wesley et al., 2006) and, at the same time, induce positive affects such as shopping enjoyment (Chang et al., 2004; Reynolds & Beatty, 1999).

Study 2 was designed to increase our understanding of the social shopping process. The objective of the study was to develop and test a model of social shopping for fashion, depicting its motivational antecedents and consequences. The results of Study 1 provided an essential component for Study 2. According to the findings of Study 1, social shopping for fashion is a multi-dimensional concept involving five distinctive dimensions: social browsing, relationship building, opinion showing, power shopping, and new socio-networking. Because of their distinctive characteristics, it is likely that the pattern of influences may be different across the dimensions of social shopping. Study 2 tested a structural model that simultaneously captures the differences across the dimensions as well as overall relationships among social comparison, social shopping and consumer satisfaction.

This study has an exclusive value for the fashion and consumer behavior literature. Developing and testing a comprehensive structural model of social shopping for fashion advances the research of social shopping. This study attempts to explain social shopping from a theoretical perspective, contributing to building the rigor of the social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954) in the context of fashion consumption. By identifying scientific evidence of social shopping influences on cognitive and affective consumer satisfaction, this study can also help build the rigor of consumer satisfaction theory. Additionally, the study has practical values. The results of this study provide industry professionals with strategic ideas and cues that allow them to effectively embrace the social shopping component in their marketing.

Literature Review

Theory of Social Comparison

A house may be large or small. As long as the surrounding houses are equally small, it satisfies all social demands for a dwelling. But let a palace reside beside the little house, and it shrinks from a little house to a hut (quoted in Suls and Wheeler, 2000, p.4).

Origin

Social comparison has been widely acknowledged as a central feature of human life (Buunk & Gibbons, 2007). The term *social comparison* was first used by Leon Festinger (1954), who proposed the theory of social comparison processes. The core proposition of the theory was that people have a drive to evaluate themselves in terms of two dimensions, *opinions* and *abilities* (Festinger, 1954). For the opinions dimension, the primary question an individual asks herself or himself is, “What should I think or feel?” In other words, individuals want to know whether their opinions are correct. The abilities dimension focuses on questions such as, “How am I doing?” In other words, individuals want to know what they are capable of doing (Buunk & Gibbons, 2007; Gibbons & Buunk, 1999). Such self-evaluation, according to the theory, is most accurate when measured against direct, physical standards. These motivations—a desire for self-evaluation—are non-social in character, but social comparison occurs when the evaluation or testing of opinions or abilities is not feasible in given environments (Suls & Wheeler, 2000). That is, when an objective means for comparison is not available, people compare themselves with others (Festinger, 1954).

For the last 50 years, Festinger’s (1954) original theory of social comparison processes has been further refined. The original goal identified in the theory was self-evaluation, and then it was further expanded to include self-improvement and self-enhancement. Targets or standards

of social comparison have also been examined in upward and downward directions. The theory of social comparison has been intensively applied to a variety of social, psychological, and behavioral science topics, including those of body and appearance management in the fashion literature.

Goals of Social Comparison

Since the introduction of the theory, scholars have identified further goals of social comparison beyond self-evaluation, *self-improvement* and *self-enhancement* (Buunk, Collins, Taylor, VanYperen, & Dakof, 1990; Gibbons & Buunk, 1999; Suls & Wheeler, 2000; Wood, 1989; Wood, Giordano-Beech, Taylor, Michela, & Gaus, 1994). People engage in social comparison in order to improve their abilities by learning from other people—self-improvement (Butler, 1992). Although self-improvement was not identified as an ultimate goal of social comparison process in Festinger’s original work (1954), his notion of “unidirectional drive upward” explains that people tend to compare themselves with others who are slightly better than them, to improve their own abilities. In Western culture, in which “doing better” and “achieving a higher performance score” are highly desirable, people not only assess their own abilities but also want to enhance them. This type of unidirectional drive upward, combined with an individual’s desire for comparison with others, leads people to strive to be slightly better than others. This explains why people often show competitive behaviors. For example, a study found that the most frequently mentioned goal of social comparison among high school students was to improve their grades in the future, and the students indicated that they compare themselves with others who were doing well in school in terms of academic performance (Buunk, Kuyper, & Van der Zee, 2005, cited in Buunk & Gibbons, 2007).

Individuals are also engaged in social comparison in order to restore/maintain a favorable

self-image—self-enhancement (Butler, 1992). Unlike self-improvement, self-enhancement is not a consistent or continuous motive underlying social comparison; rather, self-enhancement varies depending on situations or contexts (Gibbons & Buunk, 1999). Although self-enhancement was not a part of the original theory, social comparison researchers commonly accept that a desire to enhance self-esteem or/and self-concept leads many social comparison processes (Gibbons & Buunk, 1999; Suls & Wheeler, 2000; Wood, 1989). Researchers also suggest that the need for self-enhancement influences the amount and the direction of comparison (i.e., downward comparison versus upward comparison) (Gibbons & Buunk, 1999).

Targets and Direction of Social Comparison

Festinger (1954) proposed the *similarity hypothesis*, which posits that people prefer to compare themselves to those who are similar and close to themselves. People tend not to compare themselves with others who are very divergent. This tendency increases if others are perceived as different in relevant dimensions or contexts (Suls & Wheeler, 2000). When comparing with someone who is far different, people find it difficult to assess their opinions and abilities accurately. Festinger explained this with an example of a college student who would have troubles evaluating his intelligence by comparing his intelligence to that of someone from an institution for the feeble-minded.

According to Festinger (1954), social comparison is likely to occur within groups and through other face-to-face comparisons. The preference for others who are similar as a comparison target explains why people conform to groups and show affiliation behaviors such as friendship seeking or belonging in a group. This premise is consistent with a study by Jones and Gerard (1967), which recognized that, in many social comparison situations, one is more likely to compare oneself with individuals or groups who are “at about the same level” rather than

others far superior or inferior regarding the given attribute (cited in Moschis, 1976, p.237). Jones and Gerard termed these individuals or groups—who are more likely to be social comparison referents—“co-oriented peers” (cited in Moschis, 1976). Stepping further from Festinger’s (1954) similarity hypothesis, Schachter (1959) proposed the *emotional similarity hypothesis*, which explains that when an individual faces a novel threat, he/she experiences an evoked desire for emotional self-evaluation with others, especially with those who are going through the same threats. According to Schachter, this desire to look for those facing similar emotional threats as a comparison target is evoked because one is not certain about how to evaluate, respond to, or express the emotional threats that one is experiencing.

Scholars have also directed their attentions to furthering the understanding of upward and downward comparisons and have explained the influences of individual states and motivations on people’s choices of comparison targets. Researchers posit that people prefer to compare their own state with that of slightly better-off others (i.e., *upward comparison*) when the predominant drives are self-evaluation and self-improvement (e.g., seeking a positive example to learn) (Buunk et al., 1990; Suls & Wheeler, 2000). On the other hand, when people are motivated by self-enhancement (e.g., restoring or/and maintaining one’s self-esteem), they prefer others who are worse off as a comparison target (i.e., *downward comparison*) (Buunk et al., 1990; Wills, 1981). Thus, comparison targets and the direction of comparisons vary depending on the goals of self-evaluation.

Consequences of Social Comparison

Many researchers have found that upward comparisons produce negative emotions or affective outcomes such as jealousy (Salovey & Rodin, 1984), frustration (Martin, 1986), and lowered self-esteem (Marsh & Parker, 1984) by reminding one that one is inferior to others

(Buunk et al., 1990). On the other hand, downward comparisons produce positive affective consequences such as enhanced subjective well-being (Wood, Taylor, & Lichtman, 1985), reduced anxiety (Amoroso & Walters, 1969), and boosted self-esteem (Buunk et al., 1990) by reminding oneself that one's status or situation is better than that of others.

However, subsequent studies have suggested that the affective consequences of social comparison are not always directional (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1993; Buunk et al., 1990). For instance, upward comparisons can produce positive feelings by providing a person with the information that indicates "it is possible for you to be better than you are at present," while downward comparison can results in negative feelings by reminding the person that "it is possible that you can get worse" (Buunk et al., 1990, p. 1239). In fact, studies found positive effects associated with upward comparisons. For example, a cancer patient exposed to those who had recovered from cancer felt comforted or experienced a boost in positive feelings associated with renewed positive expectations that he/she could also get better (Taylor & Lobel, 1989, cited in Buunk et al, 1990). On the other hand, Wood, Taylor, and Lichtman (1985) have found evidence of negative affective consequences that resulted from downward comparisons. The researchers found that breast cancer patients experienced negative feelings and arousals, and the patients' condition even worsened following the exposure to those who had the same disease. In their study, those patients stated that they felt most threatened when they were in doctor's waiting room, because the exposure to other patients in the same room forced them to realize that things could be worse.

Social Comparison in Appearance Evaluation and Management

The theory of social comparison has provided a basis for studies that examined social-psychological factors (e.g., body image and self-esteem) and behavioral tendency related to body

and appearance (e.g., appearance management) (Guimond, Branscombe, Brunot, Buunk, Chatard, & Desert, 2007; Kim & Lennon, 2007; Krcmar, Giles, & Helme, 2008; Lennon, Rudd, Sloan, & Kim, 1999; Morrison, Kalin, & Morrison, 2004; Rudd & Lennon, 2000, 2001; Thompson & Haytko, 1997). Rudd and Lennon (2000) were able to explain young college women's body image and appearance management based on the theory of social comparison. Young female college students in their study indicated that their appearance management behaviors were the result of comparing themselves with others or media images. According to the study, female college students compared various aspects of their body and appearance such as breast size, skin color, attractiveness, toes, body weight, and size of hips with those of others. Morrison et al. (2004) used the social comparison theory to explain Canadian male and female adolescents' evaluation of and investment in their body image. The researchers found that, for male adolescents, engagement in social comparison was positively associated with their practice in diets to gain weight, use of pathogenic weight control, and use of steroids for increasing muscle mass. The researchers also reported that, for female adolescents, social comparison predicted their body-dissatisfaction level, their use of diets to lose weight, and use of pathogenic weight control practices. Appearance self-esteem in both males and females was negatively associated with their levels of social comparison engagement.

The theory of social comparison expects psychological and behavioral modifications to occur as a result of social comparison. Based on this, studies have explained how exposure to ideal images depicted in mass media influence the social-psychological status of individuals such as body and appearance satisfaction and self-esteem (Hogg, Bruce, & Hough, 1999; Jung, 2006; Lew, Mann, Myers, Taylor, & Bower, 2007; Martin & Kennedy, 1993; Richins, 1991; Thomsen, McCoy, & Williams, 2001; Trampe, Stapel, & Siero, 2007). Martin and Kennedy (1993) studied

the self-evaluation of physical attractiveness by female preadolescents and adolescents and found that the subjects had a tendency to compare themselves with models in advertisements. This tendency increased with age and was higher for those who had poorer self-perceptions about their physical attractiveness and lower self-esteem than the counterparts. Hogg, Bruce, and Hough (1999) examined how British women aged 24-50 compared themselves with ideal images in fashion advertising and how those women interpreted and incorporated the idealized images into their social comparison processes. The researchers found that social comparison processes occurred among older British women, which were equivalent processes found among U.S. female college students in Richins's (1991) study. Richins's findings indicated that idealized images always raised comparison standards of attractiveness and thus lowered one's attractiveness satisfaction. On the other hand, Hogg et al.'s (1999) results indicated that women adopted a variety of strategies when viewing ideal images in fashion advertising and the choice of these strategies depended on the women's goal of social comparison. The researchers found that when the goal was self-evaluation, the exposed subjects' raised comparison standards lowered the subjects' attractiveness satisfaction, and thus invoked negative feelings. In contrast, when the goal was self-enhancement or self-improvement, the subjects tended to discount the ideal images by considering them as dissimilar others, and thus negative feelings were not invoked, because the ideal images were regarded as inferior others (e.g., too thin and thus looking sad).

Krcmar, Giles, and Helme (2008) also recognized social comparison as a mediator of body satisfaction following exposure to thin models depicted in advertising or fashion magazines. These researchers noted that, because the standards determining thinness or attractiveness are highly subjective, individuals are very susceptible to norms created by others. The researchers

empirically found that when their significant others (i.e., peers and parents) placed more importance on thinness and made more comments about body appearance, female college students had a lower level of self-esteem than those whose significant others placed less importance on thinness and made fewer comments about the students' bodies. The researchers also found that exposure to thinness-depicting media (i.e., fashion, celebrity, and fitness magazines) negatively affected the subjects' esteem regarding their appearance. The strength of interpersonal norms perception and the level of social comparison were the mediators in the relationship.

Social Comparison as an Antecedent of Social Shopping for Fashion

While a substantial number of studies have explained social-psychological and behavioral aspects of dress and appearance based on social comparison theory (Hogg et al., 1999; Jung, 2006; Lew et al., 2007; Martin & Kennedy, 1993; Richins, 1991; Thomsen et al., 2001; Trampe et al., 2007), shopping behaviors have not been explained from the social comparison perspective. However, the evidence of social comparison in the domain of appearance perceptions and its close relationship with shopping behaviors strongly suggest that social comparison may be a driver of fashion shopping behaviors (Reilly, Rudd, & Hillery, 2008).

Social Shopping for Fashion

Social shopping for fashion is defined as consumer behavior that occurs when exchanging and interacting with others in the shopping process for fashion products (i.e., clothing, shoes, handbags, and related accessories). Study 1 illustrates that social shopping includes a wide range of verbal and nonverbal interactions with others during the entire process of shopping encompassing pre-purchasing, purchasing, and post-purchasing. Based on Study 1, social shopping for fashion consists of five dimensions: social browsing, relationship building,

opinion showing, power shopping, and new socio-networking. *Social browsing* captures behaviors are related to exploring fashion trends/products that are popular among others and following fashion trends by talking with or searching for cues from others. *Relationship building* refers to behaviors associated with going shopping and “hanging out” in shopping places with close friends or family. *Opinion showing* involves behaviors of showing fashion knowledge or fashion shopping information to others verbally or nonverbally. *Power shopping* captures an attention-drawing tendency during shopping and perceiving a sense of power/authority over others. *New socio-networking* reflects consumer behaviors associated with verbal or nonverbal interactions with other shoppers through conversation and developing new friendships with new people through these processes.

Social Comparison in the Context of Shopping for Fashion

The social comparison process is apt to occur in fashion consumption based on the premise that social comparison is more likely to occur in the contexts where there is a lack of objective standards (Festinger, 1954). Given the situation in which fashion changes rapidly and today’s advanced retailing systems and information technology provide a great deal of product options and shopping outlets, absolute standards of what to wear, what to buy, and best options for consumers may not in fact exist. Particularly in daily consumption of fashion, individuals often face ambivalence that rises between conformity and individuality (Kaiser, 1997). Individuals want to feel a sense of belonging with others within society (conformity), yet want to differentiate themselves from others (individuality) through dress and appearance (Davis, 1985). Because of the human desire to solve these types of ambivalence, individuals constantly interact and negotiate, not only with themselves but also with others (Kaiser, 1997).

Despite little empirical evidence of the direct relationship between shopping behaviors and social comparison, such relationship can be inferred from the substantial number of previous studies. Jones and Gerard (1967) introduced “co-oriented peers,” whose existence predicted that consumers often shop with similar and close reference groups, including peers, and ask them for opinions about fashion products. Moschis (1976) also identified a consumer group, termed *psychosocializing shoppers*, who tended to emulate intimate others (e.g., friends and neighbors) in terms of consumption behaviors. When these shoppers purchased a new brand, they preferred friends’ opinions and placed more importance on what other people bought than on advertisements or salespersons. Similarly, while shopping with close friends or reference groups, consumers were found to pay attention to what their friends or reference groups try on, select, and purchase (Luo, 2005; Tauber, 1972). These close and similar referents provide consumers with subjective and normative standards for their selections or purchases, and feedbacks from this group reinforce consumers’ selections as the right ones (Mangleburg et al., 2004). These studies suggest that consumers may prefer similar others as social comparison targets for social comparison during shopping and that this type of social shopping with close referents may be driven by a need for self-evaluation.

Downward comparisons occur in shopping contexts. Hogg et al. (1999) found that women tended to look for a big-sized model on purpose or to regard a thin model as inferior compared to themselves when they were exposed to fashion models in magazines as a way to enhance their own self-esteem. This suggests that the desire for self-esteem enhancement can drive certain consumer behaviors in shopping environments such as finding other shoppers who look unattractive or out of style. Consumers can enjoy wearing or buying more stylish or expensive fashion products compared to what those worse off wear or try on. Other studies

suggest that consumers seek superiority by behaving as opinion leaders. For instance, consumers who actively provided information about shopping or products to others felt superior to others (Bertrandias & Goldsmith, 2006). These studies suggest that social shopping behavior can be driven by downward comparison, which can satisfy the desire to enhance one's self-esteem.

Upward comparisons can also occur in shopping for fashion. Studies of appearance management behaviors (Hogg et al., 1999; Jung, 2006; Lew et al., 2007; Martin & Kennedy, 1993; Richins, 1991; Thomsen et al., 2001; Trampe et al., 2007) suggest that women may compare their own selections and purchases with those of celebrities or individuals with higher status. Women often compare themselves to fashion models in terms of their body and attractiveness and form body images through the processes (Evans & McConnell, 2003; Hogg et al., 1999). Likewise, today's consumers acquire comparison information about fashion and styles from fashion-forward ones. Consumers visit social shopping sites to acquire advice from others or look for others who wear stylish outfits (Holahan, 2007). A consumer who goes to a mall seeks to learn what styles are popular among others and request information from store personnel who know more about fashion than he/she does (Moschis, 1976; Reynolds & Beatty, 1999). In fact, mass consumers follow or imitate superior others who adopt new fashion earlier and try out innovative fashion (i.e., fashion leaders) (Sproles, 1979). These studies suggest that upward comparisons through shopping activities could ultimately satisfy a consumer's need for self-improvement and self-enhancement.

Social Comparison Orientation as an Antecedent of Social Shopping for Fashion

Although the human desire to learn about the self by comparison to others appears to be universal, there are individual differences in the tendency toward social comparison. The concept termed *social comparison orientation* refers to the degree to which a person places importance

on and how much he/she engages in social comparison processes in daily life (Gibbons & Buunk, 1999). Certain types of individuals are more likely to engage in social comparison than others (Gilbert, Price, & Allan, 1995; Hemphill & Lehman, 1991; Taylor, Buunk, Collins, & Reed, 1992) and have a high need for fashion information exchange and social interaction (Bertrandias & Goldsmith, 2006; Goldsmith & Clark, 2008; Polegato & Wall, 1980). Polegato and Wall (1980) found that consumers who were more engaged in giving fashion information to others tended to participate in more social activities and be more sociable than those who were less engaged. Furthermore, those who tended to provide fashion information actively to others (i.e., fashion opinion leaders) were also highly attentive to social comparison information and others' reactions to their opinion-giving behaviors (Bertrandias & Goldsmith, 2006; Goldsmith & Clark, 2008).

The discussion of the previous literature suggests that social comparison occurs in the fashion shopping context. Along with the theory of social comparison, the past research findings imply that social shopping activities may be driven by the tendency of consumers to compare themselves to societal standards in order to evaluate the self. Such social comparison orientation is realized in the consumer behavior context such as fashion style selections and purchases. Thus, this study hypothesizes that one's social comparison orientation predicts his/her social shopping behaviors in fashion. In other words, this orientation is expected to be a motivational antecedent of social shopping for fashion.

- **Hypothesis 1.** Social comparison orientation influences social shopping for fashion.

Consumer Satisfaction as a Consequence of Social Shopping for Fashion

Consumer Satisfaction

Consumer satisfaction is defined as a summary of cognitive and affective responses to a

product, service, and/or consumption experience (Giese & Cote, 2002). Consumer satisfaction is one of the key contributors of competitive retailing (Ladhari, 2007), and thus, consumer satisfaction has long been an ultimate goal of retail corporations (Otieno et al., 2005; Taylor & Baker, 1994). Consumer satisfaction is primarily determined by consumer shopping experiences (Terblanche & Boshoff, 2006). Satisfied consumers tend to show a higher level of purchase intention and brand loyalty and positively influence other consumers (Otieno et al., 2005). On the other hand, unsatisfied consumers are more likely to generate negative word-of-mouth and even take legal action (Engel et al., 1990, cited in Otieno et al., 2005).

Traditionally, consumer satisfaction has been viewed as a cognitive evaluation of a product or service after it is purchased (Solomon & Rabolt, 2006). In this cognitive perspective, consumer satisfaction is determined by consumers' pre-purchase expectations and confirmation process (Oliver, 1980). The expectancy disconfirmation model posits that consumers' expectations about the performance of a product is formed by their prior experience with the product and/or communications that imply a certain level of product quality (Swan & Trawick, 1981, cited by Solomon & Rabolt, 2006). According to the model, when the product performs the way a consumer thought it would, regardless whether the actual performance is good or bad, he/she does not think much about it (confirmation). When the product fails to meet consumers' expectations (disconfirmation), it produces negative results such as dissatisfaction (negative disconfirmation). On the other hand, when the product exceeds the expectations, it can satisfy consumers (positive disconfirmation) (Swan & Trawick, 1981, cited by Solomon & Rabolt, 2006).

Recently, affective aspects of satisfaction, such as the emotions/feelings evoked by the consumption process, have also been recognized as a significant indicator of shopping

experience satisfaction (Chang et al., 2004; Ladhari, 2007; Mano & Oliver, 1993). In fact, a study found that 65% of consumers' positive feelings in a consumption process could be attributed to intangible experiences during shopping (Cassill, 1998). Feelings aroused by the physical environment of a store (e.g., salespeople, lighting, music, cleanliness) were found to significantly influence Korean consumers' satisfaction regarding clothing shopping experiences at the store (Chang et al., 2004). Ladhari (2007) investigated the effect of emotions on moviegoers' satisfaction after seeing a movie. Ladhari found that the more a consumer felt pleasure and arousal while seeing a movie, the more he/she was satisfied with the purchase after the movie. The affective component is also evident in the post-consumption process. In addition to product evaluation and consumer satisfaction, Mano and Oliver (1993) included "affect" in the post-consumption experience in the consumer satisfaction model. They found that two major dimensions of affect—arousal and pleasantness—were the consequences of product evaluation (cognitive aspects), which casually influenced consumer satisfaction. Their results of the model test indicated that negative affect (e.g., distressed) was negatively associated with consumer satisfaction, whereas positive affect (e.g., happy) was positively associated.

In short, the previous studies suggest that both cognitive (e.g., evaluation of the level of performance of product/service or quality of activities) and affective aspects (e.g., enjoyment during a shopping experience or feelings aroused by shopping trips) are interactive and contribute to one's satisfaction of shopping (Mano & Oliver, 1993).

Consequences of Social Behaviors in Shopping for Fashion

Social activities in shopping or socially-oriented shopper behaviors have been found to be associated with behavioral outcomes of shopping such as increased time spent per shopping trip, increased frequency of unplanned purchases, increased possibility of continuing shopping after a

purchase, increased spending, increased partiality for the store, and patronage behavior (Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Paridon, 2004; Reynolds & Beatty, 1999). Paridon (2004) examined opinion-sharing experiences and suggested that consumers who were satisfied with sharing opinions with their friends during shopping showed a high level of patronage behavior. Similarly, consumers who had a higher level of social needs and highly engaged in social shopping behaviors were found to be the segment that exhibited high purchasing records and store loyalty compared with other shoppers who had fewer social motives and were less engaged in social behavior in shopping (Reynolds & Beatty, 1999). Bellenger and Korgaonkar (1980) found that consumers who tended to go shopping with others and enjoyed the social interactions spent more shopping time per trip on average, spent more time in shopping places even after making a purchase, were more prone to purchase products they liked regardless of needs, and spent less time deliberating before making a purchase than those who went shopping alone and enjoyed social interactions less.

Positive experiences from social shopping for fashion are likely to influence consumer shopping satisfaction in two ways. First, social shopping may generate cognitive satisfaction by providing consumers with aids and assistance in their decision-making processes and reducing the risk/uncertainty of the consumers' purchase decisions. The consumer decision-making literature emphasizes the importance of information seeking as a part of the cognitive decision-making process in brick-and-mortar shopping centers (Wesley et al., 2006) and online (Cowart & Goldsmith, 2007; Häubl & Trifts, 2000). Social shopping can make such information seeking and processing more efficient and satisfactory, which in turn can lead to satisfaction with purchases and shopping experiences. Consumers rely on peers and family members as primary informants for acquiring opinions and advice about purchases (Chan & Misra, 1990; Paridon,

2004; Vernet, 2004). Shopping with a friend or pal reduces a shopper's perception of risk and uncertainty associated with a purchase decision, and increases the shopper's confidence that the purchase decision was wise (Mangleburg et al., 2004).

Second, social shopping may provide positive feelings and enjoyment by meeting shoppers' social needs in shopping and lead to affective satisfaction. Shopping essentially connects an individual with close reference groups (e.g., family and friends) as well as with strangers in the shopping environment (e.g., store personnel, other shoppers) (Tauber, 1972). Such interactions and communications with close referents allow consumers to feel a sense of belonging and enhance their enjoyment while purchasing and using the product, while satisfying the need for socialization and affiliation (Bloch et al., 1994; Parsons, 2002; Tauber, 1972; Westbrook & Black, 1985). Arnold and Reynolds (2003) found that socializing and bonding with family and/or friends during shopping leads to shopping enjoyment. Beyond close reference groups, interaction with store personnel or other shoppers was also found to provide shoppers with affective satisfaction (Chang et al., 2004; Parsons, 2002; Tauber, 1972). For instance, researchers found that when a consumer interacts with salespersons who behave in a good manner during a clothing shopping trip, he/she is strongly likely to have positive emotions about or impressions of a store's physical environment (Chang et al., 2004). Shoppers have also been reported to feel enjoyment during bargaining with sellers and may acquire the boosted feelings from the negotiation process (Tauber, 1972; Parsons, 2002). In addition, bargaining with other shoppers has also been found to generate such positive affects as excitement and sensory satisfaction (Babin et al., 1994). Based on the discussion, social shopping for fashion is hypothesized to influence cognitive and affective satisfactions.

- **Hypothesis 2.** Social shopping for fashion influences shopping satisfaction.

Based on the literature review and hypotheses, a conceptual model of the social shopping process is developed. Figure 2 graphically illustrates the model.



Figure 2. Conceptual model of social shopping process

Method

The purpose of this study was to develop and test a structural model of social shopping for fashion, depicting social comparison orientation as the motivational antecedent and shopping satisfaction as the consequence. A survey method was employed to collect data. Survey methodology allows the examination of a large number of individuals in a variety of behavioral patterns (Bloch et al., 1994). Survey research is also useful for exploring the relationship among a wide range of variables in a comprehensive way (Sproles, 1981). Thus, this method was deemed appropriate for the present study.

Sampling and Data Collection

The IRB procedure preceded the empirical examinations with human subjects; and the exemption from institutional oversight was approved (IRB #4245). The sample for this study was 18- to 29-year-old undergraduate students. Young undergraduate students can provide a homogeneous sample with high internal validity, which was suggested by previous studies aimed at theory-based application and model testing (Cordell, Wongtada, & Kieschnick, 1996; Kwon & Rudd, 2007). Therefore, undergraduate students in their 20s were selected as the sample for this

study. Given the sample boundary, a random sampling method was used to enhance external validity.

Data were collected at the same time when the data used for the scale verification process in Study 1 were collected. An email list of randomly selected undergraduate students, evenly divided between males and females, was obtained from a large southeastern university. The sample was 25% of the total undergraduates enrolled in spring 2009 and consists of a total of 5,280 students (2,640 males and 2,640 females). A total of 914 responses were obtained (response rate of 17.3%) from an online survey.

Data screening eliminated those early drop-out responses ($n = 47$) and responses by subjects aged 30 years old or older ($n = 9$). The final responses, consisting of 858 (94% of total receipts), were used for analyses.

Instruments

The questionnaire started with a cover page that explained the research purpose, researcher's contact information, and consent exemption notes. Questions related to social shopping, shopping satisfaction, and social comparison orientations, and demographic information such as age, gender, race, and academic rank were followed. Respondents were first asked to think about their common behaviors when shopping for fashion products during last six months. Respondents were reminded that fashion products included clothing, bags, shoes, and related accessories. Except those demographic questions, respondents were asked to indicate their agreement with each statement on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The following discusses the scales used in the questionnaire. Appendix E shows the format of the online questionnaire.

Social Comparison Orientation: Ability Comparison and Opinion Comparison

Social comparison orientation refers to susceptibility to make social comparison across life domains (Festinger, 1954). Social comparison orientation in this study was operationalized as the extent to which an individual engages in comparing his/her abilities and opinions with others' in daily life. Gibbons and Buunk's (1999) Iowa-Netherlands Comparison Orientation Measure (INCOM), which is composed of items that measure two distinguishable, but related, social comparison dimensions (i.e., ability comparison and opinion comparison appraisal), was adapted. Ability comparison was defined as the extent of engagement in comparison with others to evaluate how well one is doing, while opinion comparison is the extent of engagement in comparison with others in order to evaluate whether his/her opinions or thoughts are correct.

Gibbons and Buunk (1999) established high reliability of the INCOM by showing consistent Cronbach's alphas across samples including students, adults, and patients in USA and Netherland (α ranged from .78 to .85 in 10 American samples and from .78 to .84 in 12 Dutch samples). The INCOM has been widely used in both experimental and survey studies, and the studies have demonstrated the INCOM's validity and ability to effectively predict social comparison behaviors (Carey, Henson, Carey, & Maisto, 2007; Corning, Krumm, & Smitham, 2006; Schwartz et al., 2002; Stapel & Tesser, 2001; Thau, Aquino, & Wittek, 2007).

Items of the INCOM were partially paraphrased to clarify their meanings and enhance the face validity of the scale. For example, "I often compare myself with others with respect to what I have accomplished in life" was rephrased as "I often compare my accomplishments with others' accomplishments"; "I always like to know what others in a similar situation would do" was rephrased as "I always like to know what others would do in a similar situation." Ability comparison was measured with six items [e.g., "I often compare how I am doing socially (e.g.,

social skills, popularity) with other people”]. Opinion comparison was measured with five items (e.g., “I often try to find out what others think who face similar problems as I face”).

Social Shopping for Fashion

Social shopping for fashion refers to interpersonal activities and interactions that take place during the fashion shopping process. The scale of social shopping for fashion was adopted from Study 1. The scale consists of sixteen items and was developed to measure five dimensions of social shopping: social browsing, relationship building, opinion showing, power shopping, and new socio-networking. Study 1 established validities and reliabilities of the scale and its dimensions.

Shopping Satisfaction: Cognitive and Affective Shopping Satisfaction

Shopping satisfaction in this study is defined as cognitive and affective evaluations and reactions to shopping experiences (c.f., Giese & Cote, 2002). Cognitive shopping satisfaction in this study was defined as evaluative confirmation of shopping experience in terms of function/performance of products purchased (c.f. Oliver, 1980). Affective shopping satisfaction in this study was defined as enjoyment and feelings aroused by fashion shopping experiences (c.f., Cassill, 1998; Oliver, 1980). Cognitive shopping satisfaction and affective shopping satisfaction each was measured by four items modified from previous studies (Babin et al., 1994; Cassill, 1998; Chang et al., 2004; Ladhari, 2007; Mano & Oliver, 1993; Novak, Hoffman, & Yiu-Fai, 2000; Oliver, 1980; Solomon & Rabolt, 2006).

Analysis

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed for main data analysis and hypotheses testing using AMOS 8.0. SEM was selected because it is appropriate for assessing the causal positioning of variables simultaneously and allows measurement errors, along with a

clear evaluation of each variable's impact strength on another (Scarpi, 2006). The SEM test utilized followed the two-step procedure widely recommended by SEM scholars: the measurement model and the structural model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Kline, 2005). For the measurement model test, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to examine how well the multiple indicators of a latent variable capture the construct of interest (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 2000). Through the measurement model test, errors of the measurements were identified and corrected by sensitivity analyses, and thus construct validity (i.e., convergent and discriminant validity) was ensured. A structural model test followed to investigate the linear structural relations between the latent variables and thus test the hypotheses (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 2000).

Results

Sample Description

The sample size for the analysis was 858. The average age of the respondents was 20 (SD = 1.84). The sample was composed of more females ($n = 520$, 60.6%) than males ($n = 306$, 35.7%). There were 32 responses without revealing their gender. Respondents were equally distributed across academic ranks: freshmen ($n = 203$, 23.7%), sophomores ($n = 185$, 21.6%), juniors ($n = 197$, 23%), and seniors ($n = 241$, 28.1%). In terms of race, the largest portion of respondents were White ($n = 681$, 79.4%), followed by African American ($n = 52$, 6.1%), Hispanic ($n = 30$, 3.5%), and Asian ($n = 38$, 4.4%).

Measurement Model

To test the measurement model, a series of confirmatory factor analyses with maximum likelihood were conducted on the thirty-five indicators of the nine latent variables. If one factor model is tested individually for each latent variable, each model fit can be improved significantly,

but the discriminate validity, which is the prerequisite for proceeding structural model testing, cannot be assessed (c.f., Kline, 2005). Therefore, all nine latent variables were included for rigorous measurement model testing. One of the path parameters between measurement indicators and the corresponding latent variable was fixed at “1” in order to standardize the latent variables, and all latent variables were allowed to be correlated (c.f. Kline, 2005). The initial measurement model specification is illustrated in Figure 3.

An overall model fit was assessed by multiple indices such as Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Normal Fit Index (NFI), Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). GFI, AGFI, CFI, and NFI values of .90 or higher and SRMR and RMSEA of .08 or lower indicate a good model fit (Kline, 2005). The initial model fit was below the acceptable thresholds ($\chi^2_{(df=524)} = 1870.67, p = .00$; GFI = .89 AGFI = .86; CFI = .92; NFI = .89; SRMR = .05; RMSEA = .06). To achieve a better model fit with optimum chi-square values, six indicators exhibiting low factor loadings were eliminated (c.f. Kwon & Shim, 1999). The items were three items from ability comparison, two items from opinion comparison, and one item from cognitive shopping satisfaction.

The fit of the second model with the remaining twenty-nine indicators of nine factors was then estimated. The model fit was substantially improved: $\chi^2_{(df=341)} = 1314.17, p = .00$; GFI = .90 AGFI = .88; CFI = .94; NFI = .92; SRMR = .04; RMSEA = .06. Through an inspection of the modification indices (MIs), two items associated with multiple high MIs were eliminated to improve the model fit after examination of domain representativeness (c.f., Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). One item (“In general, I am pleased with my fashion shopping experiences”) was from the affective shopping satisfaction factor. The expression “pleased” was judged to tap

item redundancy (c.f., Cortina, 1993) because it tends to share overlapping meanings with other terms such as “fun” or “feeling good” used in other items within the same factor. Another item (“I am often complimented or noticed by friends when I wear fashionable products that I have bought”) was removed from the opinion showing factor because this item was judged to involve less congruency with other items in the same factor.

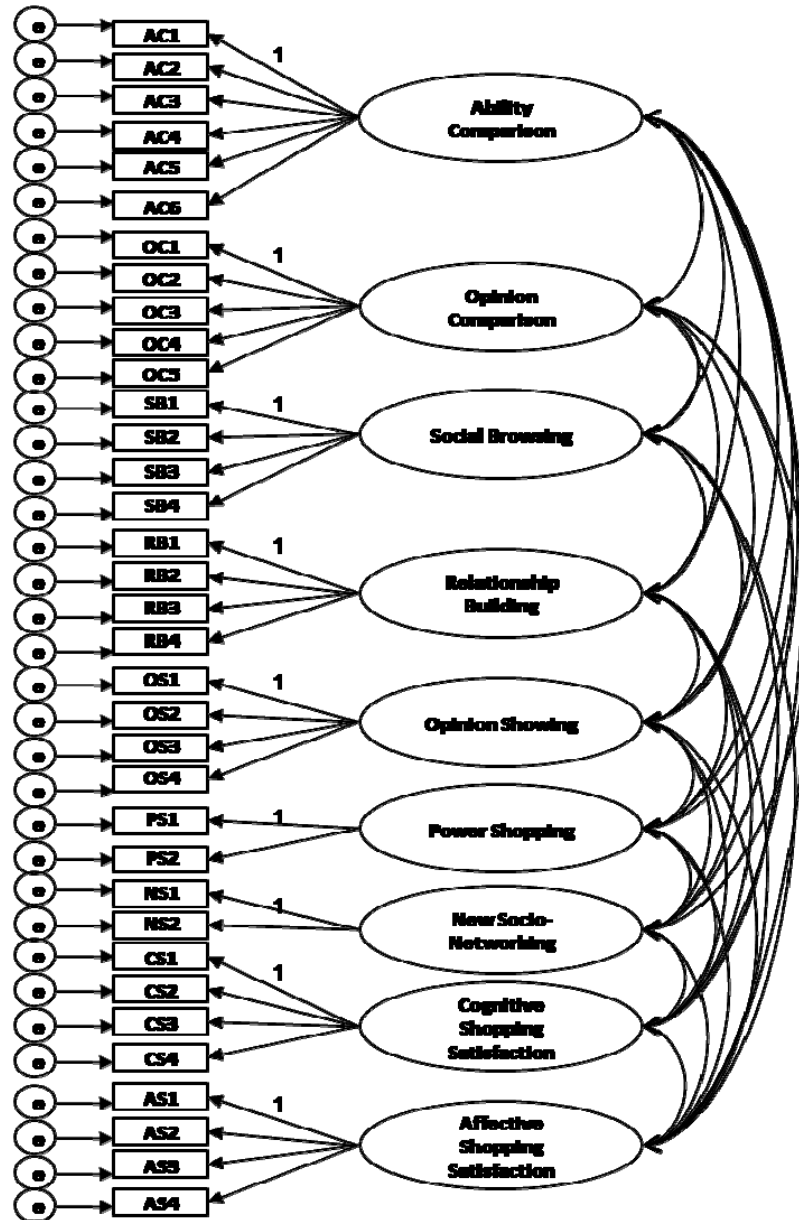


Figure 3. Initial measurement model specification

A final measurement model was then tested on the remaining twenty-seven items of the nine latent variables. The model exhibited an excellent fit: $\chi^2_{(df=288)} = 776.95, p = .00$; GFI = .94; AGFI = .92; CFI = .96; NFI = .94; SRMR = .04; RMSEA = .04. Table 5 provides descriptive properties of the retained items in the final measurement model, and Table 6 shows the results of the final measurement model fit estimation.

The reliability and validity of the measurements in the final model were assessed. First, the testing produced a satisfactory level of reliability of all the measurements because the coefficient alpha estimates ranged from .70 to .94 and the composite reliability estimates ranged from .74 to .92 (c.f. Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Secondly, convergent validity was assessed. All standardized confirmatory factor loadings exceeded .53, and were significant (i.e., *t*-values ranging from a low of 12.62 to a high of 38.47) (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Arnold & Reynolds, 2003). The composite reliability estimates, ranging from .74 to .92, also exceeded the recommended .70 threshold (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Additionally, the average variance-extracted estimates of all factors except one factor, ability comparison (.48), exceeded the recommended .50 threshold (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). However, the large sample size ($n = 858$) in this study can compensate one slightly below the threshold average variance-extracted estimates (c.f., Kline, 2005). Therefore, the convergent validity of these measures of all factors were established, which suggests that each factor in the model was well represented by its own indicators.

Lastly, discriminant validity of the measurement model was assessed by comparing squared phi correlation estimates with average variance-extracted estimates (c.f., Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The inter-factor correlations between the nine factors, estimated by the phi coefficients, ranged from -.07 to .65, and squared phi correlations between the factors ranged

Table 5

Descriptive Properties of Items in the Final Measurement Model

Latent variable	Coding	Item	M^a	SD	α
Ability comparison					
	AC1	If I want to find out how well I have done something, I compare what I have done with how well others have done.	3.71	.94	.72
	AC2	I often compare how I am doing socially (e.g., social skills, popularity) with how other people are doing socially.	3.26	1.06	
	AC3	I often compare my accomplishments with others' accomplishments.	3.46	1.01	
Opinion comparison					
	OC1	I often try to find out the thoughts/opinions of others who face problems similar to those that I face.	4.02	.78	.72
	OC2	I always like to know what others would do in a similar situation.	3.90	.87	
	OC3	If I want to learn more about something, I try to find out what others think about it.	3.71	.90	
Social browsing					
	SB1	I often buy fashion products similar to those others are wearing.	2.90	1.03	.88
	SB2	I often look for new fashion products and/or brands that are popular among my friends.	2.82	1.06	
	SB3	I often buy fashion products that I see my friends wearing.	2.71	1.02	
	SB4	I usually purchase fashion products that many others have also bought.	2.63	1.02	
Relationship building					
	RB1	I often go shopping for fashion with friends and/or family.	3.24	1.23	.94
	RB2	I often spend a lot of time with friends and/or family when shopping for fashion.	2.92	1.24	
	RB3	I often hang out with friends and/or family when shopping for fashion.	3.06	1.24	
	RB4	Friends and/or family often accompany me, even when I make a fashion purchase for myself.	3.08	1.21	

Table 5**Continued**

Latent variable	Coding	Item	<i>M^a</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>α</i>
Opinion showing					
	OS1	I often participate in conversations about fashion and shopping.	2.67	1.18	
	OS2	I often give others my personal opinions about fashion products.	3.06	1.22	
	OS3	I often recommend fashion shopping places/brands/products to friends and/or family.	3.07	1.21	.87
Power shopping					
	PS1	When I enter a store, I often receive attention from store personnel.	3.23	.99	
	PS2	I often notice that store personnel make an effort to sell fashion products to me.	3.12	1.00	.74
New socio-networking					
	NS1	I often make new friends through fashion shopping and/or fashion talk.	1.98	.93	
	NS2	I often meet new people when shopping for fashion.	2.11	1.02	.90
Cognitive shopping satisfaction					
	CS1	In general, fashion products that I purchase suit my personal style.	4.22	.70	
	CS2	In general, fashion products that I purchase are stylish and/or fashionable.	3.78	.82	
	CS3	In general, fashion products that I purchase improve my image.	3.66	.82	.70
Affective shopping satisfaction					
	AS1	In general, I feel good after a fashion shopping experience.	3.76	.94	
	AS2	In general, I have fun when shopping for fashion.	3.59	1.10	
	AS3	In general, I have a good time while shopping for fashion.	3.63	1.06	.91

Note. ^a Item scores ranged 1-5.

Table 6**Results of Final Measurement Model**

Latent variable	Indicator	CFA item loading ^a	t-value	Composite reliability ^b	Variance extracted estimate ^c
Ability comparison	AC1	.70	-	.74	.48
	AC2	.64	13.88**		
	AC3	.70	14.24**		
Opinion comparison	OC1	.65	-	.79	.56
	OC2	.81	14.30**		
	OC3	.60	13.72**		
Social browsing	SB1	.77	-	.86	.67
	SB2	.86	25.01**		
	SB3	.86	25.14**		
	SB4	.73	21.84**		
Relationship building	RB1	.85	-	.91	.72
	RB2	.93	37.87**		
	RB3	.93	38.47**		
	RB4	.85	32.07**		
Opinion showing	OS1	.82	-	.82	.60
	OS2	.82	26.50**		
	OS3	.84	27.56**		
Power shopping	PS1	.75	-	.74	.58
	PS2	.78	13.87**		
New socio-networking	NS1	.94	-	.91	.83
	NS2	.88	26.53**		
Cognitive shopping satisfaction	CS1	.53	-	.80	.58
	CS2	.81	13.70**		
	CS3	.63	12.62**		
Affective shopping satisfaction	AS1	.73	-	.92	.80
	AS2	.95	28.87**		
	AS3	.97	29.17**		

Note. $\chi^2 (df=288) = 776.95, p = .00$; GFI = .94; AGFI = .92; CFI = .96; NFI = .94; standardized RMR = .04; RMSEA = .04. ^a standardized estimate. ^b $(\sum \text{std. Loadings})^2 / (\sum \text{std. Loadings})^2 + \sum \text{measurement error}$. ^c $\sum \text{std. Loadings}^2 / \sum \text{std. Loadings}^2 + \sum \text{measurement error}$. ** $p < .001$.

from zero to .42. All the average variance-extracted estimates of the factors, ranging from .48 to .83, exceeded the squared phi correlations between the factors. Therefore, discriminant validity between the nine factors was evident, which suggests that all nine factors were distinctive constructs from each other. A matrix of the variance-extracted estimates and phi correlation estimates for discriminant validity assessment is shown in Table 7.

Structural Model

Following the testing of the measurement model, the fit of the structural model was estimated to test the hypothesized relationships between the latent variables (i.e., factors) of interest. The correlation matrix of the measurements used for the model test is reported in Table 8.

Model specification

The model specification is illustrated in Figure 4. The model consisted of nine latent variables with twenty-seven indicators. Based on the conceptual model (Figure 2), two social comparison variables, ability comparison and opinion comparison, were specified as exogenous latent variables (i.e., independent variables), and five social shopping (social browsing, relationship building, opinion showing, power shopping, new socio-networking) and two satisfaction variables (cognitive shopping satisfaction, affective shopping satisfaction) served as endogenous latent variables (i.e., dependent variables).

Lambda (λ) (i.e., the path between the indicator and the latent variable) parameters were specified following the results of the measurement model test. Gamma (γ) (i.e., the path between the exogenous latent variable and the endogenous latent variable) and beta (β) (i.e., the path between endogenous latent variables) paths were specified following the hypotheses (c.f., Kline, 2005; Park, 2001). Other notations in the model specification included ξ for exogenous latent

Table 7**Discriminant Validity Assessment Matrix of the Measurement Model**

	Ability comparison	Opinion comparison	Social browsing	Relationship building	Opinion showing	Power shopping	New socio- networking	Cognitive shopping satisfaction	Affective shopping satisfaction
Ability comparison	<i>.48</i>								
Opinion comparison	.39	<i>.56</i>							
Social browsing	.36	.18	<i>.67</i>						
Relationship building	.10	.23	.41	<i>.72</i>					
Opinion showing	.10	.12	.42	.48	<i>.60</i>				
Power shopping	.06	.13	.27	.30	.47	<i>.58</i>			
New socio- networking	-.07	-.04	.25	.32	.54	.48	<i>.83</i>		
Cognitive shopping satisfaction	.15	.12	.37	.33	.57	.42	.19	<i>.58</i>	
Affective shopping satisfaction	.06	.16	.29	.42	.67	.34	.31	.65	<i>.80</i>

Note. Italicized: Variance extracted estimates. Other estimates are inter-factor correlations estimated by phi coefficient r .

Table 8

Correlation Matrix of the Measurements

	AC1	AC2	AC3	OC1	OC2	OC3	SB1	SB2	SB3	SB4	RB1	RB2	RB3	RB4	OS1	OS2	OS3	PS1	PS2	NS1	NS2	CS1	CS2	CS3	AS1	AS2	AS3
AC1	-																										
AC2	.44	-																									
AC3	.49	.45	-																								
OC1	.14	.14	.11	-																							
OC2	.25	.20	.19	.54	-																						
OC3	.24	.23	.21	.38	.48	-																					
SB1	.20	.26	.25	.01	.14	.13	-																				
SB2	.14	.22	.20	.05	.14	.16	.64	-																			
SB3	.17	.20	.23	.00	.12	.15	.67	.75	-																		
SB4	.16	.20	.24	.02	.13	.09	.60	.60	.63	-																	
RB1	.03	.04	.06	.14	.15	.17	.31	.31	.28	.35	-																
RB2	.02	.07	.09	.13	.15	.18	.32	.35	.34	.29	.78	-															
RB3	.04	.07	.11	.11	.15	.17	.30	.33	.31	.26	.78	.87	-														
RB4	.03	.07	.09	.17	.16	.17	.25	.26	.25	.22	.76	.77	.79	-													
OS1	.03	.13	.09	.03	.10	.13	.36	.37	.27	.22	.37	.41	.43	.31	-												
OS2	.00	.09	.05	.06	.09	.09	.26	.27	.20	.15	.32	.35	.36	.31	.70	-											
OS3	.00	.10	.06	.02	.06	.07	.32	.39	.29	.23	.34	.35	.37	.28	.67	.69	-										
PS1	.01	.03	.04	.11	.07	.06	.19	.19	.15	.15	.21	.21	.25	.22	.30	.27	.34	-									
PS2	.01	.09	.03	.08	.06	.07	.15	.22	.18	.12	.16	.18	.22	.16	.29	.28	.31	.58	-								
NS1	-.09	.02	-.03	-.03	-.03	.00	.18	.26	.21	.16	.21	.30	.29	.21	.45	.38	.45	.30	.36	-							
NS2	-.09	.00	-.08	-.04	-.05	.02	.11	.19	.14	.14	.19	.28	.26	.21	.39	.37	.39	.32	.38	.82	-						
CS1	.10	-.01	.07	.17	.11	.14	.09	.11	.06	.04	.18	.16	.19	.15	.15	.21	.24	.15	.12	-.03	.02	-					
CS2	.05	.03	.05	.01	.03	.01	.29	.29	.23	.21	.24	.23	.28	.18	.35	.37	.48	.30	.27	.18	.17	.43	-				
CS3	.13	.15	.16	.11	.12	.10	.23	.23	.21	.16	.17	.20	.19	.19	.28	.27	.32	.20	.16	.12	.13	.35	.52	-			
AS1	.09	.08	.08	.06	.10	.09	.24	.30	.23	.16	.27	.30	.30	.21	.43	.44	.48	.27	.21	.25	.23	.41	.46	.40	-		
AS2	.02	.03	.07	.07	.13	.09	.25	.28	.20	.17	.35	.36	.38	.27	.51	.51	.56	.25	.24	.29	.25	.34	.48	.35	.69	-	
AS3	.02	.02	.06	.10	.12	.11	.25	.26	.20	.17	.36	.38	.39	.29	.51	.51	.56	.27	.23	.28	.25	.38	.49	.40	.70	.92	-

Note. AC: Ability Comparison; OC: Opinion Comparison; SB: Social Browsing; RB: Relationship Building; OS: Opinion Sharing; PS: Power Shopping; NS: New Socio-networking; CS: Cognitive Shopping Satisfaction; AS: Affective Shopping Satisfaction.

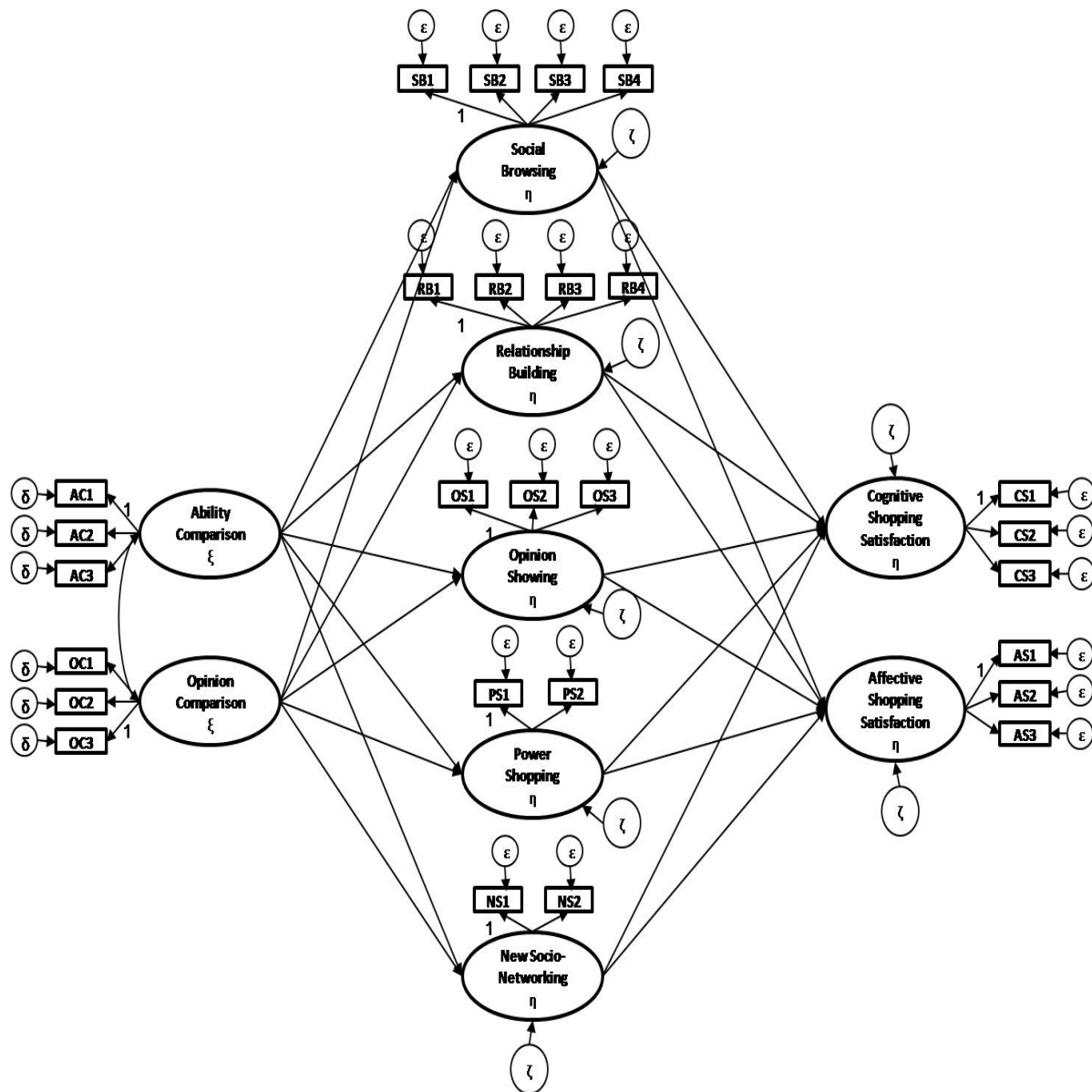


Figure 4. Structural model specification

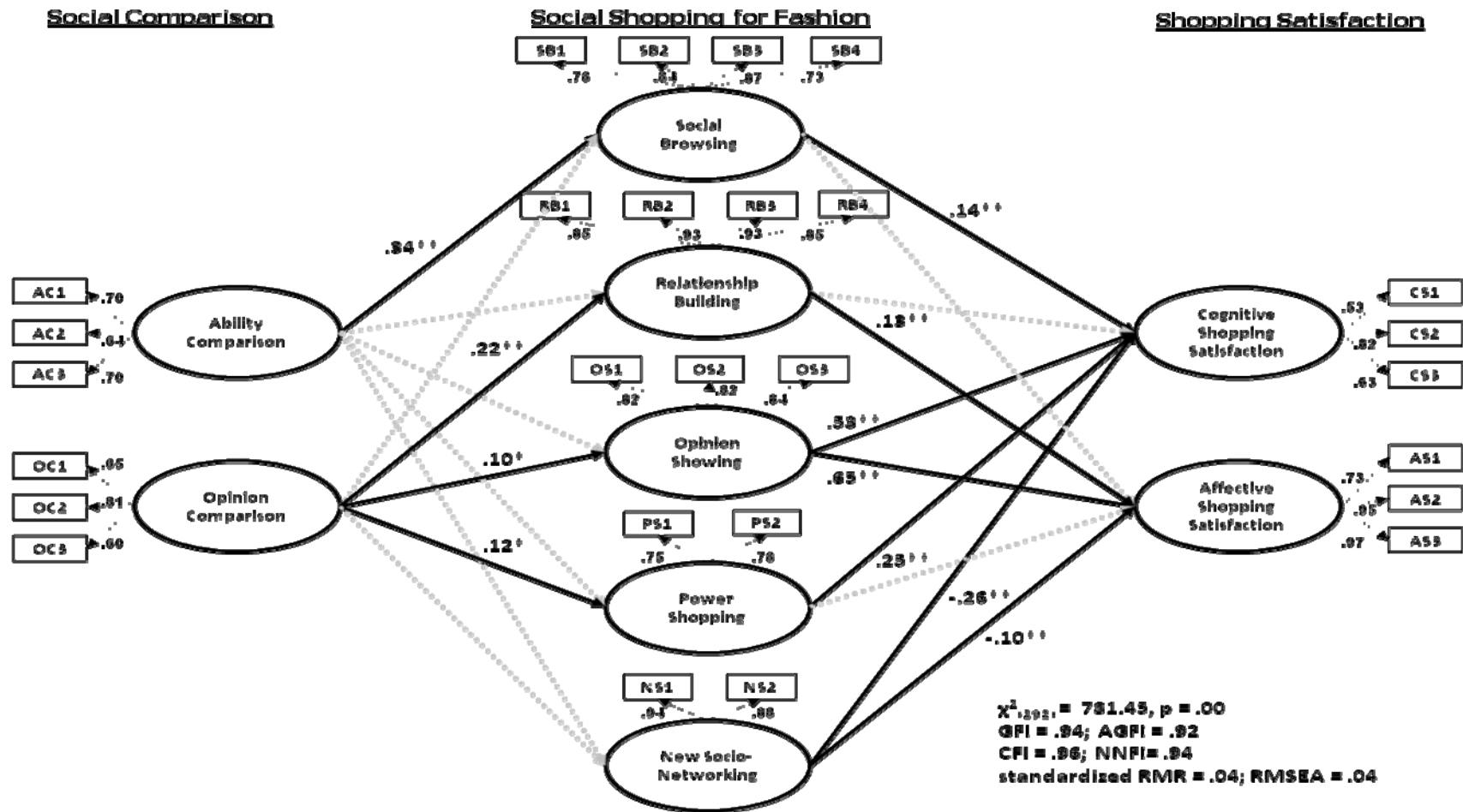
variables, η for endogenous latent variables, δ for the measurement error term for exogenous latent variables, ε for the measurement error term for endogenous latent variables, and ζ for the structural error. To standardize the scores of the latent variables, one of the path parameters (λ) between indicators and each corresponding latent variable were fixed as “1.0.” Two exogenous latent variables were specified to be correlated based on the notion that these two dimensions of social comparison were highly correlated with each other (Gibbon & Buunk, 1999). The structural error of each endogenous variable and the measurement errors of all indicators were also freely estimated (c.f., Kline, 2005).

Hypothesis Testing

Overall, the model fit was satisfactory: $\chi^2_{(df=292)} = 781.45, p = .00$; GFI = .94; AGFI = .92; CFI = .96; NNFI = .94; SRMR = .04; RMSEA = .04. In addition, modification indices showed no critical problems of misfit and did not suggest any additions or eliminations of paths. Therefore, it is determined that the fit of the model hypothesized was good. Figure 5 illustrates the model and shows parameter estimates.

Hypothesis 1 denoted that social comparison orientations have influences on social shopping for fashion. The structural model test result demonstrated that the ability comparison and opinion comparison had significant effects on selected social shopping dimensions. Specifically, ability comparison had a significant positive casual effect only on social browsing ($\gamma = .34, p < .01$). Meanwhile, opinion comparison significantly influenced three dimensions of social shopping for fashion, relationship building ($\gamma = .22, p < .01$), opinion showing ($\gamma = .10, p < .01$), and power shopping ($\gamma = .12, p < .01$). Thus, H1 was partially supported.

Hypothesis 2 expected that social shopping for fashion influences shopping satisfaction. All dimensions of social shopping for fashion had significant effects on cognitive and/or



Note. All are standardized estimates.

Bold paths indicate significant. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Figure 5. Hypothesis testing results

affective shopping satisfaction. Social browsing had a significant effect on cognitive shopping satisfaction ($\gamma = .14, p < .01$), but not on affective shopping satisfaction. On the other hand, the relationship-building dimension had an effect on affective shopping satisfaction ($\gamma = .13, p < .01$) but not on cognitive satisfaction. Opinion showing had significant effects on both cognitive shopping satisfaction ($\gamma = .53, p < .01$) and affective satisfaction ($\gamma = .65, p < .01$). Power shopping had a significant effect only on cognitive shopping satisfaction ($\gamma = .25, p < .01$). New socio-networking dimension had effects on both cognitive shopping satisfaction ($\gamma = -.26, p < .01$) and affective satisfaction ($\gamma = -.10, p < .01$). H2 was also partially supported.

Table 9

Decomposition of Total, Direct, and Indirect Effects of the Structural Model

	Path	Total Effects	Direct Effects	Indirect Effects
Ability Comparison	→ Cognitive Shopping Satisfaction	.12	.02	.10*
Opinion Comparison	→ Cognitive Shopping Satisfaction	.08	-.02	.10*
Ability Comparison	→ Affective Shopping Satisfaction	-.00	-.05	.04
Opinion Comparison	→ Affective Shopping Satisfaction	.16	.06	.10*

Note. All coefficients are standardized estimates.

** $p < .05$ (bias-corrected percentile method).

Direct and Indirect Effects

Table 9 presents the results of the statistical significance of the indirect effects. Direct and indirect effects of social comparison dimensions on shopping satisfaction dimensions were examined through decomposition tests based on the bootstrapping method. There were no

significant direct effects of ability and opinion comparisons on cognitive or affective shopping satisfaction. However, indirect effects existed between both ability and opinion comparison and cognitive shopping satisfaction. Regarding the indirect effects on affective shopping satisfaction, there was no significant indirect effect of ability comparison on affective shopping satisfaction, while opinion comparison had a significant indirect effect. These results indicate that, generally, ability comparison and opinion comparison influence shopping satisfaction through social shopping behaviors. The only exception existed for the ability comparison-affective shopping satisfaction link.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to develop and test a structural model that explains the motivational sources and consequences of social shopping for fashion. The results showed that social comparison orientations had effects on some dimensions of social shopping for fashion; meanwhile, each dimension of social shopping for fashion had an impact on some cognitive and/or affective shopping satisfaction. That is, while the overall causal model was supported, the influence patterns of social comparison orientations were different across social shopping dimensions, and the influence patterns of social shopping on types of shopping satisfactions were also different. This study, therefore, provides additional evidence of the multi-dimensionality of the social shopping construct, demonstrating that the nature of antecedents and consequences was slightly different across the dimensions of social shopping. This study has exclusive values because it examined a causal model depicting comprehensive motivational forces and consequences of social shopping behavior simultaneously.

This study found social comparison motivations are significant motivators of social shopping behaviors for fashion. Further, two distinguishable social comparison dimensions,

ability comparison and opinion comparison (Festinger, 1954; Gibbons & Buunk, 1999), were found to have influences on social shopping in different ways. That is, a consumer's desire to know his/her ability (e.g., accomplishment, popularity) by comparing himself/herself with others leads him/her to engage in social browsing behaviors (e.g., being attentive to what others wear and what is popular and to purchase those products). On the other hand, the findings suggest that opinion comparison is particularly relevant to various social shopping dimensions. His/her desire to evaluate his/her opinions or thoughts was found to increase his/her tendencies of relationship building (e.g., go shopping with friends and family), opinion showing (e.g., exchange opinions/conversations sharing), and power shopping behaviors (e.g., being attentive to sales personnel's attention).

This study also provides evidence that social shopping behaviors significantly influence cognitive and/or affective shopping satisfaction. The results suggest that social browsing behaviors are likely to lead to satisfaction with product and shopping performances. Information seeking among friends and others via social browsing seems to help a consumer's decision-making procedure (Wesley et al., 2006) by reducing his/her risk and the uncertainty perceptions associated with the decision (Mangleburg et al., 2004). Because social browsing behaviors are essentially related to fashion-following behaviors (Sproles, 1979), social browsing behaviors and its satisfaction may bear a significant contribution to retail performance and retail patronage.

On the other hand, relationship-building behaviors were found to have a positive effect on affective shopping satisfaction. This suggests that socializing and hanging out with close peers or family provide shoppers with a positive feeling or emotion such as pleasure and fun, but not with rational-based satisfaction. Previous studies have found that such relationship building behaviors are associated with hedonic values (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003), and shopping provides

consumers with a sense of belongingness (e.g., love, friendship, acceptance by others) (Westbrook & Black, 1985). Therefore, positive emotional and arousal compensations may be the only consequences that consumers seek from relationship-building behaviors.

Opinion-showing behaviors (e.g., providing personal opinions on fashion products or choices to others) were found to satisfy consumers in both cognitive and affective ways. Consumers who often engage in fashion opinion-showing behavior are likely to play the role of fashion opinion leader (Flynn et al., 1996), and fashion opinion leadership has been known to be positively associated with fashion knowledge, shopping experience, and fashion confidence (Goldsmith & Clark, 2008). This suggests that consumers who exhibit a high level of opinion showing behaviors have ample knowledge and confidence that eventually lead to satisfied shopping results and purchases (i.e., cognitive satisfaction). At the same time, previous studies also indicate that fashion leadership is related to values for fun and pleasure (Goldsmith, Heitmeyer, & Freiden, 1991). The result of this study implies that one's opinion-showing behaviors can result in hedonic and positive affects such as fulfillment, excitement, and pleasures in addition to cognitive satisfaction.

Power shopping was found to positively influence only cognitive shopping satisfaction. Tauber (1972) recognized that some consumers enjoy a feeling of status and a sense of power when shopping, and this is gained when store personnel compete for the consumer's favor. This suggests that the consequences of power shopping behaviors are likely to be partly affective in nature. However, the result was contrary to the expectation. Previous studies indicate that the quality of interaction between a consumer and salespersons in a retailing setting is a significant determinant of his/her overall satisfaction not only with the service (Babin et al., 1995; Reynolds & Arnold, 2000) but also with the purchase itself (Taylor & Baker, 1994; Westbrook, 1981).

Thus, the result found in this study suggests that interactions with sales personnel and being attentive to their services/attentions lead to satisfaction with the shopping performance, rather than satisfactory feeling from being powerful.

Interestingly, the effects of new socio-networking behaviors on cognitive and affective shopping satisfactions were both negative. It may be that, unlike social interactions with close referents, interactions with unfamiliar others may lead shopping experiences to be uninformative and unpleasant. Compared with shopping centers, shopping streets are perceived as more stressful and unsafe for customers because of more crowded and noisier surroundings (Uzzell, 1995). This suggests that if a consumer encounters other shoppers or is in a situation with too many new people around, he/she may not be able to accomplish his/her shopping goals and experience fatigues or other displeased feelings. However, the data and other results of this study indicated that the new socio-networking dimension could be a distinctive construct of social shopping separated from its other dimensions. First, the means of new socio-networking indicators were lower than those of any other dimensions (see Table 5). Second, the new socio-networking dimension was found not affected by either of the ability or opinion comparisons. Together, the negative effects of the new socio-networking dimension on shopping satisfaction should be interpreted with a caution. Further research should clarify its eminence within the social shopping domain.

Direct and indirect effect testing confirms that social shopping for fashion acted as a mediator in the social shopping process. The results generally support that the ability comparison and opinion comparison orientations influenced cognitive shopping satisfaction and/or affective shopping satisfaction only through social shopping. The result further confirms the theoretical relationships related to the role of social shopping as a means of satisfying needs for evaluating

oneself by comparing oneself with others, and such behaviors contribute to the consumer's shopping satisfaction.

In addition to the theoretical implications, the results of this study provide practical insights to retailers and marketers. Industry professionals of retail corporations often regard consumer satisfaction as their ultimate goal because of its direct relationship with brand loyalty, purchase intention, and ultimately, sales (Otieno et al., 2005; Taylor & Baker, 1994). This study provides them an empirical confirmation that social shopping satisfies the human motive of social comparison and increases consumer satisfaction. Retailers and marketers can create social-shopping-friendly environments that match up the unique characteristics of fashion and shopping for fashion. A social-shopping-friendly retailing setting requires a place and atmosphere where consumers can easily gather verbal and nonverbal cues, affiliate with their peers and family, freely show their personal opinions/thoughts, and actively interact with others. From the various relationships found between the social comparison orientations and social shopping dimensions and between social shopping dimensions and satisfaction measures, industry professionals can formulate strategies for training sales personnel and create shopping places that please their target customers in a unique, effective way.

Limitations and Future Research

In this study, the primary focus was social comparison as a motivational antecedent of social shopping for fashion. Other motivational sources that are related to fashion behaviors are worthy of examination. Other special motivations and their combinations with other human motivations or characteristics may drive social shopping behaviors for fashion. For instance, need for affiliation, the desire to be in company of other people (Schachter, 1959), could be a possible driving force of social shopping behavior for fashion. Affiliation theory notes that

individuals with a need for affiliation are willing to behave to achieve the goal to belong (Maslow, 1970), and shopping malls may lessen the loneliness of people (Solomon & Rabolt, 2006). Another possible motivational antecedent for social shopping for fashion is concern for appropriateness, which refers to awareness of the reactions of others to one's behavior and concern about or sensitivity to the nature of those reactions (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). Concern for appropriateness reflects individuals' fear of a negative evaluation and social anxiety (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). Social browsing dimension's association with the attention to social comparison information construct found in Study 1 may suggest that concern for appropriateness influences social browsing and possibly other social shopping behaviors. Beyond general human characteristics or motivations, fashion constructs can drive social shopping for fashion. For example, future studies could explore fashion opinion leadership (c.f., Flynn et al., 1996) or social risks toward fashions (c.f., Halepete et al., 2009) to test their casual relationships with social shopping for fashion. Such motivations or individuals' socio-psychosocial factors in future research could further the understanding of the reasons behind social shopping behaviors.

More tangible shopping experience or performance outcomes other than consumer perceived satisfaction can be examined as consequences of social shopping in future studies to enhance the understanding of the social shopping process. Previous studies have provided evidence that social activities or satisfying social needs while shopping are likely to result in increased shopping time/spending and other various patronage behaviors (Babin et al., 1994; Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Jones, 1999; Paridon, 2004). Thus, these retailing and marketing outcomes may be significant consequences of social shopping as well. Further, examining the impact of social shopping, beyond retailing and marketing performance, on the psychological well-being of especially underrepresented groups (e.g., the elderly female population) will

demonstrate different, yet significant, applicable values of social shopping.

Between the paths from social comparison to social shopping for fashion and from social shopping for fashion to shopping satisfaction, other mediators or moderators may exist. For example, fashion involvement (O'Cass, 2004; Tigert, Ring, & King, 1976) can play a moderator role between social comparison orientation and social shopping for fashion. For instance, it could be hypothesized that, given a controlled level of social comparison orientation, consumers with low fashion involvement may not exhibit social shopping for fashion as much as those with high fashion involvement. Moods or emotions evoked during shopping (Ladhari, 2007) could be also a moderator between shopping behavior and satisfaction, especially the affective satisfaction. Because mood plays a significant role in determining perceptions toward the whole shopping experience (Swinyard, 1993), someone with a good mood might be more satisfied with the shopping experience than another regardless of the social comparison desires. In such attempts, mall intercept interviews or experiment methods may be useful. In addition, a wide range of other environmental and situational factors (e.g., personal interaction, complaint handling, and internal store environment) were found to influence consumer satisfaction (Terblanche & Boshoff, 2006). Thus, a simultaneous examination of shopping environments and social comparison desires is likely to capture a more complete picture of social shopping process.

Additionally, replicating an equivalent process to develop a model of the social shopping process in other shopping contexts or with different samples will enhance the external validity of the model developed in this study. Studies have shown that online shopping is different from traditional shopping (Cowart & Goldsmith, 2007; Häubl & Trifts, 2000; Novak et al., 2000). The online shopping context may carry different motivations and consequences of social shopping. Given that social activities are frequently seen across social shopping sites (Iskold, 2006; Kooser,

2008), developing an online social shopping model would be valuable for the industry. In addition, females and males often show different patterns and levels of fashion and shopping behaviors (Kim & Kim, 2005; Raajpoot, Sharma, & Chebat, 2008; Seock & Bailey, 2008). Similarly, consumers across cultures have shown different social orientations, sensitivity to interpersonal influences, and purchase behaviors (Gibbons, Helweg-Larsen, & Gerrard, 1995; Kim, Forsythe, Gu, & Moon, 2002). Thus, gender and culture may also be interesting moderators that can be examined in future research.

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this research was to define social shopping for fashion and increase our understanding of the social shopping process. Two studies were conducted to achieve this purpose. Study 1 developed and validated a scale of social shopping for fashion. Study 2 went a step further in understanding social shopping for fashion based on the scale by developing and testing a structural model of the social shopping process. This research was an extensive effort to methodologically define and comprehensively explain social shopping behaviors that have not yet been systematically explained in the fashion literature. The research establishes the significance of social shopping behavior in fashion consumption by 1) providing an operational definition of social shopping for fashion and 2) scientifically explaining the process of social shopping for fashion. The series of studies following scientific procedures enhanced the validity of the research findings.

In Study 1, through a rigorous three-step scale development procedure, a multi-dimensional scale to measure social shopping for fashion was developed consisting of sixteen items with five dimensions (social browsing, relationship building, opinion showing, power shopping and new socio-networking). Study 2, using structural equation modeling, developed and tested a comprehensive model of social shopping process depicting the motivational forces (i.e., ability and opinion comparison orientations) and consequences (i.e., cognitive and affective shopping satisfaction) of social shopping behavior.

The results of the studies establish social shopping for fashion as a significant and distinct consumer behavioral construct. Unlike traditional thinking in which social shopping is considered as a simple, uni-dimensional concept, the studies showed that social shopping for fashion involves dynamic and complex direct/indirect interpersonal exchanges and activities that

occur in the fashion-shopping process. Social comparison orientations were generally found to be motivators of social shopping for fashion and social shopping contributes to consumer satisfaction. The results also revealed that dimensions of social shopping, social browsing, relationship building, opinion showing and power shopping exhibit somewhat different patterns of influences. Each dimension seems to be driven by different types of social comparison orientation and generate different types of satisfaction.

This research takes the first step in establishing a line of research of social shopping for fashion that has both theoretical and practical implications. As the first attempt to synthesize the dispersed concepts of social shopping in the previous literature, the series of studies generated a scientific measure of social shopping for fashion and successfully explained its surrounding factors. By providing a measure of social shopping, the research opened the door to researchers to expand social shopping research. The model developed in this research adds exclusive value to social shopping research by presenting a comprehensive, causal model depicting the motivational forces and consequences of social shopping behavior. This research also contributes to building the rigor of social comparison theory and consumer satisfaction theory as applied to the fashion consumption context. Retailers and marketers can also benefit from the scientific scale to measure social shopping as it assists their consumer segmentation and marketing strategy development and implementation. The explanations of the desires behind social shopping and its contributions to consumer satisfaction also help managers better understand their customers and find ways to create shopping environments where consumers' social needs are better served, in turn increasing their enjoyment and satisfaction. In particular, the contribution of social shopping to consumer satisfaction found in this research provides them confidence to employ social shopping as a tool to improve their retail operations.

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APPENDIX A

INITIAL INVENTORY OF BEHAVIORAL ITEMS

1. I often talk with friends and/or family about shopping for fashion.
2. I often discover the latest fashion trends among people by shopping for fashion.
3. I often buy fashion products similar to those others are wearing.
4. I often search for fashion shopping deals that other people have recommended.
5. I often look for new fashion products and/or brands that are popular among my friends.
6. I often learn what styles are popular through shopping for fashion.
7. I often go shopping for fashion with friends and/or family.
8. I often spend a lot of time with friends and/or family when shopping for fashion.
9. I often hang out with friends and/or family when shopping for fashion.
10. Friends and/or family often accompany me, even when I make a fashion purchase for myself.
11. I often look for a companion to go with me when I go shopping for fashion.
12. I often show off fashion products that I buy to my friends and/or family.
13. I often participate in conversations about fashion and shopping.
14. I often give others my personal opinions about fashion products.
15. I am often complimented or noticed by friends when I wear fashionable products that I have bought.
16. I am often differentiated from others because of the fashion products that I buy.
17. When I enter a store, I often receive attention from store personnel.
18. I often notice that store personnel make an effort to sell fashion products to me.
19. When I go shopping for fashion, I usually let store personnel know that I am comparing their products with those in another store.
20. I am often noticed by other shoppers while shopping for fashion.
21. I often look for and/or read other shoppers' comments and/or reviews about their fashion shopping experiences.
22. I often talk with store personnel while shopping for fashion.
23. I often bargain with store personnel while shopping for fashion.
24. I often talk with other shoppers while shopping for fashion.
25. I often get shopping information and tips from store personnel while shopping for fashion.
26. I often get information about fashion shopping from friends and/or family.
27. I often recommend fashion shopping places/brands/products to friends and/or family.
28. I often buy fashion products that I see my friends wearing.
29. I often meet friends and/or family by chance when shopping for fashion.
30. I often show off my fashion style to others in shopping areas.
31. I often visit fashionable shopping places where I can get service without payment.
32. I often recommend fashion shopping places/brand/products to others, even those I do not know well.
33. I usually browse in fashion shopping places that my friends suggest.
34. I often meet friends of the opposite sex when I go shopping for fashion.
35. I often compete for a good deal with other shoppers while shopping for fashion.
36. If I don't have a lot of experience with a fashion product, I ask friends and/or family to get their opinions about the product.
37. I usually buy fashion products that I think my friends would approve of.
38. I often draw the attention of other customers in fashion shopping places.
39. I often gossip with friends and/or family during shopping for fashion.
40. I often ask my friends to help me choose the best fashion product for me.

41. I often pay attention to fashion products that friends and/or family are buying or wearing.
42. In fashionable shopping places, I like to show off to others what I am wearing.
43. I usually look for other shoppers who have similar tastes as mine.
44. I usually get information about a fashion product from friends and/or family before I buy it.
45. I often advise and/or give suggestions to others about which fashion products they should select and/or buy.
46. I usually purchase fashion products that many others have also bought.
47. I tend to delay my purchase decisions until the last moments of a fashion shopping trip.
48. When I go shopping for fashion with friends, I tend to spend more money than I do when I go shopping alone.
49. I am a member of fashion shopping-related groups.
50. Without friends and/or family, I alone cannot decide which fashion products to buy.
51. When I go shopping for fashion with friends and/or family, I like to see what they try on.
52. I often pay attention to fashion products that others in shopping places are buying.
53. I often eat with friends and/or family while shopping for fashion.
54. I often create a unique look or style using fashion products that I buy.
55. I ask other shoppers for their suggestions and/or advice about alternative fashion products.
56. When I see fashion products that others are using and/or buying, I often ask them for shopping information (e.g., price, store, brand).
57. I often take pictures with friends and/or family while shopping for fashion.
58. When I go shopping for fashion, I usually look for unique styles that others rarely wear.
59. I often visit others' homepages or blogs because of their fashion style and/or fashion products.
60. I usually ask friends and/or family about which fashion products I should buy.
61. I often make comments about which fashion products friends should buy or wear.
62. During and/or after a shopping trip together, I tend to feel closer to my friends and/or family.
63. I buy fashion products that many people rarely wear and/or buy.
64. I usually show friends and/or family what I try on while shopping for fashion.
65. I often evaluate fashion products that my friends and/or family purchase.
66. I often watch new people in fashion shopping places.
67. I often bid on auctions for fashion products.
68. I often vote "pro" or "con" about others' comments about shopping and/or fashion products.
69. I often listen to others' fashion shopping experiences.
70. I often browse to learn what fashion items others think are "hot."
71. I usually ask others for recommendations of new fashion products.
72. I like to show others what I purchase.
73. I enjoy crowds in fashion shopping places.
74. I often give fashion shopping information to my friends and/or family.
75. I often look at which fashion products other people are wearing at shopping places.
76. I often create my own fashion style and show it to many people, even those I do not know well.
77. I try to remember others' fashion styles and/or their fashion products if I like them.
78. I often make fashion shopping buddies.
79. I often post my pictures to my blog so that others can see what fashion products I buy.
80. I often notice the newest products that others wear and/or buy.
81. I often make new friends through fashion shopping and/or fashion talk.
82. I often meet new people when shopping for fashion.
83. I usually show what I try on to store personnel when I am shopping for fashion.
84. I give my opinion to others about what they purchase.
85. I listen to store personnel's explanations of fashion products.

APPENDIX B

IRB APPROVAL FORM

Application for Exemption from Institutional Oversight

Unless qualified as meeting the specific criteria for exemption from Institutional Review Board (IRB) oversight, ALL LSU research/projects using living humans as subjects, or samples or data obtained from humans, directly or indirectly, with or without their consent, must be approved or exempted in advance by the LSU IRB. This Form helps the PI determine if a project may be exempted, and is used to request an exemption.



Institutional Review Board
Dr. Robert Mathews, Chair
203 B-1 David Boyd Hall
Baton Rouge, LA 70803
P: 225.578.8692
F: 225.578.6792
irb@lsu.edu | lsu.edu/irb

- Applicant, Please fill out the application in its entirety and include the completed application as well as parts A-E, listed below, when submitting to the IRB. Once the application is completed, please submit two copies of the completed application to the IRB Office or to a member of the Human Subjects Screening Committee. Members of this committee can be found at [http://appl003.lsu.edu/osp/osp.nsf/\\$Content/Humans+Subject+Committee?OpenDocument](http://appl003.lsu.edu/osp/osp.nsf/$Content/Humans+Subject+Committee?OpenDocument)
 - A Complete Application Includes All of the Following:
 - (A) Two copies of this completed form and two copies of parts B thru E.
 - (B) A brief project description (adequate to evaluate risks to subjects and to explain your responses to Parts 1 & 2)
 - (C) Copies of all instruments to be used.
 - If this proposal is part of a grant proposal, include a copy of the proposal and all recruitment material.
 - (D) The consent form that you will use in the study (see part 3 for more information.)
 - (E) Certificate of Completion of Human Subjects Protection Training for all personnel involved in the project, including students who are involved with testing or handling data, unless already on file with the IRB.
- Training link: (<http://cme.cancer.gov/clinicaltrials/learning/humanparticipant-protections.asp>)

1) Principal Investigator: Ji Yun Kang Rank: 7 (ph.D. student) Student*? Y/N ☒

Dept.: TAM, Human Ecology Ph: 2259376871 E-mail: jkang1@lsu.edu

2) Co Investigator(s): please include department, rank and e-mail for each
If student, please identify and name supervising professor in this space

Dr. Haesun Park, Assistant Professor, TAM, School of Human Ecology,
hpark@lsu.edu

3) Project Title: The Model of Social Shopping

4) LSU Proposal?(yes or no) ☒ If Yes, LSU Proposal Number 10

Also, if YES, either ☐ This application completely matches the scope of work in the grant
OR
☐ More IRB Applications will be filed later

5) Subject pool (e.g. Psychology Students) Students in TAM classes

• Circle any "vulnerable populations" to be used: (children <18; the mentally impaired, pregnant women, the aged, other) Projects with incarcerated persons cannot be exempted.

6) PI Signature Haesun Park ** Date 10.1.08 (no per signatures)

**I certify my responses are accurate and complete. If the project scope or design is later changed I will resubmit for review. I will obtain written approval from the Authorized Representative of all non-LSU institutions in which the study is conducted. I also understand that it is my responsibility to maintain copies of all consent forms at LSU for three years after completion of the study. If I leave LSU before that time the consent forms should be preserved in the Departmental Office.

Effective August 1, 2007, all Exemptions will expire three years from date of approval, unless a continuation report, found on our website, is filed prior to expiration date

Screening Committee Action: ☒ Exempted ☐ Not Exempted Category/Paragraph _____
Reviewer: Michael Keenan Signature: Michael Keenan Date: 10-20-08

Study Exempted By:
Dr. Robert C. Mathews, Chairman
Institutional Review Board
Louisiana State University
203 B-1 David Boyd Hall
225-578-8692 | www.lsu.edu/irb
Exemption Expires: 10-1-2011

IRB# 41115
Complete Application
Human Subjects Training

APPENDIX C

INITIAL E-MAIL INVITATION

Re: Exclusive Invitation to Participate in a Research Project

Congratulations! As an LSU student, you have been chosen to participate in a very important research project, aimed at gaining a better understanding of young consumers' shopping behaviors.

Respondents who completely finish the survey by **Friday, April 24th, 2009** are eligible to participate in a lottery, winning valued at a total of \$400.

1st prize: \$100 cash

Runner-up prize (30 winners): \$10 gift card each

The survey will take only 5 to 10 minutes to complete. Please visit the link below to access the survey, and we hope you win a prize!

http://lsu.qualtrics.com//SE?SID=SV_1zx0TeaUmOui5ko&SVID=Prod

Thank you in advance for your participation!

Research Investigators:

Jiyun Kang, Ph. D. Candidate

Textile Science, Apparel Design, and Merchandising

School of Human Ecology

Louisiana State University

E-mail: jkang1@tigers.lsu.edu

Phone: 225-937-6871

Hacsun Park-Poaps, Assistant Professor

School of Human Ecology

Louisiana State University

E-mail: hpark@lsu.edu

APPENDIX D

E-MAIL REMINDER

REMINDER: Exclusive Invitation to Participate in a Research Project

We recently invited you to participate in an online survey regarding shopping behavior. Time to participate in the survey and opportunity to win prizes **expires Friday, April 24, 2009 at Midnight!**

Winners will be notified by no later than the end of April.

If you have already participated, please disregard this email.

If you somehow missed our letter or were too busy to participate in the survey, we would like to remind you:

Congratulations! As an LSU student, you have been chosen to participate in a very important research project, aimed at gaining a better understanding of young consumers' shopping behaviors.

Respondents who completely finish the survey are eligible to participate in a lottery, winning valued at a total of \$400.

1st prize: \$100 cash

Runner-up prize (30 winners): \$10 gift card each

The survey will take only 5 to 10 minutes to complete. Please visit the link below to access the survey, and we hope you win a prize!

http://lsu.qualtrics.com//SE?SID=SV_1zx0TeaUmOui5ko&SVID=Prod

Thank you in advance for your participation!

Research Investigators:

Jiyun Kang, Ph. D. Candidate

E-mail: jkang1@tigers.lsu.edu; Phone: 225-937-6871

Haesun Park-Poaps, Assistant Professor

E-mail: hpark@lsu.edu

Textile Science, Apparel Design, and Merchandising

School of Human Ecology

Louisiana State University

APPENDIX E

THE FORMAT OF ONLINE QUESTIONNAIRE



A Study of Shopping Behavior

Thank you for visiting. This survey aims to gain a better understanding of young consumers' shopping behaviors. Your participation is very important to consumer research and the industry.

Your responses are completely confidential and be used for research purposes only.
You must be 18 years old or older to participate.

In advance, thank you for participating in this survey!

Please contact us if you have any questions:

Jiyun Kang, MBA, Ph. D. Candidate (jkang1@tigers.lsu.edu; 225-937-6871)
Haesun Park-Poaps, Ph. D., Assistant Professor
School of Human Ecology
Louisiana State University

This study has been approved by the LSU Institutional Review Board.
If you have questions about participants' rights you can contact, Dr. Robert Mathews at (225) 678-8692.



The following questions ask about your habits when shopping for fashion products (hereafter referred to as "shopping for fashion") during the last six months.

- Fashion products include clothes, bags, shoes, and related accessories.
- Shopping includes a variety of activities other than simply purchasing products.

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I often buy fashion products similar to those others are wearing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often search for fashion shopping deals that other people have recommended.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often look for new fashion products and/or brands that are popular among my friends.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often buy fashion products that I see my friends wearing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I usually get information about a fashion product from friends and/or family before I buy it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I usually purchase fashion products that many others have also bought.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I often go shopping for fashion with friends and/or family.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often spend a lot of time with friends and/or family when shopping for fashion.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often hang out with friends and/or family when shopping for fashion.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Friends and/or family often accompany me, even when I make a fashion purchase for myself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often look for a companion to go with me when I go shopping for fashion.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I often participate in conversations about fashion and shopping.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often give others my personal opinions about fashion products.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am often complimented or noticed by friends when I wear fashionable products that I have bought.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often recommend fashion shopping places/brands/products to friends and/or family.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
When I enter a fashion store, I often receive attention from store personnel.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often notice that store personnel make an effort to sell fashion products to me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often talk with store personnel while shopping for fashion.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often make new friends through fashion shopping.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often meet new people when shopping for fashion.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

>>

The following questions ask about your thoughts and feelings during/after fashion shopping experiences that have taken place within the last six months.

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
In general, fashion products that I purchase suit my personal style.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In general, fashion products I purchase are good deals.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In general, fashion products that I purchase are stylish and/or fashionable.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In general, fashion products that I purchase improve my image.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
In general, I feel good after a fashion shopping experience.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In general, I am pleased with my fashion shopping experiences.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In general, I have fun when fashion shopping.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In general, I have a good time while fashion shopping.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

>>

The following questions ask about your tendency in general.

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I always pay a lot of attention to how I do things compared with how others do things.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I want to find out how well I have done something, I compare what I have done with how well others have done.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often compare how I am doing socially (e.g., social skills, popularity) with how other people are doing socially.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am not the type of person who often compares myself with others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often compare my accomplishments with others' accomplishments.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often compare how my loved ones (boyfriend or girlfriend, family members, etc.) are doing with how others are doing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I often like to talk with others about mutual opinions and experiences.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often try to find out the thoughts/opinions of others who face problems similar to those that I face.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I always like to know what others would do in a similar situation.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I want to learn more about something, I try to find out what others think about it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I never consider my situation in life relative to other people's situations.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

>>

Age:

Gender:

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

Academic rank:

- ☐ Freshman
- ☐ Sophomore
- ☐ Junior
- ☐ Senior

Marital status:

- ☐ Single
- ☐ Married

Ethnicity:



Working status:

- ☐ Full-time
- ☐ Part-time
- ☐ Not working

How long have you lived in/near Baton Rouge?

- ☐ Less than 6 months
- ☐ 6 months or longer

Major:

Have you taken this survey before?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Yes

VITA

Jiyun Kang received a Bachelor of Arts degree, majoring in English language and literature, in 2002, from Korea University, Seoul, South Korea. During her undergraduate program, she studied in 2000, as an exchange student at Australian National University, Canberra, Australia.

She earned a Master of Business Administration with an emphasis in marketing, in 2005, from Seoul National University, Seoul, South Korea. While pursuing her MBA, she worked as a research assistant for various research projects and as a teaching assistant for a wide range of marketing courses, including Principles of Marketing, Marketing Management, and High-tech Marketing.

From 2004 to 2007, she worked as a research scientist at Life Soft Research center of LG Electronics, Inc., a leading global manufacturer and retailer of consumer goods. During that time, she conducted consumer research in Italy, Germany, Japan, and South Korea; she developed new product concepts and, using scientific research methods, predicted global consumer trends.

In August of 2007, she began the doctoral program in textile science, apparel design, and merchandising in the School of Human Ecology at Louisiana State University. While in the program, she worked as a teaching assistant for various merchandising courses.

Throughout her graduate studies and industrial experiences, she has generated numerous publications, earned external grant funding from the National Science Foundation, and won national and international awards, fellowships, and scholarships. She is interested in consumer behavior particularly in the consumption of environmentally friendly products, shopping behaviors and motivations, and innovative consumer behavior including consumer innovativeness/opinion leadership and new product adoption.