

How Shopping Orientation Influences the Effectiveness of Monetary and Nonmonetary Promotions

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Abstract

Purpose: This research examines whether shopping orientation (experiential vs. task-focused) influences how consumers react toward nonmonetary and monetary promotions. It was predicted that promotions are more effective if the promotional benefits are congruent with consumers' shopping orientation. Moreover, consumers' financial budget was assumed to moderate the influence of shopping orientation on promotion effectiveness.

Design/methodology/approach: The hypotheses were tested in three experiments. Study 1 used a measure of shopping orientation as a consumer disposition and examined its influence on promotion attractiveness. Two further studies used an experimental manipulation of shopping orientation and examined its influence on promotions attractiveness and retailer choice.

Findings: The results supported the hypotheses. Task-focused shoppers evaluated monetary promotions as more attractive than nonmonetary promotions. Experiential shoppers evaluated both types of promotions as comparably attractive. Furthermore, experiential shoppers were more likely than task-focused shoppers to choose a retailer offering a nonmonetary promotion over a retailer offering a monetary promotion. Low financial budget, however, reduced the influence of shopping orientation on retailer choice.

Originality/value: To effectively use promotions as a tool, marketers and retailers need to know when and how to use them, as well as understanding which type of promotion is the most effective. This research implies that retailers will benefit from customizing promotions to fit consumers' shopping orientations. Furthermore, the findings show that the advantage of such a tailored approach is reduced if consumers' financial budget is limited.

Keywords: promotions, consumer behaviour, shopping orientation, retailing, motivation and goals

How Shopping Orientation Influences the Effectiveness of Monetary and Nonmonetary Promotions

Marketers and retailers frequently use sales promotions to influence consumers' purchasing and brand decisions (Ailawadi *et al.*, 2009; Gedenk *et al.*, 2010). Different types of promotions have different pros and cons. Monetary promotions, such as discounts or coupons, can be very effective in producing short-term effects on sales (Alvarez-Alvarez and Vázquez-Casielles, 2005; Gedenk *et al.*, 2010), but have negative effects on price sensitivity and brand equity (Kalwani and Yim, 1992; Mela *et al.*, 1997; Yi and Yoo, 2011).

Nonmonetary promotions, such as sweepstakes or free gifts, do not show these negative effects on price sensitivity and brand equity, but their influence on attractiveness of the offer and marketing share is often lower than that of monetary promotions (Alvarez-Alvarez and Vázquez-Casielles, 2005; Chandon *et al.*, 2000; Palazón and Delgado-Ballester, 2011). Thus, to effectively use promotions as a tool, marketers and retailers need to know when and how which type of promotion is the most effective.

We propose that promotions are more effective if they support a consumer in pursuing his or her shopping goals. Consumers' shopping goals are reflected in two fundamental shopping orientations: With an *experiential* shopping orientation, consumers seek pleasure; with a *task-focused* shopping orientation, consumers want to shop as efficiently as possible (Baker and Wakefield, 2012; Büttner *et al.*, 2013; Kaltcheva and Weitz, 2006). In three experiments, we examined the proposition that nonmonetary promotions will only be effective for experiential shoppers, whereas monetary promotions will be effective for both experiential and task-focused shoppers. Furthermore, we examined whether consumer budget moderates the influence of shopping orientation on the effectiveness of monetary versus nonmonetary promotions.

The present research provides two major contributions to the literature. First, the present research is the first to show that consumers' shopping orientation influences the

attractiveness of monetary versus nonmonetary promotions, and the choice of retailers offering such promotions. The research implies that retailers may benefit from tailoring their promotional strategies to their customers' shopping orientations. Second, the research shows that the advantage of such a tailored approach is reduced if consumers' financial budget is limited. The results of the present studies contribute to the understanding of effects of monetary and nonmonetary promotions, and can be applied to design effective promotional strategies.

Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses

Types of Promotions

Previous research has classified promotions into two major types: monetary and nonmonetary promotions (Chandon *et al.*, 2000; Gedenk *et al.*, 2010). Monetary promotions directly influence the cost-benefit relation of a product, either by reducing the price—such as with price discounts (e.g., temporary price reductions or coupons)—or by increasing the amount of the product a consumer gets for the same price (e.g., three products for the price of two, 10% more in the package, etc.). Nonmonetary promotions refer to promotions that do not provide a direct monetary benefit. Retailers and service providers apply monetary and nonmonetary promotions over a broad range of product and service categories. Marketplace examples of nonmonetary promotions include grocery stores offering collectable stickers with each purchase, or banks offering a free coffee mug for new customers. Examples of monetary promotions are temporary 10% discounts on the purchase of a CD, or typical end-of-season sales at apparel stores. Research on promotions has mainly focused on fast moving consumer goods (FMCG; e.g., Chandon *et al.*, 2000; d'Astous and Jacob, 2002; Hardesty and Bearden, 2003). Some studies, however, have also examined promotions with products such as mobile phones (Prendergast and Thompson, 2008) or MP3 players (Yi and Yoo, 2011), and with leisure services (Wakefield and Barnes, 1996). Retailers can also apply different strategies with respect to how and when they use promotions (Bolton and Shankar, 2003). They can

apply promotions continuously, or as a temporary marketing instrument. In addition, retailers can restrict promotions to a particular product or product line, or offer a promotion across the whole assortment.

According to Chandon et al. (2000), monetary and nonmonetary promotions differ in the type of psychological benefit they provide to consumers. Monetary promotions provide primarily utilitarian benefits such as monetary savings, more quality for the same price, or reduction in search costs. Nonmonetary promotions, on the other hand, provide primarily hedonic benefits, such as entertainment, exploration, or the expression of personal values. We propose that whether consumers value hedonic or utilitarian benefits depends on which goals they pursue during shopping.

Shopping Orientation

Consumers may pursue different goals when shopping, apart from purchasing a particular product. They may want to collect information, seek stimulation from browsing in an interesting store environment, socialize with other shoppers, or hunt for bargains (Ganesh et al., 2007; Westbrook and Black, 1985). The different goals can be narrowed down to two fundamental shopping orientations: task-focused and experiential (Babin et al., 1994; Büttner et al., 2014; Kaltcheva and Weitz, 2006). Under a task-focused shopping orientation, consumers adopt a utilitarian focus and see shopping as a task they want to finish as efficiently as possible. Under an experiential shopping orientation, consumers adopt a hedonic focus and see shopping as an enjoyable task; their goal is to seek stimulation and entertainment during shopping.

Both a consumer's personality and situational aspects can influence the consumer's orientation while shopping. Chronic shopping orientation reflects a consumer's personality predisposition for how she or he reacts to shopping environments in general (Büttner et al., 2014). Indeed, a number of studies have shown that consumers differ interindividually in their shopping orientations, even if they shop in the same stores (Büttner et al., 2014; Ganesh et al.,

2007; Westbrook and Black, 1985). In addition, strong situational features, such as the shopping task itself or an atypical store environment, may override a consumer's predisposition and activate a task-focused or an experiential situational shopping orientation (Büttner *et al.*, 2013; Kaltcheva *et al.*, 2011; Kaltcheva and Weitz, 2006; van Rompay *et al.*, 2012). The orientation under which a consumer shops plays an important role in how he or she reacts to in-store stimuli such as music or crowding (Baker and Wakefield, 2012; Kaltcheva and Weitz, 2006). We propose that shopping orientation also influences how consumers react to monetary versus nonmonetary promotions.

Congruency between Promotion Type and Shopping Orientation

We argue that promotions are more effective if they support a consumer in pursuing his or her shopping goals: Consumers should be more likely to shop at retailers that offer goal-congruent promotions. This proposition mirrors a general fit principle, which has been revealed to hold across different domains of consumer behavior. Research on fit has repeatedly demonstrated that stimuli such as products, persuasive appeals, and promotions are evaluated more positively if their attributes match the goals a consumer is currently pursuing (for an overview, see Lee and Higgins, 2009). For instance, Chernev (2004) has demonstrated that consumers tend to favor options that provide attributes which match their goal orientation. Such fit effects have also been demonstrated between goal orientation and persuasive appeals (Florack and Scarabis, 2006), between level of goal concreteness and promotions (Lee and Ariely, 2006), and between product category and premium-based promotions (d'Astous and Landreville, 2003).

The benefit congruency framework of sales promotions (Chandon *et al.*, 2000) is in line with the proposition that the fit of promotions is important. Chandon *et al.* (2000) demonstrated that congruency between the type of benefit delivered by a promotion and type of product has a positive effect on promotion effectiveness: Consumers evaluated promotions with utilitarian benefits (i.e., monetary promotions) more favorably if the promotions

accompanied utilitarian products, and evaluated promotions with hedonic benefits (i.e., nonmonetary promotions) more favorably if the promotions accompanied hedonic products.

Chandon *et al.* (2000) demonstrated that a fit of promotion benefits and *product type* increases the evaluation of the respective offers. In addition, we propose that a fit between promotion benefits and *consumers' shopping orientation* affects evaluations of the offers positively. Nonmonetary promotions provide primarily hedonic benefits (Chandon *et al.*, 2000). We propose that this meets the experiential shoppers' goals for hedonic stimulation during shopping (i.e., to maximize hedonic shopping value; Babin *et al.*, 1994). Task-focused shoppers, in contrast, should be insensitive to these hedonic benefits because their goal is to complete their shopping task as efficiently as possible. Thus, we expect that nonmonetary promotions are attractive to experiential shoppers, but not to task-focused shoppers.

Monetary promotions, on the other hand, provide primarily utilitarian benefits (Chandon *et al.*, 2000). We propose that monetary promotions therefore meet the goals of task-focused shoppers, who focus on maximizing utilitarian shopping value (Babin *et al.*, 1994). However, monetary promotions should not be irrelevant to experiential shoppers: Experiential shoppers, just like task-focused shoppers, should welcome improvements in the cost-benefit relation. Moreover, monetary promotions may also provide hedonic benefits, such as pleasure from hunting for price discounts (Cox *et al.*, 2005; Zielke, 2011). This implies that monetary promotions should be attractive to both task-focused and experiential shoppers.

While promotion attractiveness is an important variable, it is more interesting from a retailer's perspective whether the promotional strategy increases the likelihood that a consumer chooses to shop at the retailer—and not at a competing retailer. Attractive promotions have been found to enhance consumers' preference for a store (Thang, 2003). When choosing between competing retailers, consumers should be more likely to choose the retailer with the more attractive promotion. Hence, we expect that the congruency between

shopping orientation and promotional benefit influences consumers' choice of retailer. As consumers should find those promotions more attractive that are congruent with their shopping orientation, they should be more likely to choose a retailer if the retailer offers promotions that are congruent with the consumer's shopping orientation.

To sum up, the interaction between shopping orientation and promotion type should influence promotion effectiveness, as reflected in promotion attractiveness and retailer choice:

H1: Shopping orientation influences the effectiveness of monetary versus nonmonetary promotions. Specifically: (a) task-focused shoppers evaluate monetary promotions as more attractive than nonmonetary promotions; (b) experiential shoppers evaluate monetary and nonmonetary promotions as comparably attractive; as a consequence, (c) experiential shoppers are more likely than task-focused shoppers to choose a retailer with a nonmonetary promotion over a retailer with a monetary promotion.

Consumers' Financial Budget as Moderator

A consumer's financial budget is an important factor that influences his or her decisions (Mullainathan and Shafir, 2009), and it is a central variable in marketing practice. Research on monetary versus nonmonetary promotions, however, has not addressed, the role of consumers' financial budget yet.

We propose that consumers' financial budget influences the effectiveness of monetary versus nonmonetary promotion. Specifically, we hypothesize that low budget is a boundary condition for the influence of shopping orientation on promotion attractiveness and retailer choice, because low-budget shoppers should place less importance on hedonic benefits, and more importance on utilitarian benefits. If budget is low, utilitarian benefits such as price cuts or other forms of savings increase the likelihood that the consumer can afford to purchase the product at all. In addition, the marginal utility of utilitarian benefits is higher for low-budget consumers (cf. Mullainathan and Shafir, 2009). Consequently, consumers are supposed to discount the hedonic benefits of nonmonetary promotions if they make a choice under

conditions of low budget. Thus, experiential and task-focused shoppers should not differ in their preference for retailers with nonmonetary promotions under conditions of low budget: the task-focused shoppers because they are generally insensitive to the hedonic benefits provided by nonmonetary promotions, and the experiential shoppers because they discount these hedonic benefits.

Under conditions of high budget, in contrast, the focus should shift from utilitarian to hedonic benefits because of the increased likelihood that the consumer can purchase the product anyway. Thus, experiential shoppers should react more positively toward retailers with nonmonetary promotions, because these shoppers are—in general—sensitive to the hedonic benefits provided by these types of promotions. High budget, however, should not influence the reaction of task-focused shoppers toward nonmonetary promotions, because these consumers are generally insensitive to the hedonic benefits.

In sum, we propose that consumers' financial budget moderates the effect postulated in hypothesis H1. Shopping orientation should influence consumers' choice between retailers offering nonmonetary versus monetary promotions only under conditions of high financial budget, but not under conditions of low financial budget.

H2: Consumers' financial budget moderates the influence of shopping orientation on the effectiveness of monetary versus nonmonetary promotions. Specifically:

- (a) If consumers financial budget is high, (i) task-focused shoppers evaluate monetary promotions as more attractive than nonmonetary shoppers; (ii) experiential shoppers evaluate monetary and nonmonetary promotions as comparably attractive; (iii) experiential shoppers are more likely than task-focused shoppers to choose a retailer with a nonmonetary promotion over a retailer with a monetary promotion.
- (b) If consumer budget is low, (i) both experiential and task-focused shoppers evaluate monetary promotions as more attractive than nonmonetary promotions and (ii)

experiential and task-focused shoppers do not differ in their likelihood to choose a retailer with a nonmonetary promotion over a retailer with a monetary promotion. We tested these hypotheses in three studies. Study 1 tested whether shopping orientation influences the attractiveness of monetary versus nonmonetary promotions (H1a, b). Study 2 replicated this effect with a different product category and an experimental manipulation of shopping orientation. Furthermore, Study 2 examined the influence of shopping orientation on retailer choice (H1c). Finally, Study 3 tested whether consumers' financial budget moderates the influence of shopping orientation on promotion attractiveness and retailer choice (H2).

Study 1

In this study, we tested the hypothesis that task-focused shoppers evaluate monetary promotions as more attractive than nonmonetary promotions, and that experiential shoppers evaluate both promotion types as equally attractive.

Method

Participants. We recruited a heterogeneous consumer sample from an online access panel. A total of 110 participants between 18 and 60 years of age completed all parts of the study, which was conducted online. To ensure data quality, we excluded participants with suspicious response patterns (e.g., marking 1 on all answers, $n = 5$), and participants who completed the study in a very short (< 4 min, $n = 5$) or very long time (> 20 min, $n = 11$). This resulted in a final sample of 89 participants (69% women, $M_{\text{age}} = 33.0$ years, $SD = 10.8$).

Stimulus material. We used eight products (e.g. chocolate, detergent, coffee) from existing national brands and created both a monetary and a nonmonetary promotion for each (see Table 1). A pretest with 38 participants ensured that a priori differences in attractiveness between monetary and nonmonetary promotions were small and that the products were all from well-known brands.

-----INSERT TABLE 1 HERE-----

Design. We applied a two-factor mixed design. Shopping orientation was a between-subjects factor and was measured as a continuous variable. Promotion type (monetary vs. nonmonetary) was a dichotomous within-subjects factor. In addition, we applied a counterbalanced design to rule out that congruency effects between product type and promotion type (Chandon *et al.*, 2000) influence the results. We created two stimulus sets. Table 1 lists the combinations of products and promotions for the two stimulus sets. Each participant evaluated all eight products: four with a monetary and four with a nonmonetary promotion. The combinations of products and promotion types were counterbalanced across the two sets: The products that were combined with a monetary promotion in set 1 were combined with a nonmonetary promotion in set 2 (and vice versa). Participants randomly received either stimulus set 1 or stimulus set 2. The results reported below did not vary between the two stimulus sets: Stimulus set did not moderate the interaction between shopping orientation and promotion type reported below (i.e., the interaction between stimulus set, type of promotion, and shopping orientation was not significant, $F < 1$, $p = .80$). Thus, we collapsed the results across both stimulus sets.

Procedure and measures. We assessed chronic shopping orientation using the seven-item Chronic Shopping Orientation Scale (Büttner *et al.*, 2014). The items consist of statements that refer to either a chronic task-focused (e.g., “When shopping, I mainly carry out what I have planned”) or a chronic experiential (e.g., “When shopping, I am usually looking for entertainment”) shopping orientation. On a seven-point rating scale, participants indicated whether a statement applied to them or not (1 = *does not apply at all*; 7 = *fully applies*). We calculated an average score across the items, with higher values indicating a more experiential shopping orientation and lower values indicating a more task-focused shopping orientation ($\alpha = .80$, $M = 3.73$, $SD = 1.04$, 1 = *task-focused*, 7 = *experiential*).

Participants were then asked to imagine themselves in a shopping situation in order to increase participants’ immersion in the topic and to activate shopping orientation as a mental

construct. Next, participants rated the promotions. Each promotion was presented on one page, which included a picture of the product. Promotion attractiveness was measured using four seven-point rating items (“I like this promotion a lot,” “I wish there were more promotions like this,” “With this promotion, I feel like buying the product,” and “This promotion is interesting;” the first three items were taken from Chandon *et al.*, 2000). For each product, the items were averaged to form a score for the overall evaluation of the promotion (all α s > .94).

Results

For each participant, we created a score for the overall attractiveness of monetary promotions by averaging the scores for the four monetary promotions and a score for the overall attractiveness of nonmonetary promotions by averaging the scores for the four nonmonetary promotions. Gender did not moderate the results reported below ($F < 1.01$, $p = .32$).

To test whether promotion type moderated the influence of shopping orientation on promotion attractiveness (H1a, b), we used general linear model (GLM) analysis (Keppel and Wickens, 2004). Promotion evaluation was the continuous dependent variable, type of promotion (monetary vs. nonmonetary) was a discrete within-subjects factor, and shopping orientation was a continuous between-subjects predictor (z -standardized). The analysis yielded the expected Promotion Type \times Shopping Orientation interaction, $F(1, 87) = 10.08$, $p = .002$.

We analyzed the nature of the interaction (see Figure 1) using spotlight analysis (Spiller *et al.*, 2013) for promotion type at the level of 1 SD below the sample mean of shopping orientation (task-focused shoppers), and 1 SD above the sample mean of shopping orientation (experiential shoppers). Task-focused shoppers evaluated monetary promotions ($M = 4.13$) more favorably than nonmonetary promotions ($M = 3.02$), $F(1, 87) = 35.25$, $p < .001$. For experiential shoppers, however, the difference between monetary ($M = 3.98$) and

nonmonetary promotions ($M = 3.70$) was small and not significant $F(1, 87) = 2.06, p = .16$.

These findings are in line with H1a and H1b.

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We further explored the Promotion Type \times Shopping Orientation interaction by examining simple slopes. Regressing the attractiveness of nonmonetary promotions on shopping orientation yielded a significant result: The more experiential a consumer's shopping orientation was, the more positive the evaluation of nonmonetary promotions, $B = 0.34, SE = 0.13, \beta = .27, t(87) = 2.56, p = .012$. In contrast, regressing monetary promotions on shopping orientation did not yield a significant result, $B = -0.07, SE = 0.14, \beta = -.05, t < 1, p = .62$.

Discussion

In line with our hypotheses (H1a, b), we found that shopping orientation influences how consumers react toward monetary versus nonmonetary promotions. Task-focused shoppers evaluated monetary promotions as more attractive than nonmonetary promotions. Experiential shoppers evaluated both promotion types as equally attractive. Thus, the study supports the proposition that promotions are most effective if they provide benefits that are congruent with consumer shopping orientation.

Study 2

The purpose of Study 2 was twofold. First, we wanted to replicate the findings from Study 1 with situational shopping orientation instead of chronic shopping orientation, and for a different product category (i.e., books). Second, we wanted to examine whether the evaluation of the promotions also translates into one of the most crucial variables from a retailer's perspective: whether consumers actually choose the retailer offering a particular promotion over a competitor.

We tested the hypotheses in an experiment that applied a 2 (experiential vs. task-focused shopping orientation) \times 2 (monetary vs. nonmonetary promotion) mixed design.

Shopping orientation was a between-subjects factor and was manipulated by a scenario. In order to reflect that in the marketplace consumers are confronted with different retailers, promotion type was a within-subjects factor. We measured consumers' choice of one of the retailers and attractiveness of both promotions.

Method

Participants. The study was conducted as part of a larger laboratory testing session at the local university. Participants were recruited from the local student pool; 99 individuals participated in the study in exchange for course credit ($M_{\text{age}} = 24.9$ years, $SD = 3.85$, 65% women).

Procedure and measures. Participants' shopping orientation was manipulated by a scenario they were given (Büttner *et al.*, 2013). Participants were randomly assigned to either the experiential ($n = 47$) or the task-focused ($n = 52$) condition.

In the experiential condition, participants read the following scenario: "You are studying for an exam. By now, you are quite exhausted and need a break in which you can relax and distract yourself. Thus, you decide to visit a bookstore and browse through the books. You are in the mood for browsing and looking for new books and audio books. Maybe you'll find something interesting while strolling through the aisles."

In the task-focused condition, participants read the following scenario: "You are studying for an exam. You realize that a very important book is not available at the library. As you also need the book for further exams, you decide to purchase the book. You decide to visit a bookstore with the goal to purchase the book there."

After participants read their scenario, we assessed shopping orientation as a manipulation check. The items were similar to the chronic shopping orientation scale (Büttner *et al.*, 2014), but had been reworded in order to reflect a situational shopping orientation (e.g., "I would be looking for entertainment;" Büttner *et al.*, 2013). For the seven items participants

indicated whether the statements applied to the shopping trip they had just imagined (seven-point rating scale: 1 = *not at all*, 7 = *very much*; $\alpha = .90$).

On the next page, participants read the descriptions of two bookstores – one with a monetary promotion (retailer A) and the other with a nonmonetary promotion (retailer B). Retailer A was described as having a special offer: With a purchase of 10 € or more, customers received a discount of 2.50 €. Retailer B was described as having a special offer as well: With a purchase of 10 € or more, customers received a voucher for free ice cream. This voucher would be valid for three scoops of ice cream in an ice cream parlor located near the bookstore.¹ Retailer preference was measured in a forced-choice option: Consumers were asked whether they would visit retailer A or retailer B in the situation they had just imagined.

Then, we assessed promotion attractiveness for each of the monetary versus nonmonetary promotions. Participants read the same description of the two retailers offering the monetary and the nonmonetary promotions, but this time they rated the attractiveness of the promotion (single-item measure: “I like the promotion of this retailer”, 1 = *don't agree at all*, 7 = *strongly agree*). Each of the two retailer descriptions was on a separate page and the presentation order was randomized. On the final page, we assessed participants' attitude toward ice cream as a control variable with one five-point rating item (“How much do you like ice cream?” 1 = *not at all*, 5 = *very much*).

Results

Manipulation check. To test whether the manipulation of shopping orientation was successful, we created a shopping orientation score using the seven situational shopping orientation items with higher values reflecting an experiential shopping orientation and lower values reflecting a task-focused shopping orientation. The manipulation of shopping orientation was successful: Participants who read the experiential shopping scenario reported a more experiential shopping orientation ($M = 4.9$, $SD = 0.87$) than participants who read the task-focused scenario ($M = 2.6$, $SD = 1.17$), $t(97) = 10.97$, $p < .001$.

Retailer choice. In the task-focused condition, only 11.5% of the participants chose the retailer with the nonmonetary promotion (i.e., 88.5% chose the retailer with the monetary promotion). In the experiential condition, however, 40.4% of the participants chose the retailer with the nonmonetary promotion. To test whether shopping orientation influences retailer choice, we calculated a logistic regression with retailer choice as dependent variable; shopping orientation was a categorical predictor and attitude toward ice cream was a covariate. In line with H1c, shopping orientation significantly predicted retailer choice (Wald's $\chi^2 = 8.13, p = .004$).

Promotion attractiveness. To test the hypothesis that shopping orientation influences the attractiveness of monetary versus nonmonetary promotions, we calculated a mixed 2×2 ANOVA with promotion type (monetary versus nonmonetary) as within-subjects factor and shopping orientation (task-focused versus experiential) as between-subjects factor. The analysis yielded a significant Promotion Type \times Shopping Orientation interaction, $F(1, 97) = 5.21, p = .025$.

We decomposed the interaction (see figure 2) by comparing the attractiveness ratings of monetary versus nonmonetary promotions in each shopping orientation condition. In line with H1a, task-focused shoppers clearly evaluated the monetary promotion ($M = 5.77, SD = 1.02$) as more attractive than the nonmonetary promotion ($M = 4.83, SD = 1.92$), $t(51) = 3.17, p = .003$. Experiential shoppers, by contrast, did not differ in their attractiveness evaluation of monetary promotions ($M = 5.53, SD = 1.23$) and nonmonetary promotions ($M = 5.51, SD = 1.57$), $t < 1, p = .94$. This is in line with H1b.

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Discussion

Consumers with an experiential shopping orientation more frequently chose the retailer offering a nonmonetary promotion, compared to consumers with a task-focused orientation. This demonstrates that shopping orientation influences how consumers react to

retailers' promotional strategies. Furthermore, the study also replicates findings from Study 1: Task-focused shoppers evaluated monetary promotions as more attractive than nonmonetary promotions; experiential shoppers evaluated both promotion types as equally attractive. Study 2, however, extends the findings from Study 1 by demonstrating the effect for experimentally manipulated shopping orientation and for another product category.

Overall, Study 2 provides further support for the proposition that shopping orientation influences the effectiveness of monetary versus nonmonetary promotions. Study 3 further examined the conditions under which shopping orientation influences promotion effectiveness.

Study 3

Study 2 has demonstrated that shopping orientation influences consumers' evaluation of promotions as well as their choice between retailers using different promotional strategies. In Study 3, we examined whether budget moderates the effect. We hypothesized that shopping orientation influences promotion evaluation and retailer choice only if consumers' budget is high, but not if budget is low.

We applied a 2 (task-focused vs. experiential shopping orientation) \times 2 (monetary vs. nonmonetary promotion) \times 2 (low vs. high consumer budget) mixed design. Promotion type was a within-subjects factor, whereas shopping orientation and consumer budget were between-subjects factors. As in Study 2, we measured promotion attractiveness and retailer choice.

Method

Participants. The study was conducted as part of a larger laboratory testing session at the local university. Participants were recruited from the local student pool; 117 individuals participated in the study in exchange for course credit ($M_{\text{age}} = 25.2$ years, $SD = 5.14$, 74% women).

Procedure and measures. Shopping orientation and budget were manipulated by a scenario. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the four conditions and were asked to imagine themselves in a particular situation. The scenario started with the budget manipulation. In the low-budget condition, participants read that their financial situation was bad. They had to find a new student job and their account was already overdrawn. They had to wait for two weeks until they would receive additional money. In the high-budget situation, participants read that their financial situation was very good. They had a well-paid student job and their parents had recently given them 100 €.

Subsequently, participants read the part of the scenario that manipulated their shopping orientation. We used the same scenarios as in Study 2. In the experiential condition, participants read that they had decided to distract themselves from learning by visiting a bookstore and browsing the current assortment of books and audio books. In the task-focused condition, participants read that they had decided to purchase the book at a nearby bookstore for an upcoming exam.

To check the success of the shopping orientation manipulation, we used the same seven items as in Study 2 ($\alpha = .91$). As a manipulation check for budget, we used one seven-point rating item (“How much money was available to you in the situation you have just imagined?”, 1 = *very little*, 7 = *a lot*).

After that, we assessed retailer choice and promotion attractiveness using the same measures as in Study 2. Participants read the descriptions of two bookstores—one with a monetary promotion (retailer A) and the other with a nonmonetary promotion (retailer B). Retailer A was described as having a special offer: With a purchase of 10 € or more, customers received a discount of 2.50 €. Retailer B was described as having a special offer as well: With a purchase of 10 € or more, customers received a voucher for free ice cream. As a measure of retailer choice, consumers were asked whether they would visit retailer A or retailer B in the situation they had just imagined.

Then, we assessed promotion attractiveness for each of the monetary versus nonmonetary promotions. Participants read the same description of the two retailers offering the monetary and the nonmonetary promotions, but this time they rated the attractiveness of the promotion (single-item measure: “I like the promotion of this retailer”, 1 = *don't agree at all*, 7 = *strongly agree*). Each of the two retailer descriptions was on a separate page and the presentation order was randomized. On the final page, we assessed participants' attitude toward ice cream as a control variable with one five-point rating item (“How much do you like ice cream?” 1 = *not at all*, 5 = *very much*).

Results

Manipulation Check. The manipulations of shopping orientation and consumer budget were successful. Participants indicated a more experiential shopping orientation in the experiential ($M = 4.75$, $SD = 1.15$) than in the task-focused condition ($M = 2.44$, $SD = 1.16$), $t(115) = 10.78$, $p < .001$. Participants also indicated that more money was available to them in the high-budget ($M = 4.67$, $SD = 1.24$) than in the low budget condition ($M = 1.77$, $SD = 1.05$), $t(115) = 13.67$, $p < .001$.

Retailer Choice. Figure 3 shows the choice of retailer with the nonmonetary promotion versus the retailer with the monetary promotion in the experimental conditions. We analyzed the pattern of retailer choice using logistic regression, with retailer choice as the dependent variable. The categorical variables budget (low vs. high) and shopping orientation (experiential vs. task-focused), as well as their interaction term, were entered as predictors. To control for a priori differences in preferences, we included attitude toward ice cream as a continuous covariate. As expected, the analysis yielded a significant Budget \times Shopping Orientation interaction (Wald's $\chi^2 = 5.14$, $p = .023$). We explored the interaction with separate logistic regressions for the low- and high-budget conditions. Shopping orientation was included as a categorical predictor; attitude toward ice cream was entered as a continuous covariate. The logistic regression showed that shopping orientation did not predict retailer

choice in the low-budget condition (Wald's $\chi^2 = 0.31, p = .58$). In the low-budget condition, 16.7% of the experiential shoppers and 13.3% of the task-focused shoppers chose the retailer with the nonmonetary promotion. In the high-budget condition, in contrast, shopping orientation was a significant predictor of retailer choice (Wald's $\chi^2 = 10.83, p = .001$). In this condition, 51.9% of the experiential shoppers chose the retailer with the nonmonetary promotion, whereas only 13.3% of the task-focused shoppers chose the nonmonetary retailer. These results support H2.

-----INSERT FIGURE 3 HERE-----

Promotion Attractiveness. To test whether consumer budget moderates the influence of shopping orientation on promotion attractiveness, we calculated a mixed $2 \times 2 \times 2$ ANOVA with budget (low vs. high) and shopping orientation (task-focused vs. experiential) as between-subjects factors; promotion type (monetary vs. nonmonetary) was a within-subjects factor. The Budget \times Promotion Type \times Shopping Orientation interaction was not significant, $F < 1, p = .87$, but the analysis yielded a significant Budget \times Promotion Type interaction, $F(1, 113) = 8.28, p = .005$, and a significant Promotion Type \times Shopping Orientation interaction, $F(1, 113) = 4.10, p = .045$.

Keeping in mind that the three-way interaction was not significant and thus any further analysis of the interaction pattern would be tentative, we examined the pattern of attractiveness ratings under conditions of low versus high budget (see Figure 4) using separate 2 (shopping orientation) \times 2 (promotion type) ANOVAs for both budget conditions. In the low budget condition, the Shopping Orientation \times Promotion Type interaction was not significant, $F(1, 58) = 1.60, p = .21$, and the main effect of promotion type was significant, $F(1, 58) = 26.65, p < .001$. This was in line with our expectations and simple effect tests showed that monetary promotions were more attractive than nonmonetary promotions both to task-focused shoppers ($M_{\text{mon}} = 6.07$ vs. $M_{\text{n_mon}} = 4.03$, SD), $t(29) = 4.32, p < .001$, and to experiential shoppers ($M_{\text{mon}} = 5.53$ vs. $M_{\text{n_mon}} = 4.30$), $t(29) = 2.92, p = .007$.

In the high budget condition, the main effect of promotion type was not significant, $F(1, 55) = 1.88, p = .18$. The Shopping Orientation \times Promotion Type interaction was not significant, $F(1, 55) = 2.65, p = .11$, but results from simple effect tests showed the predicted interaction pattern. Monetary promotions were more attractive than nonmonetary promotions to task-focused shoppers only ($M_{\text{mon}} = 5.90$ vs. $M_{\text{n_mon}} = 5.03$), $t(29) = 2.73, p = .011$. To experiential shoppers, monetary and nonmonetary promotions were equally attractive, ($M_{\text{mon}} = 4.63$ vs. $M_{\text{n_mon}} = 4.70$), $t(26) < 1, p = .88$.

-----INSERT FIGURE 4 HERE-----

Discussion

The results on retailer choice demonstrate that budget moderates the influence of shopping orientation on the effectiveness of monetary versus nonmonetary promotions. When consumer budget was high, experiential shoppers were substantially more likely than task-focused shoppers to choose the retailer with the nonmonetary promotion. When consumer budget was low, experiential and task-focused shoppers were equally (un)likely to choose the retailer with the nonmonetary promotion.

The results on promotion attractiveness show a similar pattern. Under conditions of low budget, both task-focused and experiential shoppers rated monetary promotions as more attractive than nonmonetary promotions. Under conditions of high budget, however, experiential shoppers rated monetary and nonmonetary promotions as equally attractive, whereas task-focused shoppers rated monetary promotions as more attractive than nonmonetary promotions. The findings from the high budget condition mirror the results from Study 2. Nevertheless, these results on promotion attractiveness should be considered as tentative, because the simple effect tests support the hypotheses, but the corresponding interaction effects were not significant. Importantly, however, these results are in line with the findings on retailer choice, and the overall pattern of results shows the moderating influence of consumer budget.

General Discussion

The present research examined whether promotions are more effective if they support a consumer in pursuing his or her goals during shopping. Across three experiments, we found support for this proposition. Shopping goals as reflected in consumer shopping orientation influenced consumer reactions toward promotions. Task-focused shoppers evaluated monetary promotions as more attractive than nonmonetary promotions. Experiential shoppers, in contrast, evaluated monetary and nonmonetary promotions as comparably attractive. Shopping orientation also influenced consumer choice between competing retailers: Experiential shoppers were more likely than task-focused shoppers to choose a retailer with a nonmonetary promotion over a retailer with a monetary promotion.

In addition, we demonstrated that low consumer budget is a boundary condition for the influence of shopping orientation on retailer choice. Experiential shoppers chose the nonmonetary-promotion retailer more often than task-focused shoppers only under conditions of high budget. Under conditions of low budget, experiential and task-focused shoppers did not differ in their choice of retailer.

The influence of shopping orientation on the effectiveness of monetary versus nonmonetary promotions was replicated in three studies that varied in two characteristics. First, we showed that the effect held irrespective of whether shopping orientation was conceptualized and measured as the consumer's chronic predisposition (Study 1), or whether shopping orientation was experimentally manipulated via the shopping task (Studies 2 and 3). Second, the effect emerged across different product categories (FMCGs in Study 1; books in Studies 2 and 3). Overall, this underlines the generalizability of the conclusions.

Our results show that shopping orientation is an important consumer characteristic that should be considered in the design of promotions. These results extend the benefit congruency framework of sales promotion effectiveness (Chandon *et al.*, 2000), which did not address consumer characteristics, but focused on product type as a driver for congruency with

promotion type. The present results extend the model by showing that positive congruency effects can also occur between a consumer's shopping orientation and promotion type. Thus, our findings imply that retailers may benefit from customizing promotions to segments of customers; this was not addressed by Chandon *et al.*'s (2000) original framework.

A further contribution is to demonstrate that consumers' financial budget is important, because it moderates the influence of shopping orientation on the effectiveness of monetary versus nonmonetary promotions. Previous research has neglected the role of consumer budget for the effectiveness of monetary versus nonmonetary promotions. It was also not addressed in Chandon *et al.*'s (2000) framework and our findings raise the question whether consumer budget also moderates the congruency effect between product type and promotion type. Further research could examine this question.

Limitations and Further Research

One limitation of the present research is that we focused on only two product categories: FMCGs and books. We were able to replicate the basic effect across these product categories, providing support for the generalizability of the findings. However, other product categories may introduce attributes that moderate the effect demonstrated here. For instance, the price level of the products was rather low in the present research. Thus, further research should address whether the congruency effect between promotion type and shopping orientation also applies to other types of products with higher price levels, such as apparel or furniture.

Second, previous research has demonstrated that various features of promotions, such as the level of promotional benefit or the presentation of a price discount, also influence consumers' reactions to promotions (d'Astous and Jacob, 2002; Hardesty and Bearden, 2003; Palazón and Delgado-Ballester, 2009, 2011). We tried to eliminate the influence of promotional benefit level and price presentation in Study 1 by including various levels of price discounts and by presenting the price discounts in percentage terms, as well as by

presenting the old and the new price. However, we did not systematically manipulate discount level or price presentation in the studies, so we cannot rule out the possibility that these factors would moderate the effect found in the studies.

Third, the studies relied on self-reported evaluations and choices, and not on data reflecting actual purchases. In addition, Studies 2 and 3 used descriptions of fictitious retailers, because we wanted to control for the influence of further variables such as previous experiences with a retailer, retailer brand image, etc., which might also have an impact on consumers' reactions toward promotions. Further research could extend the framework and examine how these additional factors influence the benefit congruency effect.

Managerial Implications

Keeping the limitations in mind, the results provide a number of implications for retail managers. Retailers cannot change their customers' shopping orientation, but can adapt their promotional strategies. The present research implies that retailers will benefit from considering customers' shopping orientation when planning and implementing promotions.

First, monetary promotions were effective for both task-focused and experiential shoppers. From this perspective, the dominance of monetary promotions in retailing practice appears to be the most adequate strategy for promotions at a mass-market level. Nevertheless, findings on the negative side-effects of monetary promotions suggest that this is a dangerous strategy as it may lower expectations regarding prices, and increase consumers' price sensitivity in the long run (Kalwani and Yim, 1992; Mela *et al.*, 1997).

Second, our findings imply that using nonmonetary promotions instead of monetary promotions is not a magic bullet for the problem of price sensitivity. Nonmonetary promotions were equally effective as monetary promotions for experiential shoppers, but task-focused shoppers reacted less favorably toward nonmonetary promotions. This indicates that if cost-benefit considerations are an issue with nonmonetary promotions (e.g., when offering

free gifts), retailers should focus on experiential shoppers because these shoppers are more likely to react positively to the promotion.

This leads us to the third implication: Customizing promotion type to customers' shopping orientation can enhance the effectiveness of promotions. Task-focused shoppers should be given monetary promotions because these promotions are more successful with this type of shopper. Correspondingly, experiential shoppers should be given nonmonetary promotions since, although they react favorably to both nonmonetary and monetary promotions, nonmonetary promotions do not bring about dangers with respect to lowering price expectations, and increasing price sensitivity. Such an approach offers a trade-off between the positive (increased sales) and the negative (increased price sensitivity from monetary promotions) effects of promotions.

Fourth, customizing promotions to customers' shopping orientation will be more effective when consumers' financial budget is high, compared to when it is low. This suggests that for low-income segments, retailers should use monetary promotions irrespective of customers' shopping orientation. If targeting higher-income segments, retailers should customize promotions to experiential versus task-focused shopping orientations.

But how can retailers identify their shoppers' shopping orientations and thus use this information for customer segmentation? The orientation under which a consumer shops may be influenced by his or her chronic predisposition (Baker and Wakefield, 2012; Büttner *et al.*, 2014) or by situational features (Büttner *et al.*, 2013; Kaltcheva *et al.*, 2011; Kaltcheva and Weitz, 2006; van Rompay *et al.*, 2012). In the present research, we found that both aspects of shopping orientation influence consumers' reactions to promotions. This qualifies shopping orientation as a variable that can be used for customer segmentation in two ways. First, consumers' chronic preferences for a task-focused or an experiential shopping orientation can be assessed using questionnaires, as with Study 1. This approach is especially feasible if data are collected across a number of contacts with a shopper, as with the use of loyalty cards.

Second, customers can be segmented according to the type of store and the retail offering (Kaltcheva and Weitz, 2006). Experiential stores (e.g., Abercrombie & Fitch) are more likely to attract shoppers with an experiential shopping orientation and to activate an experiential shopping orientation, whereas utility-oriented stores (e.g., Wal-Mart) are more likely to attract task-focused shoppers and to activate a task-focused shopping orientation. The findings from the present research imply that experiential stores should focus more on nonmonetary promotions, whereas utility-oriented stores should focus more on monetary promotions.

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Footnotes

¹ The amount of the discount was based on a pretest. At the location where the study was conducted, the ice cream would cost about 2.80 €. A pretest showed that 2.50 € is the point at which most consumers were indecisive regarding whether to choose the discount or the ice cream.

Table 1

Promotions Used in Study 1

Product	Promotion type	Technique	Short description	Price	Stimulus set
Chocolate	Monetary	Free product	10% / 40 grams more for the same price	2.67 €	1
	Nonmonetary	Sweepstake	Collectable stickers; four matching stickers wins a prize (CD, DVD, etc.)	2.67 €	2
Detergent	Monetary	Discount	15% off / original price: 5.99 €	5.09 €	1
	Nonmonetary	Free gift	Pocket-sized stain remover included	5.99 €	2
Liquid soap	Monetary	Discount	More than 10% off / original price: 2.29 €	1.99 €	2
	Nonmonetary	Sweepstake	Solving puzzle on package wins prizes immediately and winner enters a lottery for a weekend in the mountains	2.29 €	1
Mineral water	Monetary	Free product	Three six-packs for the price of two / save 5.29 €	5.29 € ^a	2
	Nonmonetary	Free gift/sweepstake	Every second six-pack includes a cinema ticket	5.29 €	1
Dish detergent	Monetary	Discount	15% off / original price: 1.99 €	1.69 €	2
	Nonmonetary	Free gift	Pack of sponges	1.99 €	1

Table continued on the next page

Table 1—continued

Product	Promotion type	Technique	Short description	Price	Stimulus set
Tooth paste	Monetary	Free product	3 for the price of 2 / save: 1.89 €	1.89 € ^a	1
	Nonmonetary	Sweepstake	Each pack wins prizes immediately (e.g., wash bag)	1.89 €	2
Coffee	Monetary	Free product	2 for the price of 1 / save 5.49 €	2.75 € ^a	1
	Nonmonetary	Free gift	Free set of coffee cups with each pack of two	5.49 € ^a	2
Soft drink	Monetary	Discount	15% off / original price: 1.89 €	1.59 €	2
	Nonmonetary	Sweepstake	Win a trip to Paris for two persons	1.89 €	1

^a price for one pack. *Note.* Previous research has found that price presentation influences how consumers react to monetary promotions (Hardesty and Bearden, 2003). To rule out this possible confounding factor, the descriptions of the monetary promotions included relative savings, the original price, and the reduced price.

Figure Captions

Figure 1. Simple slope regression lines for promotion attractiveness predicted by shopping orientation and promotion type (Study 1, $N = 89$).

Figure 2. Mean ratings of promotion attractiveness by shopping orientation and promotion type (Study 2, $N = 99$).

Figure 3. Percentage of participants who chose the retailer with the nonmonetary promotion (versus the retailer with the monetary promotion) by shopping orientation and consumer budget (Study 3, $N = 117$).

Figure 4. Mean ratings of promotion attractiveness by consumer budget, shopping orientation, and promotion type (Study 3, $N = 117$).

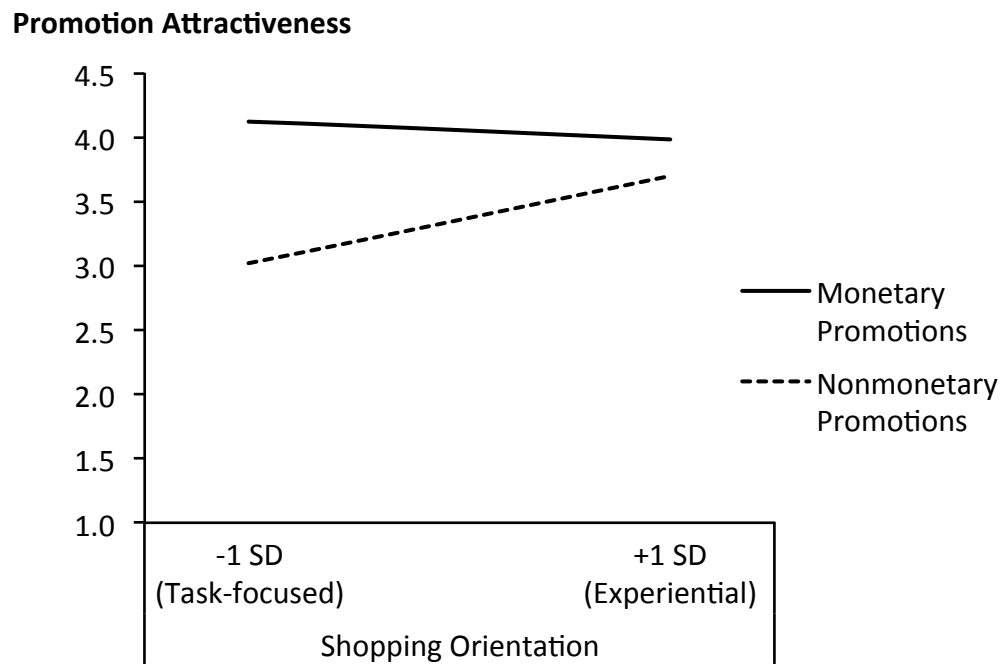


Figure 1. Simple slope regression lines for promotion attractiveness predicted by shopping orientation and promotion type (Study 1, $N = 89$).

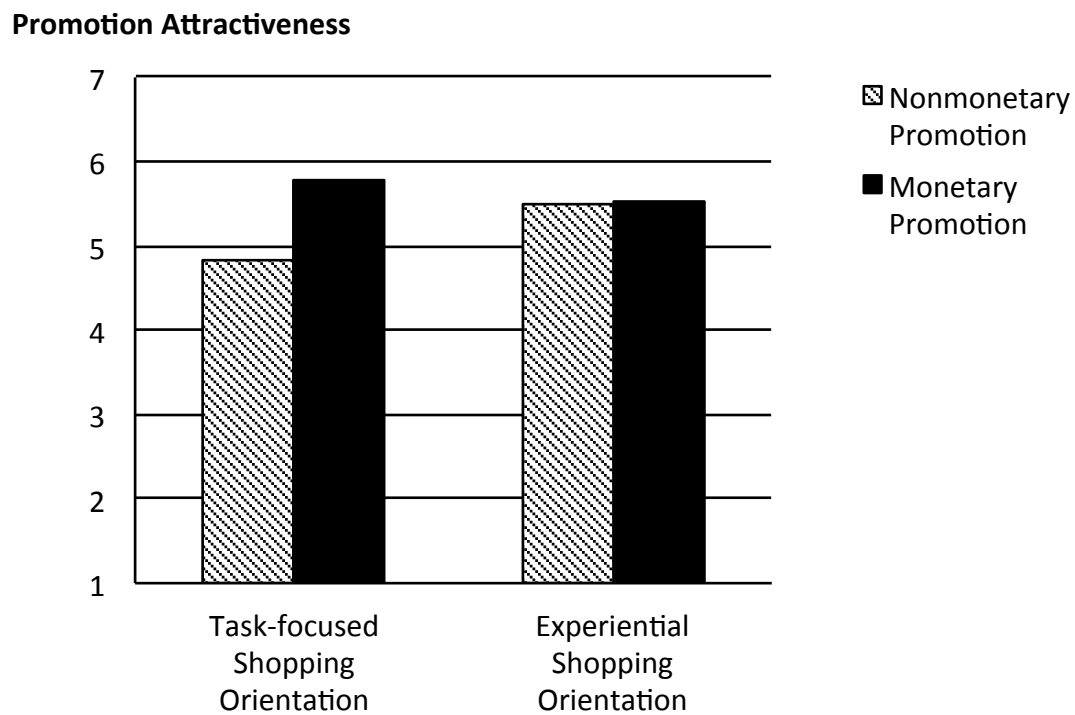


Figure 2. Mean ratings of promotion attractiveness by shopping orientation and promotion type (Study 2, $N = 99$).

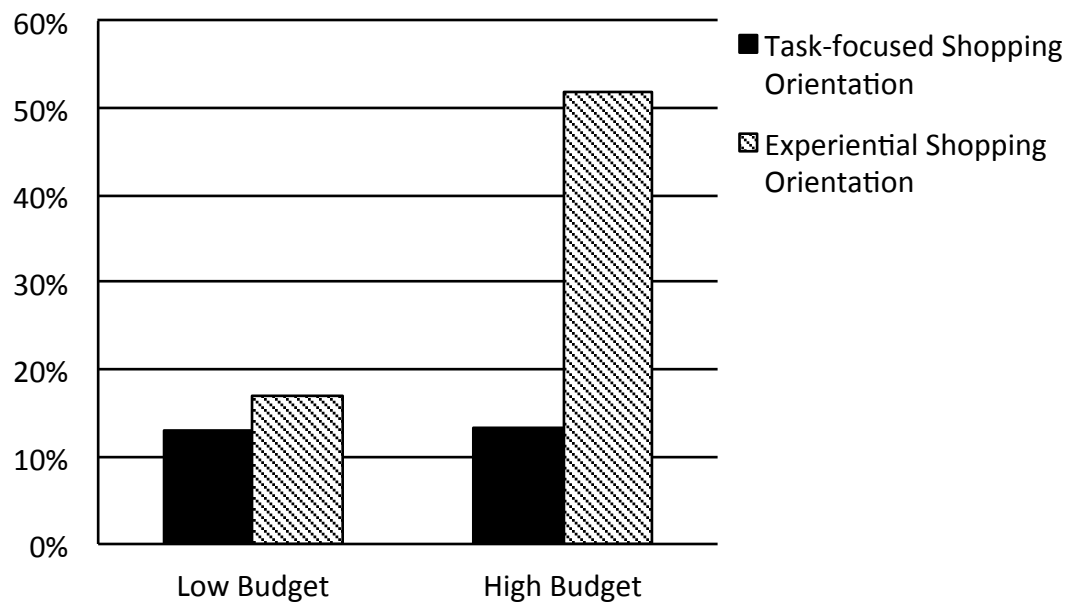
Choice of Retailer with Nonmonetary Promotion

Figure 3. Percentage of participants who chose the retailer with the nonmonetary promotion (versus the retailer with the monetary promotion) by shopping orientation and consumer budget (Study 3, $N = 117$).

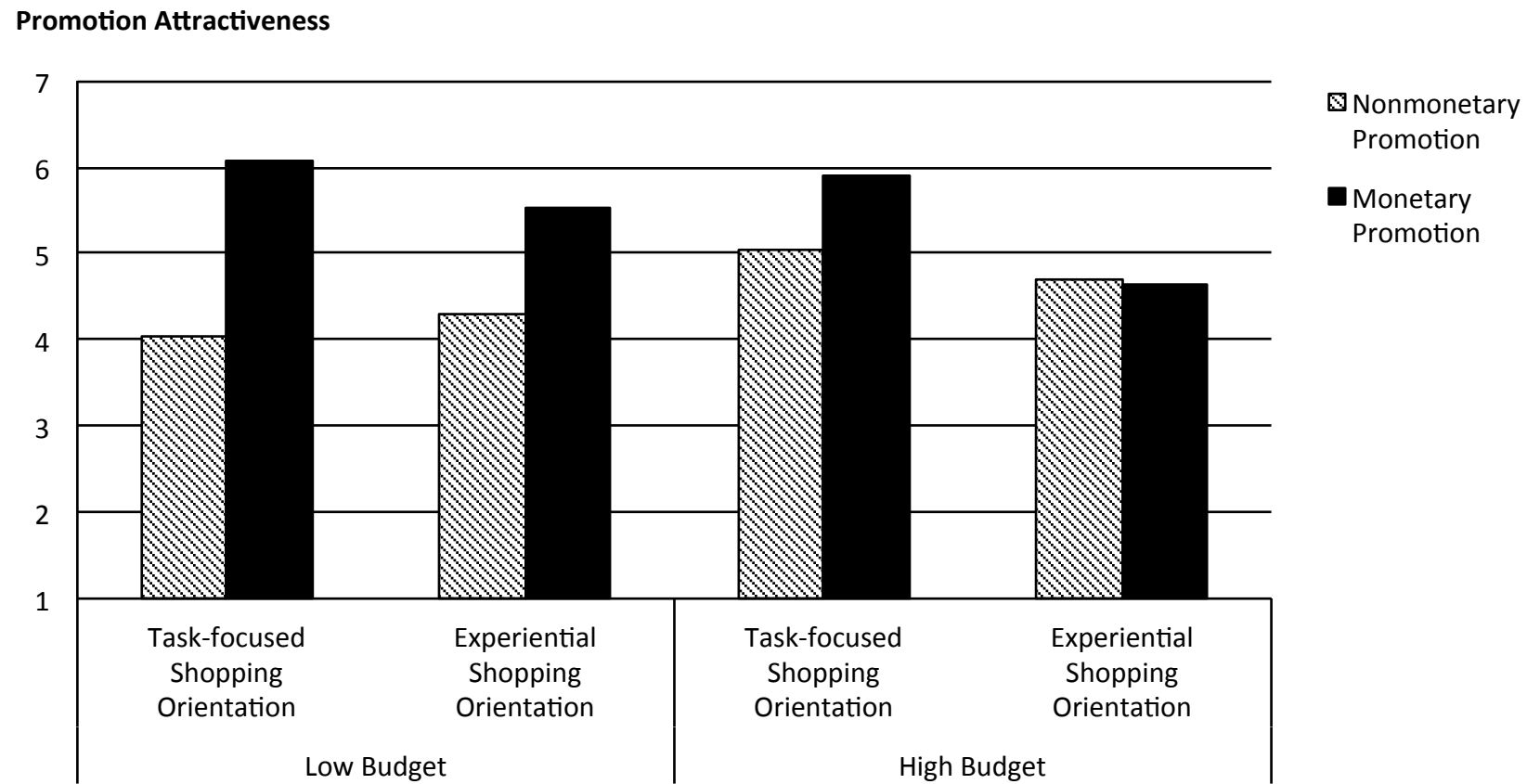


Figure 4. Mean ratings of promotion attractiveness by consumer budget, shopping orientation, and promotion type (Study 3, $N = 117$)