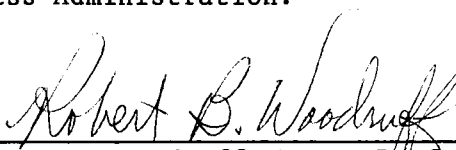
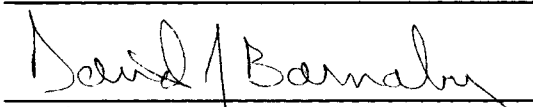
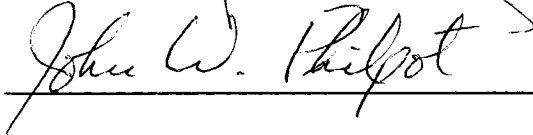


To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Claire Pera Bolfig entitled "An Examination of Selected Triggering Mechanisms for Consumer Satisfaction Processes." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Business Administration.


Robert B. Woodruff, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:

Accepted for the Council:


Vice Provost
and Dean of The Graduate School

AN EXAMINATION OF SELECTED TRIGGERING MECHANISMS
FOR CONSUMER SATISFACTION PROCESSES

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Claire Pera Bolfing

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to provide insights into consumer post-usage evaluation processes. The study focused on: (1) replication and extension of research on the disconfirmation paradigm; and (2) the inclusion of involvement as an antecedent or triggering cue to the evaluation process. The literature review indicated that there has been inadequate attention given to the role of experience-based norms as consumer reference points. Focal brand expectations, product norms, and favorite brand norms were included as standards of comparison in this study. The involvement literature showed that both individual and situational components have been used to define involvement. This study defined involvement as a product specific, task-oriented concern for a consumption experience. The individual component was labeled enduring product importance to reflect long-term commitment and identification with a product category.

Experimental procedures were used in which two levels of expectations and two levels of involvement were manipulated and presented to 91 graduate students. Different brands of chablis and product messages were used for expectations, and different usage occasions were presented to create differing involvement levels. Each subject's perceived norms and expectations, performance evaluations, disconfirmation, and satisfaction were subsequently measured. Enduring product importance was included as a covariate to reduce experimental error.

Results suggest the expectations and involvement effects are moderately different for the two chablis brands and two consumption occasions. Expectations relationships were as typically hypothesized, i.e., significantly related to performance and satisfaction, and independent of disconfirmation. Involvement hypotheses indicated significant relationships between involvement and attributes used for evaluation, performance, latitude of acceptable performance, and favorite brand disconfirmation. Evaluation models were also different for the two involvement scenarios. For the low involvement occasion, disconfirmation was the major predictor of satisfaction. For the high involvement experience, neither disconfirmation nor initial standards affected subjects' satisfaction. Rather, satisfaction was mainly determined by performance. It was concluded that involvement may affect the way in which consumers choose to evaluate products. Market segmentation and positioning analyses can benefit from better understanding of satisfaction process differences between consumer groups.

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CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The concept of consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction (CS/D) is fundamental to marketing thought and practice. Success of marketing programs is usually related to consumer postpurchase evaluations, satisfaction, and repeat purchase behavior. In addition, public policy decisions are often based on these same consumer responses to marketing programs. Czepiel and Rosenberg (1977) aptly summarized the pitfalls of ignorance or disregard for product performance evaluation and satisfaction: further involvement of externally-controlled agencies in product monitoring; and loss of prestige, trust, and consumer commitment to firms in the marketplace.

At the same time, academic researchers recognize the need for improved explanation of consumer evaluation processes. Consequently, CS/D research has become quite extensive in recent years, with focus on key conceptual and theoretical developments. Proof of the work in CS/D is found in Hunt's (1983) bibliography of over 600 articles.

Currently, the research area is entering a transitional phase. Now, adaptation of the general CS/D process paradigm to account for individual and market variability is a more important focus (Woodruff, Cadotte, and Jenkins, 1983a). Expansion and consolidation of the work governing evaluation processes can, at this point, become

the next stage of CS/D research. A brief review of the major research advances in the CS/D area, up to this point, is appropriate.

Conceptualization of the CS/D Process

Existing CS/D Theory

All of the comprehensive consumer decision process models include a "purchase outcome" construct, indicating an explicit concern on the part of consumer behaviorists for satisfaction issues (Engel and Blackwell, 1982; Engel, Blackwell, and Kollat, 1978; Howard and Sheth, 1969; Kotler, 1976). One early definition of CS/D as an outcome was "the buyer's cognitive state of being adequately or inadequately rewarded in a buying situation for the sacrifice he has undergone" (Howard and Sheth, 1969).

However, "outcome" as just defined is a discrete act or single variable and fails to explain adequately how a decision is reached. Consequently, a decision process perspective has become a more acceptable research frame of reference (Day, 1977). The major advantages of a post-choice evaluation, or CS/D, process perspective are the description of a sequence of factors relating to purchase outcome, and the explanation of the relationship of these factors to behavior and to each other. Thus, the recent emphasis on the CS/D "process" encourages a total and integrative view of post-choice evaluation.

In recent years, the major theoretical framework for the CS/D process is the confirmation/disconfirmation paradigm. The paradigm

includes a sequence of activities incorporating (1) perceptual comparison between pre-performance standards and brand performance judgments, and (2) the cognitive, emotional, and behavioral responses to the comparison results. Figure 1 presents a general view of this framework and reflects past research efforts. The paradigm organizes four major conceptual areas: standards of comparison, postpurchase performance, comparisons of perceived performance to standards, and derived satisfaction/dissatisfaction. It is clear that the term CS/D reflects only a part of an entire evaluation process, which itself is called the CS/D process. To understand the development of CS/D however, one must review all the major evaluation process concepts.

Standards of comparison. Interest in post-use product/brand evaluation has led to research to discover what buyers use as reference points in assessing a product's actual performance. Initially, beliefs concerning products' physical and/or performance characteristics formed the bases for conceptual definitions of comparison standards (Oliver, 1977, 1980a, 1980b; Olson and Dover, 1976, 1979; LaTour and Peat, 1979a; Woodruff, Cadotte, and Jenkins, 1983b). These standards were defined as expectations, or product performance predictions.

Expectations were defined further as the perceived likelihood that a product possess a certain attribute or would lead to a particular outcome (Oliver, 1980a; Olson and Dover, 1976, 1979). Oliver (1980a) included an importance weight for each expectation

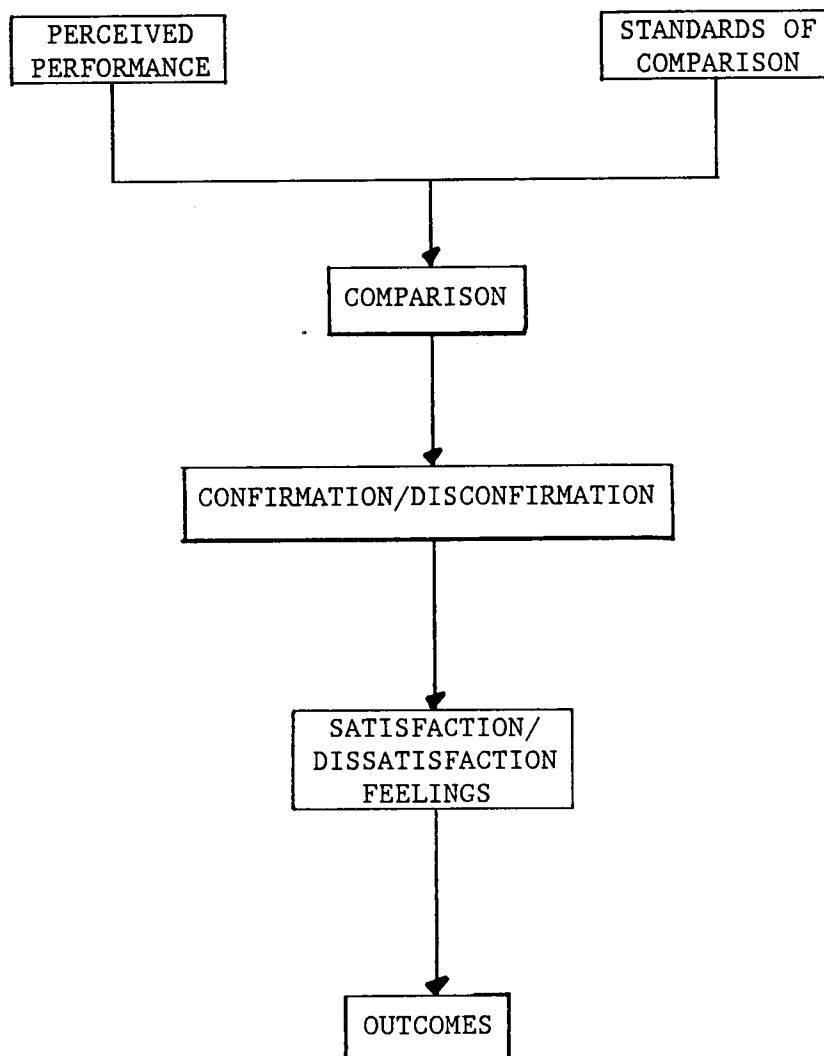


FIGURE 1

THE POST-CHOICE EVALUATION PROCESS USING
A CONFIRMATION/DISCONFIRMATION PARADIGM

dimension along with a corresponding expectation belief. Day (1977) broadened the meaning of expectations by listing several predicted performance factors, which are used by the consumer in the formation of brand expectations: expectations about the nature of the product; expectations about costs in the acquisition and use of the product; and expectations about social benefits and costs of using the product.

More recent research has found empirical evidence of consumer performance norms as another dimension of the standards concept (Cadotte, Woodruff, and Jenkins, 1983a; Miller, 1977; Summers and Granbois, 1977; Swan and Trawick, 1979a, 1981b). Normative reference points are what the consumer feels s/he deserves and/or ought to get on key attributes. Woodruff et al. (1983a) have labeled these standards as experience-based norms, recognizing that experience may be with the brand purchased, other similar brands, and/or other product types. Moreover, a consumer's experience base may be derived from product-in-use knowledge, be it marketer induced, personal experience, or vicarious experience.

To sum up, performance standards may reflect several kinds of performance in a usage situation. Choice of norms or predictions as performance standards are likely to yield different product evaluations and subsequent feelings of satisfaction. Consequently, there is a need to understand the composition of performance standards under varying purchase conditions.

Post-purchase performance. At some point during or following consumption of a brand, a consumer assesses the performance of the object. Post-purchase evaluation reflects the individual's interpretation of reality rather than an objective definition of performance. Moreover, performance perceptions are the result of a cognitive evaluation process involving relevant product/benefit dimensions.

Much research has focused on the underlying rationale for the developing of perceived performance. Researchers have examined prior expectations or predictions and actual performance as determinants of perceived performance (Anderson, 1973; Cardozo, 1965; Korgaonkar and Moschis, 1982; Oliver, 1977; Olshavsky and Miller, 1972; Olson and Dover, 1976). There is little consistency between the results. Development of performance perceptions may reflect individual and contextual differences not previously included in the general CS/D model. Thus, how people perceive performance still warrants more research.

Disconfirmation. The discrepancy between perceived performance and the standards of comparison is the third major component of the evaluation paradigm. Confirmation/disconfirmation (or simply disconfirmation) is a belief or cognition concerning the outcome of the comparison. Intuitively, any discrepancy between performance and standards should be perceived as disconfirmation. However, a consumer may find small discrepancies between reference points and performance to be negligible. There may be a latitude of acceptable

performance, which is perceived as either matching or closely approximating a performance standard. Confirmation of one's reference point occurs within this range. Disconfirmation occurs only when the discrepancy is too large to assimilate away.

Helson (1964) has noted the adaptability of an individual's reference point.

one perceives stimuli only in relation to an adapted standard. The standard is a function of perceptions of the stimulus itself, the context, and psychological and physiological characteristics of the organism. Once created, the 'adaptation level' serves to sustain subsequent evaluations in that positive and negative deviations will remain in the general vicinity of one's original position. Only large impacts on the adaptation level will change the final tone of the subject's evaluation.

The interesting point here is the possibility of shifting, expanding, or shrinking acceptable performance ranges. The cause of performance range realignments is not explicitly known, but Helson suggests that individual and contextual influences are possible determinants of these disconfirmation ranges. Since confirmation or disconfirmation can have important implications for the resulting expression of CS/D, the link between disconfirmation ranges and CS/D should receive more research attention.

Consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction. The most recent conceptualization for product CS/D refers to the resulting emotion or surprise feeling following cognitive disconfirmation evaluations (Bearden, Crockett, and Teel, 1981; Cadotte et al., 1983a; Churchill

and Surprenant, 1982; Hunt, 1977; Oliver, 1978, 1980a, 1980b; Ortinau, 1978; Westbrook, 1977b, 1983; Westbrook and Cote, 1980; Westbrook and Oliver, 1981; Woodruff et al., 1983b). When CS/D is defined as an affective response, the connection between confirmation/disconfirmation "beliefs" and satisfaction/dissatisfaction "feelings" must be explored. Measurements must reflect distinctions between cognitive and emotional evaluations and contain relevant underlying dimensions (Westbrook, 1983).

Emphasis on the triggering mechanisms, which differentiate unconscious cognitive responses from conscious affective results, helps to determine whether or not the evaluation process actually includes separate constructs (Day, 1977; Woodruff et al., 1983b).

In summary, the entire area of expectations, performance, and satisfaction research has grown, from the cursory mention of an evaluation variable in comprehensive models to the current development of a complex satisfaction process. This CS/D process has received a moderate amount of empirical support. And yet, there remains considerable unexplained variability in the empirical results, indicating the present disconfirmation paradigm is only partially successful in explaining the CS/D process. Further study of the exogenous conditions surrounding the post-choice evaluation process now is suggested (Day, 1977; Woodruff et al., 1983a). The following section elaborates on some exogenous factors which might influence CS/D development.

Theoretical Extensions of the CS/D Process

Consumer characteristics. There have been many attempts over the years to relate the development of satisfaction or dissatisfaction to consumer characteristics, notably demographic and situational variables (Swan, Trawick, and Carroll, 1977). On the whole, the mere presence of certain conditions does not insure a particular evaluation response. The next avenue of investigation therefore could be the consumer and environmental interface, where the consumer's interpretation of a consumption situation influences product evaluation.

The customer's interpretation and ultimate concern for a purchase/consumption experience possibly could influence this CS/D process. One person may be highly motivated to carefully assess and respond to a product's performance, whereas another may be rather indifferent to purchase/consumption experiences. Differences in consumer sensitivity therefore can result in CS/D process variability across individuals. Interest or sensitivity to an evaluation process suggests the importance of studying the contribution of the construct, involvement, to the basic disconfirmation paradigm.

Involvement. The concept of involvement has been reviewed by both social psychologists and consumer behaviorists. Several authors have suggested that there are two components of involvement (Arora, 1982; Bloch, 1981, 1982; Clarke and Belk, 1979; Cohen, 1982; Houston and Rothschild, 1977, 1978; Oliver and Bearden, 1983). One component

is the personal importance of or enduring importance with a product. Enduring importance refers to the bonding of an individual to a brand or product choice, issue, etc., so that a long-term attachment or commitment to the product develops (Bloch, 1981, 1982; Bloch and Richins, 1983). This commitment represents either the centrality of the stimulus to one's value system (Lastovicka and Gardner, 1979; Rokeach, 1968, 1973; Sherif, Sherif, and Nebergall, 1965) or the use of the product/stimulus as an expression of self-concept (Bloch, 1982; Oliver and Bearden, 1983). The more aligned a stimulus is to central values or the more necessary the object becomes as a manifestation of one's own self-image, the more personally important it becomes.

Another dimension of enduring importance is an individual's experience with or previous exposure to the product and/or its usage situation (Houston and Rothschild, 1977; Lastovicka and Gardner, 1979; Parkinson and Schenk, 1980). "Heavy users" may exhibit high enduring importance, because of (1) the strong associations between product and life-style, or (2) the desirable product benefits from positive reinforcement.

A product may be perceived as having enduring importance even though a specific purchase or usage goal is not at hand. In this case, importance perceptions are based on the product's ability to satisfy intrinsically consumers' enduring needs. For example, some consumers maintain high interest in wines, considering themselves

wine connoisseurs or hobbyists, even when they are not about to purchase or drink a wine.

However, several researchers feel this enduring importance definition implies different goals and motivations than an involvement conceptualization, which is oriented toward product usage for specific occasions (Cohen, 1982; Mitchell, 1979; Park and Mittal, 1982). This second component of involvement stresses the perceived task importance or situational experience which can be associated with a product. Involvement is seen as a level of arousal at a particular moment of time for a particular purpose (Cohen, 1982). It is the level of energy released, or intensity of interest in, a specific object-in-use situation.

Situational involvement refers to the importance or consequences associated with a use situation (Arora, 1983; Bloch and Richins, 1983; Clarke and Belk, 1979). These consequences can take several forms, as noted in much of the situational research over the past decade. First, there are utilitarian concerns and product characteristics, which generate interest in a product's performance for a specific occasion (Houston and Rothschild, 1977). Some examples of functional needs and product dimensions include product complexity, product cost, and consumption time. Secondly, products frequently have an impact on the way others perceive us. Social psychological concerns are represented by the expected presence or absence of other persons during the time of consumption, and product identification with relevant reference groups (Belk, 1974; Kakkar and

Lutz, 1981). Product consequences are related to how others will evaluate a consumer as s/he uses certain brands or products publicly.

The important point here is the appropriate role of consumer characteristics in the development and intensity of consumption-related responses. Objects or issues are not high or low in involvement by themselves. Rather, it is assumed that the context of the situation imparts instrumental importance and short-term goals which will motivate, or involve, a consumer in a decision process.

Enduring involvement, or enduring importance, is defined optimally as the ongoing concern with a product which an individual brings to the purchase or use situation. Enduring importance serves as an anchor for perceptual judgments. The wine connoisseur, rather than the average consumer, is likely to experience more ego loss if a wine purchase and consumption experience is poorly perceived. The drive to have CS/D optimality is thus greater for the connoisseur because high levels of enduring importance exist.

One simply adds confusion to a study, however, when a concept is defined too broadly. Involvement seems to contain both situational and personal dimensions, which should be added separately to a disconfirmation paradigm. Both concepts should help to explain CS/D variability. This study, however, focused on the situational or task-related component of the construct involvement. Houston and Rothschild (1977) note that one must carefully study past research because of the confusion generated by overlap in definition and measurement of the two components. In many studies, for example, the

theories of ego or enduring involvement were cited and used to explain centrality of attitudes. And yet, the operationalizations used for ego involvement were actually situational measures or manipulations. Subjects were told of the importance (or lack of importance) of an experiment, rather than allowed to express their existing attitudes in a study. To prevent further misuse of conceptualizations and measurements, the research work cited in succeeding pages reflects the situational or consequences definition of involvement being used in this study.

Statement of the Problem

Very little is known of the relationship between the consumer's situational involvement and its affect on effort expended in the CS/D process. Therefore, the primary purpose of this study is to analyze the CS/D process under differing situational involvement conditions.

Day (1977) and Swan and Trawick (1979b) have observed that evaluations will be weak, if they are triggered at all, for products of low importance or low interest appeal. Based on instrumental importance only, this finding suggests that CS/D-involvement relationships be tested on two levels. First, the intensity effect may cause all pre- and post-usage variable levels to significantly differ across involvement states. Second, variable relationships within the CS/D model may differ under varying involvement perspectives. Model characteristics may be sufficiently different

for high versus low involvement, so that two different CS/D process frameworks are needed to reflect these differing relationships.

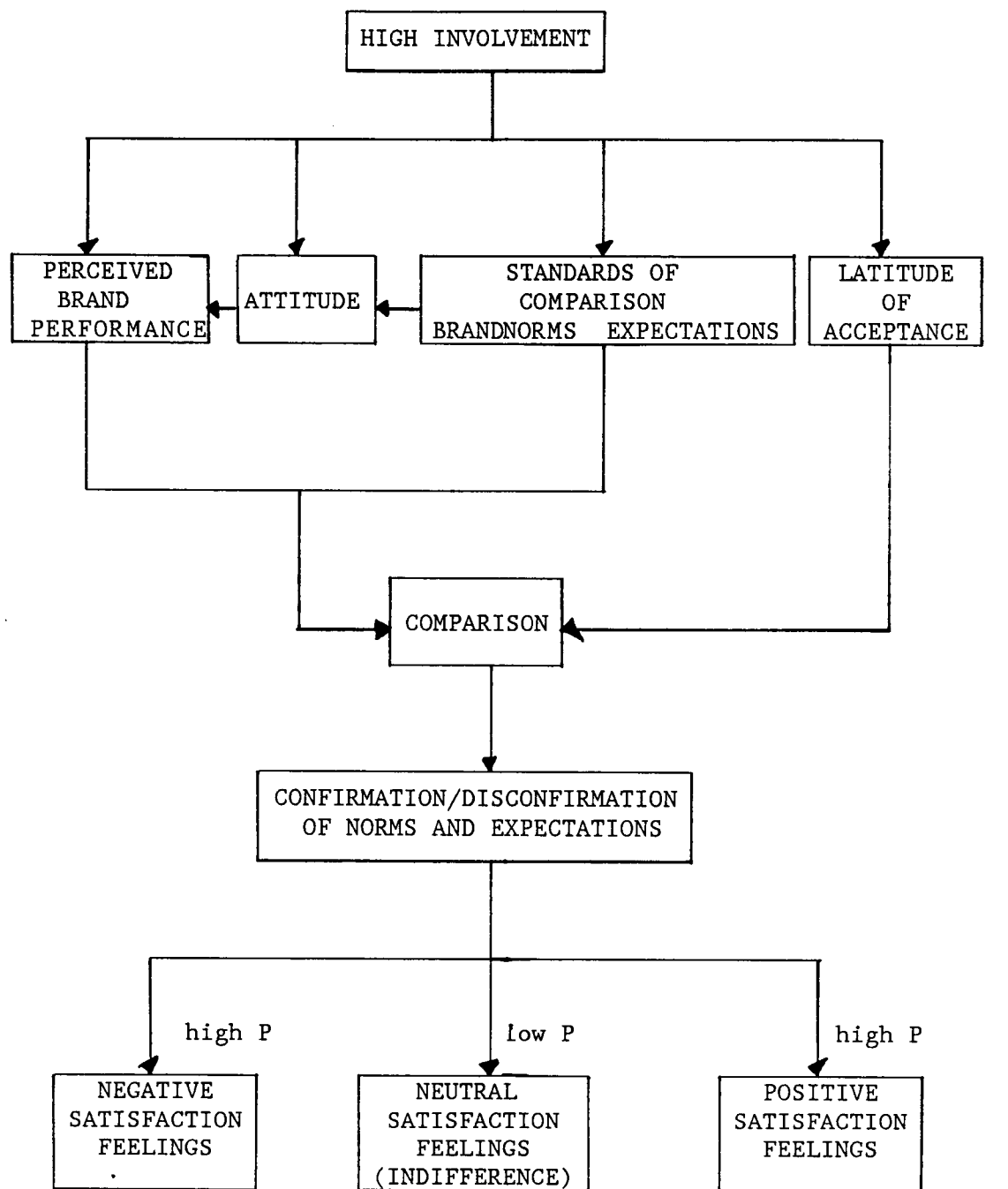
A second rationale for this study was the need to study the expanded standards of comparison concept over the limited, expectations only, reference concept. Expectations relationships were studied once again; however, norms were added to the comparison construct in an effort to better understand the role of prior experience in the CS/D model.

The proposed models for high and low involvement are presented in Figures 2 and 3 respectively, and are simply modifications of the basic confirmation/disconfirmation paradigm presented earlier. Discussion of involvement and CS/D interrelationships are now addressed. In particular, variable level differences and model changes for both involvement-CS/D flow diagrams are reviewed.

CS/D and Involvement Interrelationships

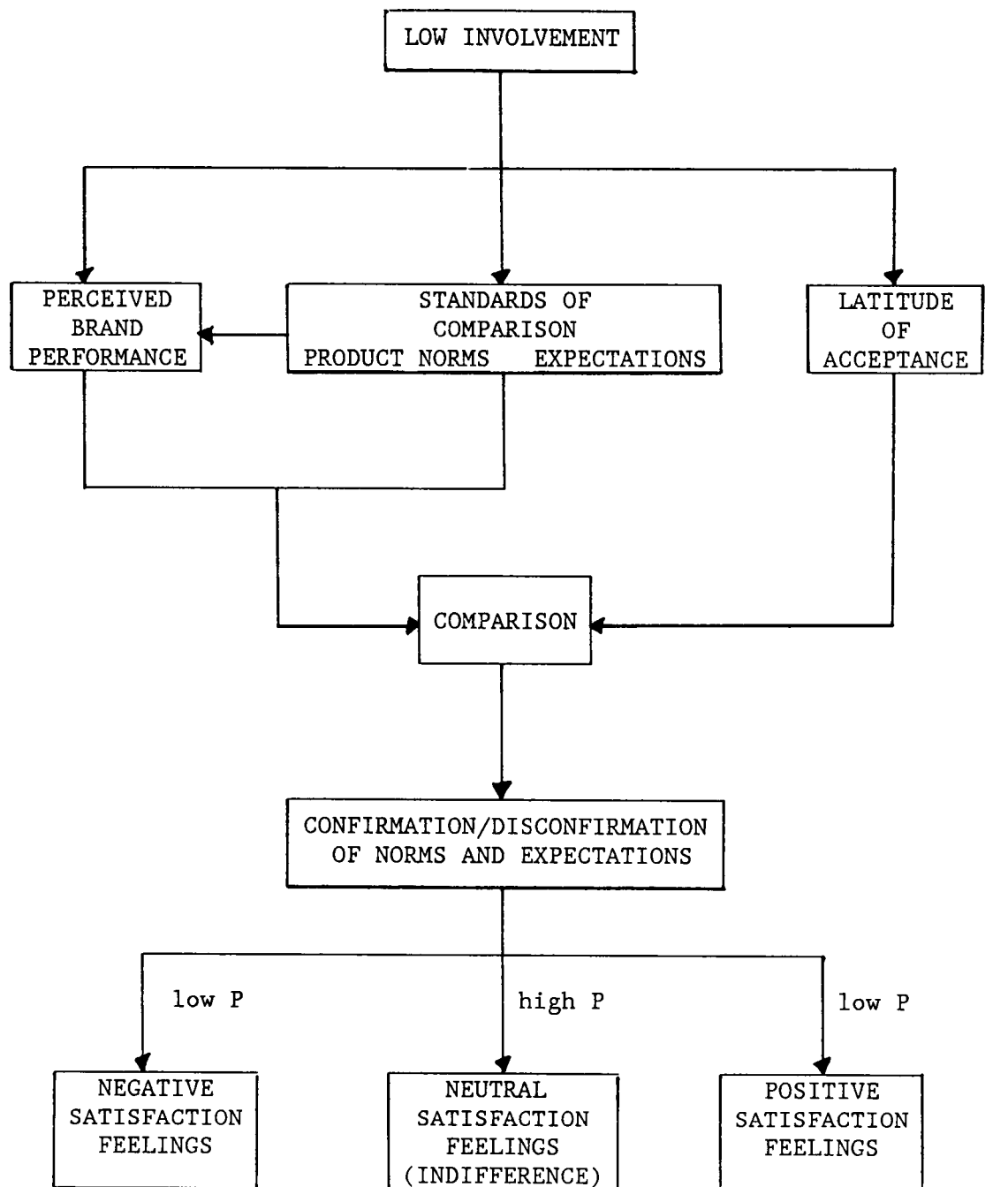
Standards of Comparison and Level of Involvement

Consumers are likely to more critically evaluate product performance information when they are more concerned with the outcome. High product involvement (Figure 2) will entail more intense information processing, more complex cognitive judgments, and hence, more exacting performance demands. Stricter standards for comparison will be in effect for high involvement contexts than low involvement states.



P = probability of occurrence

FIGURE 2
MODEL OF HIGH INVOLVEMENT AND SUBSEQUENT
EVALUATION PROCESS VARIABLES



P=probability of occurrence

FIGURE 3

MODEL OF LOW INVOLVEMENT AND SUBSEQUENT
EVALUATION PROCESS VARIABLES

When looked at separately, performance predictions may not be very different for the two involvement states. Oliver and Bearden (1983) did not find any difference in expectations (predictions) between the two conditions. Perhaps consumers can predict a product's possible performance without too much effort. However, assessing how a product should perform (norms) usually entails more personal concern for the consumption experience. The inclusion of norms as part of the pre-usage comparison standard is the reason for more evaluation effort.

Moreover, the norms might be different for each involvement condition. Since high involvement leads to higher standards and less tolerance for standard variation, a specific brand norm is implied (Figure 2). Use of a specific brand indicates exacting performance requirements, based on one's personal experience or vicarious knowledge of that brand's superiority. Important use situations will move the consumer to compare all offerings to the one brand perceived as representative (ideal brand norm) and/or superior (favorite brand norm) for that usage experience.

Less concern for a consumption experience (low involvement) implies less effort expended and lower demands for evaluating a product or brand. Low involvement (Figure 3) will include a product norm, or average brand norm, to represent experience across several brands of a product class. With a lower level of concern for this product choice and use, one does not have to cognitively assess the superiority of one brand as compared to others. A generalized

product performance range will be determined by passively receiving product information rather than actively evaluating each and every brand. Simply using a typical, average product, capable of delivering within the general performance range for a given situation, is considered adequate.

Pre-Usage Attitudes and Level of Involvement

Low involvement indicates an unwillingness on the part of the consumer to actively process information and develop strong opinions of products or brands before trying them. Indeed, Oliver and Bearden (1983) found low involved users did not use expectations to form strong brand attitudes. There should be no strong attitudes providing a psychological bias during perceived brand performance under low involvement (Figure 3). Only in highly arousing contexts (Figure 2) will a consumer consciously develop strong brand attitudes after determining what the brand can and should deliver during performance.

Perceived Brand Performance and Level of Involvement

The only involvement-performance evaluation study to date is by Korgaonkar and Moschis (1982). They found evidence of assimilation effects for perceived performance of high involvement products and contrast effects for low involvement products. Assimilation effects refer to the shifting of performance perceptions towards expectations or norms. Again, the rationale for a strong positive relationship between performance perceptions and standards of comparison for high

involvement is found in the rationalization process. A consumer will justify a decision already made (creation of reference beliefs) for an involving consumption experience. For low involvement, Korgaonkar and Moschis found performance judgments to be negatively related to expectations. The explanation for low involvement-performance findings is that consumers have less reason to justify pre-existing judgments, since these perceptions are not due to consumer interest or strong brand attitudes.

However, the Korgaonkar and Moschis study:

(1) used different products to create high and low involvement rather than one product in different usage occasions;

(2) presented post-decisional information inconsistent with the decision already made (cognitive dissonance manipulation), which is not being done in this research;

(3) manipulated performance, which is also not being done for this study.

Regardless of these differences, it is assumed that consumers will make more extreme performance judgments on products or brands which are of concern to them. Given that standards of comparison (norms and brand expectations) will be more extreme overall for high than for low involvement individuals, assimilation effects are likely in this study as well.

Confirmation/Disconfirmation and Level of Involvement

The level of arousal which a consumer generates for an evaluation is reflected in the amount of acceptable discrepancy

between comparison standards and perceived performance (Freedman, 1964; Rhine and Severance, 1970; Sherif et al., 1965). Since there is more at stake in a high involvement state, one would expect less tolerance of error in achieved performance. The acceptable or indifference range of performance, i.e., the zone of indifference, becomes much tighter for high over low involvement. Under low involvement the acceptable performance range will be wider, due to lack of real interest or exacting use specifications for the results.

A product has a better chance to yield better or worse than expected results when acceptable brand expectations or norms are rigidly and narrowly defined. The results of the standards and perceived performance comparisons in a high involvement state will yield strong disconfirmation, even from a small absolute discrepancy between standards and perceived performance. On the other hand, less interest or arousal in product evaluations (low involvement) will increase the probability of performance confirmation.

Satisfaction Feelings and Level of Involvement

The increased probability of cognitive disconfirmation for a highly involved customer (Figure 2) should stimulate a consumer to emotionally respond. An individual will not experience a "warm glow" or "feeling of disgruntlement," unless a discrepancy is recognized as out-of-the-ordinary and a true disconfirmation of performance standards. Thus, there will be stronger satisfaction/dissatisfaction feelings brought about by disconfirmation for high rather than low

involvement. Low involvement is more likely to yield confirmation (Figure 3). There is no motivation to develop strong feelings for a consumption experience which is already acceptable.

Rather than categorically rule out the development of CS/D emotions or feelings following cognitive evaluations, it is more appropriate to allow various probabilities for development of satisfaction feelings. The possibility of extreme CS/D cognitive evaluations for high involvement has been discussed and diagrammed in Figure 2. Only in the disconfirmation ranges will the likelihood of noticing and responding to discrepancies between comparison standards and perceived performance cause conscious, emotional responses.

Discrepancies within an acceptable range of performance, i.e., confirmation, will not be as likely to lead to significantly positive or negative satisfaction feelings. Instead, low involvement will cause unconscious, neutral feelings or indifference to develop in response to performance confirmation or comparison standards. Figure 3 thus indicates the increased probability of neutral satisfaction responses.

The Satisfaction Process and Level of Involvement

Oliver and Bearden (1983) found that the basic satisfaction process model did receive support under both high and low involvement conditions. The authors propose that whatever differences they did find in the size of certain parameter coefficients is more likely to be an artifact of their specific study, rather than indication of basic model differences for high versus low involvement. The

adaptation level theory, which provides the rationale for the CS/D model, does seem to remain valid for the Oliver and Bearden study and is proposed as the underlying cause for both high and low involvement models in this study. The few model differences proposed here should not lead to any refutation of the satisfaction process as a whole. Figures 2 and 3 simply present the few CS/D process differences between the two involvement states. The next section summarizes the research objectives for this study.

Research Objectives

Using the existing findings from CS/D research in addition to proposed involvement-satisfaction relationships, the specific research objectives of this study are:

1. to more clearly define and measure the concepts of situational involvement and enduring importance as they relate to a consumption experience;
2. to test for differences in satisfaction processes for the high and low involvement states, thereby introducing individual differences into a CS/D evaluation process model;
3. to re-examine brand expectations' influence on subsequent CS/D process variables and to study the relative contributions of three standards of comparison to the development of CS/D.

Research Questions

The review of the nature of the problem and the specific research objectives suggest several research questions.

1. Do consumers who express high situational involvement for a product use more product dimensions and expect more exacting performance of a product than low situational involvement consumers?

2. Do high task involvement individuals differ from low task involvement individuals in the type of product/brand norm they use as a performance reference? That is, will high task involvement consumers use specific brand norms while low task involvement consumers use general product norms for standards of comparison? Which group will use brand expectations as a standard of comparison?

3. Are highly involved consumers more likely to form strong pre-usage brand attitudes than lowly involved consumers?

4. Are highly involved individuals more likely to shift performance perceptions towards their standards of comparison, thereby creating strong performance perceptions, than will low involvement individuals?

5. Do high involvement individuals set more rigid performance ranges than low involvement individuals (i.e., is the width of the latitude of acceptance smaller for highly involved consumers)?

6. Are high involvement consumers more likely to experience positive and/or negative satisfaction feelings than low involvement consumers?

7. Do both high and low involvement groups use the same CS/D process, based on disconfirmation of standards of comparison?

8. Can brand expectations' influence on subsequent evaluation variables be replicated? Specifically, will high expectations levels create higher brand attitudes, performance perceptions, greater disconfirmation, and greater CS/D than low expectations?

Contributions of the Study

Since satisfaction is an integral part of the marketing concept and strategic process, it is useful, both theoretically and operationally, to establish the basis and consequences of consumers' evaluation processes. First, the role of involvement and selected consumer characteristics in satisfaction processes may lead to sensitivity differences to evaluation phenomena, necessitating refinement in the long-accepted disconfirmation model.

Also, marketing strategy should be enhanced by differentiating between the involvement perceptions. Management needs to know if a product is perceived by consumers as generally important, as an important item only during the purchase process or for certain use occasions, or as trivial no matter what the situation. Marketing efforts may not have the same impact across all circumstances; consequently, ability to predict and control subsequent evaluation will also differ. Knowledge of these varying conditions can enable marketers to better segment their markets. Then, this information

can be used to determine which of the marketing mix elements will affect evaluations and repeat purchase behavior.

Overview of the Dissertation

This chapter has presented the problem under study, appropriate models for each involvement condition, the conceptualization of key involvement/satisfaction relationships, and the dissertation objectives. The following chapter contains a literature review, which elaborates on CS/D process and involvement development. Chapter III presents the hypotheses to be tested and the methodology to be used. Chapter IV discusses instrument development and validation and the dissertation results. Finally, Chapter V presents a summary and conclusions of the study and suggests directions for future research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF INVOLVEMENT AND EVALUATION PROCESS LITERATURE

Introduction

Chapter II serves as the foundation for the generation of hypotheses, research methodology, and data analysis approaches, all of which are presented in Chapter III. The literature review follows the framework presented in Figure 4. This figure ties together concepts from both the involvement and satisfaction areas. Conceptual and methodological issues pertaining to this framework are discussed.

The first major part of the review covers the larger of the two conceptual areas, satisfaction. First, the conceptual domain of the term satisfaction is examined. Next, the various processes that are presumed to lead to CS/D are considered. The third topic under the satisfaction section relates to the cognitive algebra, that is, measurements, of CS/D process constructs.

A discussion of exogenous, or external, conditions which have been suggested as antecedents to the CS/D process then follows. An extended review of one of these external conditions, involvement, comprises the third major part of the chapter. Involvement is reviewed from the perspective of a triggering concept. This major section is composed of a review of situational and enduring individual components of the involvement concept, since both of these

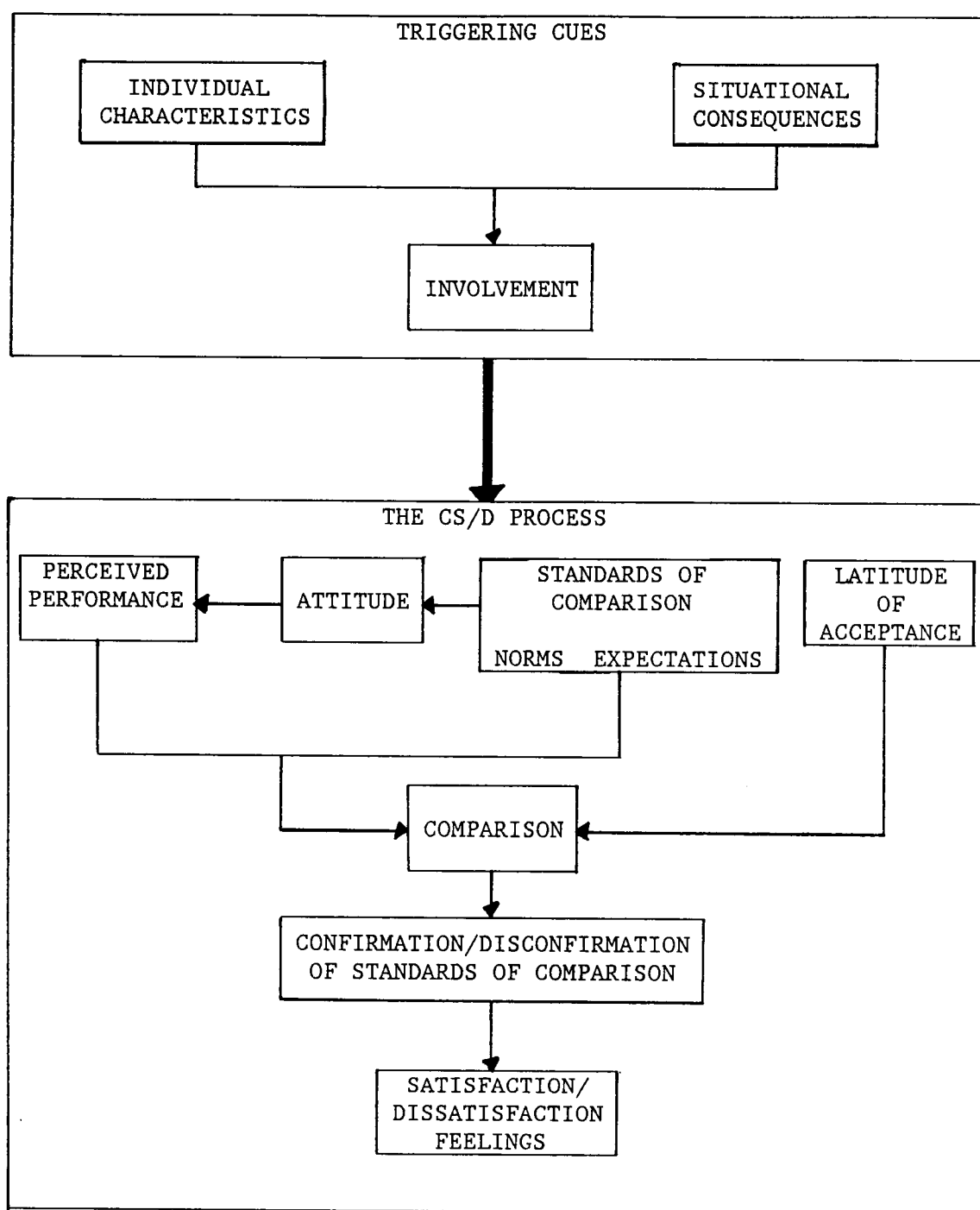


FIGURE 4

A FRAMEWORK FOR THE CONSUMER SATISFACTION PROCESS
WITH INVOLVEMENT AS A TRIGGERING CUE

dimensions are included in the literature. Last, existing studies and overall relationships between involvement and satisfaction are summarized.

What is Consumer Satisfaction?

To say there is no general agreement among satisfaction researchers on how to define satisfaction would indeed be an understatement (Day, 1980).

Definitions of consumer satisfaction tend to range from a very simplistic notion of happiness to a very complex set of concepts, which overlap each other and have yet to be fully operationalized. CS/D as a variable implies a single evaluative reaction from consumers, which may or may not be related to pre-evaluation concepts. CS/D as a set of inter-related variables suggests a process view of satisfaction, where both pre-purchase and post-purchase concepts are organized into a unified flow of behavioral activities. The disconfirmation model presented in Chapter I is the most widely accepted view of CS/D as a process.

Not surprisingly with such differing satisfaction perspectives, there are correspondingly different definitions appearing in the literature for the term satisfaction. There are several examples of the definition of satisfaction as a variable.

Satisfaction is defined as the buyer's cognitive state of being adequately or inadequately rewarded in a buying situation for the sacrifice he has undergone. The adequacy is a consequence of matching actual past purchase and consumption experience with the reward that was expected from the brand in terms of its anticipated potential to satisfy the motives served by

the particular product class (Howard and Sheth, 1969). the relative "goodness" of the subjective experiences accompanying an individual's consumer behavior. Similarly, consumer dissatisfaction is taken to indicate the degree of unfavorability (Westbrook, 1977b).

satisfaction is significantly influenced by expectations and disconfirmation and mediates their effect on constructs and intention to buy (Linda and Oliver, 1979).

Satisfaction as a process has also been defined several different ways:

the extent to which consumer needs and wants are met (Andreasen, 1977).

Satisfaction may best be understood as an evaluation of the surprise inherent in a product acquisition and/or consumption experience (Oliver, 1981).

By conceptualizing satisfaction/dissatisfaction as an emotional response, researchers will have to examine more closely the link between the cognitive process of confirmation/disconfirmation and emotion (Woodruff et al., 1983b).

if consumer expectations are a function of promotion, and consumer satisfaction is a function of expectations, then satisfaction may be considered a function of promotion (Anderson, 1973).

Czepiel and Rosenberg (1977) further exacerbated the definitional dilemma by proposing that measured satisfaction might vary depending on the level of the consumption system at which one is operating. They identified three levels of consumer satisfaction. The first is system satisfaction, which is consumers' subjective evaluations of the total benefits received from the operations of the

institutional marketing system. The second is enterprise satisfaction, that level in which consumers receive satisfaction from their dealings with complex products/services. The third is product/service satisfaction, the consumers' subjective evaluation of the benefits, objective and otherwise, obtained from the consumption of a specific product or service. Pfaff's (1972) Index of Consumer Satisfaction also used multiple product levels to build an overall satisfaction measure.

Satisfaction also has been viewed recently as not just a postpurchase evaluation but also a prepurchase phenomenon. Westbrook (1977b) noted that consumers may be satisfied or dissatisfied with various acquisition, consumption, and disposition activities. This view also broadens the conceptualization of the process from product/service evaluation to evaluation of all facets of the participation of the consumer in the marketplace.

What should be the boundaries for the discussion of satisfaction? While it is possible to consider every aspect of the purchasing/consumption process as capable of generating a conceptual measure of consumer satisfaction, review of the literature needs more of a focus. This study will examine satisfaction as it pertains to product/brand post-usage evaluations within specific contexts or consumption occasions. Recent research efforts have focused on the development of evaluation as a process, where the purpose is to understand how and why satisfaction arises. This study follows this line of research, and defines satisfaction as a single response

variable in an overall disconfirmation process. In fact, satisfaction is only one of several evaluative perceptions the consumer may formulate. Therefore, it is necessary to more fully review the development of the "process" framework to explain and define CS/D.

Using a process perspective necessitates limiting the use of the term satisfaction. "Satisfaction" is reserved for a discussion of the post-consumption evaluative response variable; "CS/D" is used for a discussion of the post-purchase evaluation process.

Conceptual Issues in CS/D Research

Even when limited to the CS/D process, the post-purchase evaluation process itself has been conceptualized in a variety of ways. Several issues stand out when these various CS/D process conceptualizations are compared. They are: (1) different underlying theoretical paradigms, (2) the role of standards of comparison, and (3) the definition of satisfaction as a variable in the process. Each issue is examined in the following sections.

The predominant approach to the study of the evaluation process is the confirmation/disconfirmation paradigm, which proposes that standards developed prior to purchase are used to evaluate the consumption experience associated with using a product or service. Standards either are confirmed or disconfirmed by the consumption experience. The degree to which these reference points are disconfirmed influences subsequent evaluation reactions, which are:

(1) cognitive judgments of the specific discrepancies involved, (2) affective responses dealing with one's emotions to the perceived discrepancies, and (3) behavioral tendencies following an evaluative response. The key element in this disconfirmation paradigm is the act of comparing pre- and post-usage perceptions causing one or more consumer evaluative judgments.

This disconfirmation paradigm was used in several early studies of expectations and performance. Varying levels of expectations were created, subjects were exposed to the products, and subjects' post-exposure ratings of the product or service then were measured (Anderson, 1973; Cardozo, 1965; Olshavsky and Miller, 1972; Olson and Dover, 1976). Expectations were thought to create a frame of reference, or standard, for comparative judgments. Although not specifically measured in these early empirical studies, the assumption was that satisfaction is derived from the comparison of these expectations to performance perceptions. A major theoretical issue was the nature of the relationship between expectations, performance, and satisfaction. The following sections examine the concept of standards and the theories used to explain pre- and post-usage evaluation variable relationships.

Standards of Comparison

There has been considerable difference of opinion of the true meaning of a standard of comparison. Since early work in this area

used the term expectations to refer to reference points, expectations are reviewed first.

Definition of expectations. The definitions of expectations have varied considerably over the years.

a subclass of attitudes that point to the future (Katona, 1964).

consider consumer product expectations as pretrial beliefs about the product (Olson and Dover, 1979).

Expectations involve the consumer's estimate at the time of purchase, or prior to use, of how well or how poorly the product will supply the salient benefits sought by the consumer (Day, 1977).

a priori perceptions of the amount of satisfaction received from the product as a whole and in terms of its salient attributes (Oliver and Linda, 1981).

These definitions all suggest that experience with one particular product or brand is used to predict subsequent performance of that product. These predictions, or focal brand expectations, are all created prior to actual product use. Specific beliefs include many different dimensions of that specific product's ability to perform (i.e., a multi-attribute view of what can be expected). However, there may be other, non-predictive elements to an evaluation standard.

The thought that individuals might draw from these experiences to create ideas of what they ought to get from a product led to the examination of "types" of expectations other than predictions.

Summers and Granbois (1977) proposed two qualitatively different kinds of expectations: predictive and normative expectations.

Miller (1977) proposed four types of expectations, which an individual might use for performance evaluation:

1. the ideal--what the respondent believes the performance "can be";
2. the expected--what the respondent believes performance probably "will be";
3. the minimum tolerable--the minimum level the respondent believes performance "must be";
4. the desired level--what the individual believes performance "ought to be" or "should be," in light of personal investments.

Using Miller's typology, Swan and Trawick (1979a) conceptualized two types of expectations: predictive and desired expectations. The Woodruff et al. (1983b) model proposed an expansion of the standards of comparison concept to include knowledge about other brands and the product category itself as routine inputs into the development of a reference point. Experience with many brands and the one focal brand may lead not only to predictions about performance, but also to formation of norms (i.e., performance levels which should be achievable). Together, these predictions and norms serve as the adaptation level.

These idea papers and studies have several ideas in common. Predictive expectations are the consumer's pre-usage estimates of performance levels which the product is anticipated to achieve.

Desired expectations are the consumer's pre-usage specifications for the levels of product performance which would be necessary to satisfy the consumer. Norms refer to what performance ought to be. Swan and Trawick felt that the norms element was more crucial to the development of satisfaction than expectations. Using the confirmation/disconfirmation of expectations paradigm, they posited that confirmation of desired expectations (norms) would lead to satisfaction. Confirmation of predictive expectation would lead to indifference. Negative disconfirmation of predictive expectations would result in dissatisfaction.

Gilly (1979) reported support for Miller's notion of expectation types in her study of dissatisfied consumers who complained to the seller of the product. Likewise, Cadotte, Woodruff, and Jenkins (1983b) found empirical evidence of norms at work as a kind of overall standard of comparison. They proposed that consumers may use several kinds of standards of comparison: expectations, or predictions of product performance; and norms, or levels of performance which should be obtained based on consumer experience. Choice of a standard is further predicted as dependent on the person and/or the consumption situation.

Antecedents of standards of comparison. Whether researchers use the term expectations, norms, or standards of comparison, there have been efforts to incorporate contributions from antecedent constructs into the conceptualizations of reference points. Cardozo (1965)

stressed the importance of marketing communications, in the form of advertising or sales promotion, in the development of expectations. Day (1977) has theorized that learning from previous product ownership can result in more accurate and stable expectations than when consumers lack such previous experience. According to Hansen (1977), expectations will depend upon past experience with the same stimuli, past experience with related stimuli, information from personal sources, and information from mass communication. LaTour and Peat's (1979a) proposal for the three determinants of the standards of comparison--personal, referent group, and marketer information--have already been cited.

A person may have experience with the brand unit, other units of the same brand, other units of similar brands, or a class of products or services composed of competing product/service types. Woodruff et al. (1983b) have posited that a person new to a product class may at first develop experience and therefore standards of comparison only with brand units of one or a few brands. As an individual's experience base broadens, the consumer develops normative opinions of brand performance capabilities.

Further examination of the role of experience can also accommodate the other product and brand antecedents. Learning from previous product ownership can facilitate future product decisions. When the time comes to repurchase, experienced consumers are likely to make better choices, based on realistic expectations, as well as be more satisfied with these choices. Inexperienced consumers must

rely on external sources of information such as advertising, word-of-mouth, etc. These individuals may be more likely to experience negative expectancy disconfirmation and lower levels of satisfaction due to unsubstantiated product predictions. Inexperienced consumers are less sure of themselves and may attribute the unsatisfactory experience to their own incompetence as consumers.

CS/D Theories

Figure 4, page 2, and the brief overview of the disconfirmation paradigm focus on comparison of the reference point to perceived product/brand performance as the most important stage in a CS/D process. The notion is that a consumer's feeling of being satisfied or dissatisfied with a consumption experience is related to the degree to which prior standards are confirmed or disconfirmed by the perceived performance of the product. Thus, there are two major relationships which are reviewed: expectations-performance, and expectations-disconfirmation. The term expectations is used here since subsequent citations all used this term for a reference point.

CS/D research on these relationships has followed the lines of attitude research for its theoretical explanations. Familiar theories, which have been used in attitude research, have also been applied to satisfaction research.

Assimilation-contrast theory. Assimilation or contrast effects are theorized to occur as a function of the degree of discrepancy between perceived and expected performance. Assimilation theory

predicts that perceived performance is adjusted to be closer to expectations, or expected performance. The results of this adjustment could be: (1) higher performance judgments when expectations are greater than actual performance; (2) diminished performance perceptions when expectations are lower than actual performance. On the other hand, contrast effects occur when perceived performance moves farther away from expectations.

Consistency theory. Consistency theory advocates believe that psychological tension, which results from a discrepancy between expected and obtained performance levels, occurs during a consumer's post-use evaluation process. Any heightened unpleasantness will cause a consumer to redirect performance perceptions toward expectations. Consistency theory thus assumes assimilation is occurring, while contrast would never occur. Concern and a need for rationalizing preconceived expectations of performance motivate the consumer to make all performance judgments match the reference points. The major difference then between consistency and assimilation is the presence of consumer tension or concern for the evaluation.

Adaptation-level theory. Previously discussed studies used expectations, created from manipulated product messages, as the standard for evaluation. There are problems with the use of expectations as references. These problems include:

- (1) what really constitutes an expectation;
- (2) what is the weight a consumer attaches to a belief about expected performance on a product dimension;
- (3) what level of consumer experience is built into an expected performance belief?

A third, disconfirmation-based theory addresses these questions.

Helson (1964), LaTour and Peat (1979a), and Woodruff et al. (1983b) have contributed to the conceptualization of a social influence theory of evaluation. Helson's (1964) concept of an adaptation level theory was the first to expand the comparison level by introducing all relevant internal and external stimuli as parts of the reference point.

The adaptation level is assumed to be a pooled effect of all stimuli impinging upon the organism both from without and within and includes residuals from past experience since all stimuli are judged with respect to internal norms. All judgments are relative, i.e., based on the relation of stimulation to prevailing adaptation levels.

Comparison-level theory. LaTour and Peat used Thibaut and Kelley's (1959) work on comparison level theory to also justify the inclusion of past experience into their definition of a standard of comparison. The comparison level itself contains weighted components: personal product experiences, referent others' product experiences, and product provider, or marketer, messages. With all these components in action, LaTour and Peat hypothesized a much stronger relationship between the standard of comparison and actual development of satisfaction. Comparisons of outcomes to these

comparison levels lead to satisfaction (positive discrepancies) or dissatisfaction (negative discrepancies).

Expectations-Performance Relationships

The examination of the effect of expectations and actual performance on perceived performance has produced conflicting results. The predominant concern has been to find support for either assimilation or contrast theory. And yet, it is difficult to choose the correct theoretical framework, as one can see from the next few illustrations.

Two studies are representative of assimilation theory effects at work in the evaluation process. Discrepancies between expectations and actual product performance were adjusted by evaluation of the product congruently with prior expectations. Olshavsky and Miller (1972) manipulated performance and expectations of a tape recorder at two levels in a 2 X 2 design. Subjects seemed to assimilate their product evaluations to be in line with their prior expectations. Olson and Dover (1976) manipulated subject expectations for an unknown coffee brand. They administered a very bitter coffee to both the experimental group, which was told the coffee would not be bitter, and a control group receiving no information. The results showed that the experimental group evaluated the coffee as more bitter than expected, but less bitter than evaluated by the control group. Both these studies concluded that performance evaluations tended to be assimilated toward

manipulated expectations, whether positively or negatively disconfirmed.

Cardozo (1965) manipulated expectations toward a ballpoint pen at two levels (low and high). The results of the experiment supported contrast theory. Perceived performance came closer to actual product performance than to expectations. Cohen and Goldberg (1970) also found evidence of contrast effects. High dissonance subjects, contrary to dissonance, or assimilation theory, did not highlight positive attributes of a chosen brand of coffee and negative attributes of an unchosen brand to a greater degree than low dissonance subjects. After consumption, subjects reevaluated coffee positively when their choice was confirmed and negatively when their choice was disconfirmed, regardless of prior dissonant or discrepant brand information.

Anderson (1973) manipulated expectations toward a ballpoint pen at six levels, from very low to very high. His study showed a curvilinear relationship between expectations and perceived product performance. He suggested that assimilation theory may operate for low levels of expectations, while contrast theory may operate for very high levels of expectations. These interesting results suggest that the size of acceptable discrepancy in evaluative information is crucial to the development of a correct CS/D process theory.

Expectations-Disconfirmation Relationships

The second role of standards in a CS/D process concerns the expectations-disconfirmation relationship. Oliver (1979) suggested

that expectations and disconfirmation of expectations are two independent constructs. He argued that disconfirmation is a perceived construct occurring later in time than when expectations were formed. Perceived disconfirmation refers to a user's overall, subjective perception that the performance of an object was better or worse than expected. Expectations may change over this time span. Furthermore, Oliver (1979) pointed out that there is no necessary relationship between expectations and perceived performance. In measuring the expectations effect on disconfirmation, several researchers found expectations to be independent of disconfirmation (Gilly, 1979; Linda and Oliver, 1980; Oliver, 1977; Westbrook, 1981).

Expectations have also been found to have no direct impact on derived measures of disconfirmation (Oliver and Linda, 1981; Swan, 1977). Derived disconfirmation is the difference between a consumer's pre- and post-rating of a product or brand. The research cited thus suggests that the effects of expectation and discrepancy perceptions, be they overall perceptions or objectively determined attribute discrepancies, are unrelated and additive.

Churchill and Surprenant (1982), however, found a significant relationship between expectations and derived disconfirmation in a study which examined the evaluation processes for two different products, a plant and a video disc player. They reported that the relationship was much weaker than the one found between expectations and performance, for both products.

In summary, the study of expectations has yielded various answers to the questions concerning the construct's impact on other evaluation process variables. It is difficult to arrive at a single rationale for these varying empirical results. Differences may be due to methodological or measurement issues, or both. Methodological shortcomings have focused on the experimental treatment manipulations, the availability of uncontrolled product information from past experiences, and the creation of demand effects due to thinly disguised research purposes. Any of these causes could confound the theoretical explanation for expectation consequences. Measurement issues usually relate to differences in scaling procedures used to operationalize a construct. It is very difficult to compare test results based on possibly invalid measures. Measurement issues are discussed further in the next major section of the chapter.

Satisfaction as a Variable

Most researchers have agreed on the definition of satisfaction as the user's post-usage evaluation based on prior expectations. The most popular conceptualization of CS/D to have emerged recently is one that portrays satisfaction as a separate entity from the cognitively-oriented disconfirmation construct (Churchill and Surprenant, 1982; Oliver, 1977, 1978, 1980a, 1980b; Westbrook, 1977b, 1983; Westbrook and Cote, 1980; Westbrook and Oliver, 1981; Woodruff et al., 1983b). A representative definition of satisfaction as affect is:

the summary psychological state resulting when the emotion surrounding disconfirmed expectations is coupled with the consumers' prior feelings about the consumption experience. Moreover, the surprise or excitement of the evaluation is thought to be of finite duration (Oliver, 1981).

This evolutionary development of satisfaction closely parallels the representation of attitude. Satisfaction, like attitude, is thought to result from cognitive components rather than be a combination of cognitive, affective, and conative components. As Czepiel and Rosenberg (1977) note, satisfaction with a product entails some degree of affect, presumably inversely proportional to the cognitively-based disparity. That is, consumers feel subjectively "good" when satisfied and "bad" when dissatisfied.

While it is interesting to note similarities between satisfaction and attitudes, there are enough differences between the two constructs to predict discriminant validity. Satisfaction is an emotional response to a disconfirmation outcome. Its meaning is not captured adequately by calculating a satisfaction score from cognitive bits of a product's performance dimensions. Attitude, on the other hand, frequently is calculated by combining beliefs of product attributes and importance weights for these cognitions. Attitude is a reaction to experience (as reflected in beliefs). Satisfaction is a reaction to a comparison between perceived performance and a standard. Conceptually, there is no necessary relationship between attitude and satisfaction, since the latter includes the standard and a comparison process. The measurement of

satisfaction as an affective element in the CS/D process will be expanded upon later, when affective scales are reviewed.

Woodruff et al. (1983b) have proposed that perceived performance of a brand unit above the zone of indifference leads to some kind of positive feeling, or satisfaction, regarding the use experience. Performance below the zone probably causes negative affective feelings. But, performance in a range around a reference point is perceived as psychologically equivalent to the reference, and the result is a feeling of indifference (hence the term zone of indifference). They therefore suggest that there are three possible affective results of the satisfaction/dissatisfaction process: indifference, positive feelings, and negative feelings. This hypothesis suggests that there are degrees of discrepancy within an evaluation process, some of which lead to satisfaction and some of which do not. Indifference, while it may be an affect, does not constitute a strong emotional feeling, which is intended in Oliver's definition of satisfaction. The interesting issue here is the notion that one should not expect to see satisfaction or dissatisfaction from every consumption evaluation.

A final point of contention regarding the definition of satisfaction refers to the two-factor model of consumer satisfaction proposed by Czepiel, Rosenberg, Akerele (1974). Using Herzberg's two-factor theory, which holds that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are different constructs caused by different facets of interaction between a stimulus and the individual, Czepiel et al. proposed that

one's level of satisfaction is based on different factors than those which can lead to dissatisfaction. In contrast, the one-factor theory postulates satisfaction and dissatisfaction as opposites on a single, bipolar continuum, derived from the same set of relevant product dimensions. Studies by Leavitt (1976) and Maddox (1981) did not support the two-factor hypothesis. Swan and Combs (1976) found mixed support for the two-factor theory, based on the fact that they separated satisfaction into instrumental performance and expressive performance dimensions.

Although this debate remains to be settled, most researchers view satisfaction/dissatisfaction as opposites on the same continuum. Again, the more recent conceptualization of satisfaction as affect alone precludes the necessity of using multiple dimensions for a satisfaction measure.

Measurements Within the CS/D Process

However one conceptualizes the CS/D process, constructs comprising the theory must be translated into operational measures, if we are to assess how and to what extent satisfaction or dissatisfaction occurs. Here again, there have been a number of proposed measures for each of the CS/D process constructs. These measures now are reviewed and compared.

Global Versus Multiattribute Measures

CS/D research has used an overall summary measure for evaluation as well as a measure combining many different facets or attributes of

the evaluation experience. Czepiel and Rosenberg (1977) thought that satisfaction could be measured as a single overall evaluative response, which represented a summary of subjective responses to many different facets. They called this the gestalt approach. The approach emphasized a single evaluation as inclusive for all the experiences surrounding a product's purchase and use. They also saw the value of a disaggregate approach, where satisfaction is quantified by measuring individual components of a consumption experience and combining these separate judgments into an overall measure.

Handy and Pfaff (1975), though, disagreed with the possibility of using both kinds of measures simultaneously. They state, "Response to an overall satisfaction measure only crudely measures overall satisfaction. . . . Actual responses represent the person's immediate reaction to a complex situation." These authors then proposed that overall satisfaction with a product category is explained in terms of the satisfaction with product attributes. This is a hierarchy of satisfactions, incorporating both disaggregate and overall satisfaction measures in a sequential design.

The trend in satisfaction measurement has been to follow Handy and Pfaff in valuing the disaggregate approach, since it recognizes the many motivations which drive consumption and evaluation. The multiattribute approach is suited for capturing the many cognitive or affective components of standards of comparison, performance, disconfirmation, and satisfaction. There are measure validation

problems with global measures as well. Global measures tend to measure more than a person's satisfaction feelings and are not amenable to a reliability check for internal consistency. Composite scaling formats have replaced global measures, or at least, are used in conjunction with single item measures for validation purposes.

Standards of Comparison and Performance Measures

The standards of comparison and the performance measures have been measured a number of ways, but with emphasis on multiattribute methods. Some early studies using multiple product dimensions as determinants of evaluation variables include Olson and Dover (1976), Oliver (1978, 1980a, 1980b), and Swan and Trawick (1979a).

Oliver (1981) later derived one of the more complex calculation procedures to measure expectations. He considered expectations to involve anticipated outcomes, measured with probability of occurrence and evaluative components. He measured the affective dimension in the traditional sense, using like-dislike, good-bad, and desirable-undesirable scales. He used probability scales ranging from "certain not to occur = 0" to "certain to occur = 1" to measure the belief component.

Churchill and Surprenant (1982) and Woodruff et al. (1983b) also assumed multidimensionality for expectations (or standards of comparison in the Woodruff et al. study). They simplified measurement of the product dimensions by using performance ranges, rather than probabilistic and evaluative components. The end result

was expected to be the same as that obtained from Oliver's scale-- indication of anticipated outcomes, which inherently contain the value and probability components.

Choice of a measurement approach requires an understanding of the determinance aspect of chosen product dimensions. If one uses a pre-specified attribute list and asks only for performance judgments, one is assuming that every attribute on the list is a potentially determining factor in the evaluation process. If there are individual differences for attribute determinance, these measures will not reveal them. Combining expectancy beliefs and importance weights is perhaps a better method for insuring individual weighting and determinant dimensions in a composite evaluation measure. Thus, the scaling formats, which differ on the inclusion of importance weights, may not be interchangeable.

With regards to the development of norms proposed by Woodruff et al., two separate norms are possible: brand-based and product-based norms. Both norms can be measured using a multiattribute approach similar to the focal brand expectations measure. However, each norm differs with respect to brand specificity. Brand-based norms incorporate brand attribute information, using a single brand in a consumer's set of brand experiences (i.e., the best brand, a favorite brand, the previously used brand). Product-based norms use the attribute approach, but pool a consumer's experiences across a set of brands. No one brand becomes the definitive reference point in the product norm, but rather a typical or average brand, covering a range

of performance experiences, provides the basis for comparison with a specific brand performance evaluation.

Disconfirmation Measures

There are two common methods for incorporating both reference points and performance judgments into a measure of disconfirmation (or satisfaction beliefs). One, the derived disconfirmation measure, utilizes a sum of the discrepancies between the comparison standard and the performance for all relevant attributes. Both subjective and objective attributes can be incorporated into the discrepancy model, and pre- and post-exposure ratings are used to create this derived measure of disconfirmation (Cadotte et al., 1983a; Ilgen, 1971; Madden, Little, and Dolich, 1979; Morris, Crull, and Winter, 1976; Oliver, 1977; Spector, 1956; Swan, 1977; Weaver and Brickman, 1974).

Another disconfirmation measure is called a perceived measure of disconfirmation. It also has been used frequently in recent years (Aiello, Czepiel, and Rosenberg, 1977; Cadotte et al., 1983a; Churchill and Surprenant, 1982; Linda and Oliver, 1979; Oliver, 1977, 1980a; Swan and Trawick, 1981b; Westbrook, 1980). This measure is a summary judgment, using a "better than expected--worse than expected" scale to yield overall disconfirmation. Churchill and Surprenant (1982) designed a composite version of the perceived measure by using summed, attribute-specific, inferred scale formats for a disconfirmation variable.

The results from using these measures to study expectations relationships have not always been the same, as noted previously.

Much of the problem arises from the subjective nature of perceived measures versus the relatively more objective, derived measures. If objective, absolute judgments are used exclusively to create measures standards of comparison, but consumers use additional subjective or emotional information in their evaluations, derived and perceived disconfirmation scores may not correlate highly. Also, the perceived measures may be preferable for measuring reality. The derived measures might be useful for seeing the extent to which standards change from before to after the use experience. Choice of an appropriate measure should depend therefore on the nature of the study and what the researcher is trying to determine.

Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction Measures

Satisfaction has been operationalized in several ways at the product consumption level. Referring again to the use of global measures, satisfaction has been measured frequently with single item rating scales. The global measures have varied considerably though, in content and methodological soundness.

Andreason (1977) reported "bunching" of respondents at the upper end of a satisfaction continuum when single "very satisfied--very dissatisfied" measures were used to capture CS/D. He found that satisfaction ratings based on these scales did not compare favorably to judgments based on various open-ended evaluation questions. Finally, given the more recent conceptualizations of satisfaction, where cognitive and affective components to the post-usage evaluation

process have been separated, it is doubtful that a single measure can adequately cover both domains.

Sociological research in the life satisfaction area shows that some global measures are valid. Andrews and Withey (1976) found the Delighted--Terrible Scale, the Faces Scale (Kunin, 1955), the graphic Ladder Scale (Robinson, Athanasiou, and Head, 1969), and their own Circles Scale were useful when used in combination to yield satisfaction indices.

As with all the evaluation variables, the recent trend has been to measure product and service satisfaction with composite scales. One of these composite scales uses attribute satisfaction items, where respondents indicate their level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction for specific product dimensions. Attribute-based satisfaction scales can then be constructed in two ways: (1) a summation of individual satisfaction responses; and (2) the attribute satisfaction responses times each attribute's importance for the individual, with the attribute products summed to create an overall CS/D measure.

Research has shown the use of these itemized satisfaction scales to be of limited value for reflecting the more recent conceptualization of emotional content within the variable (Westbrook, 1983). However, a twelve item Likert scale, developed by Oliver (1980a) and Westbrook and Oliver (1981), was found to have a high degree of internal consistency and captured most of the emotions

relevant to a consumption experience (Westbrook, 1983; Westbrook and Oliver, 1981).

Another promising scale is the itemized semantic differential scale. Westbrook and Oliver (1981) used this scale to express overall satisfaction judgments by including evaluative items with only five intervals instead of the usual seven. It correlated well with the Likert scale, had very good reliability, and discriminated between unrelated dimensions and constructs. Cadotte et al. (1983b) also have found this version of the semantic differential scale to be adequate for measuring satisfaction affect.

Thus, the CS/D process variables have thus received an increasing amount of empirical scrutiny in the past decade, with the end result being a continual refinement in measures to reflect more methodological rigor. It is routine now to see multi-item operationalizations and single item measures together, with the intent being to develop better construct validity for all of the evaluation process variables.

Exogenous Conditions Surrounding the CS/D Process

The above discussion focused on the CS/D process itself, exclusive of any exogenous factors to the evaluation process. However, the amount of unexplained variability in the CS/D process is still rather large. Besides methodological and measurement improvements over the years, there has been continuing interest in the examination of external conditions, which might reduce this

unexplained variability. External conditions examined include demographic, economic, personality, and situational variables.

Demographic Variables and CS/D

There are many different studies which have examined the nature of the relationship between satisfaction and individual characteristics. Pfaff (1977), Swan (1977), and Swan and Longman (1974) found that overall consumer satisfaction related significantly to different socio-economic descriptors. They reported that, as age increases, so does satisfaction. In a cross-cultural study, Gronhaug (1977) found education, income, and age to be the most discriminating consumer characteristics with regard to dissatisfaction. Wall, Dickey, and Talarzyk (1977) reported no relationship between education and satisfaction, but did find correlation between age and satisfaction. Pfaff (1977) also found that participants from large households tended to be more dissatisfied than those from smaller ones. LaTour and Peat (1979b) reported correlation between home ownership and overall satisfaction. This finding is similar to those reported by Ash (1979). On the other hand, Westbrook (1977a, 1977b) found no demographic variables significant for discriminating between the satisfied and not satisfied. In fact, there are several demographic variables which have not been found to significantly relate to satisfaction: marital status (Wall et al., 1977); occupation of household head (Wall et al., 1977); and knowledge of previous ownership of the product (Wall et al., 1977; Westbrook, 1977a).

Demographic variables appear to give mixed results for CS/D prediction. While they are useful measures for segmenting consumers into groups which may vary in some way concerning CS/D process activities, demographic characteristics have not been found to adequately explain the formation of satisfaction.

Personality Variables and CS/D

There are many studies reporting personality variable-satisfaction relationships (Clabaugh, Barry, and Bearden, 1978; Lundstrom and Kerin, 1976; Richins, 1980; Swan, 1977; Valle, 1978; Valle and Wallendorf, 1977; Westbrook, 1977b). In particular, Westbrook (1977b) found support for the relationship between the personality variable, competence, and satisfaction. Individuals characterized by high levels of personal competence tended to report fewer dissatisfactions. Swan (1977) found that satisfaction was a function of both self-confidence and preshopping attitude. Hughes (1977) reported that an analysis of levels of satisfaction across different products purchased by the same respondent indicated that some consumers are either satisfaction or dissatisfaction prone. Lundstrom and Kerin (1976) indicated consumer discontent was positively correlated with the alienation dimensions of powerlessness, normlessness, and social isolation.

In most studies, personality variables have fared better than demographic variables as predictors of satisfaction/dissatisfaction. While some of these studies are interesting, it is difficult to use

these findings in the design of marketing communications and product expectations. Personality variables are difficult to build into positioning strategies without angering consumers. Personality positioning tends to create perceptions of personality types as acceptable or unacceptable, which can be uncomfortable to a consumer.

Situational Variables and CS/D

Interest in situational research has expanded throughout the consumer behavior discipline. Ward and Robertson (1973) suggested that "situational variables may account for considerably more variance than actor-related variables." Sandell (1968) analyzed the use of specific situations and reported the concept to be an appropriate addition for the investigation of choice behavior for consumer products. He hypothesized that situational factors are responsible for most of the variation in choice behavior. Use of analysis of variance with individuals, situations, and choice alternatives resulted in the interaction effect of situation and choice alternative being the predominant source of variation. Leigh and Martin (1981) have an excellent review of the work in the consumer behavior area which analyzes the relevance of the situation as a factor affecting choice issues. This review found that inclusion of situation into research designs invariably improved the ability of the expanded consumer decision models to explain subsequent consumer behavior.

Many of the CS/D studies have recognized the importance of incorporating specific situations into the assessment of CS/D. Day

(1977) speculated that satisfaction may vary over time as a product is used. Swan and Trawick (1979b) and LaTour and Peat (1979a) expressly noted the usefulness of situations in the delineation of expectations and performance. Consequently, situation specificity is becoming the rule rather than the exception in most CS/D studies. Products and brands are rarely rated independently of environmental influences. Evaluation research now routinely words survey questions and experimental manipulations with situational contexts. There has been an improvement in the explanatory power of exogenous factors when specificity becomes part of the CS/D research design. The conclusion is that different use situations can cause satisfaction or dissatisfaction to vary, because of the different ways CS/D process variables are perceived for various consumption occasions.

Triggering Cues and CS/D

As useful and/or interesting as the above exogenous factors are to evaluation process explanation, there still remains a sizeable amount of unexplained variability in most studies. Even more disconcerting is the suggestion that satisfaction studies often have measured an evaluation process which is not a reality, but merely a demand effect from a research design. That is, respondents asked to think about being satisfied will report satisfaction, whether or not they actually felt it without the intrusion by the researcher.

Day (1977), in particular, has expressed concern over the possibility that consumers may not evaluate constantly every product

or service they use. Something out of the ordinary may have to occur during the purchase or consumption phase to alert them or draw their attention to an evaluation aspect. Day refers to these sensitizing elements as triggering cues. He felt that any context, product, or issue is perceived as out of the ordinary, if it has special meaning to the individual. He suggested several circumstances which are triggering cues:

1. the item and/or purchase occasion with special significance for the individual;
2. the social context in which the purchase is made and/or the item is consumed;
3. previous personal experiences with the product or service which suggest consumer caution;
4. advice from friends, consumer organizations, or consumer protection agencies to be careful in making the purchase;
5. inexperience and poor information about the purchase and use of the product, leading to more consciousness of all aspects of the situation.

In testing Day's extended concept of consumer satisfaction, Swan and Trawick (1978) found that some of these triggering cues are associated with higher frequencies of evaluative responses. Woodruff et al. (1983a, 1983b) have proposed that triggering cues have an impact at several places within an evaluation process. There may be shifts in attribute importance between the determination of pre-usage standards and the post-usage performance and disconfirmation

responses. Triggering cues could alter the models for variable construction, making pre- and post-measures no longer comparable. Some aspect of the consumption occasion could change the relationships between acceptable and non-acceptable performance behavior. Fluctuation in the zone of indifference, or latitude of acceptance, might change the performance-disconfirmation-satisfaction linkages. If performance is evaluated with or without triggering cues, the satisfaction process may undergo conscious and/or unconscious scrutiny.

All of these evaluation relationships suggest the need for examination of consumer reaction to triggering cues. Specifically, how will consumers differ throughout the evaluation process, when their levels of concern and interest for a product evaluation are allowed to vary?

The Concept of Involvement

Day (1977) proposed a typology of consumers, which may be useful in evaluating individual differences via triggering cues for the reporting of satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction. The typology ranged from the inexperienced/uninvolved/uncritical consumer to the highly experienced/highly involved/highly critical consumer. This typology introduces the term involvement as a possible consumer condition to CS/D.

Most of the early social psychology researchers, along with Mitchell (1979), Hupfer and Gardner (1971), and Lastovicka and

Gardner (1978, 1979), clearly defined involvement as a state. In this sense, involvement is a predisposition to respond in some manner to a given stimulus, be it an object, an issue, a situation, or a task. Mitchell (1979) defined involvement as an internal state variable that indicates the amount of arousal, interest, or drive evoked by a particular stimulus. Cohen (1982) also supported this perspective for its parsimoniousness.

These definitions are in opposition to the definitions used by Ray (1979), Krugman (1965, 1966), and Smith and Swinyard (1980). They defined involvement as a process. Depending on the level of involvement, be it high or low, they posited correspondingly different consumer behavior construct sequences. For example, Ray (1979) suggested that high involvement would lead consumers to follow a traditional hierarchy of effects model when processing information and choosing behavioral responses to objects. This high involvement hierarchy of effects is: (1) formation of cognitions or beliefs about an object; (2) then the development of attitudes about the object; and (3) finally, the formation of behavioral tendencies. Low involvement processes reflected consumers' unwillingness to form strong attitudes about an object before trying the product. The low involvement hierarchy of effects becomes: (1) formation of limited cognitions about an object; (2) then the selection of behavioral responses; and (3) finally, formation of attitudes about the object in response to behavior. Low involvement processes are not believed to include much consumer information processing effort. Hence, one

cannot determine which hierarchy of effects model is being used without first knowing the consumer's level of involvement.

Conceptualizing involvement in terms of processes poses problems. First, it confuses the differences between what the construct is and possible outcomes of various involvement levels. And second, Mitchell (1979) notes:

although the level of involvement may have a strong effect on the process used to make decisions or acquire information, I do not believe it is the only determinant of these processes.

Involvement from a state perspective allows one to isolate and then assess the effect of the construct. Thus, the state perspective is a preferable conceptualization and the one which is used for this study.

Enduring and Situational Involvement Components

Involvement is further delineated into components or types. This decomposition of involvement into components is reflected in involvement (as a state) definitions. Sherif and Cantril (1947) conceptualized involvement in terms of the relationship between an issue or object and the domain of one's ego. Sherif, Sherif, and Nebergall (1965) defined the concept as "the centrality of beliefs to individual's identity." Ostrum and Brock (1968) theorized that ego-involvement is determined by "centrality, relatedness, and the number of values engaged by an attitude." Although other terms were also used, e.g., issue involvement (Kiesler, Collins, and Miller, 1969) and personal involvement (Apsler and Sears, 1968; Sherif, Kelly,

Rodgers, Sarup and Tittler, 1973), they all refer to the extent to which the attitudinal issue reflects personal value.

A given issue intrinsically is involving because it is related to the individual's needs and values. Rokeach (1968) suggested that individuals have a hierarchy of values along a continuum of importance, which is called the individual's value system. Attitudes and values are interconnected within the individual to form a hierarchical mental organization which is internally consistent. Changes in either attitudes or values affect the entire system, which in turn usually produces a change in behavior. Rokeach then found a relationship between "terminal" values and involvement. He reported that values transcend the situation and provide a standard for guiding an individual's attitudes, actions, and emotions.

In consumer behavior as well, the concept of involvement has been defined similarly. Howard and Sheth (1969) defined involvement as "a construct that connects a consumer to a product class in terms of importance of purchase." Robertson (1976) referred to a related concept, commitment, as the strength of the individual's belief system with regard to a product or brand. Lastovicka and Gardner (1979), and Lastovicka (1979) have conceptualized involvement in terms of two components: normative importance and commitment. Normative importance is based on Rokeach's (1975) notion of a value system and refers to the relationship between a product and an individual's values. The commitment component is based on Kiesler's (1971) notion of the bonding, or pledging of an individual to a

particular choice object. Burnkrant (1976) viewed involvement as producing motivation for, and intensity of information processing. Several authors referred to product involvement as the degree to which buying a product was important to the purchaser (Chafee and McLeod, 1973; Hupfer and Gardner, 1971; Traylor, 1981; Tyebjee, 1979).

Petty and Cacioppo (1979) felt that ego-involvement should be distinguished from another type of involvement. This other component was labeled originally as response involvement (Zimbardo, 1960) or task involvement (Sherif and Hovland, 1961). Whereas ego-involvement refers to the extent to which the issue under consideration is of personal importance, task involvement concerns the extent to which particular goals related to information gathering, product selection, and/or usage situations envisioned for the products are of personal importance to the individual. The attitudinal issue is not particularly important to the person, but adopting a position which will maximize the immediate situational rewards is. Task involvement is an individual's concern with the consequences of his response or with the instrumental meaning of his opinion.

This split of involvement into two components has been seen frequently in the literature. Freedman (1964) proposed two definitions of involvement: (1) an "interest in, concern about, or commitment to a particular position on an issue," and (2) a "general level of interest in or concern about an issue without reference to a specific position." Bloch and Richins (1983) also suggested a

consumer response model with two types of "importance." Their concept of importance appears identical to that of involvement, since both enduring and instrumental importance are proposed as precursors of task-related responses.

Houston and Rothschild (1977) included three construct domains in a paradigm of consumer involvement. Their paradigm used a S-O-R framework of learning theory to link the three involvement types. The first type was situational involvement. It was considered external to the individual and reflective of the buying/consumption situation. Concern for appropriate behavior in the usage occasion was the main issue in situational involvement. According to Houston and Rothschild, object-related stimuli and social-psychological stimuli jointly determined the level of situational involvement. The second involvement type reflected the individual perspective from the many preceding studies. They labeled this component enduring involvement and stressed the strength of values, or ego involvement, and individual experience with the product. Considerable prior experience, especially with a product related to centrally held values, should result in a high level of enduring involvement.

The last involvement type, response involvement, appears to be a misnomer, for the authors were referring really to the type of response generated from the prior involvement components. Here, dependent variable findings are different given varying levels of the enduring and situational components.

While the definitions which have been developed for the enduring involvement component have been linked to past research on values, self-concept, self-interest, etc., the situational involvement component has not been linked adequately to past research streams. It is noted that situational specificity is of increasing importance throughout consumer behavior research. A brief review of the development of situational theory and definition is needed to justify the inclusion of the concept in so many of the more recent involvement conceptualizations. This review now follows, with a focus on situational conceptualizations subsequently used for involvement research.

The Concept of Situation

Study of the situational variable initially was included to further explain variability in choice behavior. But there has been difficulty in transferring situational work from one applied setting to another consumer behavior area. Perhaps this is because researchers have had difficulty defining the concept. Studies focusing on situational impacts and construction of situational taxonomies frequently have used various definitions. The various situational definitions are outlined now.

Situational definitions. One can place situational definitions on a continuum ranging from only including objective dimensions to only examining subjective, individualized dimensions of the concept. Barker (1968) was one of the early researchers who felt that

outsiders cannot create or influence situational variables but merely can record the objective dimensions of an environment which may cause behavioral variation. Thus, behavior settings only can be described in terms of physical characteristics, with no intervening internal situational redefinition by the individual. He used space, time, and non-psychological objects to define the situation. His work consequently falls to one end of the continuum--the reliance on external aspects.

Mausner (1963) agreed with Barker on the desirability of concreteness of terms, for without the use of external constructs, one could not hope to correctly classify the antecedent behavior conditions. If the individual was allowed to redefine the situation, "lawfulness becomes impossible."

Belk (1974) defined situational variables as:

all those factors particular to a time and place of observation which do not follow from a knowledge of personal (intra-individual) and stimulus (choice alternatives) attributes, and which have a demonstrable and systematic effect on current behavior.

There are several key elements to this statement. First, all person and product variables are omitted to allow focus on the environmental context alone. Second, not all environmental elements are included in the situation definition. Belk saw the environment as too broad a topic and not specific for individuals or stimulus objects. Only specific points in time and space are classified as situations. Third, this situation is observable, which eliminates any

psychological interpretation of a situation. Situations are classified on the basis of the behavior elicited by them.

Belk's research made use of three mode factor analysis, which reduces a large number of proposed situations and products, or inventories, to combinations of types of products in types of situations. Observable, situational factors emerge, making Belk's taxonomical methodology an "objective" classification construction. The elicited behaviors are derived from unique product categories as well as unique situational inventories. The observable dimensions change with each application, so Belk's taxonomy cannot be considered stable across products or brands. Only the methodology is constant.

On the other hand, there are a number of researchers who prefer to view the situation in more subjective, abstract terms, placing their taxonomies closer to the internal conceptualization end of the situation continuum. Mehrabian and Russell (1974) provided a very abstract conceptualization of situation, where emphasis is placed on the psychological meaning of a situation. Each situation is capable of being classified by an emotional response, and all possible emotional responses are reducible to three relatively uncorrelated emotions. These emotions are: pleasure, arousal, and dominance. Pleasure refers to the degree of happiness or contentment felt in the situation. Arousal is a measure of how stimulating the situation is to a participant. Dominance is a measure of how much in control of, or controlled by, the situation a subject may feel.

Another typology combined the psychological meaning a situation has for an individual with a more specific classification approach, similar to Belk's. Kakkar and Lutz (1975) defined a psychological situation as:

an individual's internal responses to, or interpretations of, all factors particular to a time and place of observation which are not stable intra-individual characteristics or stable environmental characteristics, and which have a demonstrable and systematic effect on the individual's psychological processes and/or his overt behavior.

Specific situational conditions in an objective sense are proposed, but the individual's perceptual interpretations of these situations constitute a psychological representation of the actual stimuli. Three perceptual dimensions emerged: social interaction, personal involvement, and temporal commitment.

Thus, an important connection was emerging between those espousing purely objective situational schema and those proposing psychologically defined situational dimensions. The internal conceptualizations appear to be defining the effects of external situations on individuals. Even the researchers committed to an interpretive definition of situation are acknowledging that objective, external situational factors help to create the feelings or emotions inherent in a psychological situation typology.

Situational roles. Situation can also influence different consumer functions, depending on the stage in the consumer decision process. Stanton and Bonner (1980) differentiated consumption and

purchase situations, hypothesizing that different situational variables have differing amounts of influence on purchase and consumption behavior (Figure 5). They suggested that some purchase situation variables are a measure of the objective dimensions, since many of the variables come directly from the store and the natural setting. They also posited that "intended" consumption situation variables influence behavior at each level. The intended consumption situation variables are perceptions of the purchaser and reflect psychological interpretation of the physical surroundings and the end use of the product. This conceptualization thus attempted to integrate both internal and external dimensions.

There are many communication studies which have examined the various communication situations. Lutz (1980) introduced the concept of communication situation into a discussion of the Stanton and Bonner model (see Figure 6), theorizing that promotion directly affects the intended consumption situation, the objective purchase situation, and the actual consumption situation. Product benefits are redefined at each of these stages. The marketing manager's potential impact on decision-making is expanded significantly with this conceptualization of situational variables. For example, when the communication situation was studied for its impact on post-purchase satisfaction, results showed a difference in level of consumer expectations associated with varying message contents and sources of communication (Park and Bahr, 1980).

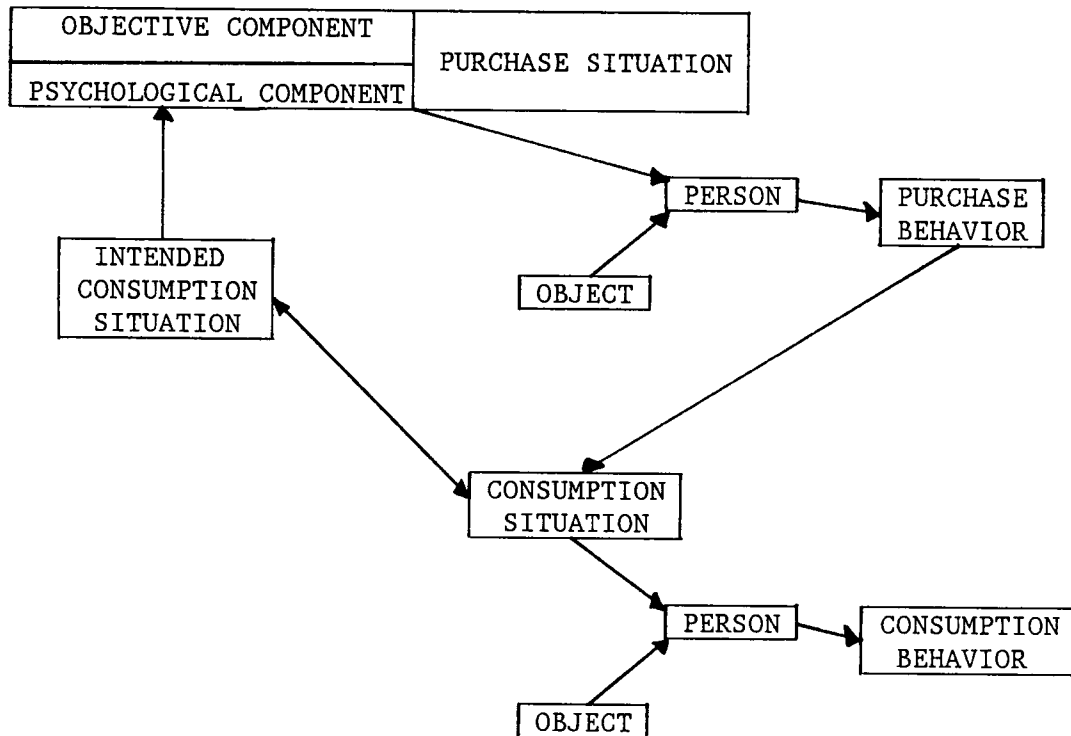


FIGURE 5

STANTON AND BONNER (1980) MODEL OF VARYING
SITUATIONAL EFFECTS ON CONSUMER BEHAVIOR

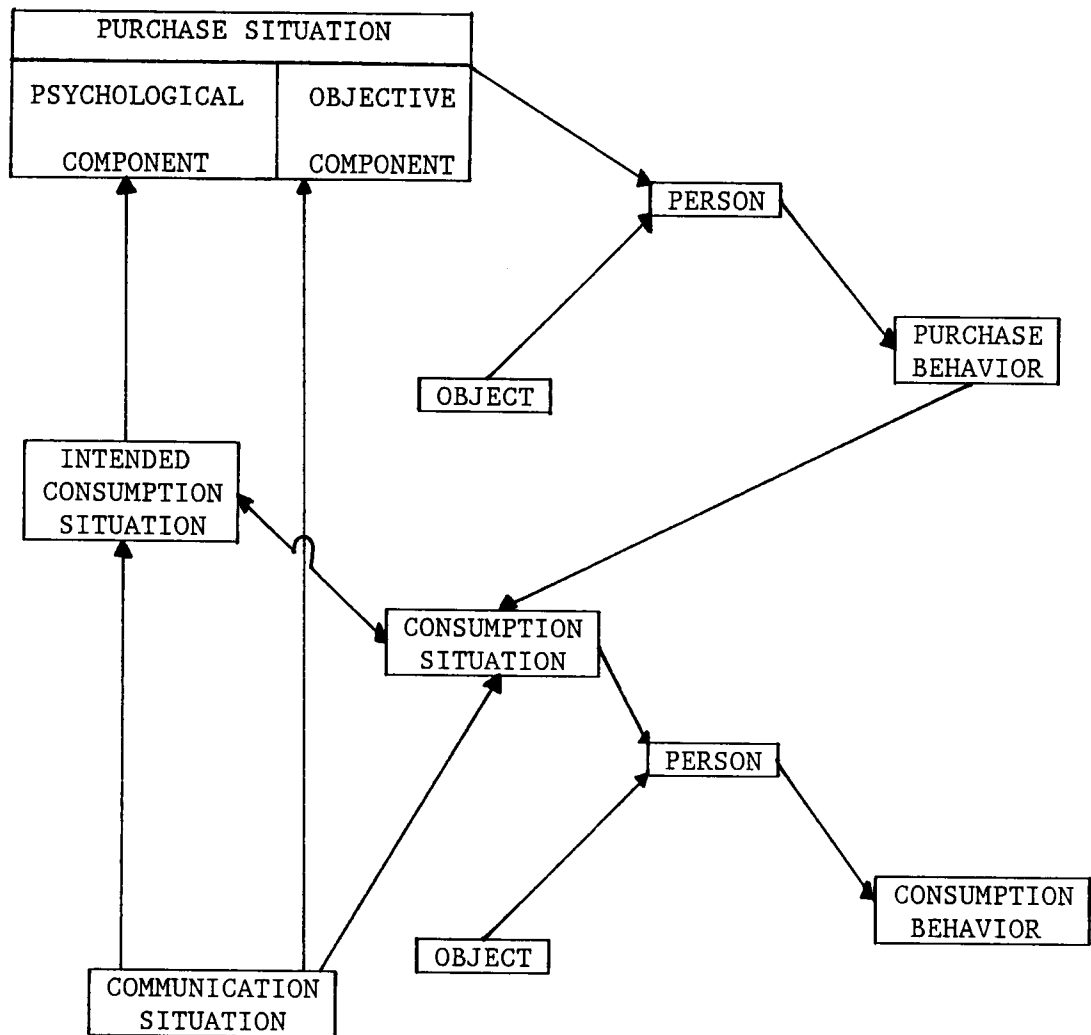


FIGURE 6

LUTZ (1980) MODIFICATION OF THE STANTON AND BONNER MODEL
DEPICTING SITUATIONAL INFLUENCES

Some researchers feel that communication and purchase situations are not anticipated by consumers and cannot be included in a study which aims at determination of consumer perceptions of desired benefits (Belk, 1979; Srivastava, 1980; Srivastava, Shocker, and Day, 1977). Consumption alone becomes the mediating situational role. However, if Stanton and Bonner's extended model is used, it is more reasonable to assume that Srivastava et al. are actually measuring the intended consumption situation with questionnaires and surveys, rather than actual consumption. There has been no explicit study of actual consumption, since it is difficult to acquire such measurements.

Situational aspects of intended consumption. If situational focus is on intended consumption, consumer perceptions of situational dimensions are extremely important. These dimensions can change in importance across consumption occasions. Gronhaug (1972) reported that buying purpose, e.g., gift or personal use, influenced the amount of prepurchase information sought. Monroe, Della Bitta, and Downey (1977) and Willenborg and Pitts (1977) found that price evaluations were affected by specific mention of the intended consumption occasion. A change in situations could cause price of the product to be perceived as more expensive for men's clothing, deodorants, and color TV. Hansen (1972) reported that situational factors influenced cognitive structures, i.e., changing beliefs and importance weights for product attributes, for hair dryers, travel mode, and type of menu.

These studies suggest that risk may be an important element in the differentiation of consumer responses to situational product attributes. If perceptions of risk vary across usage occasions, consumers are likely to attach more importance to those occasions which carry more risk. The consumption situation labeled as risky thus becomes more important to the individual. Several studies support the hypothesis of differential risk levels for different situations.

An early study (Spence, Engel, and Blackwell, 1970) found much greater risk associated with certain ways to make purchases. Mail order occasions were much more risky than buying within the store or over the telephone.

Hisrich, Dornoff, and Kernan (1972) examined different products and different patronage occasions to determine their effects on the amount of risk associated with several types of retail outlets. Here, situational information contributed significantly more to the determination of store risk than did the specification of different products.

The Vincent and Zikmund (1976) study related alternative usage requirements for a product to risk and to preference. The authors defined risk as consisting of social, financial, performance, and physical risk elements; thus, psychological interpretations of the objective situation were of importance in this research. Their findings showed greater social risk for gift-giving occasions and greater financial risk for home usage occasions.

Finally, Granzin and Schjelderup (1980) found that perceived risk changed with respect to situational differences involving automobile breakdowns. However, the pattern of variation in determinant attributes across the specific situations was not consistent with the variation in the perceived risk. They proposed that one possible reason for this finding was the feasibility of varying acceptable alternatives for dealing with auto breakdowns. Thus, acceptable ranges were examined in an indirect manner.

The above review of intended consumption occasions focuses on psychological interpretations of situational consequences. Risk appears to be a significant factor in consumer perceptions of situational importance. There is therefore a clear distinction between the antecedents of enduring and situational involvement.

Involvement Research Findings

Studies using the various involvement dimensions are reviewed now, including those studies which used only enduring, only situational, and both involvement components in an involvement research design. Since work in the involvement area relates to both social psychology and consumer behavior, involvement studies from both disciplines are reviewed. Social psychologists were among the leaders in involvement research; research from this area is discussed first.

Situational involvement in social psychology. In most of the studies specifically looking at situational involvement, the tendency

is to define, a priori, a situation as high or low involvement. Manipulation procedures are used extensively in social psychology. Mitchell (1979) suggested that a reasonable way to interpret situational involvement, as defined in social psychology, is to look at high involvement as mediating high amounts of cognitive effort, which is undertaken in a given situation. Low involvement leads to less cognitive effort.

Freedman (1964) was one of the first to manipulate involvement using personal concern about a goal-related response. He gave one group instructions designed to emphasize the importance of their first response as an indicator of intelligence and perceptiveness (high involvement); a second group was led to believe that the first response was relatively unimportant as a personality indicator (low involvement). The rationale for this manipulation was that subjects, who knew others were judging their performance based on first responses, would attach more consequence to these answers. His hypothesis was that there is more change with greater information discrepancy under conditions of low involvement, but that high involvement moderates change and reduces it due to a more narrow range of information acceptance. Thus, a highly involved person is more likely to reject discrepant information because the realm of believable and/or acceptable information is smaller. Results strongly supported his hypothesis.

Rhine and Severance (1970) also used personal importance and consequences associated with two involvement positions in their study

of attitude change. They hypothesized that more attitude change occurs for low involvement than for high involvement due to differences in acceptable and unacceptable attitude positions. Using a tuition increase (high involvement) and an issue dealing with park acreage in a distant city (low involvement), they found that students did alter their attitudes as anticipated.

Atkins and Bieri (1968) manipulated the social dimension of situational involvement by placing one group of subjects in an interpersonal situation (high involvement), while a second group did not discuss the issue in the presence of others (low involvement). They found partial support for their hypothesis that involvement enhances the contrast effects in social judgment.

Houston and Rothschild (1978) note that many of the studies in social psychology conceptualizing involvement in enduring terms actually manipulated it in situational terms. For example, Sherif and his colleagues manipulated ego (or enduring) involvement by impressing upon subjects the importance or lack of importance of the experiment. Thus, one must examine the definition of the concept for a particular study to get an indication of situational versus enduring involvement.

Enduring involvement in social psychology. One exception to the above is the involvement concept used by McGinnies (1968, 1973). He was interested in enduring involvement and used a combined measure of interest and knowledge to study Vietnam War attitudes as predictors

of attitude toward the United States. Personal involvement with the Vietnam issue was associated with a higher degree of support for a militant policy in Vietnam, and greater concern with and knowledge about the Vietnamese conflict accompanied more positive attitudes toward United States policy.

Ward (1965) also studied enduring involvement by examining religious involvement. He manipulated salience of relevant religious groups. He found evidence of contrast effects, with subjects who had strong personal involvement more likely to displace attitude statements toward the opposite end of the scale where they fell. Low involvement led to less displacement of attitude scores. Thus, contrast effects were operating for high involvement and assimilation effects for low involvement.

Situational involvement in consumer behavior studies.

Rothschild (1975) was one of the first to describe high and low involvement hierarchies, using political candidates presented in laboratory settings. He operationalized involvement as a state assembly race (low involvement) and a presidential race (high involvement). He predicted that advertising has a more powerful effect in low involvement situations than in high involvement. He found support for this hypothesis. Since many of the involvement-as-process studies suggest that television is a passive stimulus working best with uninvolved products or issues, this study was an attempt to bridge the involvement conceptualization problem using similar experimental manipulations.

Swinyard and Coney (1978) replicated the involvement manipulation used by Rothschild, with the assumption that more risk and goal-related consequence is attached to a presidential race than a local election. They used direct mail and personal canvassing advertising techniques, however, to influence involvement scenarios within a field study. Their results add support to the notion that advertising serves low involvement scenarios more effectively than highly involving occasions.

Persuasion experiments were used also in the Petty and Cacioppo (1981) study to evaluate the effectiveness of message content and source factors under high and low involvement. The first experiment had as independent variables:

1. argument quality, using cogent versus weak arguments for requirement of a comprehensive exam for seniors;
2. source credibility, using a professor or a younger student than the senior experimental population;
3. involvement, using the Apsler and Sears (1968) manipulation of exam change for now versus ten years from now.

Attitudes toward the exam were tabulated. Interaction effects were observed, with argument quality being more effective in high involvement and source factors more influential in low involvement.

The second experiment manipulated:

1. involvement, using the students' own school as a test area versus a distant location for testing;

2. source attractiveness, using models who had been judged previously as attractive or unattractive;

3. message quality, again using cogent and weak arguments to make a point.

Results were the same as in the previous experiment; attitudes were more influenced by strong arguments for high involvement and weak arguments for low involvement. Both studies lend support to the notion that more effort is expended under high involvement than low involvement.

Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann (1983) examined both attitudes and intentions to buy in a study very similar to the above experiments. Similar manipulations for involvement, argument quality, and peripheral cues using endorsers yielded identical patterns in attitude change and intentions.

Ryans (1977) found greater amounts of information search time being expended when small appliances were chosen as gifts for people outside of the giver's household than when they were chosen for personal use. These two situations seem to represent varying social-psychological concerns, part of the situational involvement domain.

Enduring involvement in consumer behavior studies. The focus for these studies is that ego or value-laden objects or issues are more influential in the determination of cognitive effort expended than are less value-laden objects. In fact, the early studies in consumer behavior usually used different issues or products to produce differential levels of involvement, rather than trying to

manipulate or measure value structures. Hupfer and Gardner (1971) used lists of both products and issues to find support for their hypothesis that issues are more important or ego-involving than consumer products. They found that most products are perceived as less involving than most of the issues, although the timeliness of their issues for the period during which data were collected must be considered.

Lastovicka and Gardner (1979) also used different kinds of products to tap individual differences in involvement. Since many of their measures now appear ambiguous and may not capture how a consumer really feels about any one product in particular, the study is seen as exploratory only. In fact, many researchers have suggested that future research should focus on the use of a scale(s) measuring the degree of interest or arousal evoked by a particular product class or brand.

Another involvement-as-different products study examined involvement and its effect on willingness to buy (Bowen and Chaffee, 1974). The authors used pertinence of ad and different product groups (involvement) for evaluation of ads and willingness to buy. They found that, for both dependent variables, the mean criteria scores were highest when both involvement and pertinence were high, and lowest when both were low. However, the interaction effects for both were more important than the main effects. There were more favorable ad evaluations and more willingness to buy when using

pertinent appeals for high involvement than for low involvement product groups.

Another Lastovicka and Gardner (1978) study used only one product class, but presented ten compact car models to subjects who evaluated the similarities between the compact models. Based on paired comparison scores, three involvement groups--high, medium, and low--were obtained. The authors found support for the hypothesis that lowly involved consumers do not use complex, multidimensional models to formulate brand similarity perceptions, whereas high involvement groups do. This finding is again in line with previous research, suggesting less effort on the part of low involvement consumers.

Newman and Dolich (1979) also used several car models to depict enduring involvement. They operationalized involvement by having subjects select the models they would or would not consider buying if they had a chance to do so tomorrow. This method of selecting high (few acceptable models) and low (many acceptable models) involvement parallels Sherif and Sherif's (1967) use of latitudes of acceptance and rejection for high/low involvement. Communication about the Pinto model also was presented. Results indicated that Sherif's social judgment theory does hold when the communication is not strongly positive, thus yielding differential attitude change scores.

Bloch (1981, 1982) developed and used an enduring involvement scale, which was product specific and exhibited good construct validity. He purposely limited his efforts to product involvement as

defined by long-term interest in a product. The definition is based on the centrality of the product to important values, needs, or the self-concept. He found support for the notion that consumers use enduring involvement as a vehicle for self-expression and description of their self-concept.

Studies using both involvement components. Several studies used the Houston and Rothschild paradigm in research designs. These studies and their findings now are summarized.

Parkinson and Schenk (1980) examined four different products and measured each across criteria reflecting consequences, experience, and ego-related value structures. They found support for the multifaceted definition of involvement; both individual and situational influences were useful in creating different levels of cognitive structure (number of attributes considered) for the four products. They also mention that the strength of the relationship is weak, which could indicate a mediating role for involvement components in a model of behavior.

Arora (1982) used causal modeling techniques to generate support for both situational and enduring influence on the relative importance attached to various attributes of a university. In particular, he found that situational factors directly affect enduring involvement and only indirectly influence response variables. Thus, the S-O-R paradigm is supported in his study.

Clarke and Belk (1979) designed a study which incorporated both enduring and situational elements of involvement. Their study differs from Arora's and Parkinson and Schenk's in that enduring involvement was conceptualized using different products to represent varying amounts of ego and personal value structure. The situational manipulations were similar to those of other consumer behavior studies attempting to include social-psychological and object stimuli into an overall measure of risk and consequence. They used gift-giving (high) and buying for personal use (low) as situational involvement levels. The authors found evidence of significant main effects for both predictors and an interaction effect from both enduring (product) and situational involvement on the amount of money spent, number of stores visited, and amount of time spent in choosing the items. The effect of task involvement was to increase the amount of anticipated effort for low involvement products, but not for high involvement products. The authors suggested that there is a ceiling effect occurring for the high involvement products, preventing further involvement development on already personally relevant items.

The main contribution of these studies appears to be that involvement effects cannot be understood fully without first considering the source of the level of involvement. Moreover, there may be types of consumer decisions which are more responsive to enduring importance or situational involvement than to the other component. Bloch and Richins (1983) suggested this very possibility. They posited that enduring importance directly influences ongoing

product decisions, regardless of specific usage requirements for said product. Situational involvement impacts upon task or usage-related responses, where specific, consumer consumption goals are relevant to decision-making. Selection of a consumer decision process for study thus affects the expected explanatory contributions from involvement components.

Methodological Issues in Involvement Studies

As research in the involvement area has progressed, several methodological issues have developed. These include the selection of research procedures for situational and enduring involvement, and the reduction of demand effects associated with an involvement research design.

Most research designs incorporating situational involvement have manipulated the construct and analyzed for intended effects. The rationale for selecting this procedure is based on situational research previously cited dealing with definitions for the concept. Using externally-determined usage occasions and presenting these to subjects was supposed to eliminate the problem of self-defined consumption situations. All subjects effectively were controlled by presenting detailed situational contexts to them. Nevertheless, consumers could interpret the risk or importance of these situations on an individual basis. The subjective interpretation of situation therefore was considered part of the design.

Enduring involvement cannot be controlled easily, especially when long-term values and interests are the determining factors for

the development of the construct. Houston and Rothschild (1978) proposed that enduring aspects of involvement are measured more appropriately as covariates to the development of behavioral responses. They assumed that enduring involvement is formulated over time and not easily influenced by one consumption occasion.

Both Lutz and Kakkar (1975) and Reingen (1976) expressed concern over the fact that Belk's early work on situational inventories had allowed respondents to answer questions covering a set of situations, rather than just one. They felt that presentation of more than one situation created demand effects as subjects could easily guess what differences they were supposed to see between situational options. These researchers created research designs which exposed respondents to only one usage occasion. They still found significant relationships between situation and preference/choice behaviors, although a reduced amount of contribution to variance was calculated. Situational effects were attenuated when more realistic role playing was required.

Belk (1982) sought to eliminate some of the experimental design biases from studies where more than one involvement scenario was given to a subject. He used only gift-giving occasions rather than actual products to represent situational involvement. He determined varying amounts of importance across several occasions when a gift would be warranted and used these occasions in a study of involvement and purchase strategies. High involvement justified more money

expended, more time taken with purchase, and higher quality items being bought than low involvement gift-giving occasions.

Concern for effective role playing from subjects cannot be overstated. While consumers must be allowed to develop their own motivating levels of concern and sensitivity for situations, a researcher cannot leave the manipulation too unstructured so as to make it impossible to determine individual reaction to situational dimensions.

Existing Involvement-Satisfaction Studies

Day (1977) has speculated that consumer involvement is related to satisfaction. He did not specify the nature of the relationship. Ortinau (1980) tangentially investigated some possible involvement/satisfaction relationships, but he defined involvement rather narrowly as product usage rates. Swan and Trawick (1983) included involvement in their CS/D study of a public radio station. They posited that involvement with music is higher if respondents are frequent listeners to a public radio station. This self-exposure then leads to higher levels of satisfaction with the station. Their involvement measure was not precise and measured enduring involvement only. Involvement as such was related positively to satisfaction.

Oliver and Bearden (1983) used the Bloch methodology to design an enduring involvement scale for diet suppressants. They then hypothesized that measured enduring involvement would affect positively the CS/D process, resulting in higher evaluation variable

scores for high involvement than low involvement. They also suggested that the CS/D process model might vary with involvement levels. Their results did show higher evaluation scores for high over low involvement, but they did not find strong support for any difference in the post-usage satisfaction process using varying involvement levels.

There are several possibilities for their inability to show any model differences for the two involvement conditions. First, they may have had demand effects operating. This can be a serious problem with involvement studies, as previously noted. Merely requesting someone to become involved in a study may sensitize the individual and create artificially high interest for the study, not for the product in a normal purchase or consumption scenario. Second, they did not model completely the CS/D process. Performance, a crucial post-usage construct, was not measured. There is the possibility that involvement will affect directly this important variable.

Churchill and Surprenant (1982) found that evaluation of different kinds of products did create different performance-satisfaction relationships. For a plant, the widely-accepted disconfirmation paradigm was at work with the most powerful predictors of satisfaction being disconfirmation, performance, and expectations, in that order. For a video disc player, however, there were no significant relationships between expectations and disconfirmation (as predictors) and satisfaction. Performance was the crucial variable for predicting satisfaction. They suggested

that their selection of products reflected varying levels of involvement, with the plant serving as a low involvement product and the VDP as the high involvement object. They then posited that involvement may have an important role in the development of a CS/D process. This matter needs to be resolved by studying the entire CS/D process model.

However, Oliver and Bearden (1983) go on to suggest that the adaptation level theory may not be appropriate for high involvement. Some increase in sensitivity to post-usage variables over pre-usage variables was noted for high involvement. Low involvement results suggested more of a halo effect in operation, with expectation and pre-usage attitude variables being more important to the explanation of satisfaction.

Summary

This chapter began with a review of the difference between the evaluation process and the construct satisfaction. The many theoretical paradigms which have been used to explicate the CS/D process were discussed, with the focus being on the adaptation level theory. There are several pertinent observations from this review.

First, expectations have served as the standard of comparison in the majority of CS/D research studies. However, there appears to be a growing recognition of the need to incorporate normative aspects into the selection of a reference point. Both expectations and norms constructs are based on learning from previous experience with the

product category and specific brands within the product category. While expectations have been shown to be significantly related to the development of performance perceptions and satisfaction, disconfirmation and possibly performance are even more influential in the derivation of CS/D. There has not been enough research on the role of norms to ascertain their impact on subsequent evaluation variables.

Second, the meaning of satisfaction has been broadened and then narrowed in recent years. Research began with a focus on the cognitive aspects of satisfaction, then more recognition of the affective component attached to the construct was included in the definition. In recent years, however, this broadening was criticized as creating difficulties in attaining parsimonious measures. Now, more research focuses on the surprise or affective meaning of satisfaction, leaving the cognitive element to be incorporated into the concept of disconfirmation.

Various methods have been used to reduce unexplained variability in the empirical CS/D results. Individual, personality, and situational factors all have been incorporated into the CS/D model, with varying levels of success. While exogenous variables have been helpful somewhat in the refinement of the CS/D model, now researchers are focusing on triggering cues which precipitate the CS/D process. This study is focusing on one such triggering cue, involvement. Review of involvement literature shows that individual and situational components have been used to create involvement. Focus

has turned now to development of product specific enduring and situational involvement scales. Manipulation of situational involvement and measurement of enduring involvement or importance are the preferred methodologies within both social psychology and consumer behavior disciplines.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the research methodology for the study of the involvement-satisfaction process relationships. The research hypotheses, based on the research questions of Chapter I, are stated and described first. Secondly, measurements for the research constructs are reviewed. The third section reviews the research design. Finally, the chapter describes statistical analyses and lists the operational hypotheses. Figure 7 represents a flow diagram of the research activities and the chapter section where activities are discussed.

Research Hypotheses

The present study examines the differences between CS/D process variables for manipulated involvement conditions and focal brand expectation levels. In particular, variable levels and variable relationships within the involvement-CS/D process are explored. The research questions of Chapter I are presented now as formal research hypotheses.

1. Consumers with high focal brand expectations will have more favorable pre-usage brand attitudes than individuals with low brand expectations.

Section 1:

DEVELOPMENT OF
RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Section 2:

SELECTION OF PRODUCT FOR STUDY

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS

QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

FEEDBACK

PRETESTING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

FINAL QUESTIONNAIRE

Section 3:

SELECTION OF SUBJECTS

RESEARCH PROCEDURE

EDITING AND CODING

Section 4:

DATA ANALYSIS AND
INTERPRETATIONS

FIGURE 7

A FLOW CHART OF THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

2. Consumers with high focal brand expectations will develop more favorable, i.e., higher, performance perceptions than consumers with low brand expectations.

3. Focal brand disconfirmation will be independent of manipulated focal brand expectations.

4. Consumers with high brand expectations will have more positive CS/D feelings than consumers with low focal brand expectations.

5. When controlling for enduring product importance, highly involved consumers will use significantly more product attributes to evaluate a consumption experience than lowly involved consumers.

6. High involvement consumers will have significantly stronger, i.e., unusually favorable or unfavorable, pre-usage brand attitudes than low involvement consumers.

7. High involvement consumers will have significantly more extreme, i.e., unusually higher or lower, performance perceptions than low involvement consumers.

8. When controlling for enduring product importance, highly involved consumers will have a more narrow acceptable range of performance than lowly involved consumers.

9. The likelihood of the occurrence of disconfirmation will be higher under high involvement conditions, whereas confirmation will be more likely to occur for low involvement occasions.

10. High involvement consumers will be more likely to express either satisfaction or dissatisfaction, i.e., satisfaction feelings, than low involvement consumers.

11. The development and use of experience-based norms will be significantly different for consumers with high versus low involvement. High involvement consumers will be more likely to use brand specific norms, while low involvement consumers will be more likely to use a product, or averaging, norm for brands across a product category.

12. There is no significant difference in the specification of the disconfirmation paradigm, which serves as the basis for the development of CS/D, for both high and low involvement conditions.

The discussion of the research hypotheses serves as background material for the remainder of this chapter.

Hypothesis 1

There is some evidence in the CS/D literature of the positive relationship between expectations and pre-usage brand attitudes. Oliver in particular found that expectations provide the foundation for pre-usage attitude formation. This is due to the belief probabilities associated with attribute occurrence, which are used to build expectations measures. Using a multiattribute approach as the explanation for attitude development, expectations beliefs create pre-usage adaptation level attitudes. This study is then an extension of prior work, since it examines this hypothesis in a different setting. The results are predicted to be similar--high

brand expectations will yield higher pre-attitudes than low brand expectations.

Hypothesis 2

Assimilation theory has received substantial support as an explanation for the positive relationship between brand expectations and perceived performance. This study is a replication of past studies which explicitly examined expectations and performance relationships. However, performance is measured rather than manipulated. Manipulation has been the most frequent research procedure for these past studies. This study also expands existing CS/D research by including all the major evaluation variables-- expectations, performance, disconfirmation, and satisfaction--into one research design. Quite often one of the variables was omitted from a CS/D process research project, with some process linkages only indirectly evaluated. The hypothesized relationship between explicitly manipulated expectations and measured performance is the same as in other studies supporting assimilation. High brand expectations will induce more favorable, or higher, performance perceptions than low brand expectations.

Hypothesis 3

There are conflicting reports in the literature on the relationship between expectations and disconfirmation. Many studies have found the likelihood of a subject experiencing positive, negative, or zero disconfirmation to be independent of (i.e., not

correlated with) the prior expectation level (Oliver and Swan and Trawick studies). This conclusion has been supported when expectations have been both manipulated and pre-measured. Others have found negative correlation between the constructs (Cadotte et al., 1983b; Churchill and Surprenant, 1982). Given the difference in research findings, this hypothesis is without specified direction; no significant differences in disconfirmation are hypothesized for high and low brand expectation levels.

Hypothesis 4

Expectations can play a significant role in later satisfaction decisions. In particular, there appears to be a positive relationship between the two constructs. This study also predicts that high brand expectations will contribute to higher levels of satisfaction than will low brand expectations. However, two multi-item satisfaction measures, which have previously been validated as effective measures of satisfaction, are used and compared for the analysis.

Hypothesis 5

Greater levels of task importance or consequence create more concern for an issue or consumption experience, since there is more at stake to the consumer. The highly involved consumer will go through a more extensive process of product evaluation and is more likely to operate on the principle of maximizing expected benefits. Thus, highly involved consumers will evaluate alternative brands

across more determinant attributes and generate more complex and higher expectations for a product's performance than consumers under low involvement.

While the proposed relationship has received support in prior involvement studies, there is difficulty in determining the extent of situational or enduring involvement's influence in the findings. No study has separated the two dimensions into two constructs and manipulated only one of the variables, situational involvement. Enduring importance is controlled and used to reduce experimental error. This study then should expand upon previous knowledge concerning importance-involvement-attribute relationships.

Hypothesis 6

Sherif et al. (1965) found that persons with high involvement in an issue, whether due to strong personal consequences or important goals reflected in the issue, have narrow latitudes of acceptable attitudinal positions, i.e., well-formed attitudes. This finding is predicted also for the evaluation process. Highly involved individuals will develop strong pre-usage brand attitudes, which will be either favorable or unfavorable of the focal brand. Conversely, one expects that some consumers who are unfamiliar, less knowledgeable, or less personally interested in a product usage occasion will not have clearly defined, or strong, attitudes toward a specific brand.

Hypothesis 7

Just as in Hypothesis six, personal commitment to a consumption experience creates concern for performance judgments. Under high involvement more extreme performance perceptions, i.e., more positive or more negative judgments, will be recorded because of the existence of acceptable and unacceptable brand sets. Acceptance indicates strong performance in an area, while nonacceptance shows a brand's inability to deliver adequately on evaluative dimensions. The area of noncommitment or weak performance perceptions is small under high involvement. The reverse is true for low involvement. Less clearly defined brand sets lead to less clearly defined performance perceptions. Performance judgments will fall more frequently into the moderate or middle range.

Hypothesis 8

Sherif's theory of social judgment describes involvement as the determinant of what is acceptable or unacceptable for an individual engaged in a product evaluation. The range of brand evaluation acceptance is wide for occasions when there is little importance attached to the usage situation. High involvement will impose tighter limits on what is tolerable for a product performance; thus, the latitude of acceptance will be narrower.

Hypothesis 9

Hypotheses seven, eight, and nine are closely related. Assimilation-contrast theory serves as the rationale for the

development of confirmation or disconfirmation. Perceptions within or beyond the latitude of acceptance represent confirmed or disconfirmed evaluations. Disconfirmation arises from discrepancies between prior performance standards and actual performance which cannot be assimilated away. Given the more narrow acceptable performance range for high involvement, it will be easier for an individual under high situational arousal to perceive an unacceptable difference between pre-consumption standards and post-usage perceptions. Low involvement, on the other hand, will more easily produce confirmation of a standard. A wider range of actual performance will be acceptable or tolerated.

Hypothesis 10

The hierarchy of effects model serves as the rationale for this hypothesis. Affect is expected to follow cognition only when the product involvement is high enough to warrant a complex cognitive-affective response from the consumer. This process of complex decision making assumes a highly involved consumer will compare the reference and performance cognitions and will find unacceptable discrepancies between the two. The discrepancies will lead to disconfirmation beliefs. This selective process, which magnifies cognitions outside the zone, will culminate in affective evaluations, i.e., satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Low involvement will yield a minimal amount of attention being given to an evaluation process. Confirmation, where reference and performance differences are assimilated away, fails to grab attention

and stimulate the same hierarchy of effects process found in high involvement. The end result is an unconscious fulfillment of performance needs, but no conscious, positive or negative emotional response. Satisfaction or dissatisfaction feelings thus are more likely to develop only for those occasions which merit unusual attention--high involvement situations.

Hypothesis 11

Sherif et al. (1965) have suggested that a highly involved individual, having definite opinions about an issue, will accept very few positions and reject a wide number of positions. An uninvolved individual will find more positions acceptable. Translated into marketing terms, Sherif's theory predicts that the active, involved consumer will find many brands unacceptable, while the less involved consumer will find many brands acceptable. In the high involvement case, fewer brands will be evaluated. Determination of what one ought to get from a product's performance is defined more rigidly by using a particular brand as a norm for consumption purposes. Low involvement consumers are willing to consider a wider number of brands because of a lack of commitment to one or several brands. This individual will be content to pool performance experiences across a number of similar brands. The norm in a low involvement situation becomes a general performance evaluation rather than a specified brand derived from past experience. The experience-based

norms thus are different for different situations reflecting different task goals.

Hypothesis 12

Consistency in the relationships between all the major evaluation variables is not evident from CS/D literature. Oliver and Bearden (1983) found evidence of a strong disconfirmation association with satisfaction for both high and low involvement, although involvement as measured was actually enduring importance. They did not find significant relationships between expectations and satisfaction, although Oliver previously found both disconfirmation and expectations to be predictors of satisfaction.

Churchill and Surprenant (1982) found different post-evaluation influences on satisfaction for two different products. When consumers evaluated plants, a low involvement-type product, disconfirmation was found to be the strongest influence on satisfaction. A video disc player, a presumably highly involving product, yielded performance as the best explanator of satisfaction. These differences in evaluation process relationships for two distinct product categories suggests that involvement should be a determinant in CS/D models.

High involvement may increase sensitivity to outcome phenomena. Prior experience, which defines standards of comparison, pre-usage product attitudes, and ultimately disconfirmation, may not be as relevant for a new occasion fraught with new risks or important consequences (e.g. the video disc player). There is more motivation

to thoroughly evaluate a product's performance as if it were the first time using the product. Any satisfaction or dissatisfaction which develops is influenced strongly by performance rather than disconfirmation, a standards-based variable.

Low involvement consumers (e.g. those evaluating the plants in the Churchill and Surprenant study) are motivated less to process performance distinct from prior evaluations. A halo effect from pre-usage standards operates and follow Helson's (1964) theory of adaptability of subsequent evaluations to the general position of an original belief. Post-usage satisfaction thus is strongly influenced by disconfirmation.

These conflicting research findings and possible theoretical differences make it difficult to predict whether the process of CS/D will differ in different situations. This hypothesis is considered of an exploratory nature, without specified directional predictions.

Measurement of Relevant Constructs

Chapter I presented the conceptual definitions of the variables under study in the involvement-CS/D research study, and Chapter II reviewed the existing research and operationalizations of the relevant constructs. In this section activities leading to questionnaire design are outlined, measures used in this study are derived, and general formulas are presented. Constructs are reviewed in the order in which they are presented in the questionnaire.

Selection of Product for Study

Choice of an appropriate product category for this investigation was limited by several factors. First, any product category selected must show variability in the manner in which the product is consumed. For most consumer goods, there are several usage occasions, which offer product opportunities and stress differential benefit packages. Since this study was concerned with relative task involvement differences, the product-in-use had to show varying consumer responses to importance of product attributes, social psychological constructs, and psychological or personal dimensions. All these dimensions were included in the domain of the chosen construct, situational involvement.

Secondly, a product had to provide varying levels of enduring importance to consumers. Products which seemed to offer enduring importance to some consumers also had to be capable of arousing low long-term interest in others. Some of the enduring dimensions which had to reflect this variability were the product's association to a consumer's value structure, self-concept, and social roles.

One product which met both criteria was wine. For some people, wine offers inherent excitement and interest, as they become enthusiasts, connoisseurs, instructors, and the like. Wine also is served for many different occasions. Depending upon the emphasis given to social functions, one can expect the necessary variation in situational involvement.

Wine also was purchased easily in the city where data was gathered, Charlottesville, Virginia. Virginia allows wine sales in grocery and drug stores as well as state-controlled liquor stores. Therefore, low task importance settings did not require unusual purchasing efforts, which could confound the evaluation results. Finally, the University of Virginia, where the study was performed, allowed the serving of alcoholic beverages on campus for supervised occasions.

Focus Group Interview

Focus group interviews were conducted to determine several construct dimensions, salient attributes/statements for scale construction, and optimal manipulations for situational involvement and expectations. Two groups, each with eight participants, were selected from the Ph.D. Institute at the McIntire School of Commerce, University of Virginia. The participants were relatively homogeneous in terms of their experience with the chosen product, their age, income, education, and occupational level. They also were representative of adults for participation in the actual study. The moderator led each group through a sequence of questions, following the proposed involvement-CS/D model. The moderator first introduced the group to the subject, wine, before asking questions related to consumption experience and knowledgeability. Next, group members were asked, "What do you suppose are some of the reasons people become interested in wines, i.e., why do some people become wine hobbyists or connoisseurs?" Several salient reasons for enduring

interest in wines were learned from this question, which was designed to tap enduring importance of the topic. These reasons matched the factors listed in Bloch's (1981, 1982) enduring importance scales. Twenty-one statements originally were created to measure enduring importance.

The next questions contained specific references to two usage occasions. The wine-drinking situations had been previously selected based on expert opinion and prior research. Each situation was assumed to involve different personal consequences for the participants. The first wine-drinking occasion was outlined as a weekend dinner party for several guests. The guest list included some family friends and business associates, table service was formal, and the meal was elaborate. The second occasion was described as a weekly supper for the immediate family, featuring informal service and family fare. After the description of each situation, group members were asked to describe all the various consequences or risks involved with the occasion just outlined. Specifically, the members were asked, "What benefits and what costs would you associate with this occasion where wine is being served?" As expected, more personal and social consequences were mentioned for the first occasion. In all, eight consequence statements were created for construction of a manipulation check for situational involvement.

Following these questions, the members were asked to identify what wine attributes are used for evaluation. A total of eight

product dimensions were listed. Scaling for each dimension then was discussed, centering on selection of modifiers for product attributes. These attributes were incorporated into norm, expectation, performance, and zone of indifference constructs as participants sampled two wines.

Finally, group members were asked about their satisfaction feelings, "What words would you use to indicate how you feel about this wine tasting for the first (or second) use situation?" Six sets of bi-polar adjectives originally were derived. Some examples of these adjective sets are "very delighted--very upset" and "very contented--very frustrated."

Pretesting the Questionnaire

The results from focus group interviews and expert opinions were used to design the first draft of the questionnaire. All pre-testing involved the use of non-undergraduate students in summer programs at the McIntire School of Commerce. All were volunteers who had some experience with wines.

In all, four groups of respondents were needed to pretest all questionnaire drafts. The purposes of the pretesting were:

1. to test for easily understood questions;
2. to determine the appropriate wording and ordering of questions;
3. to determine an acceptable questionnaire length;
4. to obtain appropriate choice of coverup message;

5. to determine the questions' ability to elicit responses which would meet research objectives.

A few important changes in questionnaire format were made on the basis of these pretests. For example, respondents indicated confusion over some of the statements regarding enduring product importance, attribute lists used for pre- and post-evaluation constructs, and potential consequences of a consumption situation. Some of the statements for enduring product importance were changed or held until pre-test analysis to determine their overall contribution to the constructs' meaning.

Several existing wine attribute scales were reviewed before deriving attribute-based evaluation scales for this study. The existing wine scales (Cal-Davis, Gallo wine scales) were not appropriate for direct use in this study for several reasons. First, many of the items on these scales were not mentioned in focus group work and were not always understood by average consumers, lacking substantial knowledge of wines. When people were asked to put a wine in perspective for an occasion, some of the existing scale items became inappropriate or were not relevant. Second, both existing scales failed to use scaling points which could be used in all pre- and post-judgment evaluations. For example, a latitude of acceptance scale must, by necessity, contain several points which are either acceptable or unacceptable for a consumer. Neither of the existing scales were translated easily into a set of points. Third, the attributes used had to be salient dimensions used by consumers both

before and after tasting a wine. The existing wine scales did not allow for changing pre- and post-evaluations. A modified wine scale was constructed, which covered all relevant attributes for wine testing under two usage scenarios.

The original sequence of questions was as follows: (1) past behavior, (2) enduring product importance, (3) determinant attributes and their importance, (4) relevant standard of comparison, (5) norms, (6) brand expectations, (7) latitude of acceptance, (8) brand attitude, (9) performance, (10) disconfirmation, (11) satisfaction, (12) involvement, and (13) demographic data. The respondents felt comfortable with this sequence. In addition, the length of the final questionnaire was found to be adequate.

To determine the questions' ability to elicit responses which met research objectives, several statistical analyses were performed on the pretest. All multi-item constructs were examined for internal consistency and factor structure. The constructs analyzed were:

(1) enduring importance, (2) norms, (3) brand expectations, (4) latitude of acceptance, (5) performance, (6) satisfaction, and (7) involvement. All constructs were edited until minimum levels of consistency needed for exploratory research (Cronbach's $\alpha > .70$) were realized. Factor structures for constructs also were reviewed for consistency with previous research and focus group information.

Both the involvement and expectation manipulations were represented by a single item and a multi-item scale. For both constructs, the measures yielded one-tailed t-test results which were

significant, indicating the viability of the independent variables for this study.

Final Questionnaire

The results of pretesting and expert opinions were used to design the final questionnaire. There were four different versions of the questionnaire: (1) high situational involvement teamed with high brand expectations; (2) high situational involvement with low brand expectations; (3) low situational involvement teamed with high brand expectations; (4) low situational involvement teamed with a low brand expectation. Four questionnaire versions were necessary to generate appropriate question headings for subjects receiving the different treatments. In all other respects--sequencing, content of questions, overall length of questionnaire--the versions were identical. Appendix A presents one of the questionnaires--the high situation/high brand expectations version. The actual situations and brands used are discussed later in the chapter.

Variable Operationalizations

Past behavior. Several scales were used to obtain information on subjects' familiarity with and consumption habits regarding wine. These measures, found in Part I of the questionnaire, included number of times wine was drunk in the past week, occasions when wine was consumed over the past month, number of wine appreciation or wine tasting sessions one had attended during the past three years, and an overall statement of knowledgeability with regard to wines.

The behavior measures do not figure explicitly into the research objectives of this study, since the last variable under review in this CS/D process is satisfaction itself. However, past behavior should be closely related to enduring product importance as a measure of one's long-term interest in wines. An individual, who considers him/herself very interested in wines and perhaps knowledgeable on the subject of wines, should show increased usage of the product as a reflection of this interest. Past behavior was therefore measured to serve as a check on the covariate of interest, enduring product importance.

Enduring product importance. This construct implies that people who are keenly interested in a product will find many connections between the product and their lifestyle. From Bloch's (1981, 1982) work in this area, as well as focus group suggestions of how wine can impact on an individual's self-concept and lifestyle, the construct was operationalized on the basis of five salient consequences. Table 1 lists the five consequences used to operationalize enduring product importance.

Each item in the scale was measured on a five-point Likert scale (STRONGLY AGREE = 1, NEITHER AGREE/DISAGREE = 3, and STRONGLY DISAGREE = 5). An example is:

	SA	A	NA/D	D	SD
Drinking wines is one of the most enjoyable things I do.	1	2	3	4	5

TABLE 1
ENDURING PRODUCT IMPORTANCE CONSEQUENCES

-
1. Positive expression of one's self-image through wine interest.
 2. Excitement and interest in trying and experimenting with wines.
 3. Social symbolism and social goals attached to wine usage.
 4. Wine as a reflection of individual values.
 5. Wine's association with role-related needs.
-

Items were recoded as necessary to obtain a high score indicating high enduring importance. The scores on the sixteen items used in the final questionnaire were summed to obtain a scale score for each subject. The complete list of items used to construct the enduring product importance variable are listed in Appendix A, Part I, Question 5.

Attribute evaluation list. There were seven dimensions concerning wine for a usage occasion, as well as space for individually-added dimensions. Subjects were asked to check any of the listed wine attributes, which they considered important for the usage occasion just presented. The respondents were then asked to indicate how important each of the attributes was to them for the consumption occasion. Importance ratings ranged from ESSENTIAL FOR ME = 1 to NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT = 5. An example is:

	ESSENTIAL FOR ME TO HAVE	VERY IMPORTANT TO ME	MODERATELY IMPORTANT TO ME	SLIGHTLY IMPORTANT TO ME	NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT TO ME
Taste (Dry/Sweet)	1	2	3	4	5

For consistency all attribute importance items were recoded to yield higher scores as indication of increasing importance or value to the respondent. The list of potential determinant attributes and the importance scales are found in Appendix A, Part II, Questions 1 and 2.

The measure of attribute consideration, which is relevant for Hypothesis five, was obtained by summing the number of attributes checked as dimensions considered for a particular usage occasion. This measure included any attributes which were entered under the item, OTHER ATTRIBUTES (specify). The importance items were used later in the operationalization of consumption evaluation items. Explanation of importance weights are discussed under those variable headings.

Standards of comparison. Before proceeding through the questionnaire and answering questions on specific types of comparison standards, subjects first indicated which of the standards was most relevant for a specific occasion. The purpose of this question was to directly involve the consumer in the selection of his/her reference points, rather than inferring the standard of choice. The measure, located in Appendix A, Part II, Question 4, presented the following comparison standard options: (1) best (ideal) brand

imagined; (2) best brand previously experienced; (3) focal brand experience (one being considered or manipulated for an occasion); (4) a typical or average brand used to represent the product category; and (5) the last brand consumed. Possible options included in this question cover all reference objects which were suggested or studied in existing CS/D literature.

Product norm. Several of the comparison standard options first introduced in the preceding question were then developed into unique construct measures later in the questionnaire. The first, product norm, is found in Appendix A, Part II, Question 5. The question was designed to yield two measures of product norm--a multiattribute reference evaluation and an overall (single item) measure of typical product evaluation.

The seven-point semantic differential scales were written to include non-evaluative judgment indicators as much as possible. The judgments used do try to make use of objective phrases found in existing wine scales. Objective phrasing reduces the correlation between performance, disconfirmation, and satisfaction measures, thus lessening method variance and strengthening construct validity for the study. An example from the multi-item product norm scale is:

TASTE: (DRY/SWEET):

VERY SWEET	SWEET	SEMI- SWEET	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	SEMI- DRY	DRY	VERY DRY
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Judgments across all seven attributes were used to construct the product norm score. Coding ranged from one to seven, moving left to right across an item. Several of the items were recoded to yield increasingly positive scores as indicative of higher (more favorable) attribute evaluations. The product norm score was calculated by multiplying the importance weight assigned to each product dimension to the evaluation score for each attribute, then summing these seven attribute-specific scores to obtain an overall measure of product norm evaluation. Multi-item and single item product norm scales were both obtained for validation purposes.

Using all seven attributes in the above calculation stresses the salience of these selected attributes. Focus group and pretest work had indicated that these dimensions are used frequently in evaluation. Attribute determinance was factored in by using the importance weight for each dimension. Individuals who did not check attributes as being considered in a usage evaluation consistently scored these attributes very low on importance. Little bias should have been created by using all seven attributes in the computations of attribute-specific variables, since the importance weight prevented any excessive influence being given to an unchecked product dimension.

However, the attribute-based variables also were examined using only the checked product dimensions from Part II, Question 1. To prevent the possibility of bias from using only a few variables and comparing scores to ones based on more dimensions, averages rather

than summations were computed. For example, a reduced attribute product norm evaluation score is importance weights of attributes times attribute evaluations on the originally checkmarked attributes, summed across all checked attributes, then divided by the number of checked attributes. Both attribute-based measures were used for data analyses and subsequent comparisons of the results.

Favorite brand norm. This measure implies that individuals use a favorite or best brand as a comparison standard, against which all other brands are compared. First, respondents were asked to name their choice of a best brand of chablis. Although several individuals did not fill in this question, none specifically said they had no favorite brand. The researcher was unable to determine if this were the case, or if respondents could not recall their favorite brand.

Following specification of a favorite brand of chablis, respondents evaluated this favorite brand, using the same set of attributes presented in the preceding question. The multi-item scales for measuring expectancy and importance components of the favorite brand norm were similar to the ones used to measure the product norm. Both operationalizations were derived; that is, a favorite brand norm score across all seven attributes and a reduced attribute, averaged score were computed. A single item best brand measure also was available. The best brand items are found in Appendix A, Part II, Question 6.

Focal brand expectations. This measure was designed to serve as a manipulation check for the specific brand treatments. After seeing the brand and bottle to be tasted and hearing the description of the product, subjects evaluated the brand on the seven attributes used throughout the questionnaire. Again, the multi-item measure was measured by two separate operationalizations--the set of all seven listed product attributes, and the reduced attribute set consisting of attributes checked for that usage occasion. Importance weights and evaluation scores were combined in the same manner as other norm and performance scales. A single item measure also was obtained. These measures are located in Appendix A, Part II, Question 7.

Latitude of acceptance. The level of involvement with a usage occasion is predicted to affect the number of acceptable performance evaluation alternatives. Each of the attributes used to describe chablis in this study was presented on a seven-point acceptance scale. Individuals circled acceptable scaling points on each of the product dimensions. The items, located in Appendix A, Part II, Question 8, were combined into a composite scale of acceptance.

Once again, the multi-item measurement was calculated two ways--from the complete attribute set and from the reduced number of attributes first checked in Part II, Question 1. Using the complete set, latitude of acceptance was calculated by summing the entire number of performance levels circled as acceptable, divided by seven (all listed attributes). The score represents the average number of acceptable performance levels.

Using the reduced attribute set, the latitude of acceptance score became the total number of circled performance levels in the set of attributes checkmarked, divided by the number of attributes checked. There was also a single item measure for overall acceptable performance scaling points for a bottle of chablis.

Pre-usage brand attitude. An overall measure of attitude was used to measure pre-usage focal brand attitude toward the brand of chablis presented in the expectations treatment. A five-point scale, using "like--don't like," was used to obtain the degree of favorableness toward the brand.

How well do you like Paul Masson chablis?

- 1 - I REALLY LIKE THIS BRAND.
- 2 - I SOMEWHAT LIKE THIS BRAND.
- 3 - I DON'T LIKE OR DISLIKE IT. IT JUST SEEMS OK.
- 4 - I SOMEWHAT DISLIKE THIS BRAND.
- 5 - I DON'T LIKE THIS BRAND AT ALL.

Coding was reversed to yield a higher score as indicative of a higher (more favorable) attitude toward the focal brand. This item is found in Appendix A, Part II, Question 9.

Involvement. Manipulation checks for involvement determine the extent to which subjects received, understood, and imagined the importance of the consumption occasions used for involvement treatments. The involvement presentations are fully described in the next section. Stated briefly, a subject was shown a tape of consumers using chablis for one of the usage occasions and given a

reinforcing message of the scene. Then the individual was asked to imagine him/herself in the scene and to evaluate usage consequences accordingly.

The manipulation check for situational involvement was obtained from two separate questions in the questionnaire. The first measure, found in Appendix A, Part II, Question 10, was a series of statements in Likert form, which covered possible risks or consequences associated with drinking wine. The same set of items was used for both high and low involvement treatment groups; however, the items were worded to encompass the particular type of consumption occasion each group was being asked to consider. Coding ranged from STRONGLY AGREE = 1 to NEITHER AGREE/DISAGREE = 3 to STRONGLY DISAGREE = 5. Examples from each treatment questionnaire, both reflecting social risks, are:

(Low involvement):	SA	A	NA/D	D	SD
I care about other people's impressions of the wine I serve at family meals.	1	2	3	4	5
(High involvement):					
I care about other people's impressions of the wine I serve at weekend dinner parties.	1	2	3	4	5

Eight situational risk statements were used to generate a measure of involvement. All items were recoded to yield a higher score as meaning more perceived risk. Scores across all eight items were summed, providing a multi-item manipulation check on involvement.

The single item measure of involvement is provided in Appendix A, Part III, Question 8. The measure is:

Overall, how concerned would you be with the evaluation of a wine for an informal, weekday supper at home?

- 1 - DEFINITELY NOT CONCERNED WITH EVALUATING WINE
- 2 - NOT TOO CONCERNED WITH EVALUATING WINE
- 3 - I DON'T KNOW IF I'M CONCERNED OR UNCONCERNED
- 4 - SOMEWHAT CONCERNED WITH EVALUATING WINE
- 5 - DEFINITELY CONCERNED WITH EVALUATING WINE

The two manipulation checks were analyzed later for construct validation.

Performance. After having tasted the focal brand, respondents were asked to again review the preselected list of product dimensions, rating the brand performance on each. The seven attributes were presented using the same non-evaluative, judgment indicators and coding formats as used in the norms, expectations, and latitude of acceptance questions. This variable is in Appendix A, Part III, Question 1.

The performance dimensions were combined into scales in the same manner as the other attribute-specific variables. The scale using all attributes had the importance weights multiplied by the evaluations, then summed these scores across all seven attributes. The reduced set of attributes originally mentioned as relevant were used by multiplying importance weights by evaluations on the reduced set to yield an average performance score. There was also a single

item performance measure, using the same scale points as those used in previous single item evaluation variables.

Disconfirmation. Both perceived and derived measures of disconfirmation were computed for each of the standards of comparison. The three standards were: typical product norm, favorite brand norm, and focal brand expectations. The three perceived disconfirmation items are found in Appendix A, Part III, Questions 2, 3, and 4. Each perceived disconfirmation measure was a single item score, using the same wording and coding format (MUCH WORSE = 1, ABOUT THE SAME = 3, MUCH BETTER = 5) for each of the standards of comparison. An example of one of the three perceived disconfirmation measures is:

(Focal brand):

Compared to your expectations for Paul Masson chablis, how did it actually rate?

MUCH WORSE	WORSE	ABOUT THE SAME	BETTER	MUCH BETTER
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

The derived disconfirmation scores were created using the difference between the standard of comparison score and a performance score. The derived scores were calculated using both the entire set of attributes and the reduced set as indicated by respondents in the early pertinent attribute question. All derived scores followed the same format--performance scores for a specific attribute minus standard score on the same attribute, with differences summed across

the relevant set of attributes. With three different standards being studied in this experiment, six derived disconfirmation measures were obtained.

Satisfaction/dissatisfaction. This variable assumes that the individual is capable of experiencing affective or emotional responses following a cognitive evaluation of a brand's performance. The intensity of affect experienced following a consumption experience and evaluation is satisfaction. Two different measures of the satisfaction/dissatisfaction variable were obtained. The first used a five-point, Likert-type scale format (STRONGLY AGREE = 1, NEITHER AGREE/DISAGREE = 3, STRONGLY DISAGREE = 5) to measure the amount of agreement with statements expressing emotional responses to a consumption experience. The items selected reflect the same emotions as used in the Oliver (1980a) Likert format satisfaction scale. An example from the low involvement questionnaire is:

	SA	A	NA/D	D	SD
I am quite content with serving this wine to my family.	1	2	3	4	5

There are seven items in the Likert-type scale. Some required recoding to yield a higher score as indicative of higher (more positive) affect. The seven items were summed to obtain the multi-item satisfaction score from Likert responses. The Likert-formatted CS/D scale is in Appendix A, Part III, Question 5.

The second measure of CS/D was obtained from a five-point, semantic differential scale, again using item anchors having an

affective or evaluative nature. Coding ranged from 1 to 5, moving left to right through the items. An example is:

VERY DELIGHTED	DELIGHTED	NEITHER DELIGHTED/ UPSET	UPSET	VERY UPSET
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Again, scores were recoded to give a high score reflecting high (more positive) affect. The five item scores were summed to obtain the semantic differential scale score for CS/D. Items comprising this scale are found in Appendix A, Part III, Question 6.

In summary, Tables 2 and 3 list the theoretical constructs, the questionnaire references, and the algebraic expressions for all multi-item constructs directly related to the research hypotheses. Table 2 summarizes the measurements for enduring product importance, selection of relevant attributes, involvement, and satisfaction. Table 3 shows the same information for attribute-based constructs, and indicates the two different formulations for each variable being used in this study.

Research Design

This third section of the chapter describes the selection of the sample and the actual procedure followed in arranging for and collecting data. Sampling requirements and derivation of the sample are discussed first.

TABLE 2

SUMMARY OF VARIABLE MEASUREMENTS FOR INDEPENDENT, MULTI-ITEM CONSTRUCTS

Construct	Questionnaire Items (part, question, items)	Algebraic Expression	Algebraic Definitions
Enduring Product Importance	I, 5, a - p	$EPI_j = \sum_{i=1}^n D_{ij}$	EPI_j = enduring product importance of product j D_{ij} = amount of agreement with dimension i, related to personal interest and value of product j n = number of dimensions used to reflect personal aspects of interest/value.
Relevant Attributes	II, 1, a - i	$Attr_j = \sum_{i=1}^n A_{ij}$	$Attr_j$ = attributes considered when using product j n = number of product dimensions used for considering product j
Involvement	II, 10, a - h	$INV_{jk} = \sum_{i=1}^n C_{ijk}$	INV_{jk} = perceived involvement with product/brand j in specified situation k C_{ijk} = perceived consequences i or activities associated with using product/brand j n = number of consequences or activities for product j
Satisfaction	III, 5, a - g III, 6, a - e	$S_{jk} = \sum_{i=1}^n E_{ij}$	S_{jk} = perceived satisfaction feeling about brand j for involvement situation k E_{ij} = evaluation dimension i relating to feelings about brand j n = number of evaluative dimensions

TABLE 3
SUMMARY OF VARIABLE MEASUREMENTS FOR ATTRIBUTE-BASED CONSTRUCTS

Construct	Questionnaire Items (part, question, items)	Algebraic Expression When Using All Attributes	Algebraic Expression When Using Determinant Attributes Only
Product Norm	II, 2, a - g II, 5, a - g	$PN_{jk} = \sum_{i=1}^n I_{ik} \times B_{ijk}$	$PN_{jk} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m I_{ik} \times B_{ijk}}{m}$
Best Brand Norm	II, 2, a - g II, 6, a - g	$BBN_{jk} = \sum_{i=1}^n I_{ik} \times B_{ijk}$	$BBN_{jk} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m I_{ik} \times B_{ijk}}{m}$
Focal Brand Expectations	II, 2, a - g II, 7, a - g	$FBE_{jk} = \sum_{i=1}^n I_{ik} \times B_{ijk}$	$FBE_{jk} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m I_{ik} \times B_{ijk}}{m}$
Performance	II, 2, a - g III, 1, a - g	$BP_{jk} = \sum_{i=1}^n I_{ik} \times B_{ijk}$	$BP_{jk} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m I_{ik} \times B_{ijk}}{m}$
Latitude of Acceptance	II, 8, a - g	$L_{jk} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n AB_{ijk}}{n}$	$L_{jk} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m AB_{ijk}}{m}$

TABLE 3 (continued)

Construct	Questionnaire Items (part, question, items)	Algebraic Expression When Using All Attributes	Algebraic Expression When Using Determinant Attributes Only
Product Norm-Based Disconfirmation	derived	$D_{jk} = BP_{jk} - PN_{jk}$	$D_{jk} = BP_{jk} - PN_{jk}$
Best Brand Norm-Based Disconfirmation	derived	$D_{jk} = BP_{jk} - BBN_{jk}$	$D_{jk} = BP_{jk} - BBN_{jk}$
Focal Brand-Based Disconfirmation	derived	$D_{jk} = BP_{jk} - FBE_{jk}$	$D_{jk} = BP_{jk} - FBE_{jk}$

Where:

- PN_{jk} = reference product category performance norm for product j in involvement situation k
- BBN_{jk} = reference best brand performance norm for brand j in involvement situation k
- FBE_{jk} = reference focal brand performance standard for focal brand j in involvement situation k
- BP_{jk} = perceived performance of product/brand j in involvement situation k
- L_{jk} = average number of acceptable performance beliefs of product/brand j in involvement situation k
- D_{jk} = belief about the degree of confirmation/disconfirmation of product/brand j in involvement situation k respect to the standard in situation k
- I_{ik} = the value of dimension i for involvement situation k
- BP_{ijk} = belief of possible performance of typical product j on dimension i for involvement situation k
- BB_{ijk} = belief of possible performance of best brand j on dimension i for involvement situation k
- BP_{ijk} = belief of possible performance of focal brand j on dimension i for involvement situation k
- B_{ijk} = perceived performance of product/brand j on dimension i for involvement situation k
- AB_{ijk} = acceptable performance for product/brand j on dimension i for involvement situation k
- n_{ijk} = number of dimensions in scale, all used to perceive performance of product/brand j
- m = number of originally checkmarked dimensions used for perceiving performance of product/brand j

Selection of Subjects

Subjects for the study had to be consumers who purchased and consumed wine, either on a frequent basis, or only occasionally. Secondly, it was desirable to have participants who exhibited some variability across certain demographic variables, such as age, sex, income, and occupation. Third, the main purpose of this study was to examine cause-and-effect relationships between antecedent evaluation variables and post-usage evaluation perceptions. This goal did not require representativeness of the sample to the general wine-drinking population. Use of an undergraduate student sample was rejected, however. Such a group was unlikely to have had the time or financial opportunity to become familiar with both involvement scenarios and to develop enduring interests with wine.

Subjects were participants in the University of Virginia Continuing Education night school program in Commerce and the Masters in Business Administration degree program. They were all adults who pursued full-time degrees or took coursework on a part-time basis. The sample was largely from the Charlottesville metropolitan area and was familiar with wines sold in local establishments. Selection of sample size was determined by statistical requirements for the proposed experimental design. Time and budgetary constraints influenced the determination of sample size as well.

Research Procedure

High/low situational involvement and high/low brand expectations were manipulated in this study. Adults were allowed to volunteer for

the study to rule out any participants who might not want to be served alcoholic beverages for personal reasons. Volunteers were not restricted on the basis of their wine experience or knowledge. Selection of students actually was done on a class by class basis. Eight classes were necessary for obtaining an adequate number of subjects for the four treatment cells. The four situational involvement/brand expectation treatments were randomly assigned to the eight classes, assigning two classes to each treatment cell. All tests were conducted within three months to minimize the internal validity problems caused by history, maturation, and mortality.

Subjects first were asked not to communicate with each other during the test and were spaced out in the room to assure equal distance between each. They were instructed not to open the questionnaire before them, until told to do so by the proctor. They also were informed of several places in the questionnaire where they were going to be asked to stop and wait until given permission to proceed. These instructions were always on an empty page to keep participants from reading ahead.

When told to begin, subjects filled out part one of the questionnaire, pertaining to their wine drinking experience, knowledge, and interest in wines. These pre-treatment measures captured behavior and enduring product importance. Subjects were then asked to stop (for presentation of the situational treatments).

The instructor reminded the volunteers that wine was often consumed for many different occasions. They were asked to think of

one such occasion. Here, the instructor named the usage occasion-- wine for a Saturday night dinner at home where good friends and business associates were present (high situational involvement) or for a weekday supper at home with just the family (low situational involvement). Subjects then were asked to think about this occasion only and to please view a tape showing a typical (high/low involvement) occasion. The visual part of the treatment showed friends (or family), in the dining room (or kitchen), reviewed the meal being served, and then showed the people having a glass of domestic chablis. After viewing the tape subjects listened to the commentator again describe the occasion and review the visual presentation. Thus, the involvement treatment was presented both visually and orally. Appendix B contains the situation scripts used throughout the experiment.

Subjects proceeded to answer the next part of the questionnaire, measuring determinant attributes, attribute importance, and attribute-based evaluations for average and favorite brands of chablis. While answering the average chablis norm question, subjects were asked to look over a list of all the domestic chablis wines currently being sold in Charlottesville to jog their memories (presented on a poster at front of room). They also were asked to write down their favorite brand of chablis before answering the favorite brand norm question.

Following the norms questions, subjects stopped again and watched the instructor present a particular brand of domestic chablis

for the tasting. This was the brand expectation manipulation. Gallo jug chablis with a screw cap was used for low brand expectations, and Paul Masson in a 750 ml. bottle with a cork was the high brand expectation treatment. The instructor opened the bottle in front of the participants and presented a verbal description of the product. During the description, the instructor mentioned wine authorities' opinions of the wine, reviewed the vintner's comments on each of the product attributes used in the product scales, and made a general statement regarding overall quality. For the low brand (Gallo) this description involved very nebulous comments and no glowing evaluations. Only for the high brand (Paul Masson) were superlatives used to create high focal expectations. See Appendix B for the verbal treatments of both high and low brand expectations.

Participants then answered the next questions concerning brand expectations, latitude of acceptance, brand attitude, and situational involvement. The involvement question was the multi-item manipulation check for the independent involvement variable.

Next, the instructor and assistant handed out glasses of the chablis to each volunteer. Subjects were asked to taste the wine and evaluate its performance for the high (or low) involvement setting. Then subjects answered the post-consumption variables, including performance, disconfirmation, and satisfaction. Last, respondents answered an overall involvement question and completed an inventory of demographic items.

The entire procedure lasted approximately thirty minutes. Following the test, crackers/bread were provided to the volunteers. Any questions regarding the experiment were answered and a general debriefing of the study was conducted.

Editing and Coding

Manual editing was done on each respondent's questionnaire as soon as the data had been collected. Since the questionnaires were not tagged with identification numbers, it was not possible to obtain missing data (The issue of variables with missing data is further reviewed in Chapter 4). A total of 91 observations were obtained in the data analyses. Raw data from the questionnaires were transferred directly to coding sheets, then entered into a computer file. Once the data had been transferred to computer disc, statistical analyses were performed using routines of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) programs. The final section of the chapter reviews these data analysis techniques and operational hypotheses.

Data Analyses and Operational Hypotheses

Several different data analysis procedures were required for this research study. In general, data analysis procedures fell into one of three categories: procedures used to evaluate the sample; procedures required for thorough investigation of the reliability and validity of research measures; and procedures used to test the hypotheses themselves. Each of these categories are briefly reviewed.

Evaluation of the Sample

A preliminary analysis of the data collected focused on an examination of the distributions of key variables in the study and certain other sample descriptors for which data were collected. Frequency distributions and measures of central tendency were employed for this purpose. Also, the use of an experimental design with multiple treatment levels required the comparison of treatment groups for random versus systematic error in group assignment. Crosstabulations, with subsequent examination of row and column percentages, were used to determine the existence of any statistically significant group differences. The presence of systematic error would indicate that the groups were not equal, or alike, prior to the experimental treatments. Inequality would prevent accurate interpretation of any subsequent analyses relating to the research hypotheses themselves.

Evaluation of Research Measures

Reliability and validity of measures were confirmed before proceeding with hypothesis testing. First, reliability was examined using internal consistency as the selected method of analysis. Similar measures of similar traits showed a high degree of consistency across respondents; the coefficient alpha score, as indication of internal consistency, was computed for all multi-item scales. Only if measures were consistent in the way they tapped latent constructs could validation tests be conducted.

Construct and criterion validity were required to insure that measures were related to the theoretical constructs they were meant to represent, and not representing other constructs. As is often standard in the marketing discipline, the presence of interval level data for these measures was assumed. Measures were compared to all other measures, and the degree of association between variables was examined. Pearson product-moment correlations were computed for all validity tests. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient r was used to measure the direction of relationship between any two interval level variables. The square of Pearson's r , R^2 , was also useful, since it measured the proportion of variance in one variable explained by the other. The strength of this relationship assessed the ability of the measures to represent true construct meaning. Validation was indicated by high correlations between measures of the same construct and low correlations between measures of different constructs. In addition, the study explored correlational patterns between variables theoretically related to one another.

Evaluation of the Hypotheses

The primary purpose of data analysis was, of course, to test the hypotheses discussed in the beginning of the chapter. Since this study contained two manipulated variables, expectations and involvement, the first task for significance testing was to determine whether the two factors in combination have a statistically significant effect on variables of interest. This procedure answered

the question of whether or not there was any relationship at all between each predictor and a variable of interest as well as interaction effects from the combined predictors. However, this particular research design precluded this basic procedure. The chosen independent variables and their very different theoretical foundations in relation to the same dependent variables caused the analysis problem.

Expectations research has generally supported the notion that expectations directly influence most evaluation variables. This suggests that the higher the expectations, the higher the value of related evaluation variables. However, social psychology and consumer behavior studies have found that involvement does not produce such simple direct relationships. High involvement is frequently predicted to lead to extreme responses, while low involvement leads to weak, or middle of the road, responses. Because of these relationship differences, key variable measures could not be formulated the same way.

Expectation-related variables were calculated and operational hypotheses designed so that direct relationships were used for testing. Involvement hypotheses required measures which focused on the distribution of scores associated with each involvement condition. Since scores might be at either the positive or negative ends of construct scales for high involvement, averages or variable means were not appropriate for hypothesis testing. Means would reduce the possibility of finding support for the research hypotheses

(a Type II error). The hypotheses which were subject to this measurement problem were those which had the following dependent variables: (1) pre-usage brand attitude, (2) performance, (3) all standards-based disconfirmations, and (4) satisfaction.

The solution to this measurement problem required different analyses to test the expectations versus involvement related hypotheses. The disadvantage of this constraint was that no test for interaction effects between the two manipulated constructs was possible. Statistical power was therefore sacrificed for better operationalizations in this study. The tests themselves are now reviewed.

The t-test. Inasmuch as all the expectation hypotheses called for a comparison of two respondent subgroups along some variable, the primary analysis tool chosen was the t-test. This test examined whether observed differences between treatment group means were significant statistically or due to chance. In addition, the test was more powerful and therefore preferable to a nonparametric test such as the chi-square.

The t-test was appropriate only for determining whether a significant difference between groups existed when certain conditions could be met.

1. The observations were independent.
2. The observations were drawn from normally distributed populations.
3. These populations had the same variance.

4. The variables involved had been measured with at least an interval scale.

The first and fourth conditions were met in this study. The first was a function of sample selection and experimental procedures, and care had been taken in the design of the study to provide for independent observations. The fourth condition was dependent upon the measurement instrument, and the measurement of most of the variables in this study were at either the interval or ratio level.

The second and third conditions were another matter, inasmuch as there was no way of knowing in advance of conducting the study what the population characteristics were. These conditions were assumed to be met based on a judgmental determination. Equality of variances and testing for normal distributions were reviewed, once data were collected, before using a t-test to report results. If these conditions were not met, an approximation to the Student's t was computed and used to report hypothesis findings.

Analysis of covariance. Prior research in the social psychology and consumer behavior fields has shown the effectiveness of using enduring product interest or importance as a long-term predictor for some consumer responses. Enduring product importance was conceptualized as an existing "attitude" about a product before actually considering the product for a specific usage occasion. It was possible to utilize this pre-existing variable along with the experimental factor of involvement in a design called analysis of

covariance for hypothesis testing. Covariance analysis used the relationship between the dependent variable and an independent quantitative variable, or covariate, for which observations were available (the pre-experimental enduring product importance score), in order to reduce the experimental errors and make the experiment a more powerful one for studying treatment effects.

A covariate reduces the error mean square term. This implies that the F-test statistic for the overall test of significance has a better chance of showing significant relationships between independent and dependent variables, when a covariate removes some of the error variance in the measures. If this covariate has no relation to the dependent variable, nothing is gained by covariance analysis and simpler techniques can be used. If, however, there is sound theoretical reasoning for believing the variable to be useful in CS/D processes, there are correct procedures for incorporating the covariate. This study measured enduring importance before any of the experimental manipulations were presented.

The key statistical inferences of interest in covariance analysis were the same as with analysis of variance models, namely, whether the treatments had any effect, and if so, what these effects were. The covariance model added another term to reflect the relationship between the covariate and dependent variables. A linear relation was assumed for all the hypotheses incorporating the covariate. Relationships such as these allowed the use of regression procedures to remove variation in the dependent variable due to the

covariate, and then a conventional analysis of variance was performed on the "corrected" dependent variable scores.

A number of conditions were met before employing the covariance model.

1. There were normally distributed error terms.
2. There were equality of error variances for different treatments.
3. The observations from the treatment groups had equality of slopes for the different treatment regression lines.
4. There was linearity of regression.

As noted, the first condition was dependent on the sampling plan used in this study. Existence of slope equality for each hypothesis was checked before proceeding with analysis of covariance. The presence of any interaction between the covariate and involvement would preclude the use of the procedure. Covariate means and standard deviations were computed, with the hope of finding identical covariate ranges across both treatment groups. This occurrence would eliminate the need for adjustment of the covariate as it would not be affecting the data.

While the analysis of covariance procedure was intuitively attractive for all the involvement hypotheses, it was applicable only for Hypotheses five and eight. The second condition for the use of the procedure, the need for equality of error variances, was violated in all other involvement hypotheses.

A re-examination of the measurement problem precluding simultaneous review of both manipulated treatments supported this constraint. Because respondents under high involvement were likely to hold extreme positions on attitudes, performance perceptions, disconfirmations, and satisfaction feelings, the variance associated with their responses was large. Their answers covered a broad spectrum of possible responses. Low involvement individuals had much less measure variance, since their answers were more likely to be focused on neutral, or middle-of-the-road responses. Thus, one could not apply analysis of covariance to those hypotheses (six, seven, nine, and ten) which did not presume equal error variances for the treatment groups. A more appropriate test was the F-test for equality of variances.

F-test for equality of variances. One of the conditions for the use of the t-test was that populations had the same variance. If meeting this condition was questionable, an F-test of sample variances was computed. If sample variances were not identical, the t-test statistic was inappropriate, and a comparison of means using separate variance estimates was required. While the involvement hypotheses in question were not specifically concerned with examination of sample means, the sample variances could be examined with the F-test statistic. The larger the F-value, the larger the sample variance for the numerator group. Hypotheses six, seven, nine, and ten were all analyzed using the F-test. The prediction for all these hypotheses was the same--high involvement groups would have

answers spread over more of the response continuum than low involvement groups. Thus the sample variance for high involvement groups would be greater.

Chi-square. Hypothesis eleven predicted that different standards of comparison were used for different involvement scenarios. This hypothesis required a measure of association between involvement levels and choice of different reference points. If no relationship existed between sets of variables, any deviations from the expected cell frequencies in a table of all variable values were due to chance and chi-square values were small. A large chi-square implied that a systematic relationship of some sort existed between the variables.

Stepwise regression analysis. Hypothesis twelve predicted that level of involvement influenced the strength of the relationships between pre- and post-usage evaluation variables in the determination of satisfaction. Stepwise regression analysis was used for this test.

In general, multiple regression is a general statistical technique through which one analyzes the relationship between a dependent or criterion variable and a set of independent or predictor variables. The most important uses of the technique are:

1. to find the best linear prediction equation and evaluate its prediction accuracy;

2. to control for other confounding factors in order to evaluate the contribution of a specific variable or set of variables;

3. to find structural relations and provide explanations for variable relationships.

Stepwise regression analysis, in particular, allows independent variables to enter into a model on the basis of some pre-established statistical criteria. It allows a weighting of the antecedent model constructs in the development of satisfaction for both involvement groups. Then the differences in regression models for the two involvement treatments are compared.

The above statistical tests were used whenever appropriate for hypothesis testing. The operational hypotheses specified the measures used to examine the proposed research relationships. These hypotheses are presented next.

Operational Hypotheses

The twelve research hypotheses are restated as operational hypotheses. In general, multi-item measures were preferred and used over single item formats. Chapter IV presents correlational analyses of multiple measures (multitrait, multimethod matrices. These analyses were performed to insure construct validity whenever more than one measure was available.

Figure 8 lists the operational hypotheses, stated in the usual null hypothesis form. Table 4 summarizes the theoretical constructs relevant to each operational hypothesis, the statistical test used to test for significance, and the formulation of the null and

- 1: There is no significant difference between subjects exposed to high focal and low focal wine brand expectations in pre-usage attitude toward focal (or manipulated) wine brands.
- 2: There is no significant difference between subjects exposed to high focal and low focal wine brand expectations in focal wine brand performance ratings.
- 3: There is no significant difference between subjects exposed to high focal and low focal wine brand expectations in focal wine brand disconfirmations.
- 4: There is no significant difference between subjects exposed to high focal and low focal wine brand expectations in focal wine brand satisfaction feelings.
- 5: When controlling for enduring product importance, there is no significant difference between high involvement and low involvement subjects in the number of wine attributes checked as being relevant to an evaluation process.
- 6: There is no significant difference between high involvement subjects and low involvement subjects in pre-usage attitude toward focal (or manipulated) wine brands.
- 7: There is no significant difference between high involvement and low involvement subjects in the intensity of focal wine brand performance ratings.
- 8: When controlling for enduring product importance, there is no significant difference between high involvement and low involvement subjects in the average number of acceptable wine attribute performance evaluations.
- 9: There is no significant difference between high involvement and low involvement subjects in the strength or extremeness of focal wine brand disconfirmations, product norm-based disconfirmations, and favorite brand norm-based disconfirmations.
- 10: There is no significant difference between high involvement subjects and low involvement subjects in the strength or extremeness of wine satisfaction feelings.
- 11: There is no significant difference between high involvement subjects and low involvement subjects in their use of different types of experience-based norms.
- 12: There is no significant difference between high and low involvement subjects in the selection of the best set of variables explaining CS/D. Specifically, there is no significant difference in the importance of pre- and post-usage predictors for CS/D under both involvement conditions.

FIGURE 8

OPERATIONAL HYPOTHESES

TABLE 4
THEORETICAL CONSTRUCTS AND STATISTICAL TESTS
USED FOR TESTING OPERATIONAL HYPOTHESES

Operational Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Statistical Test	Alternate Conclusions
1	Brand attitude	Expectations	T-test	Ho: $u_H = u_L$ H1: $u_H > u_L$
2	Performance	Expectations	T-test	Ho: $u_H = u_L$ H1: $u_H > u_L$
3	Focal brand disconfirmation	Expectations	T-test	Ho: $u_H = u_L$ H1: $u_H \neq u_L$
4	Satisfaction	Expectations	T-test	Ho: $u_H = u_L$ H1: $u_H > u_L$
5	Attributes used	Involvement, Endur. impor.	Anal. of covariance	Ho: $u_H = u_L$ H1: $u_H > u_L$
6	Brand attitude	Involvement	F-test for variance equality	Ho: $\sigma^2_H = \sigma^2_L$ H1: $\sigma^2_H > \sigma^2_L$
7	Performance	Involvement	F-test for variance equality	Ho: $\sigma^2_H = \sigma^2_L$ H1: $\sigma^2_H > \sigma^2_L$
8	Acceptable performance range	Involvement, Endur. impor.	Anal. of covariance	Ho: $u_H = u_L$ H1: $u_H < u_L$

TABLE 4 (continued)

Operational Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Statistical Test	Alternate Conclusions
9a	Focal brand disconfirmation	Involvement	F-test for variance equality	Ho: $\sigma^2_H = \sigma^2_L$ H1: $\sigma^2_H > \sigma^2_L$
9b	Favorite brand norm disconfirmation	Involvement	F-test for variance equality	Ho: $\sigma^2_H = \sigma^2_L$ H1: $\sigma^2_H > \sigma^2_L$
9c	Product norm disconfirmation	Involvement	F-test for variance equality	Ho: $\sigma^2_H = \sigma^2_L$ H1: $\sigma^2_H > \sigma^2_L$
10	Satisfaction	Involvement	F-test for variance equality	Ho: $\sigma^2_H = \sigma^2_L$ H1: $\sigma^2_H > \sigma^2_L$
11	Standards of comparison	Involvement	Chi-square	Ho: $u_H = u_L$ H1: $u_H \neq u_L$
12a	Focal brand	Involvement	Stepwise regression	Ho: $M_H = M_L$ H1: $M_H \neq M_L$
12b	Favorite brand norm	Involvement	Stepwise regression	Ho: $M_H = M_L$ H1: $M_H \neq M_L$
12c	Product norm	Involvement	Stepwise regression	Ho: $M_H = M_L$ H1: $M_H \neq M_L$

N.B. H = high, L = low, M = regression model

alternative hypotheses for each hypothesis. For all but two of the hypotheses, the alternate hypothesis conclusion was expected. For Hypotheses three and twelve, however, one expected to accept or find additional support for the null hypotheses.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This chapter presents the empirical results of the study, grouped into four major chapter sections. The first section discusses sample characteristics and is followed by analysis of manipulation checks, reliability and validity analyses, and presentation of the results from analysis of the operational hypotheses.

Sample Characteristics

A total of 91 subjects was used for this experiment. The acceptable performance range and favorite brand norm questions indicated four and five incomplete cases, respectively. Everyone completed the remaining sections applicable to the research hypotheses, manipulation checks, and respondent profiles. Due to the relatively small sample size, it was decided not to dispense with the incomplete cases but rather to delete these only with respect to favorite brand norms and latitude hypotheses. Thus, sample sizes of 91, 87, and 86 were obtained for the majority of hypotheses, the acceptable performance range, and the favorite brand norm tests, respectively.

Demographic Profile

Table 5 represents the demographic profile of the subjects. The sample is composed predominantly of single and male respondents.

TABLE 5

DEMOGRAPHIC/SOCIOECONOMIC PROFILE OF THE SAMPLE

Demographic and Socioeconomic Data	Actual Frequency	Frequency in %
1. Sex		
Male	55	60.4%
Female	36	39.6
2. Marital status		
Never married	60	65.9
Married	26	28.6
Divorced	3	3.3
Separated	2	2.2
3. Age group		
25 and under	32	35.2
26-30	39	42.9
31-35	10	11.0
Over 35	10	11.0
4. Number of children		
None	78	85.7
1 child	5	5.5
2 children	7	7.7
3 children	1	1.1
5. Occupational status		
Employed full-time	40	44.0
Employed part-time	2	2.2
Unemployed	1	1.1
Full-time student with/without part-time job	48	52.7
6. Income (in \$ 000)		
Under 10	9	9.9
10-19	21	23.1
20-29	20	22.0
30-39	21	23.1
40-49	5	5.5
50 or over	15	16.5

TABLE 5 (continued)

Demographic and Socioeconomic Data	Actual Frequency	Frequency in %
7. Educational level		
Some college	1	1.1%
Completed college	29	31.9
Some graduate work	50	54.9
Completed a graduate degree	11	12.1

n = 91

Very few of the subjects have children, and the sample is relatively young as well. Occupational status membership is skewed towards full-time employees and full-time students. Income, surprisingly, is rather evenly distributed throughout the categories, showing that many of the full-time students who do have some means of support are earning more than the usual low income figures associated with students. The entire sample shows a high amount of education achieved, falling into either the completed college or some graduate work categories. Since the sample was composed of students in the Master in Business Administration program and the Continuing Education program at the University of Virginia, these findings are not very surprising. The sample can be summarized as being highly educated with fairly high income, and holds professional and student occupations.

No attempt was made to match the characteristics of the wine-drinking population during sample selection; however, there are some similarities to the general wine-drinking population. Today's wine drinker is 25-54 years old, well educated, has a good income, and resides either in or near a large city (Business Week, 1982). Thus, this study's sample is reasonably representative of the wine drinking population.

Table 6 shows the comparison of high and low involvement and high and low brand expectation groups across demographic variables. Since many of the cells in these frequency tables contain less than five respondents, cells were collapsed to create sizeable groups for

TABLE 6

COMPARISONS OF INVOLVEMENT AND EXPECTATION GROUPS
ON DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Demographic and Socioeconomic Data	Involvement			Expectations		
	Chi Square	High Sample in %	Low Sample in %	Chi Square	High Sample in %	Low Sample in %
1. Sex	1.14			0.00		
Male		66.7%	53.5%		60.0%	60.9%
Female		33.3	46.5		40.0	39.1
2. Marital status	0.00			0.92		
Never married		64.6	67.4		60.0	71.7
Married		27.1	30.2		37.8	19.6
Divorced		4.2	2.3		2.2	4.3
Separated		4.2	0.0		0.0	4.3
3. Age group	3.49			7.14		
25 and under		43.8	25.6		24.4	45.7
26-30		37.5	48.8		44.4	41.3
31-35		8.3	14.0		13.3	8.7
Over 35		10.4	11.6		17.8	4.3
4. Children	0.48			0.74		
None		83.3	88.4		84.4	87.0
1 child		6.3	4.7		4.4	6.5
2 children		8.3	7.0		8.9	6.5
3 children		2.1	0.0		2.2	0.0
5. Occupational status	0.59			0.00		
Employed full-time		45.8	41.9		46.7	41.3
Employed part-time		4.2	0.0		0.0	4.3
Unemployed		2.1	0.0		0.0	2.2
Full-time student		47.9	58.1		53.3	52.2
6. Income (in \$ 000)	1.61			1.54		
Under 10		12.5%	7.0%		11.1%	8.7%
10-19		25.0	20.9		17.8	28.3
20-29		18.8	25.6		22.2	21.7
30-39		20.8	25.6		24.4	21.7
40-49		6.3	4.7		8.9	2.2
50 or Over		16.7	16.3		15.6	17.4

TABLE 6 (continued)

Demographic and Socioeconomic Data	Involvement			Expectations		
	Chi Square	High Sample in %	Low Sample in %	Chi Square	High Sample in %	Low Sample in %
7. Educational level	4.36*			0.02		
Some college		2.1	0.0		0.0	2.2
Completed college		41.7	20.9		31.1	32.6
Some graduate work		54.2	55.8		53.3	56.5
Completed graduate degree		2.1	23.3		15.6	8.7

*p < .05, n = 91

significance testing. The actual breakdowns by category are displayed in the table for completeness. Whenever tests for significance for group differences are reported throughout the chapter, data were first transformed to meet minimum cell requirements.

Looking at involvement first, the two involvement groups are demographically similar to one another. The only difference is in the education variable. Here, the chi-square test of significance did yield significant difference between the education categories. However, this difference may be considered of little consequence when one looks at the education categories involved. All subjects have obtained a rather high amount of educational experience; there is no representation of the lower educational categories. If there had been group differences across all levels of education, particularly with skewing toward different ends of the educational spectrum for each treatment group, concern for group differences would be much greater. The present finding is considered an artifact of random assignment and not likely to influence experimental results.

For the expectation groups there are no significant group differences across any of the demographic variables. Both high and low brand expectation treatment groups show no innate or sampling differences which could pose as threats to internal validity. In sum, all treatment groups appear to have similar demographic and socioeconomic profiles.

Behavioral Profile

The subject's wine-drinking behavior was also examined. Several questions related to past experience were asked. In general, these items either directly measured past wine-drinking consumption or assessed respondents' wine knowledge. Wine knowledge is expected to be closely correlated to wine consumption. Table 7 provides frequency distributions with respect to wine experience and knowledge for the involvement and expectation groups.

The first three items all indicate that the sample had little to moderate experience with wines. Item one shows that the subjects varied considerably on the type of occasion when they drank wine, with answers ranging from not at all to six different consumption occasions. Items two and three indicate that subjects rarely attended wine classes/tastings and did little drinking the previous week. These findings support the information on general population consumption habits, reported by Business Week (1982). Wine still is not considered a universal beverage in this country, nor is a great amount per person consumed. Special interest in wine appreciation classes and/or wine tasting sessions may also be indicative of a select group of the population. Item four on wine knowledgeability, shows that subjects perceive themselves as being somewhat knowledgeable wine consumers. However, their consumption habits do not support this perception, as seen in the low frequencies for wine consumption.

TABLE 7

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS OF WINE EXPERIENCE AND KNOWLEDGE

Experience and Knowledge Data	Actual Frequency	Frequency in %
1. Number of wine consumption occasions checked past month		
0	10	11.0%
1	24	26.4
2	22	24.2
3	15	16.5
4	10	11.0
5	7	7.7
6	3	3.3
2. Number of wine classes/tastings attended past three years		
0	70	76.9
1	9	9.9
2	5	5.5
3	1	1.1
4	1	1.1
5	0	0.0
6	1	1.1
7	0	0.0
8 or more	4	4.4
3. Times last week you drank wine		
0	32	35.2
1	24	26.4
2	22	24.2
3	8	8.8
4	2	2.2
5	0	0.0
6	1	1.1
7	1	1.1
8 or more	1	1.1
4. Wine knowledgeability		
Don't know much	8	8.8
Not that familiar	32	35.2
Somewhat familiar	41	45.1
Very familiar	8	8.8
Know a great deal	2	2.2

When intercorrelations of these behavioral measures are examined, two measures are especially interesting--number of wine drinking occasions of past month with wine classes/sessions attended, and number of times wine was drunk last week with wine classes/sessions attended. Wine-drinking behavior appears to be different from wine appreciation behavior. This finding again supports general population information, which indicates that four percent of the U.S. population accounts for 53 percent of total wine consumption. The perception of a wine connoisseur and taster is that of an individual who consistently drinks wine and is very knowledgeable of the beverage. The general population (and this sample) does not fit this perception.

Table 8 shows the comparison of high and low involvement and high and low brand expectation groups on behavioral variables. All treatment groups appear to have similar consumption and knowledge patterns. Once again, cells were collapsed before testing for significant group differences. There appears to be no indication of threats to internal validity from the sampling and assignment design.

Manipulation Checks

Two manipulations were introduced in the research procedure--brand expectation and involvement. It was crucial to the study (1) that role playing occurred, (2) that different consumption occasions generated variable concern for a product evaluation, and

TABLE 8

COMPARISONS OF TREATMENT GROUPS ON WINE EXPERIENCE
AND KNOWLEDGE

Wine Experience and Knowledge Data	Chi Square	Involvement		Chi Square	Expectations	
		High Sample in %	Low Sample in %		High Sample in %	Low Sample in %
1. Wine in past month	1.16			3.44		
0		12.5%	9.3%		15.6%	6.5%
1		27.1	25.6		26.7	26.1
2		22.9	25.6		22.2	26.1
3		16.7	16.3		17.8	15.2
4		12.5	9.3		11.1	10.9
5		6.3	9.3		4.4	10.9
6		2.1	4.7		2.2	4.3
2. Classes/tastings past three years	2.29			3.61		
0		77.1	76.7		84.4	69.6
1		6.3	14.0		8.9	10.9
2		8.3	2.3		6.7	4.3
3		0.0	2.3		0.0	2.2
4		2.1	0.0		0.0	2.2
6		2.1	0.0		0.0	2.2
8 or more		4.2	4.7		0.0	8.7
3. Times last week you drank wine	1.33			0.54		
0		31.3	39.5		37.8	32.6
1		29.2	23.3		24.4	28.3
2		27.1	20.9		22.2	26.1
3		8.3	9.3		6.7	10.9
4		2.1	2.3		4.4	0.0
6		0.0	2.3		2.2	0.0
7		0.0	2.3		2.2	0.0
8 or more		2.1	0.0		0.0	2.2
4. Wine knowledge	1.75			1.74		
Don't know much		12.5	4.7		8.9	8.7
Not that familiar		33.3	37.2		37.8	32.6
Somewhat familiar		43.8	46.5		46.7	43.5
Very familiar		8.3	9.3		6.7	10.9
Know a great deal		2.1	2.3		0.0	4.3

(3) that brand messages created differing brand perceptions.

Manipulation checks were performed to examine for group differences.

Two different ways of calculating the attribute-based variables used in the manipulation checks were discussed in the preceding chapter. Expectations were computed (1) using all product dimensions from the questionnaire, and (2) using only checkmarked (determinant) attributes. Any similarities and/or differences in analyses between the two formulations is noted.

The success of the manipulations in producing the desired involvement and expectation effects was assessed by analysis of variance procedures. Table 9 summarizes the ANOVA results. In general, results suggest that the manipulations had the intended effects. Gallo and Paul Masson brand messages yield different brand expectations, with Gallo generating the low and Paul Masson the high expectation scores. This is the desired break in expectations. However, significant manipulations are found only for the multi-item expectations check using all attributes and the single item expectations variable. Using originally checkmarked attributes only in a manipulation check do not lead to differences in perceived brand expectations for the Gallo and Paul Masson wines. This, of course, makes continued use of determinant attributes only measures highly questionable for hypothesis testing. It was decided to continue with construct validation analyses for these variables (reported in next section) before deciding to eliminate the measures from the study.

TABLE 9
MANIPULATION CHECKS

Manipulation	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Involvement (multi-item)	Between	1	742.59	742.59	41.76**
	Within	89	1582.71	17.78	
	Total	90	2325.30		
Involvement (single item)	Between	1	17.81	17.81	20.17**
	Within	89	78.61	.88	
	Total	90	96.42		
Expectation (all attributes)	Between	1	1723.84	1723.84	6.58*
	Within	89	23331.98	262.16	
	Total	90	25055.82		
Expectation (only deter- minant att.)	Between	1	29.00	29.00	2.05
	Within	89	1259.53	14.15	
	Total	90	1288.52		
Expectation (single item)	Between	1	11.82	11.82	16.13**
	Within	89	65.22	.73	
	Total	90	77.03		

*p < .05
**p < .001

The Saturday night dinner party did generate more feeling of concern and involvement for wine evaluations than did the weekday, informal supper. There is also good separation in the expectations and involvement response levels corresponding to each treatment condition (see Table 10), except when using determinant attributes only.

The distribution of the covariate, enduring product importance, was also examined, since this construct is prominent in many of the hypotheses. A frequency distribution is presented in Figure 9. The distribution of the scores closely resembles a normal curve, as indicated by a low score for skewness (0.230). The mean and standard deviation scores are 41.93 and 7.97, respectively.

TABLE 10
RESPONSE LEVELS FOR PREDICTOR VARIABLES

Manipulation	Treatment Level	95% Confidence Interval
Involvement (multi-item)	High	28.62 to 30.96
	Low	22.70 to 25.44
Involvement (single item)	High	3.76 to 4.20
	Low	2.75 to 3.43
Expectation (all attributes)	High	66.68 to 76.21
	Low	57.84 to 67.64
Expectation (only deter. attr.)	High	9.51 to 12.11
	Low	8.75 to 10.60
Expectation (single item)	High	4.90 to 5.41
	Low	4.18 to 4.69

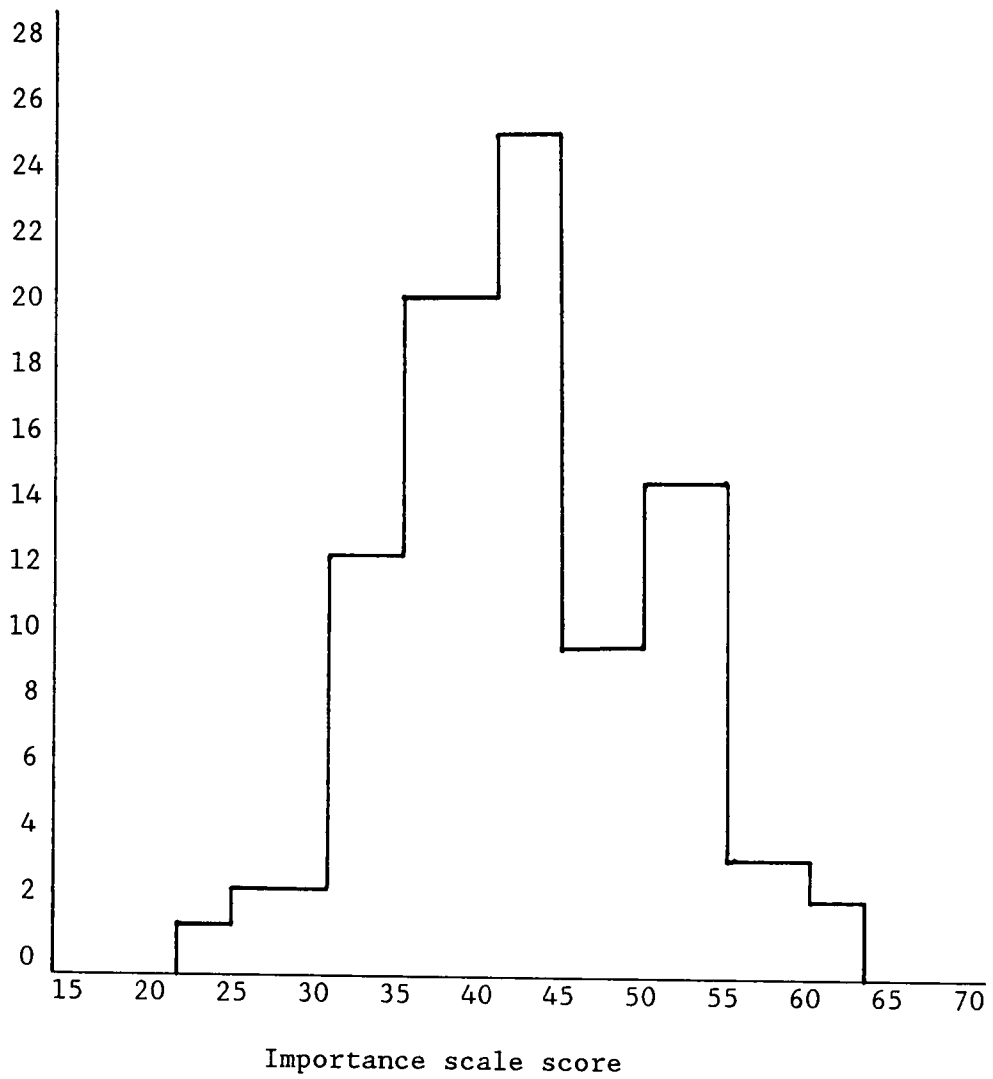


FIGURE 9

ENDURING PRODUCT IMPORTANCE FOR WINES

Note: mean = 41.93, standard deviation = 7.97, median = 40.75

Since the original study design called for enduring product importance to serve as a covariate, the existence of a normal distribution makes it possible to use the median as a cutoff for "high" and "low" enduring interest subjects. This procedure would be used only if the covariate and independent variable being studied produced interaction effects, precluding the use of analysis of covariance. Enduring product importance could be used as another independent variable in the study and still be useful in hypothesis testing.

Construct Validity

Chapter III summarized this study's efforts at specifying construct domains, generating the items to represent the domains, and purifying the resulting scales to produce reliable measures. Construct validity requires the assessment of face validity and reliability as well as analyses of convergent, discriminant, and nomological validity. Production of internally homogeneous sets of items (reliability) are necessary but not sufficient for demonstrating construct validity (Nunnally, 1978). This section of the chapter presents the findings for all reliability and validity analyses.

Since some of the measures were calculated two different ways--using all attributes and using determinant attributes only for attribute-based evaluation variables--construct validity is discussed for both types of measures. Tables 11 and 12 serve as the basis for

TABLE 11

A MULTITRAIT, MULTIMETHOD MATRIX FOR THE INVOLVEMENT-CS/D PROCESS VARIABLE CORRELATIONS
(USING ALL ATTRIBUTES)

Multi-item Scales													Single Item Scales											
PN	FBN	EXP	ATT	PERF	LAT	PND	BND	DISC	SAT	INV	EPI		PN	FBN	EXP	ATT	PERP	LAT	PND	BND	DISC	SAT	INV	EPI
(LIK)													(SD)											
PN	(78)	65	69	---	62	-23	-39	-13	-10	15	38	17	[51]	42	28	16	28	-11	00	-01	-11	06	24	---
FBN	(59)	59	---	---	46	-26	-19	-64	-21	-02	38	16	13	[34]	08	-03	00	-09	-02	-14	-19	-07	29	---
EXP	(81)	81	---	---	81	04	18	09	-30	39	18	13	35	27	[58]	46	40	20	17	29	-06	30	10	---
ATT	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
PERF	(86)	04	47	38	31	60	14	20	33	25	50	46	[66]	21	45	49	30	55	16	---	---	---	---	---
LAT	(89)	31	31	01	27	-35	-11	-12	-09	28	25	16	[77]	16	28	19	17	-29	---	---	---	---	---	---
PND	(72)	61	47	53	-27	05	-19	-16	27	37	47	34	[53]	59	48	59	-09	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
BND	(80)	48	54	-28	01	15	-06	35	43	56	25	41	[59]	45	55	-17	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
DISC	(72)	34	-07	12	-04	00	-14	00	42	01	45	34	[60]	42	10	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
SAT (LIK)	(93)	-16	11	30	27	57	58	80	26	57	65	51	[85]	23	-02	07	11	-05	06	-04	06	16	23	---
INV	(82)	05	(85)	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
EPI	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
(LIK)													(SD)											
PN	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
FBN	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
EXP	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
ATT	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
PERF	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
LAT	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
PND	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
BND	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
DISC	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
SAT (LIK)	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
INV	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
EPI	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

WHERE:

PN = Product norm
FBN = Favorite brand norm
EXP = Focal brand expectations
ATT = Pre-usage brand attitude
PERF = Performance
LAT = Acceptable performance range

PND = Product norm-based disconfirmation
BND = Favorite brand norm-based disconfirmation
DISC = Focal brand-based disconfirmation
SAT = Satisfaction
INV = Involvement
EPI = Enduring product importance

TABLE 12

A MULTITRAIT, MULTIMETHOD MATRIX FOR THE INVOLVEMENT-CS/D PROCESS VARIABLE CORRELATIONS
(USING DETERMINANT ATTRIBUTES ONLY)

	Multi-item Scales												Single Item Scales												
	FN	FBN	EXP	ATT	PERF	LAT	PND	BND	DISC	SAT	INV	EPI	FN	FBN	EXP	ATT	PERF	LAT	PND	BND	DISC	SAT	INV	EPI	
	(LIK)												(SD)												
FN	(78)	68	84	---	79	24	-31	-22	-05	11	29	19	[26]	27	18	11	24	00	05	-03	00	05	21	---	
FBN		(59)	64	---	57	17	-13	-56	-11	-18	30	06	-06	[03]	-15	-19	-16	-11	00	-20	-20	-18	28	---	
EXP			(81)	---	87	37	05	-09	-17	24	16	12	14	11	[33]	28	27	18	20	19	00	19	13	---	
ATT				---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	
PERF				(86)	38	30	18	33	39	39	11	18	11	11	25	28	[46]	14	39	35	29	39	18	---	
LAT					(89)	19	12	02	21	-19	-08	-08	-13	-12	17	20	16	[66]	17	25	22	13	-05	---	
PND						(72)	65	56	42	-23	-02	-02	-23	-27	10	27	31	21	[46]	49	37	48	-07	---	
BND							(80)	57	54	-28	00	00	13	-11	30	44	53	21	40	[52]	42	56	-16	---	
DISC								(72)	32	-06	11	11	-01	-01	-11	04	40	-05	39	33	[56]	42	07	---	
SAT (LIK)									(93)	-16	11	05	30	27	57	58	80	26	57	65	51	[85]	-07	---	
INV									(82)	-16	11	05	25	12	01	05	-03	-36	-09	-09	-23	-10	[48]	---	
EPI									(85)	-02	23	-02	-02	23	-02	07	11	-05	06	-04	06	16	23	---	
FN													---	40	49	46	44	-17	-05	13	-10	29	09	---	
FBN													---	---	39	12	37	-11	-03	-08	04	26	13	---	
EXP															---	65	65	34	27	46	03	54	-20	---	
ATT																---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	
PERF																	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	
LAT																		---	---	---	---	---	---	---	
PND																			---	---	---	---	---	---	
BND																				---	---	---	---	---	
DISC																					---	---	---	---	
SAT (LIK)																								---	
INV																								---	
EPI																								---	

WHERE:

FN = Product norm
FBN = Favorite brand norm
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SAT = Satisfaction
INV = Involvement
EPI = Enduring product importance

the review of construct validity. These tables are arranged as multitrait, multimethod matrices incorporating correlations for reliability and validity checks. Table 11 presents pairwise Pearson product-moment correlations for all variables of interest, with all attributes used for the evaluation variables. Table 12 shows the pairwise correlations with evaluation variables formulated using only determinant attributes. In both tables the decimals are omitted. Since there is no multi-item scale for pre-usage brand attitude, and test-retest measures were not obtained, no reliability was assessed for this scale. There also is no single item scale for enduring product importance. For all other constructs the tables present two measures for each. The satisfaction variables are both multi-item measures, one based on Likert items and the other on semantic differential scale items. The other constructs are represented by one multi-item measure and one single item measure.

Reliability

A measure is reliable to the extent that independent but comparable measures of the same trait or construct of a given object agree. Reliability depends on how much of the variation in scores is attributable to random or chance errors. The fundamental objective in measurement is to produce variable scores which approximate inferred construct scores as closely as possible. Multi-item measures are preferred for behavioral research because of the benefits derived from such measures.

these measurement difficulties can be diminished with multi-item measures: (1) the specificity of items can be averaged out when they are combined, (2) by combining items, one can make relatively fine distinctions among people, and (3) the reliability tends to increase and measurement error decreases as the number of items in a combination increases (Churchill, 1979).

Reliability can be examined using both stability and internal consistency checks. Test-retest is the preferred method for stability assessment, but it was impossible to obtain this measure in this study. Coefficient alpha was the selected test for internal consistency. Since the square root of coefficient alpha is the estimated correlation of the k-item test with errorless true score, a low coefficient alpha indicates the sample of items performs poorly in capturing the construct meaning. The goal was to have all multi-item scales yield a coefficient alpha score in excess of 0.70, Nunnally's (1978) recommendation for exploratory research.

Table 13 restates the coefficient alphas from Tables 11 and 12, along with scale item to total score correlations. Item to total correlations are useful since they allow one to examine each item's contribution to the total score. One can then infer the extent of each item's ability to capture some essence of the true construct meaning.

Bohrnstedt (1970) suggested that researchers keep in mind the dimensionalities expressed in a multi-item scale to aid in item analysis. While there is no generally-accepted cutoff for item to total correlations, the existence of several construct dimensions in a scale attenuates the strength of the correlations. Many of the

TABLE 13

SCALE RELIABILITIES FOR MULTI-ITEM MEASURES

Measure	Coefficient Alpha	Item to Total Correlation
Enduring product importance*	.852	
V12 Knowing about wine-important		.695
V13 Wine is reflection of lifestyle		.505
V14 Know of grapes/wine production		.467
V15 Drinking wine-most enjoyable		.510
V16 Wines express "I" or "me"		.575
V17 Don't pay attention-wine books		.662
V18 Enjoy discussing wines		.712
V19 Wine nothing more than beverage		.557
V20 Wines relieve pressure		.496
V21 Little interest in wine courses		.601
V22 Like to talk to people of wine		.728
V23 Get wrapped up in wine talk		.534
V24 Worth time/cost to try wines		.537
V25 Wine appreciation-important to friends		.458
V26 Bored when people talk wines		.410
V27 Wine-highest importance to me		.506
Focal brand expectation*	.806	
V72 Product quality		.914
V73 Suitability with meal		.846
V74 Brand status		.866
V75 Value for price		.517
Product norm*	.784	
V55 Product quality		.824
V56 Suitability with meal		.802
V57 Brand status		.780
V58 Value for price		.707
Favorite brand norm***	.593	
V64 Product quality		.825
V65 Suitability with meal		.683
V66 Brand status		.627
V67 Value for price		.580

TABLE 13 (continued)

Measure	Coefficient Alpha	Item to Total Correlation
Acceptable performance range**	.892	
V80 Product quality		.857
V81 Suitability with meal		.883
V82 Brand status		.918
V83 Value for price		.848
Performance*	.855	
V97 Product quality		.908
V98 Suitability with meal		.896
V99 Brand status		.746
V100 Value for price		.786
Focal brand disconfirmation*	.723	
Product quality		.854
Suitability with meal		.854
Brand status		.451
Value for price		.730
Product norm disconfirmation*	.724	
Product quality		.818
Suitability with meal		.835
Brand status		.632
Value for price		.661
Favorite brand norm disconfirmation***	.799	
Product quality		.853
Suitability with meal		.874
Brand status		.714
Value for price		.708
Satisfaction (Likert scale)*	.925	
V105 Satisfied with wine		.914
V106 Feel bad-experience with wine		.870
V107 Wine proven inadequate		.843
V108 Content serving this wine		.903
V109 Was not anything like expected		.521
V110 Regret drinking wine		.894
V111 Drinking wine-pleasurable experience		.820

TABLE 13 (continued)

Measure	Coefficient Alpha	Item to Total Correlation
Satisfaction (SD scale)*	.886	
V112 Warm glow:cold feeling		.779
V113 Impressed:unimpressed		.911
V114 Delighted:upset		.727
V115 Pleased:displeased		.911
V116 Contented:frustrated		.843
Involvement*	.815	
V86 Risk: brand visibility		.428
V87 Risk: willingness to pay more		.755
V88 Risk: serving wine correctly		.700
V89 Risk: willingness to search		.750
V90 Risk: product quality		.623
V91 Risk: other people's impressions		.666
V92 Risk: personal experience with product		.677
V93 Risk: ability to choose correctly		.741

*n = 91 for calculations

**n = 87 for calculations

***n = 86 for calculations

scales presented in Table 13 are multidimensional; therefore, correlations and coefficient alpha scores were analyzed in unison to determine each item's contribution to the total score. This research used 0.400 as a cutoff correlation figure. Items falling below this level seemed to significantly decrease coefficient alpha scores and reduce reliability. Item to total correlations above 0.400 were obtained for the enduring product importance, the Likert and semantic differential satisfaction, and the multi-item involvement scales. Thus, every item in each scale was retained for the final scale construction. For attribute-based scales, however, the product dimensions SCENT, TASTE: FLAVOR STRENGTH, and TASTE: DRY/SWEET never contributed significantly to total scale scores, had very low item to total correlations, and actually reduced coefficient alpha scores if allowed to remain in the scales. Consequently, these items were deleted from all attribute scales, leaving four items for scale constructions.

Lastly, the items WAS NOT ANYTHING LIKE EXPECTED (V109) and RISK: BRAND VISIBILITY (V86) show a sizable drop in item to total correlation when compared to other items in the Likert satisfaction and involvement scales. However, coefficient alphas only increased to 0.941 and 0.839 respectively, when these items were deleted from the scales. Improvements of 0.02 or less were not considered great enough to warrant deletion of an item from the scale; therefore, V109 and V86 were kept.

Coefficient alpha scores indicate that all but one of the scales met the 0.70 requirement for basic research. The favorite brand norm scale has a coefficient alpha value of only 0.593. This construct does not appear to be as internally consistent as the other measures. However, the item variances of the scale items are also unusual. The variances were quite low, usually 0.4 to 0.6 lower than the variances for other standards of comparison. Moreover, scale mean scores are higher for favorite brand norm than for other variables. This "bunching" of scores toward one end of performance belief scales mathematically reduces the item variances and attenuates the coefficient alpha score for the scale as a whole. In light of the fact that the other measures are internally consistent, and it is important to have comparability across attribute-based measures, it was decided to accept the favorite brand norm scale as constructed.

Factor analyses were also performed to help confirm construct dimensions. Enduring product importance was analyzed using varimax rotation. Four factors emerged, capturing the relevant construct dimensions outlined in Chapter III. These factors are: (1) social significance of wine usage; (2) identification of self-image through wine interest; (3) reflection of individual values; and (4) excitement and interest in trying and experimenting with wines.

The involvement scale also shows two factors using varimax rotation. The items loaded either on the first factor--objective, and specific to the individual, risk items (which may or may not manifest themselves in social situations), or the second--external

social concerns. Again, this is consistent with research in the situational area emphasizing the interpretation of situational risk into either purely objective and/or social psychological dimensions.

The remaining scales--expectations, product and favorite brand norms, performance, all disconfirmations, acceptable range, Likert satisfaction, and SD satisfaction--all exhibit only one factor dimension, indicating unidimensionality within the scales. All items in each scale load highly on this one dimension.

In sum, the multi-item measures show a moderate degree of reliability and exhibit dimensions agreeing with those conceptualized. With reliability values sufficiently high and acceptable, validation could proceed.

Validation Correlations

In addition to reliability, validity checks should determine three things: (1) the extent to which the measure correlates with other measures designed to measure the same thing; (2) the extent to which the measure differs from measures of different things; and (3) the ability of different measures to exhibit similar correlation patterns between different traits. These validity elements are called convergent, discriminant, and nomological validity, respectively.

The multitrait, multimethod tables (Tables 11 and 12, pages 160 and 161), were used to examine convergent, discriminant, and nomological validity. Campbell and Fiske (1959) suggested that measures should be very different or else the convergent validities

are spuriously high because of method variance overlap. Traits or variables measured should be similar in order to provide a good test of discrimination. If the requirements of maximally different measures and maximally similar traits are not met, a false impression of validity is given. While this study included several similar traits, it failed to use maximally different measures. Multi-item and single item measures from the same instrument probably do not meet the stringent requirements set by Campbell and Fiske. Nevertheless, one can consider the matrix's general purpose to be one of improving measures' long-run usefulness. Measure validation gives evidence of generalizability of research tools. Thus any research data including multiple levels of measures can be used to establish long-run usefulness and validation of marketing research procedures.

Convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity correlations are bracketed in Tables 11 and 12, pages 160 and 161. It was expected that measures of the same construct would show significant correlations, and all convergent validity correlations shown are significant at $p = 0.001$. Correlations which reflect discriminant validity are shown compared to the convergent validity correlations. Discriminant validities arise from correlations between two different traits coming from two different methods (multi-item or single item) and from correlations between two different traits which have method in common. In all cases, the

discriminant validities should be lower than correlations between two different method measures of the same trait (convergent validity).

The construct patterns are reviewed individually. The acceptable performance range, focal brand-based disconfirmation, satisfaction, and involvement measures show strong convergent and discriminant validity, whether using all attributes or determinant attributes only to build a measure. Both multi-item satisfaction scales are useful in hypothesis testing. With regards to satisfaction, all hypothesis testing relevant to the construct satisfaction uses both types of measures. However, there are some troublesome measurement checks for the other constructs. Three product norm, nine best brand norm, five focal brand expectations, three performance, seven product norm-based disconfirmation, and five favorite brand norm-based disconfirmation discriminant correlations, for measures using all attributes, reveal higher correlations with other measures of different constructs than with other measures of the same construct.

Examination of convergent validity correlations suggest why these problems developed. Many of the convergent correlations are low, making it difficult to achieve subsequent discriminant validity. The low convergent correlations suggest that the multiple measures do not adequately represent the same construct. The single item scales appear to cause the most trouble on this issue. One reason is that the objectivities of single and multi-item scales are different. Consumer perceptions and subjective inputs are more likely to be

expressed in an overall measure of a construct than a multiattribute measure of the same concept. There is no control over what respondents use as determinant inputs in their expression of a single evaluation response. Since all single item scales suffer from this ambiguity and are not testable for internal consistency, all single item measures, except attitude, were excluded from hypothesis testing.

The multi-item performance, expectation, and norms measures show higher discriminant correlations than respective convergent validity correlations. While this is not desirable, it is a likely finding, considering the scales are identical in form and content for all constructs. They are essentially before and after evaluation measures, all using the same product attributes for scale construction. Lastly, the multi-item norm measures yielded higher discriminant over convergent correlations when compared to focal brand expectations. This troublesome finding necessitated further examination of the three pre-usage standards. There could have been little differentiation between the concepts, requiring the elimination of one or more of the constructs. This question is pursued in the following section.

Scales using determinant attributes reveal even greater problems. In particular, all the standards, performance, and norm-based disconfirmation measures have many more discriminant validity problems. Convergent validity is so low for these constructs that it is impossible to consider these constructed scales in subsequent

testing. While measures based on determinant dimensions are attractive, the comparison of approaches had to be dropped at this point. All hypothesis testing used measures constructed from all attributes.

Nomological validity. Tests for nomological validity require the examination of correlation patterns across a set of constructs. Directional trends should be identical for different methods. The variables in this study exhibit moderately good nomological validity. Pre-usage brand attitude, performance, acceptable performance range, favorite brand norm disconfirmation, focal brand disconfirmation, and involvement measures all show similar patterns of correlational direction and strength of association with the other variables, regardless of method used.

Product norm and product norm disconfirmation correlational patterns are not consistent. Again, this is further evidence of the need to closely examine the norms measures for differences in meaning when compared to other standards. Satisfaction shows inconsistent variable relationships for the multi-item and single item methods, which again suggests the inability of single item measures to yield strong construct validity.

Construct validation for the independent variable components of involvement was also examined. Table 14 presents the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients of enduring product importance, behavioral variables, and situational involvement. While there is no specific measure of convergent validity for enduring

TABLE 14

INTERCORRELATIONS FOR ENDURING PRODUCT IMPORTANCE, WINE EXPERIENCE
AND KNOWLEDGE, AND INVOLVEMENT VARIABLES

	Import	Exp 1	Exp 2	Exp 3	Exp 4	MI	SI
Import	1.000	.427*	.319*	.292*	.295*	.051	.232
Exp 1		1.000	.147	.632*	.276*	.008	.058
Exp 2			1.000	.153	.386*	.032	.152
Exp 3				1.000	.266*	-.063	-.020
Exp 4					1.000	-.151	.316*
MI						1.000	.478*
SI							1.000

*p < .01, n = 91

Note: Import = Enduring product importance
 Exp 1 = Consumption occasions of past month
 Exp 2 = Wine classes/sessions attended
 Exp 3 = Times wine was drunk last week
 Exp 4 = Wine knowledgeability
 MI = Multi-item involvement
 SI = Single item involvement

product importance (no single item measure in this study), the experience and behavioral variables are quasi-measures of enduring product interest. Previous research has shown that there is a positive relationship between past experience and one's enduring interest in a product category. The correlations for these variables and enduring product importance were examined for convergent validity and compared to correlations for product importance and situational involvement. As a test for discrimination between these individual triggering cue constructs, quasi-convergent correlations should be larger than the correlations generated by involvement and enduring product importance. In all cases, there is support for the measurement of two different triggering constructs. The EPI/involvement correlations are lower than EPI/behavior measures.

In summary, the search for strong construct validity caused the elimination of determinant attribute measures and single item measures from this study. One last validation procedure addresses the perceived difference between standards of comparison.

Criterion Validity

This study proposed that three different constructs could be used as standards of comparison: product norm, favorite brand norm, and focal brand expectations. Further validation of these constructs was required due to the problems found in convergent and discriminant validation. Comparisons of the standards across high and low involvement groups is one indicator of criterion validity.

First, the pattern of relationship among the norms and

expectations means are only slightly different for the two involvement groups (see Table 15). High involvement yielded mean scores such that: favorite brand norm > product norm > expectations. Low involvement showed: favorite brand norm > expectations > product norm. The differences in product norm and focal brand expectations scores were minimal, however. Second, the three standards' scores are all higher than corresponding construct values under low involvement. Standards appear to become more rigorous as individuals become more involved with a consumption experience. Third, a test of means between the constructs shows significant difference between favorite brand norms and product norms for both involvement groups. Brand expectations are also significantly different from product norms for the low involvement group. No difference was found between product norms and expectations for the high involvement group.

These results suggest that consumers did have a clear distinction in mind between the three standards of comparison. Therefore, each construct's relative contribution to the development of evaluation processes was studied.

Results of Tests of Hypotheses

The statistical tests for significance of the twelve hypotheses are reviewed in this section. Before reporting the test findings, it is necessary to review interpretations of the results. When using repeated sampling of a data base to make a number of comparisons

TABLE 15

COMPARISON OF REFERENCE POINT MEANS FOR INVOLVEMENT GROUPS

Involvement Level	Compared Standards	Means	Standard Deviation	T Value	df	Two-Tail Probability
High	Product Norm	71.58	15.57	3.95	47	.000
	Favorite Brand Norm	80.17	20.38			
High	Product Norm	71.58	15.57	1.29	47	.205
	Expectations	69.02	17.04			
Low	Product Norm	61.26	14.90	3.83	42	.000
	Favorite Brand Norm	70.72	18.78			
Low	Product Norm	61.26	14.90	-2.12	42	.040
	Expectations	64.84	16.19			

within a single study, statisticians argue for a family confidence coefficient, relevant for the entire set of hypotheses. This calls for individual statement confidence coefficients, or individual alpha levels, to be included under a family alpha level, or unit for error rate. With individual alpha levels subsumed under a family alpha level, one has assurance that all estimates are correct, because all separate results are woven together into an integrated set of conclusions.

Indeed, without such assurance there is a strong possibility of obtaining spurious significance for one or more hypotheses. The probability that one or more of a group of comparisons would yield spurious significance is given by Kirk (1968) as:

$$1 - (1 - a)^c$$

where a = the selected alpha level for individual comparisons, and

c = the number of comparisons.

Given twelve hypotheses and individual alpha levels set at 0.05, the probability of spurious significance is:

$$1 - (1 - .05)^{12} = .4596$$

Thus, there is a 46 percent chance of rejecting at least one null hypothesis, when in fact it should have been retained. On the other hand, if one is to achieve a family alpha level of 0.05 or even 0.10, one must employ individual probability levels less than or equal to 0.005 and 0.01 respectively, a very stringent requirement.

It is difficult to resolve this problem while meeting all researchers' needs. In fact, research in the social sciences does routinely use 0.05 for the individual hypothesis alpha level. This study reports the probability levels associated with each comparison and discusses significance in relation to the standard alpha level of 0.05. The reader is left to use his/her own standard for significance and to interpret the results accordingly.

Focal Brand Expectations

There are four research hypotheses dealing with brand expectations and its influence on various constructs within the CS/D process. Each hypothesis is reviewed separately, with findings presented and briefly discussed.

Expectations-attitude. Hypothesis one examined manipulated expectations and pre-usage brand attitudes, predicting that subjects with high brand expectations are more likely to show more favorable brand attitudes than subjects with low brand expectations. The preferred method for calculating a t-test value is to use "pooled variance" estimates from the two sampled populations. Pooled variance signifies that the groups have a common variance and can then be merged to perform a Student's t. If, however, the two populations do not have the same variance, separate variance estimates are required and an approximation to the Student's t is computed.

The comparison of mean attitude scores was the only hypothesis test requiring use of separate variance estimates and the corresponding calculation of degrees of freedom under two different population variances. While the impact on the t-test results is negligible (1.32 if using pooled variance estimates), it indicates significant difference in the dispersion of criterion scores between the two groups, with low expectation subjects being more variable in their assessments of brand attitude.

Table 16 shows that the two expectations groups are not very different, less than 0.5 of a scale unit, with high expectation subjects exhibiting only slightly more favorable brand attitudes than low expectations subjects. The test for statistical significance meets individual alpha level requirements only when alpha is set at probability of 0.10. The level of brand expectation is related only weakly to consumer attitudes towards the focal wine brand, even though findings are in the hypothesized direction. The support for this hypothesis is too weak to consider it a significant relationship.

Expectations-performance. It was hypothesized that subjects with high expectations for a wine brand have higher or more favorable perceived performance scores for that brand (Hypothesis two). The pooled variance estimates were applicable in this hypothesis, with tests for homogeneity of variances all being nonsignificant (cannot reject the null hypothesis that variances are equal). Table 17 shows the results of a t-test to determine whether the two groups differed

TABLE 16

TEST FOR HYPOTHESIS 1: PRE-USAGE BRAND ATTITUDE SCORES
OF HIGH AND LOW EXPECTATION SUBJECTS

Expectation	Mean Attitude Score	Standard Deviation	T Value	df	One-Tail Probability
High (n = 45)	3.56	.81	1.33	81.87	.095
Low (n = 46)	3.28	1.13			

TABLE 17

TEST FOR HYPOTHESIS 2: BRAND PERFORMANCE EVALUATIONS
OF HIGH AND LOW EXPECTATION SUBJECTS

Expectation	Mean Performance Score	Standard Deviation	T Value	df	One-Tail Probability
High (n = 45)	69.11	15.58	1.91	89	.030
Low (n = 46)	62.50	17.30			

significantly on this variable. A significant difference in performance scores is found and the difference is in the proposed direction. Subjects receiving the Paul Masson (high brand expectation) expectation manipulations did rate the wine more favorably on its performance.

Expectations-disconfirmation. The third hypothesis predicted that wine brand expectations and disconfirmation are not related, requiring a two-tailed hypothesis test. Pooled variance estimates again were acceptable for this hypothesis test.

Table 18 indicates that disconfirmation is indeed independent of expectations. The disconfirmation scores for the two expectations groups are not significantly different. The results here are similar to those reported in other studies, where disconfirmation has been operationalized as both a perceived and derived construct.

TABLE 18

TEST FOR HYPOTHESIS 3: DERIVED FOCAL BRAND-BASED DISCONFIRMATION
OF HIGH AND LOW EXPECTATION SUBJECTS

Expectation	Mean Disconfirmation Score	Standard Deviation	T Value	df	Two-Tail Probability
High (n = 45)	-2.33	9.22	-0.99	89	.327
Low (n = 46)	-0.24	10.94			

Expectations-satisfaction. The last hypothesis dealing with brand expectations, Hypothesis four, predicted that high brand expectations leads to significantly higher satisfaction feelings than low brand expectations. Again, pooled variance estimates were usable for tests of both measures. Scores of the two expectation groups for satisfaction are provided in Table 19. Since two multi-item satisfaction measures performed quite well in reliability and validity analyses, both measures are used in hypothesis testing and reported here.

Both satisfaction measures indicate significant differences between expectation subjects, with high expectation subjects yielding higher satisfaction scores than low expectation subjects. The relationship between expectations and satisfaction appears quite strong.

On the basis of the above findings, operational hypotheses two and four are rejected and hypothesis three gained additional support. Operational hypothesis one, covering the expectations-brand attitude relationship, can be rejected only at high alpha levels (at $p = 0.10$) and is not considered statistically significant in this study. These findings therefore add support to previous research findings concerning the role of expectations in attitude and CS/D processes.

Involvement

There are six research hypotheses covering the role of involvement in the CS/D process. For two of these hypotheses, Hypotheses five and eight, the antecedent state of enduring product

TABLE 19

TEST FOR HYPOTHESIS 4: SATISFACTION SCORES
OF HIGH AND LOW EXPECTATION SUBJECTS

Expectation	Mean Satisfaction Score	Standard Deviation	T Value	df	One-Tail Probability
Using multi-item Likert scale					
High (n = 45)	25.44	5.14	3.31	89	.000
Low (n = 46)	21.30	6.68			
Using multi-item semantic differential scale					
High (n = 45)	16.98	2.86	2.92	89	.002
Low (n = 46)	15.15	3.09			

importance is measured as a covariate to extract some of the experimental error. The question of interest, however, in all of the involvement tests is the same as that for the expectation hypotheses--what influence does the main effect involvement have on the means of dependent variables in the evaluation process?

Before reporting any of the individual hypothesis results, the appropriateness of using a covariance model where applicable must be stated. An important assumption made in covariance analysis is that the nature of the relationship between an independent variable and the covariate is identical for all treatment groups. This means there should be equality of slopes for the different treatment regression lines produced by the procedure. Different relationships signify an interaction effect between the two variables. Testing for interaction was done by first using a full regression model with an interaction term for involvement and enduring product importance. Both hypotheses, covering number of attributes used in an evaluation and acceptable performance ranges, yielded a nonsignificant interaction effect. With no interaction occurring between the covariate and the predictor variable, a reduced model with interaction subsumed under residual variation was appropriate. The model introduced the covariate, enduring product importance, before the predictor variable, involvement.

Also, the covariate means for high and low involvement treatment groups were 41.42 and 42.51, respectively. Standard deviations for the covariate under high and low involvement were 7.95 and 8.04,

respectively. The distributions for the covariate were very similar for the two groups. There appears little systematic difference in the amount of enduring product importance between the two involvement groups.

Involvement-attributes. Hypothesis five examined the relationship between manipulated involvement and the number of attributes used to evaluate a consumption experience. The hypothesis predicted that subjects with high involvement in a wine usage occasion are more likely to consider more product dimensions as relevant to the experience than subjects with low involvement. Table 20 shows the results of the analysis of covariance for this hypothesis. Being a one-tail test for significance, the one-tail probabilities are given.

TABLE 20
TEST FOR HYPOTHESIS 5: PRODUCT ATTRIBUTE SCORES
OF HIGH AND LOW INVOLVEMENT SUBJECTS

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	One-Tail Probability
Enduring prod. importance	1	10.56	10.56	8.05	.003
Involvement	1	7.31	7.31	5.58	.010
Residual	88	115.43	1.31		
Total	90	133.30	1.48		

Both the covariate and involvement were found to significantly influence the number of attributes used for evaluation. As hypothesized, high involvement subjects and individuals with greater enduring importance used a larger number of product dimensions to evaluate a consumption experience than did low involvement subjects (see also Table 21).

TABLE 21
ADJUSTED PRODUCT ATTRIBUTE MEANS FOR ENDURING PRODUCT IMPORTANCE

Involvement	Unadjusted Mean	Adjusted for Covariate	Covariate Coefficient
High	4.34	4.36	.043
Low	3.82	3.79	

Involvement-attitude. The second involvement hypothesis, Hypothesis six, predicted more positive and/or negative pre-usage brand attitude for highly involved subjects than lowly involved subjects. For this hypothesis an F-test for the equality of variances was performed. More extreme attitude responses should yield larger sample variances for the high involvement group, while low involvement individuals should show smaller sample variances for attitude scores.

Table 22 summarizes the results from this analysis. Virtually no difference in the distribution of attitude scores for the two

TABLE 22

TEST FOR HYPOTHESIS 6: PRE-USAGE BRAND ATTITUDE SCORES
OF HIGH AND LOW INVOLVEMENT SUBJECTS

Involvement	Variable Variance	F Value	One-Tail Probability
High (n = 48)	0.986	1.02	.480
Low (n = 43)	0.968		

involvement groups is observed. Individuals with more long-term interest in the product or more perceived risk from a consumption occasion are no more likely to generate intense attitudes than consumers with little inherent interest in wines and less situational concern for a wine usage occasion.

Involvement-performance. Hypothesis seven stated that high involvement individuals have more extreme, i.e., at the ends of the scale, performance perceptions than low involvement consumers. This leads to larger sample variances for performance scores for high over low involvement treatment groups. Results from an F-test for equality of variances indicate that there is a significant difference in performance score distributions between the involvement groups (see Table 23). The one-tail probability for the sample estimates equals 0.05, the alpha level used in this study as a cutoff for statistical significance. Furthermore, the variances are in the

TABLE 23

TEST FOR HYPOTHESIS 7: BRAND PERFORMANCE EVALUATIONS
OF HIGH AND LOW INVOLVEMENT SUBJECTS

Involvement	Variable Variance	F Value	One-Tail Probability
High (n = 48)	342.25	1.65	.051
Low (n = 43)	207.94		

hypothesized directions; the predicted hypothesis is considered supported by the data.

Involvement-latitude of acceptance. The next involvement hypothesis, number eight, predicted that high involvement subjects consider fewer possible performance perceptions as acceptable for a brand of chablis than do low involvement subjects. The acceptable performance score for consumers receiving the high involvement treatment should then be lower than the score from the low involvement subjects. Analysis of covariance indicates this is the case (see Table 24). The strength of the association between involvement and acceptable performance scores is quite strong; this hypothesis is strongly supported. The covariate, however, failed to reach significance (see Table 25).

TABLE 24

TEST FOR HYPOTHESIS 8: ACCEPTABLE PERFORMANCE RANGES
OF HIGH AND LOW INVOLVEMENT SUBJECTS

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	One-Tail Probability
Enduring prod. importance	1	1.17	1.17	1.42	.119
Involvement	1	26.15	26.15	31.71	.001
Residual	84	69.25	.82		
Total	86	96.56	1.12		

TABLE 25

ADJUSTED ACCEPTABLE PERFORMANCE MEANS USING
ENDURING PRODUCT IMPORTANCE

Involvement	Unadjusted Mean	Adjusted for Covariate	Covariate Coefficient
High	2.34	2.33	
Low	3.43	3.44	-.015

Involvement-disconfirmation. The hypothesis dealing with disconfirmation was similar to other involvement hypotheses, suggesting different sample variances for the involvement groups. The predicted finding was that disconfirmation scores for high involvement subjects are more extreme, i.e., more positive and/or negative, than scores for low involvement subjects. There are three multi-item disconfirmation variables, one for each standard of comparison. F-tests for equality of variances were performed, and Tables 26 through 28 summarize the findings.

TABLE 26

TEST FOR HYPOTHESIS 9A: FOCAL BRAND-BASED DISCONFIRMATION SCORES OF HIGH AND LOW INVOLVEMENT SUBJECTS

Involvement	Variable Variance	F Value	One-Tail Probability
High (n = 48)	96.63	1.15	.317
Low (n = 43)	111.30		

The focal brand-based disconfirmation results (Table 26) and the product norm-based disconfirmation results (Table 28) indicate no significant relationship between involvement and disconfirmation at alpha level 0.05. The product norm-based disconfirmation scores are in the hypothesized direction (larger variances for high involvement

TABLE 27

TEST FOR HYPOTHESIS 9B: FAVORITE BRAND NORM-BASED DISCONFIRMATION
SCORES OF HIGH AND LOW INVOLVEMENT SUBJECTS

Involvevement	Variable Variance	F Value	One-Tail Probability
High (n = 48)	456.25	1.68	.045
Low (n = 43)	271.26		

TABLE 28

TEST FOR HYPOTHESIS 9C: PRODUCT NORM-BASED DISCONFIRMATION SCORES
OF HIGH AND LOW INVOLVEMENT SUBJECTS

Involvevement	Variable Variance	F Value	One-Tail Probability
High (n = 48)	227.71	1.52	.085
Low (n = 43)	149.82		

than low involvement) and significant at $\alpha = 0.10$, but the focal brand-based disconfirmation scores are not in the hypothesized directions.

The favorite brand norm-based disconfirmation results (Table 27) are significant at α level = 0.05. Variances are much greater for the high involvement group than for the low involvement treatment group. These results are very interesting when compared to the other standards-based disconfirmation results. It appears that consumers do create favorite brand norms which represent more stringent performance demands than other standard performance perceptions. The subsequent disconfirmations then depict the same relationship--more positive and/or negative scores for a focal brand compared to the best or favorite brand norm over other standards.

Involvement-satisfaction. The last involvement hypothesis (Hypothesis ten) stated that high involvement subjects are more likely to express stronger feelings of satisfaction than low involvement subjects. This hypothesis also required the use of an F-test for equality of variances. Moreover, two multi-item measures of satisfaction were tested. Results from the satisfaction tests, found in Table 29, indicate that involvement contributes to a difference in Likert-type satisfaction scores, and in the hypothesized direction, but only for an α level of 0.10. The semantic differential satisfaction scale results do not show any relationship between involvement and satisfaction. The distribution of satisfaction scores for the two involvement groups are, on the

TABLE 29

TEST FOR HYPOTHESIS 10: SATISFACTION SCORES
OF HIGH AND LOW INVOLVEMENT SUBJECTS

Involvement	Variable Variance	F Value	One-Tail Probability
Using multi-item Likert scale			
High (n = 48)	47.20	1.53	.082
Low (n = 43)	30.80		
Using multi-item semantic differential scale			
High (n = 48)	10.37	1.22	.256
Low (n = 43)	8.47		

whole, quite similar. In summary, the relationship between involvement and satisfaction is only weakly supported.

Looking across all six operational hypotheses dealing with the effect of involvement on CS/D process variables, four of the hypotheses were rejected. Number of attributes used, performance perceptions, and acceptable range of performance were all significantly related to involvement manipulations. The fourth hypothesis on disconfirmation showed that disconfirmations must be distinguished from each other. Favorite brand norm-based disconfirmation is significantly related to involvement, while product norm-based and focal brand-based disconfirmations are not. In general, high involvement subjects made evaluation judgments which required more cognitive effort and/or more stringent performance deliveries from a brand.

Choice of Experience-Based Norms

Hypothesis eleven suggested that there are different reference points used for the development of consumer consumption evaluations, and that these points are related to the amount of involvement a consumer has toward the consumption occasion. Since this study specifically manipulated brand expectations, expectations should form part of the comparison standard base. However, subjects were chosen for the study on the basis that they had had some experience with the product. This implies a learning experience from all past exposure to wines in general and to specific wine brands. Subjects were asked

to checkmark which of five different standards of comparison were applicable in a particular involvement scenario. A chi-square test of significance was used to assess the association between involvement levels and possible standards of comparison.

Table 30 shows the relationship between the two constructs. There is a difference between stated standards of comparison for the two involvement treatments. Although all categories of standards are depicted in the table, BEST BRAND IMAGINABLE and MOST RECENT WINE DRUNK were deleted in the actual test for significance because of too few subjects in these cells. More highly involved subjects checked categories which implied more exacting standards on their part--BEST BRAND IMAGINABLE and BEST BRAND I HAVE DRUNK IN THE PAST. These standards are best brand norms. Almost no high involvement subjects checked the use of a TYPICAL CHABLIS as part of their standard of comparison, whereas many of the low involvement subjects did. A typical chablis represents a more relaxed standard, looking across all brands, rather than one focused on a specific brand as a reference. The heavy usage of the category PREVIOUS EXPERIENCE WITH THE SAME BRAND indicates the impact of brand expectations on reference judgments, as expected.

Involvement and the Disconfirmation Paradigm

The last hypothesis suggested the need to reassess the applicability of the disconfirmation paradigm under differing involvement treatments. Antecedent variable order and strength for the explanation of satisfaction variation may vary significantly for

TABLE 30

TEST FOR HYPOTHESIS 11: COMPARISON OF CHOICE OF COMPARISON
STANDARDS BETWEEN HIGH AND LOW INVOLVEMENT SUBJECTS

Selection of Experience-Based Norm	Percentage of High Involvement Subjects (n=48)	Percentage of Low Involvement Subjects (n=43)
Best brand imagined	4.4 %	1.1 %
Best brand I have drunk in past	31.9	14.3
Previous experience with same brand	12.1	14.3
A typical chablis	3.3	13.2
The most recent wine I have drunk	1.1	4.4

Note: Chi square = 15.0326
df = 4
Probability = 0.005

high versus low involvement. Table 31 presents the pairwise correlations of all the satisfaction model variables for both high and low involvement conditions. These correlations serve as a check on the regression analyses, which are used to test for CS/D model differences. Decimals have been omitted. High involvement correlations are in the upper right part of the matrix and low involvement figures are in the lower left.

A stepwise regression procedure was employed to assess the explanatory value and order of antecedence for CS/D variables under both high and low involvement. The four variables used to predict satisfaction included: pre-usage brand attitude, the standard of comparison, performance, and the standard-based disconfirmation.

The two multi-item measures of satisfaction each required a regression analysis. Also, the study sought to compare the contribution to explanation from each of the standards of comparison. Therefore, a stepwise regression analysis was run for each standard. This involved changing the standard of comparison and the standard-based disconfirmation variables in the CS/D model for each regression run. Given two dependent variable measures, two involvement groups, and three standards of comparison, a total of twelve separate regressions were run.

Tables 32 and 33 present the regression results. Discussion of the table formats aids in interpretation. Under the variable column, any significant predictors in the satisfaction model are listed. They are listed in order of inclusion, which is determined by the

TABLE 31

PAIRWISE CORRELATIONS FOR HIGH AND LOW INVOLVEMENT CONDITIONS

	ATT	EXP	FBN	PN	PERF	DISC	BND	PND	SAT (LIK)	SAT (SD)
High Involvement										
ATT	---	30	16	24	33	06	06	10	41	46
EXP	56	---	75	79	83	-32	-25	-05	22	10
FBN	-29	40	---	62	56	-34	-77	-16	08	-03
PN	11	66	75	---	77	-05	-14	-45	31	14
PERF	52	79	35	54	---	27	10	23	55	42
DISC	-02	-26	-05	-15	39	---	61	46	55	54
BND	72	41	-49	-12	64	40	---	37	08	-03
PND	47	23	-34	-37	58	57	82	---	31	14
SAT (LIK)	65	41	-23	07	59	31	74	58	---	83
SAT (SD)	50	36	-21	01	61	43	74	66	85	---
Low Involvement										

WHERE: ATT = Pre-usage brand attitude
 EXP = Focal brand expectations
 FBN = Favorite brand norm
 PN = Product norm
 PERF = Performance
 DISC = Focal brand-based disconfirmation
 BND = Favorite brand norm-based disconfirmation
 PND = Product norm-based disconfirmation
 SAT = Satisfaction

TABLE 32

REGRESSION ANALYSES: LIKERT SATISFACTION MEASURE

Variable	Beta	F	F of Regression	R ²	Change
High involvement-with focal brand variables					
Performance	0.5060	16.33**		.4494	
Brand attitude	0.3082	6.06*	23.05**	.5174	.0680
Low involvement-with focal brand variables					
Brand attitude	0.4921	17.36**		.3090	
Discon- firmation	0.6113	25.91**		.5452	.2362
Expectations	0.2770	4.25*	18.30**	.5910	.0458
High involvement-with favorite brand norm variables					
Performance	0.5060	16.33**		.4494	
Brand attitude	0.3082	6.06*	23.05**	.5174	.0680
Low involvement-with favorite brand norm variables					
Discon- firmation	0.4967	23.57**		.4253	
Brand attitude	0.2917	7.03*		.5773	.1520
Performance	0.2872	6.90*	22.74**	.6422	.0649

TABLE 32 (continued)

Variable	Beta	F	F of Regression	R ²	Change
High involvement-with product norm variables					
Performance	0.5060	16.33**		.4494	
Brand					
attitude	0.3082	6.06*	23.05**	.5174	.0680
Low involvement-with product norm variables					
Brand					
attitude	0.5239	18.46**		.3090	
Discon-					
firmation	0.3425	7.89**	14.43**	.4252	.1162

*p < 0.05

**p < 0.01

TABLE 33

REGRESSION ANALYSES: SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL SATISFACTION MEASURE

Variable	Beta	F	F of Regression	R ²	Change
High involvement-with focal brand variables					
Performance	0.6241	28.07**	28.07**	.3895	
Low involvement-with focal brand variables					
Discon- firmation	0.6423	40.01**		.3481	
Brand attitude	0.5067	24.89**	29.51**	.6021	.2540
High involvement-with favorite brand norm variables					
Performance	0.4594	11.22**		.3895	
Discon- firmation	0.2923	4.54*	17.44**	.4478	.0583
Low involvement-with favorite brand norm variables					
Discon- firmation	0.6262	38.42**		.5139	
Performance	0.3507	12.06**	33.02**	.6287	.1148

TABLE 33 (continued)

Variable	Beta	F	F of Regression	R ²	Change
High involvement-with product norm variables					
Discon- firmation	0.7165	40.88**		.4181	
Prod. norm	0.2826	6.36*	20.91**	.4930	.0749
Low involvement-with product norm variables					
Discon- firmation	0.3951	8.99**		.3751	
Brand attitude	0.3067	5.20*	10.38**	.4503	.0752

*p < 0.05

**p < 0.01

respective contribution of each variable to explained variance. The minimum criterion for inclusion of any variable is that its predictive contribution to the regression equation be significant at $p < 0.05$. Only variables measured at an interval or ratio level are included. Beta coefficients are in the second column, and these express the relative contribution of each of the variables. The F-values in column 3 allow statistical inference of each predictor. The F of Regression figure represents the overall statistical significance of the regression equation, when just the significant predictors are included in the model. The R^2 column reflects the proportion of satisfaction variation explained by the variables included in the regression equation. An R^2 value posted on the same line as the first predictor variable gives the accuracy of the equation when just that one variable is introduced. R^2 values on subsequent rows are based on the previous variables already having entered into the model. The change in R^2 value from one model to the next is found in the last column.

There is an additional point which bears mentioning before reviewing the regression results. There is a linear dependency in the variables used to predict satisfaction. Variables are said to be linearly dependent if one variable can be expressed as a linear combination of some of the other variables. Disconfirmation is a derived score, based on the subtraction of a standard of comparison score from the perceived performance score. Only two of these three evaluation variables can enter into a stepwise regression equation,

since all possible information is obtained from two of the variables rather than the complete set. This dependency is not a problem, since the objective of this hypothesis is to determine the order in which variables contribute to the explanation of satisfaction. The classic disconfirmation paradigm predicts that disconfirmation is always the most important predictor of satisfaction. However, this study is investigating whether or not other evaluation variables may be more important and stronger predictors of satisfaction under differing involvement conditions. A linear dependency within the model does not prevent the strongest variable from being introduced into the satisfaction model first. Given the objective of this hypothesis, stepwise regression analyses are appropriate tests for this hypothesis.

The results of the regression analyses for satisfaction models based on the Likert-type measure are in Table 32. All regressions in the table are significant at $p < 0.01$. In all but two cases, just two variables are significant predictors of satisfaction for both high and low involvement, but the variables are not the same for each treatment. Regardless of standard being used, high involvement shows performance first, then pre-usage brand attitude as contributors to satisfaction. Both beta coefficients are positive, indicating that the more favorable the performance ratings and the more favorable the subject's attitude to a wine brand, the more satisfaction is realized. Inclusion of performance, in particular, does

significantly serve to explain the development of satisfaction under high involvement.

Under low involvement, brand attitude is the first significant predictor when product norms and focal brand expectations are the standards. The respective disconfirmation variable enters the model next. Focal brand expectations, the standards variable, also enters the focal brand expectations regression model as a third predictor of satisfaction. Positive beta coefficients indicate that the more favorable the attitude, the greater the discrepancy between standard and performance. Also, the higher the expectations, the greater the development of satisfaction.

The one inconsistent regression model in this set is for the low involvement group using favorite brand norm variables. Disconfirmation, brand attitude, and performance are significant predictors of satisfaction. One of the questions in this research is whether previous experience and pre-usage variables serve as better predictors of satisfaction than post-usage variables. While all the other low involvement group regressions indicate this is so, this one model shows some reliance on the post-usage variable performance as well.

Another interesting finding in the table is the improvement in explained variability of satisfaction in the low involvement condition, as the standard of comparison and other comparison-based variables change. R^2 values increase as the standard changes from product norm, to focal brand expectations, to favorite brand norm.

This result suggests that satisfaction is differentially based on the selection of an appropriate reference point. Knowledge of the standard being used in an evaluation process should improve prediction of evaluation process perceptions.

In summary, post-usage evaluation variables and attitude predict satisfaction for high involvement, while pre-usage evaluation variables and attitude are the major predictors of satisfaction for low involvement groups. Best brand norm appears to be the most powerful of the evaluation standards in the low involvement regression equations.

The dependent variable in the next set of regression runs is the semantic differential measure of satisfaction. Patterns of predictor variable inclusion are different again for high versus low involvement, and there is some variation in models across standards of comparison. Again, all models are significant at $p < 0.01$. Table 33 summarizes the regressions using a semantic differential measure of satisfaction.

For focal brand expectations and favorite brand norm equations under high involvement, performance is the primary predictor of satisfaction. The product norm/high involvement model is the only model where a standards-based variable, disconfirmation, enters into the equation first. In fact, both disconfirmation and the standard predict satisfaction for this group. While this finding varies from the other high involvement results, the overall research seems to

support the hypothesis of different roles for pre- and post-usage evaluation variables under varying involvement scenarios.

The low involvement equations all indicate that disconfirmation is the primary predictor of satisfaction, when using semantic differential scores. Brand attitude is the second most powerful predictor of satisfaction for focal brand expectations and product norm models. The favorite brand norm equation duplicates the results obtained from the Likert scores; that is, it is the only low involvement model incorporating performance into the equation.

As with Likert measures, the strength of each low involvement model using semantic differential scores varies across all three standards. The favorite brand norm model accounts for more satisfaction variation than the others, followed by expectations, then product norm.

Tables 32 and 33 indicate substantial differences between the regression models used to predict satisfaction under high or low involvement. These results are surprising and suggest that the disconfirmation paradigm may not be the best framework for all evaluation processes. While single item measures were not routinely used in this study, the single item, perceived measures of disconfirmation were employed as a check on the surprising findings from the equations using derived disconfirmation measures. Results from the single item disconfirmation variable models are in Tables 34 and 35.

TABLE 34

REGRESSION ANALYSES: LIKERT SATISFACTION AND
SINGLE ITEM DISCONFIRMATION MEASURES

Variable	Beta	F	F of Regression	R ²	Change
High involvement-with focal brand variables					
Performance	0.3479	7.68**		.4494	
Discon- firmation	0.3301	9.44**		.5227	.0733
Brand attitude	0.3426	8.87**	21.53**	.6059	.0832
Low involvement-with focal brand variables					
Brand attitude	0.4891	19.50**		.3090	
Discon- firmation	0.4809	22.54**		.5926	.2836
Performance	0.2395	4.54*	22.14**	.6361	.0435
High involvement-with favorite brand norm variables					
Discon- firmation	0.4833	19.19**		.4922	
Performance	0.4179	14.35**	34.97**	.6193	.1271
Low involvement-with favorite brand norm variables					
Discon- firmation	0.4236	10.07**		.3473	
Brand attitude	0.3619	7.35**	16.01**	.4508	.1035

TABLE 34 (continued)

Variable	Beta	F	F of Regression	R ²	Change
High involvement-with product norm variables					
Performance	0.2472	3.34		.4494	
Discon- firmation	0.4067	11.66**		.5429	.0935
Brand attitude	0.3335	8.81**	23.06**	.6333	.0904
Low involvement-with product norm variables					
Brand attitude	0.3505	7.06*		.3090	
Performance	0.3299	6.27*		.4203	.1113
Discon- firmation	0.2528	4.29*	11.65**	.4791	.0588

*p < 0.05

**p < 0.01

TABLE 35

REGRESSION ANALYSES: SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL SATISFACTION
AND SINGLE ITEM DISCONFIRMATION MEASURES

Variable	Beta	F	F of Regression	R ²	Change
High involvement-with focal brand variables					
Performance	0.2902	4.90*		.3895	
Discon- firmation	0.3985	12.61**		.5020	.1125
Brand attitude	0.3098	6.65*	18.56**	.5700	.0680
Low involvement-with focal brand variables					
Discon- firmation	0.4057	10.26**		.3945	
Brand attitude	0.4175	17.63**		.6363	.2418
Performance	0.6096	10.32**		.6753	.0390
Expectation	-0.4636	5.65*	23.59**	.7183	.0430
High involvement-with favorite brand norm variables					
Discon- firmation	0.4891	17.13**		.4646	
Performance	0.3687	9.74**	27.75**	.5634	.0988
Low involvement-with favorite brand norm variables					
Discon- firmation	0.1119	.75		.3254	
Performance	0.8180	28.36**		.3907	.0653
Favorite brand norm	-0.6673	25.59**	22.12**	.6359	.2452

TABLE 35 (continued)

Variable	Beta	F	F of Regression	R ²	Change
High involvement-with product norm variables					
Performance	0.6649	17.40**		.3895	
Product norm	-0.3516	7.19**		.4930	.1035
Discon- firmation	0.2743	4.24 *	16.41**	.5395	.0465
Low involvement-with product norm variables					
Discon- firmation	0.4382	12.72**		.2864	
Performance	0.4087	11.06**	15.58**	.4441	.1577

*p < 0.01

**p < 0.05

Tables 34 and 35 are similar to the other tables (Tables 32 and 33) summarizing the stepwise regression models for Likert and semantic differential satisfaction scores, respectively. In most cases, performance is the major predictor of satisfaction under high involvement, and disconfirmation is the predominant determinant of satisfaction under low involvement. The only major difference in this arrangement occurs with the favorite brand norm variables. Under both high and low involvement, disconfirmation is the major predictor of satisfaction. Since consumers are specifically calling to mind their most preferred brand of chablis, it is not unusual to find them referring back to this brand after trying any other brand. Comparisons to their favorite wine require some reference to pre-usage norms. This comparison is made apparent in the satisfaction equation through disconfirmation, which summarizes both pre- and post-usage information.

This last operational hypothesis predicted no difference in the basic disconfirmation paradigm used to explain satisfaction for the two involvement scenarios. Results moderately indicate that this hypothesis, as stated, should be rejected. For the majority of equations, evaluation processes under high involvement usage norms. This comparison is made apparent in the satisfaction equation through disconfirmation, which summarizes both pre- and post-usage information.

This last operational hypothesis predicted no difference in the basic disconfirmation paradigm used to explain satisfaction for the

two involvement scenarios. Results moderately indicate that this hypothesis, as stated, should be rejected. For the majority of equations, evaluation processes under high involvement include performance as the major predictor cue for usage occasion evaluation.

The hypothesis was of an exploratory nature, without direction specified. With all probabilities for overall F-values being less than 0.01, however, differences in CS/D model specifications for high and low involvement are supported in this study.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to review the major findings of this study, to draw some conclusion from them, and to suggest areas for future research in involvement and consumer satisfaction processes, tempered by the limitations of the present study.

Enduring Product Importance

One of the major goals of this study was to conceptualize and measure the involvement components, enduring product importance and task related arousal. Drawing specifically upon research from Bloch (1981, 1982), Houston and Rothschild (1977, 1978), and Oliver and Bearden (1983), enduring importance was defined as ongoing concern for a product category, irrespective of any related task or situational concerns. Analysis of relevant concept domains for this study featuring white wines revealed that enduring importance did indeed incorporate several of the suggested enduring dimensions. These included: (1) interest in the product area; (2) relationships between the product and important needs or values; (3) use of the product to express one's self-concept; and (4) usefulness of the product to social and/or role-related behaviors. Calculation of the coefficient alpha measure of reliability yielded an almost identical score to past studies utilizing the above concept domains, even though each study was geared to a specific and different product.

These scores were all in the 0.80 to 0.86 range, indicating very satisfactory reliability measures.

The final stage of scale development concerned the validation of the involvement scale. Houston and Rothschild have suggested that behavior and experience variables would provide tests for criterion validity of the construct. The enduring product importance scale correlated well with all behavioral measures dealing with wine consumption habits, wine appreciation classes attended, and wine knowledgeability. Product knowledge and experience were closely related to ongoing concern with a product class in this study. In addition, enduring product importance was sufficiently different from the involvement construct to yield good discriminant validity correlations.

Enduring product importance was incorporated into two research hypotheses dealing with concern or arousal. The construct was used as a covariate in the analyses. Enduring importance was found to significantly influence only one construct in the CS/D process-- number of attributes used for evaluation and performance. An enduring importance-attribute selection stage relationship appears logical and has been supported in the literature as well. It is also one of the initial decision points in an evaluation process, where consumers decide on the amount of effort they will be using for an evaluation. This focus on initial issues in a decision making process, somewhat distanced from the actual consumption occasion, may be indicative of the best role for enduring product importance. The

variable may work best being relegated to purchase-independent outputs, or ongoing responses, as suggested by Bloch and Richins, (1983).

Situational Involvement

The second involvement variable examined in this study was situational involvement. To avoid further complicating the definitional problem found in the involvement literature, the term involvement was reserved for this task- or goal-related component exclusively. This study examined situational involvement as it related to one product only, which was used for two different consumption occasions. The purpose of such a limited involvement focus was to determine if task-related arousal, risk, and importance for a single product could vary with the usage occasion.

Task-related involvement has been suggested as a triggering cue for product evaluations and subsequent CS/D responses. Day (1977) has proposed and Swan and Trawick (1978, 1979b) have tested to see if different products may or may not merit a conscious evaluation on the part of the consumer, due to varying social and important individual contexts of the usage occasion. There had not been an attempt (prior to this study) to incorporate the idea of triggering cues into an analysis of only one product being used for different usage occasions.

The creation of involvement manipulations and the generation of a multi-item situational involvement manipulation check were

influenced by several prior research studies (Houston and Rothschild, 1977, 1978; Parkinson and Schenk, 1980; Arora, 1982). The goal of the multi-item scale construction was to include both objective, i.e., functional, and psychosocial dimensions of product consequences. The single item involvement scale used in this research was identical to many of the manipulation checks used in social psychology-involvement studies.

Reliability and validity analyses were all very favorable. Coefficient alpha for the multi-item scale was well above suggested values for exploratory research, and item-to-total correlations all indicated that the items were contributing significantly to the overall meaning of the construct. Factor analysis yielded evidence of the two suggested dimensions of situational involvement. Convergent and discriminant validities were also very good for these two involvement measures. In summary, the involvement manipulations correctly tapped situational arousal, thus building on the previous work in the involvement area.

Standards of Comparison

While there have been many studies expressly examining brand expectations, there have been few attempts to incorporate all possible reference points into an integrated study of standards of comparison. This study examined both expectations and norms as forms of reference points. Support was found for different standards being used for different wine brands' evaluations. Specifically, this

research was designed to replicate research findings for manipulated brand expectations and to suggest an expanded role for brand norms in evaluation processes.

Creation of brand expectation manipulations incorporated absolute judgment product dimensions into high and low treatment levels. The expectation manipulation check was unidimensional, as were all product attribute-based constructs. Satisfactory reliability and construct validity findings were obtained, although results indicated that only the multi-item scales should be used in this study. There was too little convergence between multi-item and single item scales proposing to measure the same thing.

There was evidence of several different standards of comparison being used by consumers to evaluate products--favorite brand norm, product norm, and focal brand expectations. How these different standards are incorporated into consumers' judgments of a subsequent brand evaluation is unclear. When asked to simply name the standard being considered in a consumption occasion with a certain level of involvement (Hypothesis eleven), individuals specified that they do use different norms for evaluation purposes ($p < 0.01$).

Marketers need to determine what usage occasions are more likely to be involved for the consumption of their brands. Depiction of appropriate occasions with mention of appropriate standards in a marketing communication will insure that a wine brand has the best opportunity to achieve a positive evaluation from the consumer. Otherwise, linking the wrong standard of comparison to a usage

situation may inadvertently penalize the brand, leading to negative evaluative perceptions and subsequent negative intentions to use that wine in the future. Product positioning strategies should be more effective with the correct occasion and the correct standard built into positioning messages.

The Evaluation Process

Past research has shown the efficacy of using a CS/D process approach for measurement of evaluation variables. Since most of the constructs associated with the CS/D process were used as separate dependent variables in this study, the findings for each construct are reviewed individually.

Pre-Usage Brand Attitude

One variable of interest was the consumer's pre-usage attitude toward specific brands of chablis. The expectations concerning the brand were found to be only weakly related to pre-usage brand attitudes ($p < 0.10$), but in the hypothesized direction. Paul Masson chablis, as the manipulated high brand expectation treatment, did generate more favorable brand attitude scores than did the low brand expectation treatment, Ernest and Julio Gallo chablis.

One explanation for the lack of stronger expectation-attitude relationships, which have been found in other studies, could be the existing brand knowledge each subject possessed concerning these two national brands. Each is advertised nationally and has been on the market for many years. Attitudes are likely to develop over time and

be influenced by all past experiences. If attitudes had been created which were counter to the expectation manipulations, it is doubtful that one new product message, the treatment, could have reversed the existing attitude.

Another explanation for the weak relationship may be due to measurement issues. Brand attitude was the only variable in the evaluation process to be examined using a single item scale. Given the absence of a multi-item attitude scale, it was necessary to correlate multi-item expectations to this single item measure. While correlation was significantly high (0.46), the lack of specificity in the measures may attenuate the experimental relationship.

Support was not generated for the hypothesis that attitude would vary with involvement. In particular, the hypothesis predicted that more extreme attitudes would be found under high involvement than for low involvement. Subjects may have generated stronger scores due to demand effects. This demand effect may be relevant for several of the subsequent discussion sections, so it will be discussed here.

Perhaps the very nature of the experimental design caused subjects to become sensitized to the issue under study. Participating in the study could have aroused unusual concern for the evaluation which subjects were asked to undergo. However, there may have been a ceiling effect on involvement for the high involvement subjects. They perhaps were incapable of being any more concerned with the presentation, since the involvement treatment had already

demanded a great amount of effort on their part. Consequently, results for both manipulations may show similar patterns.

Performance

The positive correlation and strong relationship ($p < 0.05$) between expectations and performance supported past research findings for assimilation effects between pre- and post-usage evaluation variables (Cadotte et al., 1983a; Churchill and Surprenant, 1982; Olshavsky and Miller, 1972; Olson and Dover, 1976). Consumers build performance perceptions upon past brand expectations, and they use higher levels of brand expectation to create higher levels of performance evaluation.

This research yielded an involvement-performance relationship which supported the hypothesis of more intense, extreme performance perceptions for high involvement than for low involvement. High involvement appears to sensitize the subject, and cause the individual to exert more effort to create strong positive or negative performance judgments. These findings appear to be in accord with the contrast effect found by Korgaonkar and Moschis (1982). A situational involvement-expectations-performance study is certainly suggested as a future research effort.

Latitudes of Acceptance/Rejection

Social psychology studies found support for the proposed relationship between involvement and latitudes of acceptable or unacceptable performance. Only one study has explicitly examined

such a relationship in the consumer behavior sector--the Parkinson and Schenk study (1980) of presearch activity under high and low involvement. Parkinson and Schenk found very weak support for the involvement-acceptable performance relationship. They suggested that latitudes of performance may not be that relevant at the presearch stage.

While this assumption may be true for presearch, consumers appear to use performance range rules much more frequently when evaluating post-usage experiences. This study found overwhelmingly strong support for the hypothesis that high involvement would restrict the performance evaluations acceptable to a subject, while low involvement would encourage more lenient standards.

Disconfirmation

Disconfirmation has been found to be independent of expectations, in this study and in many previous CS/D research efforts (Churchill and Surprenant, 1982; Gilly, 1979; Linda and Oliver, 1980; Oliver, 1977; Oliver and Linda, 1981; Swan, 1977; Westbrook, 1981). As in past studies, correlation between expectation and disconfirmation was negative and somewhat low (-0.30). The t-test results indicated that high brand expectations yielded negative disconfirmation, while low brand expectations generated positive disconfirmation, although statistical significance was not obtained.

Before interpreting these findings, correlations between relevant variables must be reviewed. Performance correlated

positively with disconfirmation (0.31), but expectations were negatively correlated with disconfirmation (-0.30). As noted, expectations and performance showed strong positive correlation (0.81). Performance is related positively to the manipulated expectations, but expectations by themselves are not that useful for predicting disconfirmation. Perhaps consumers are using some other standard for the development of focal brand-based disconfirmation.

It was predicted that stronger or more extreme disconfirmation scores would be generated with high involvement than with low. Support was found for the hypothesis that involvement would influence favorite brand norm-based disconfirmation, but no significant relationship between involvement and product norm-based or focal brand-based disconfirmation emerged. One explanation for the absence of more significant involvement-disconfirmation relationships may be that proposed under the attitude section of the chapter, i.e., the sensitization of all subjects to the experimental design so that little real difference existed for an evaluation process.

Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction

The support for an expectations-satisfaction relationship was very strong, using two different multi-item satisfaction measures (Likert scale: $p < 0.001$; semantic differential scale: $p < 0.01$). High expectation subjects were much more likely to generate high satisfaction scores than were low brand expectation subjects. Much support has been found for this relationship in the literature, so

this study does replicate past results using a different product than had been used previously.

The involvement-satisfaction relationship was not nearly as strong in this study. The Likert satisfaction scale showed high involvement did tend to produce stronger, more extreme satisfaction scores than did low involvement, but with only mild support ($p < .10$). Satisfaction using the semantic differential measure did not show any relationship to involvement. Thus, the question still remains as to the actual role of involvement in the determination of the construct satisfaction. Previous suggestions of weaknesses in the research design may be relevant to the absence of any strong support for the hypothesis.

Specification of the CS/D Process

The final hypothesis proposed no major changes in the disconfirmation paradigm for both high and low involvement scenarios. However, results show that there is indeed a difference in the model characteristics for both high and low involved consumers, and that these differences are relatively consistent across all standards of comparison. Stepwise regressions, using two multi-item satisfaction measures as dependent variables, yielded significantly different influence parameters for the two involvement levels. These patterns identified pre-usage brand attitudes and performance as the predominant influences on Likert-type satisfaction scores under high involvement, regardless of standard used. Satisfaction models using semantic differential scales showed performance and disconfirmation

as predictors of satisfaction under high involvement. Attitudes, disconfirmation, and some pre-usage standards were the major predictors of satisfaction in low involvement.

Such results give some evidence that high involvement does sensitize an individual to a consumption experience. One will forsake or downplay the brand expectations or norms for a product, if the occasion triggers exceptional attention to specific performance capabilities. Halo effects are diminished and post-usage evaluations become most important to the development of satisfaction. No matter what the standards may be, a highly involving consumption occasion motivates the consumer to review cognitively each specific bottle of wine without using past experience or brand messages as guidelines for performance judgments. The consumer relies much more on immediate, personal experiences to evaluate the brand. In essence, satisfaction becomes identical to post-usage attitude, since there is no comparison process at work on these occasions. The comparison, which defines satisfaction as distinct from post-usage attitude, is not operating in an important, risky usage situation.

Lowly involving occasions will, however, cause a consumer to elicit past experience and expectations to help formulate post-usage evaluations. Halo effects are strong here, and adaptation-level theory is the likely explanation for the continued use of pre-usage variables for satisfaction development.

Involvement thus may be a useful explanator in the Churchill and Surprenant (1982) study. Performance, as the strong predictor of

satisfaction for video disc players only, suggests that there is a high level of consumer concern for this type of product. The product flowers did not generate the same performance-satisfaction relationship. This product may well be a low involvement product and a good example of adaptation-level theory at work.

Oliver and Bearden (1983), while not finding the same involvement-model differences with their study of flu inoculations, do suggest the same limited role for adaptation-level theory. However, they found that attitudes are influential only in low involvement scenarios. This study clearly generated significant attitude-satisfaction relationships at both involvement levels. An explanation for this attitude impact may be that attitudes are based on many other dimensions other than involvement and expectations. The attitude hypotheses in this study show how weak these two variables were in predicting brand attitudes. If other standards of comparison are used to formulate attitudes, stronger attitude-satisfaction relationships are entirely possible. Clearly, more research in this area would be useful.

One extremely interesting finding is the differential amount of satisfaction variation explained across the three standards of comparison. Under low involvement, favorite brand norm variables created the best satisfaction models. For high involvement, product norm variables were more influential in a semantic differential satisfaction model than other standards. This is in contrast to the theoretical role proposed for norms and at odds with stated standards

used for consumption occasions (Hypothesis eleven). It is not possible to resolve this inconsistency in this study, since the respondents were not directly questioned on the specificity and cognitive processing related to product and/or brand norms. If favorite brand norms are not more exacting or cognitively complex than product norms, they actually may represent cognitive "short cuts" for the lowly involved consumer. A favorite brand, determined by past experience, perhaps is adequate rather than optimal for satisfaction development. The product norm actually may be more complex and useful for highly involving occasions when product failure is unacceptable and risky. A composite of what is possible, in terms of performance from all brands in a product category, may be a more rigorous standard for consumers than originally assumed by the researcher. Questions of norm specificity and optimization versus compensation need additional research attention.

Contributions of the Study

This research was intended as an extension of existing work in the satisfaction and involvement areas of consumer behavior. Satisfaction concerns will be reviewed first.

There have been relatively few CS/D studies which have modeled and examined separately all the constructs of the disconfirmation paradigm (only Churchill and Surprenant, 1982; Cadotte et al., 1983b). Other studies have omitted either performance, satisfaction, or pre-usage brand attitudes from the CS/D model. A more complete

model like the one used in this study better substantiates the theoretical foundations of the CS/D process. In particular, this study showed the efficacy of incorporating several standards of comparison into an evaluation process. The theory on experience-based norms (Woodruff et al., 1983b) is beginning to receive increasing support and marketing management attention for the creation of appropriate reference points for product/brand evaluations.

Second, research in the CS/D area has reached a critical point, with refinements needed in the basic adaptation-level theory and disconfirmation paradigm. Research had generated modest support for these theoretical frameworks, but individual and situational factors can also influence the development of the evaluation process. This study served to expand an existing research stream with antecedent conditions. The most productive future work in consumption evaluation may well be identification of market segments, based on different antecedent conditions. This research showed involvement could contribute to better understanding of the CS/D process differences for consumer groups.

Even more important is the identification of the most relevant role for antecedent concerns. Involvement and enduring product importance appear to have some impact on the CS/D process; however, the explanatory power of these antecedent conditions for specific evaluation constructs is inconsistent. Involvement and enduring importance perhaps are mediating influences only for CS/D processes.

While this view may seem to diminish the usefulness of the antecedents, actually the reverse is true. Antecedent conditions need to be put into proper perspective to be most useful in further explaining consumer processes. While not becoming the most powerful influences on CS/D, involvement and enduring importance are much more likely to aid in positioning products correctly and in building appropriate pre-usage messages. Correct positioning aids in the development of maximum consumer satisfaction and marketer profits.

This research originally intended to examine two different formulations for the development of evaluation measures--use of all attributes and determinant attributes only. The poor results from construct validation required the elimination of determinant-based scales, so no hypothesis testing was attempted. Scale construction had used dimensions frequently mentioned in focus group and pre-test work and incorporated importance measures for subject variability. Hypothesis testing based on scales using all the attributes therefore should be valid and useful for future research interpretations.

Another extension of involvement research which this study provided was in the area of better conceptualization and construction of involvement constructs. Prior research findings often were conflicting when suggesting appropriate involvement levels for different products. Products perhaps should not be lumped into high and low product categories, since antecedent conditions may change the level of individual concern within each product class. The

present study sought to explore the effects of different levels of situational consequence for only one product, chablis wine.

Moreover, there is ample evidence for different components of consumer involvement. This study was able to separate the individual, ongoing importance concerns from the task-related, short-term issues surrounding the development of arousal. While some studies have found similar distinctions (Clarke and Belk, 1979; Parkinson and Schenk, 1980; Arora, 1982), none of these had done so with satisfaction processes as dependent variables.

This research supported the development of product-specific enduring importance and involvement scales using existing research efforts. Additional corroboration for the efficacy of these scale constructions was encouraging.

Limitations of the Study

While the present study provided some interesting theoretical, methodological, and practical implications, it is not without limitations. First, the findings of the present study are limited with respect to external validity. Subjects were from a unique population and not truly representative of the wine-drinking public. It is doubtful if the results of this study can be generalized to similar consumption evaluation experiences for all products. However, the experimental results do show that exogenous conditions cannot be ignored in CS/D processes. Consumers do use situational guidelines and find these situations to be different in terms of

importance for evaluation decisions. The more understanding one has of situational specificity to the CS/D process, the more precisely one can control marketing efforts.

The threat of demand artifacts though is very great in this study. The central problem is how to create different involvement levels in the laboratory. It may be that all subjects were highly involved with the study, simply because they had been pre-selected to participate rather than because they were responding to an involvement role. Involvement perhaps is best measured rather than manipulated to eliminate this problem.

Belk (1982) elaborates on the problem of manipulating situational involvement by suggesting that one could create an unnatural pairing of product and situation. High situation involvement-low brand expectations may not be realistic to the wine consumer. The treatment level most in contention would be the use of Gallo chablis for the Saturday night dinner with friends. Since consumers regularly assign low brand ratings to Gallo products (as found in pre-testing), it may be implausible to ask someone to assess this product for high situational involvement. A respondent would never have thought to serve Gallo for that occasion. Belk suggests asking for evaluations of product benefits or consequences, rather than specific brands or products, for a situational involvement treatment.

Finally, the regression approach used here presents further shortcomings. Use of regression is based on several assumptions.

1. The variables are measured without error.
2. They are pure measures of their constructs.
3. The regression weights mirror construct relationships.
4. The structural equations of the disconfirmation paradigm are specified correctly.

Causal modeling techniques, using maximum likelihood structural equation modeling, should be a more effective analytical tool for theory testing. This technique provides estimates of measurement error in the constructs and estimates of error in the structural equations. This method is highly recommended for future satisfaction-involvement research.

Recommendations for Future Research

A number of recommendations for future research on the satisfaction-involvement paradigm are offered. These recommendations can be divided into conceptual and methodological issues which lend themselves to further study.

Conceptual Issues for Future Research

While the adaptation level theory still appears to be one of the most useful theoretical rationales for the development of satisfaction, there are indications that it may not hold across all evaluation occasions. The most unusual finding in this study, that performance rather than any other evaluation variable serves to explain satisfaction under high involvement, indicates the limitation of one theory of satisfaction for all consumption experiences. The

possibility of competing theories as explanations for CS/D should be explored.

The increasing support for experience-based norms as standards of comparison suggests that more attention should be given to these constructs. Consumer perceptions of product and/or brand norms may change over time, and there may be other norms operating in CS/D processes still to be identified.

Involvement is still somewhat confusing. More work on the antecedents of involvement should be directed at discovering the motives behind concern or arousal levels. There also should be additional attention given to the role of involvement across several consumer behaviors. While information processing activities have been extensively studied from an involvement perspective, post-consumption and other consumer activities have rarely been linked to involvement. The stability of involvement definitions for several behavioral areas has not been explored. This replication of involvement research and conceptualization across areas is one avenue for generalizing theory to other marketing areas and other disciplines.

Methodological Issues for Future Research

Causal modeling has been suggested as an appropriate analytical tool for studying involvement-CS/D linkages. However, causal modeling approaches require multiple measures of constructs. The failure of single item measures to achieve a high degree of construct

validity might preclude these measures from being useful in a causal model. Since single item evaluation measures have been used extensively in the CS/D field, it is most critical to focus on measure validation issues related to this research design. There should be a place for single item measures in future involvement-CS/D research.

It would be useful to further explore the correct identification of product dimensions for incorporation into evaluation variables. There is not enough discrimination between constructs when using evaluative, subjective elements for product dimensions. More objective or absolute judgment indicators have been called for in the satisfaction area to eliminate this measurement problem (Churchill and Surprenant, 1982; Cadotte et al., 1983b). Designing objective measures of product dimensions is only now beginning to receive attention.

The support for differing numbers of attributes being considered as determinant in the two involvement scenarios (Hypothesis five) suggests the need to study the value components associated with these attributes. Evaluation process relationships may be more affected by the importance of the determinant attributes than by the number of dimensions. Also, there is the possibility of importance changes for high versus low involvement. Future investigations should pursue these ideas.

This study contended with a tradeoff between dimensionality and validation in the construction of attribute-based measurements.

Several dimensions were omitted from the scales since they created multidimensionality and contributed to low construct validation scores. While improving validation with the deletion of these items, key attributes for consumer perceptions on wines may have been sacrificed. Future research must focus on the tradeoff issue, which forces methodological and conceptual issues to compete with rather than complement each other for research attention.

While product-specific involvement scales are quite appropriate, additional research could examine the construction of a generalized scale for enduring product importance. This construct may be better associated with ongoing interest responses rather than product-specific concerns, as suggested by Bloch and Richins (1983). Thus, a scale with wide applicability across products appears attractive. Research efforts then could become more routinized for the study of ongoing product interest, with replication of empirical findings more commonplace.

These recommendations should be considered as suggestions for research prioritizing. A programmatic research focus on both conceptual and methodological issues would encourage additional efforts in involvement-CS/D research to close some of the gaps, which obviously still remain in the consumer satisfaction field.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HIGH SITUATIONAL INVOLVEMENT
AND HIGH BRAND EXPECTATIONS

MARKETING STUDY
OF
CONSUMER OPINIONS AND EVALUATIONS OF WINE

You have been asked to participate in a marketing study which is investigating the reasons people serve wine at home. Examination of wine consumption in the home should help improve marketing and advertising strategies of wine producers and advertisers. Your experience and opinions are valuable information which can help us understand social and psychological aspects of wine drinking in the home.

This study is being conducted to fulfill requirements for a doctoral degree from the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Please know that your cooperation is important and very much appreciated.

Claire P. Bolfing
McIntire School of Commerce
University of Virginia
Charlottesville, Virginia 22903
(804) 924-3857

We are first interested in finding out how much you know about wine and how often you are drinking wine. Please answer the following questions concerning your interest and experience with wines in general.

1. Please place a check (X) next to all the occasions when you have drunk wine this past month.

_____ DURING LUNCH	_____ DURING DINNER/SUPPER
_____ COCKTAIL HOUR-AT HOME	_____ LATE EVENING AT HOME
_____ COCKTAIL HOUR-BAR	_____ LATE EVENING AT PARTIES
_____ OTHER (please specify) _____	

2. Approximately how many wine appreciation classes and/or wine tasting sessions have you attended in the past three years? (Please circle the appropriate number)

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 MORE THAN 8

3. How many times or for how many occasions last week did you drink wine? (Please circle the appropriate number)

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 MORE THAN 8

4. Based on your own experience and interest in wines, how would you classify yourself with respect to knowledge about wines? (Please circle the number of your answer)

1. I REALLY DON'T KNOW MUCH ABOUT WINES AT ALL.
2. I AM NOT THAT FAMILIAR WITH WINES.
3. I AM SOMEWHAT FAMILIAR WITH WINES.
4. I AM VERY FAMILIAR WITH WINES.
5. I KNOW A GREAT DEAL ABOUT WINES.

5. The following is a series of statements regarding your interest in and knowledge about wines. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements. For example, choose a "2" if you AGREE with the statement.

	(Please circle the number of your answer)				
	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Knowing a lot about wine is important to me.....	1	2	3	4	5
I drink wines as a reflection of my lifestyle.....	1	2	3	4	5
One should know a lot about grapes, growing regions, and wine production to get the most out of drinking wines.....	1	2	3	4	5
Drinking wines is one of the most enjoyable things I do.....	1	2	3	4	5
I have an interest in wines to help express the "I" or "me" within myself.....	1	2	3	4	5
I don't pay much attention to books and articles about wine.....	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy discussing wines with my friends.....	1	2	3	4	5
Wine is nothing more than a beverage.....	1	2	3	4	5
Learning about wine is one way I often can relieve daily pressure.....	1	2	3	4	5
I have little or no interest in wine appreciation courses.....	1	2	3	4	5
I like to talk with other people about wines	1	2	3	4	5
Sometimes I get too wrapped up in wine discussions.....	1	2	3	4	5
It is worth the time and cost to learn about and try many different wines	1	2	3	4	5
Developing an appreciation for wine is extremely important to my friends..	1	2	3	4	5
I get bored when other people talk to me about their wine experiences...	1	2	3	4	5

STOP HERE

DO NOT TURN THE PAGE.

AWAIT FURTHER INSTRUCTION.

The next series of questions concerns drinking chablis wine in particular. You have just seen a tape which described an occasion when you might be serving chablis. Let's call the occasion a formal, weekend dinner party at home. Always refer back to this formal, weekend dinner party at home when you answer the following questions.

1. Think of the times you have served wine at home for a formal, weekend dinner party at home. Please check all the characteristics you thought about when drinking a wine for a formal, weekend dinner party at home.

_____ SCENT	_____ PRESTIGE/STATUS OF BRAND
_____ TASTE (STRENGTH OF FLAVOR)	_____ VALUE FOR PRICE
_____ TASTE (DRY/SWEET)	_____ OTHER ATTRIBUTES
_____ PRODUCT QUALITY OF DOMESTIC CHABLIS	(specify) _____
_____ HOW SUITABLE WITH MAIN COURSE	_____

2. Now, please indicate how important each of the wine characteristics is to you when you are evaluating a wine for a formal, weekend dinner party at home.

(Please circle the number of your answer)					
	ESSENTIAL FOR ME TO HAVE	VERY IMPORTANT TO ME	MODERATELY IMPORTANT TO ME	SLIGHTLY IMPORTANT TO ME	NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT TO ME
SCENT:	1	2	3	4	5
TASTE (STRENGTH OF FLAVOR):	1	2	3	4	5
TASTE (DRY/SWEET):	1	2	3	4	5
PRODUCT QUALITY:	1	2	3	4	5
HOW SUITABLE WITH MAIN COURSE:	1	2	3	4	5
PRESTIGE/STATUS OF BRAND:	1	2	3	4	5
VALUE FOR PRICE:	1	2	3	4	5
OTHER ATTRIBUTES (specify):					
_____	1	2	3	4	5
_____	1	2	3	4	5

3. We would like to know your overall opinion about drinking chablis wine for a formal, weekend dinner party at home. For each pair of words, place an "X" in the box that goes with the phrase best describing your overall opinion about drinking chablis for this occasion.

Considering everything, drinking chablis for this occasion is:

PLEASANT/
UNPLEASANT:

VERY PLEASANT	PLEASANT	NEITHER PLEASANT/ UNPLEASANT	UNPLEASANT	VERY UNPLEASANT
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

DESIRABLE/
UNDESIRABLE:

VERY DESIRABLE	DESIRABLE	NEITHER DESIRABLE/ UNDESIRABLE	UNDESIRABLE	VERY UNDESIRABLE
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

BORING/
ENTERTAINING:

VERY BORING	BORING	NEITHER BORING/ ENTERTAINING	ENTERTAINING	VERY ENTERTAINING
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

GOOD/BAD:

VERY GOOD	GOOD	NEITHER GOOD/BAD	BAD	VERY BAD
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

DULL/
EXCITING:

VERY DULL	DULL	NEITHER DULL/EXCITING	EXCITING	VERY EXCITING
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

4. If you had to compare the chablis you would serve for a formal, weekend dinner party at home to some other chablis, which of the following best describes the wine you would use for comparison purposes? (Please circle the number of your answer)

- 1 - THE BEST CHABLIS BRAND I COULD IMAGINE
- 2 - THE BEST CHABLIS BRAND I HAVE DRUNK IN THE PAST
- 3 - PREVIOUS EXPERIENCE WITH THE SAME BRAND
- 4 - A TYPICAL CHABLIS
- 5 - THE LAST BOTTLE OF WINE I HAD

5. Please think of all the chablis wines you have drunk. Some of the domestic brands on the market include Mondavi, Inglenook, Gallo, Paul Masson, Sebastiani, and Almaden, plus many others. Please review the poster containing a list of domestic chablis producers selling wine in Charlottesville, then indicate how a typical chablis would rate on each of the following characteristics, when serving it for a formal, weekend dinner party at home. Place an "X" in the box that best describes your evaluation.

SCENT:

NO SMELL AT ALL	DELICATE	SOMEWHAT DELICATE	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	SOMEWHAT PRONOUNCED	VERY STRONG
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

TASTE: (STRENGTH OF FLAVOR):

VERY DEFINITE FLAVOR	DEFINITE FLAVOR	MODERATE FLAVOR	MILD FLAVOR	FAINT FLAVOR	OBSCURE FLAVOR	VERY OBSCURE FLAVOR
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

TASTE: (DRY/SWEET):

VERY SWEET	SWEET	SEMI- SWEET	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	SEMI- DRY	DRY	VERY DRY
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

PRODUCT QUALITY:

VERY GOOD	GOOD	SOMEWHAT GOOD	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	SOMEWHAT POOR	POOR	VERY POOR
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

HOW SUITABLE WITH MAIN COURSE:

VERY WELL SUITED	WELL SUITED	MODERATELY SUITED	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	MODERATELY UNSUITED	NOT SUITED	NOT AT ALL SUITED
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

PRESTIGE/STATUS OF THE BRAND:

VERY LOW IN STATUS	LOW IN STATUS	MODERATELY LOW IN STATUS	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	MODERATELY HIGH IN STATUS	HIGH IN STATUS	VERY HIGH IN STATUS
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

VALUE FOR PRICE:

VERY GOOD VALUE	GOOD VALUE	SOMEWHAT GOOD VALUE	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	SOMEWHAT BAD VALUE	BAD VALUE	VERY BAD VALUE
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

My overall impression of a typical chablis is:

EXCELLENT	VERY GOOD	GOOD	FAIR	POOR	VERY POOR	TERRIBLE
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

6. Of all the different brands of chablis you have tried, which brand do you consider the best? Please write in this brand name.

For this, your favorite brand of chablis, please rate it on each of the following characteristics, when serving it for a formal, weekend dinner party at home. Place an "X" in the box that best describes your evaluation.

SCENT:

NO SMELL AT ALL		SOMEWHAT DELICATE	SOMEWHERE DELICATE	SOMEWHAT IN-BETWEEN	SOMEWHAT PRONOUNCED	PRONOUNCED	VERY STRONG
☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

TASTE: (STRENGTH OF FLAVOR):

VERY DEFINITE FLAVOR	DEFINITE FLAVOR	MODERATE FLAVOR	MILD FLAVOR	FAINT FLAVOR	OBSCURE FLAVOR	VERY OBSCURE FLAVOR
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

TASTE: (DRY/SWEET):

VERY SWEET	SWEET	SEMI- SWEET	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	SEMI- DRY	DRY	VERY DRY
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

PRODUCT QUALITY:

VERY GOOD	GOOD	SOMEWHAT GOOD	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	SOMEWHAT POOR	POOR	VERY POOR
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

HOW SUITABLE WITH MAIN COURSE:

VERY WELL SUITED	WELL SUITED	MODERATELY SUITED	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	MODERATELY UNSUITED	NOT SUITED	NOT AT ALL SUITED
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

PRESTIGE/STATUS OF THE BRAND:

VERY LOW IN STATUS	LOW IN STATUS	MODERATELY LOW IN STATUS	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	MODERATELY HIGH IN STATUS	HIGH IN STATUS	VERY HIGH IN STATUS
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

VALUE FOR PRICE:

VERY GOOD VALUE	GOOD VALUE	SOMEWHAT GOOD VALUE	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	SOMEWHAT BAD VALUE	BAD VALUE	VERY BAD VALUE
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

My overall impression of a typical chablis is:

EXCELLENT	VERY GOOD	GOOD	FAIR	POOR	VERY POOR	TERRIBLE
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

PLEASE STOP AGAIN.

WE NOW WANT TO TALK TO YOU ABOUT
A SPECIFIC BRAND OF CHABLIS.

7. Regardless of whether or not you have drunk Paul Masson chablis previously, we would like to know how you expect the brand to rate on each of the following characteristics. Remember, you are describing a Paul Masson chablis that is being served for a formal, weekend dinner party at home. Place an "X" in the box that best describes your expectations about Paul Masson chablis for each of the attributes:

SCENT:

NO SMELL AT ALL	DELICATE	SOMEWHAT DELICATE	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	SOMEWHAT PRONOUNCED	PRONOUNCED	VERY STRONG
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

TASTE: (STRENGTH OF FLAVOR):

VERY DEFINITE FLAVOR	DEFINITE FLAVOR	MODERATE FLAVOR	MILD FLAVOR	FAINT FLAVOR	OBSCURE FLAVOR	VERY OBSCURE FLAVOR
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

TASTE: (DRY/SWEET):

VERY SWEET	SWEET	SEMI- SWEET	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	SEMI- DRY	DRY	VERY DRY
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

PRODUCT QUALITY:

VERY GOOD	GOOD	SOMEWHAT GOOD	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	SOMEWHAT POOR	POOR	VERY POOR
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

HOW SUITABLE WITH MAIN COURSE:

VERY WELL SUITED	WELL SUITED	MODERATELY SUITED	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	MODERATELY UNSUITED	NOT SUITED	NOT AT ALL SUITED
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

PRESTIGE/STATUS OF THE BRAND:

VERY LOW IN STATUS	LOW IN STATUS	MODERATELY LOW IN STATUS	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	MODERATELY HIGH IN STATUS	HIGH IN STATUS	VERY HIGH IN STATUS
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

VALUE FOR PRICE:

VERY GOOD VALUE	GOOD VALUE	SOMEWHAT GOOD VALUE	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	SOMEWHAT BAD VALUE	BAD VALUE	VERY BAD VALUE
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

My overall impression of a typical chablis is:

EXCELLENT	VERY GOOD	GOOD	FAIR	POOR	VERY POOR	TERRIBLE
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

8. Please go through the list of characteristics and circle all the levels of each attribute you would call acceptable (or consider as reasonable) from a chablis being served at a formal, weekend dinner party at home.

SCENT:

NO SMELL AT ALL	DELICATE	SOMEWHAT DELICATE	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	SOMEWHAT PRONOUNCED	PRONOUNCED	VERY STRONG
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

TASTE: (STRENGTH OF FLAVOR):

VERY DEFINITE FLAVOR	DEFINITE FLAVOR	MODERATE FLAVOR	MILD FLAVOR	FAINT FLAVOR	OBSCURE FLAVOR	VERY OBSCURE FLAVOR
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

TASTE: (DRY/SWEET):

VERY SWEET	SWEET	SEMI- SWEET	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	SEMI- DRY	DRY	VERY DRY
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

PRODUCT QUALITY:

VERY GOOD	GOOD	SOMEWHAT GOOD	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	SOMEWHAT POOR	POOR	VERY POOR
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

HOW SUITABLE WITH MAIN COURSE:

VERY WELL SUITED	WELL SUITED	MODERATELY SUITED	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	MODERATELY UNSUITED	NOT SUITED	NOT AT ALL SUITED
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

PRESTIGE/STATUS OF THE BRAND:

VERY LOW IN STATUS	LOW IN STATUS	MODERATELY LOW IN STATUS	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	MODERATELY HIGH IN STATUS	HIGH IN STATUS	VERY HIGH IN STATUS
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

VALUE FOR PRICE:

VERY GOOD VALUE	GOOD VALUE	SOMEWHAT GOOD VALUE	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	SOMEWHAT BAD VALUE	BAD VALUE	VERY BAD VALUE
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

My overall impression of a typical chablis is:

EXCELLENT	VERY GOOD	GOOD	FAIR	POOR	VERY POOR	TERRIBLE
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

9. How well do you like Paul Masson chablis?

- 1 - I REALLY LIKE THIS BRAND.
- 2 - I SOMEWHAT LIKE THIS BRAND.
- 3 - I DON'T LIKE OR DISLIKE IT. IT'S JUST OK.
- 4 - I SOMEWHAT DISLIKE THIS BRAND.
- 5 - I DON'T LIKE THIS BRAND AT ALL.

10. We have put together a list of different statements concerning factors that might be associated with drinking wine. We want to know how important or applicable these factors are to you when you are having wine at a formal, weekend dinner party at home. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements.

	(Please circle the number of your answer)				
	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
I always consider who will be seeing the brand of wine before I choose one.....	1	2	3	4	5
I am willing to pay more than usual for a wine being served at a formal dinner party.....	1	2	3	4	5
Serving the wine at the right time or with the right food is very important at a dinner party.....	1	2	3	4	5
I am willing to shop around or search for a wine being served at a formal occasion.....	1	2	3	4	5
The overall product quality of the wine is very important for a formal dinner party.....	1	2	3	4	5
I care about other people's impressions of the wine I serve at formal occasions.....	1	2	3	4	5
I need to have previous experience with or some knowledge about a wine before I serve it at a dinner party.....	1	2	3	4	5
My ability to select a good wine is very important when I buy for a formal dinner party.....	1	2	3	4	5

PLEASE STOP AGAIN.

WE WOULD NOW LIKE FOR YOU TO TASTE

THE PAUL MASSON CHABLIS.

PLEASE STOP AND AWAIT INSTRUCTIONS.

You have just had a chance to taste Paul Masson chablis. Please answer the next series of questions, which concern how you feel about the Paul Masson chablis.

1. Having tasted Paul Masson chablis, please rate the wine for a formal, weekend dinner party at home? Place an "X" in the box that describes the wine's performance for each characteristic.

SCENT:

NO SMELL AT ALL	DELICATE	SOMEWHAT DELICATE	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	SOMEWHAT PRONOUNCED	PRONOUNCED	VERY STRONG
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

TASTE: (STRENGTH OF FLAVOR):

VERY DEFINITE FLAVOR	DEFINITE FLAVOR	MODERATE FLAVOR	MILD FLAVOR	FAINT FLAVOR	OBSCURE FLAVOR	VERY OBSCURE FLAVOR
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

TASTE: (DRY/SWEET):

VERY SWEET	SWEET	SEMI- SWEET	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	SEMI- DRY	DRY	VERY DRY
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

PRODUCT QUALITY:

VERY GOOD	GOOD	SOMEWHAT GOOD	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	SOMEWHAT POOR	POOR	VERY POOR
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

HOW SUITABLE WITH MAIN COURSE:

VERY WELL SUITED	WELL SUITED	MODERATELY SUITED	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	MODERATELY UNSUITED	NOT SUITED	NOT AT ALL SUITED
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

PRESTIGE/STATUS OF THE BRAND:

VERY LOW IN STATUS	LOW IN STATUS	MODERATELY LOW IN STATUS	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	MODERATELY HIGH IN STATUS	HIGH IN STATUS	VERY HIGH IN STATUS
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

VALUE FOR PRICE:

VERY GOOD VALUE	GOOD VALUE	SOMEWHAT GOOD VALUE	SOMEWHERE IN-BETWEEN	SOMEWHAT BAD VALUE	BAD VALUE	VERY BAD VALUE
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

My overall impression of a typical chablis is:

EXCELLENT	VERY GOOD	GOOD	FAIR	POOR	VERY POOR	TERRIBLE
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2. Compared to your expectations for Paul Masson chablis, how did it actually rate?

MUCH WORSE		WORSE		ABOUT THE SAME		BETTER		MUCH BETTER
☐		☐		☐		☐		☐

3. Compared to a typical chablis wine, how did this chablis rate?

MUCH WORSE		WORSE		ABOUT THE SAME		BETTER		MUCH BETTER
☐		☐		☐		☐		☐

4. Compared to the one brand of chablis you like the best, how did this chablis rate?

MUCH WORSE		WORSE		ABOUT THE SAME		BETTER		MUCH BETTER
☐		☐		☐		☐		☐

5. The following is a series of statements regarding how you felt about the Paul Masson chablis for a formal, weekend dinner party at home. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements. For example, choose a "2" if you AGREE with the statement.

(Please circle the number of your answer)					
	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
I am satisfied with this wine for a formal dinner	1	2	3	4	5
I feel bad about my experience with this wine	1	2	3	4	5
This wine has proven to be inadequate for a weekend dinner party.....	1	2	3	4	5
I am quite content with serving this wine to my dinner guests.....	1	2	3	4	5
Drinking this wine with a formal dinner would not be anything like I expected it to be.....	1	2	3	4	5
I would regret drinking this wine with a weekend dinner meal.....	1	2	3	4	5
Drinking this wine at a weekend dinner meal would be a pleasurable experience for me.....	1	2	3	4	5

6. Now, please think about the chablis you just tasted for the formal, weekend dinner party at home. For each set of words listed below, please place an "X" in the box that best describes how you feel.

VERY WARM GLOW	WARM GLOW	NEITHER WARM GLOW/ COLD FEELING	COLD FEELING	VERY COLD FEELING
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
VERY IMPRESSED	IMPRESSED	NEITHER IMPRESSED/ UNIMPRESSED	UNIMPRESSED	VERY UNIMPRESSED
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
VERY DELIGHTED	DELIGHTED	NEITHER DELIGHTED/ UPSET	UPSET	VERY UPSET
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
VERY PLEASED	PLEASED	NEITHER PLEASED/ DISPLEASED	DISPLEASED	VERY DISPLEASED
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
VERY CONTENTED	CONTENTED	NEITHER CONTENTED/ FRUSTRATED	FRUSTRATED	VERY FRUSTRATED
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

7. The following is a list of the most commonly sold domestic chablis wines in the Charlottesville area. Please rank order these brands into best-liked, second-best liked, and so on, to least liked. Remember, you must rank the brands according to how you would like them for a formal, weekend dinner party at home. Give the best-liked brand a 1, second-best liked a 2, and so on, to the end. Even if you are not familiar with a brand, please rank it anyway, thinking how it would compare to those brands you do know about.

_____ ALMADEN
 _____ ERNEST AND JULIO GALLO
 _____ INGLENOOK
 _____ PAUL MASSON
 _____ MONDAVI
 _____ SEBASTIANI
 _____ TAYLOR CALIFORNIA CELLARS

8. Overall, how concerned would you be with the evaluation of a wine for a formal, weekend dinner party at home? (Please circle the number of your answer)

- 1 - DEFINITELY NOT CONCERNED WITH EVALUATING WINE
- 2 - NOT TOO CONCERNED WITH EVALUATING WINE
- 3 - I DON'T KNOW IF I'M CONCERNED OR UNCONCERNED
- 4 - SOMEWHAT CONCERNED WITH EVALUATING WINE
- 5 - DEFINITELY CONCERNED WITH EVALUATING WINE

***** ABOUT YOU *****

We would now like to ask you a few questions about yourself. All responses will be kept strictly confidential. Please answer all the following questions.

1. What is your sex? (Please circle number of your answer)

- 1 - MALE
- 2 - FEMALE

2. What is your marital status? (Please circle number of your answer)

- 1 - NEVER MARRIED
- 2 - MARRIED
- 3 - DIVORCED
- 4 - SEPARATED
- 5 - WIDOWED

3. What is your present age? _____ YEARS OLD

4. How many children (under 18) live in your household?

_____ CHILDREN

5. What is your current occupational status? (Please circle number)

- 1 - EMPLOYED FULL-TIME
- 2 - EMPLOYED PART-TIME
- 3 - UNEMPLOYED
- 4 - RETIRED
- 5 - FULL-TIME HOMEMAKER
- 6 - FULL-TIME STUDENT WITH/WITHOUT A PART-TIME JOB

6. Please describe your present occupation. If unemployed or retired, please describe your previous occupation.

TITLE _____

KIND OF WORK _____

KIND OF BUSINESS _____

7. Approximately what was your total family income this past year, before taxes? (Please circle number of your answer)

- 1 - LESS THAN \$10,000
- 2 - \$10,000 TO \$19,999
- 3 - \$20,000 TO \$29,999
- 4 - \$30,000 TO \$39,999
- 5 - \$40,000 TO \$49,999
- 6 - \$50,000 OR MORE

8. What is the highest level of education that you have completed?

- 1 - NO FORMAL EDUCATION
- 2 - SOME GRADE SCHOOL
- 3 - COMPLETED GRADE SCHOOL
- 4 - SOME HIGH SCHOOL
- 5 - COMPLETED HIGH SCHOOL
- 6 - SOME COLLEGE
- 7 - COMPLETED COLLEGE (Specify Major) _____
- 8 - SOME GRADUATE WORK
- 9 - A GRADUATE DEGREE
(Specify degree and field) _____

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION IN THIS STUDY

APPENDIX B
EXPERIMENT SCRIPTS

TREATMENTS: HIGH SITUATIONAL INVOLVEMENT/HIGH BRAND EXPECTATIONS

(Tell everyone to sit somewhere so as to have an empty chair on all sides surrounding the seat they are in)

Thank you for volunteering for this marketing study. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

To assure quality judgments, which reflect your own, personal opinions about wine, we ask that you not speak with the other people in the room until the study is over.

First, we want to make sure you have a chance at the bottle of wine being given away today.

Please put your name on the piece of paper my assistant is passing around. We will then collect these for the drawing, following the study.

(All collected papers should be put into the bag)

Now we are going to distribute the questionnaire on wines.

Please read the front page but do not open the booklet.

(While handing out...)

Remember, don't open the questionnaire until instructed to do so.

There are several places in the questionnaire where you are asked to stop and wait for further instructions. These stop commands will always be on a separate page in the questionnaire. Be sure and stop when you read this command.

Please open the questionnaire and complete the questions until you see the first stop command.

(After first stop, read...)

There are many times during the day when you might serve wine at home. We would like for you to think of only one such occasion. Think about a formal, weekend dinner party at home.

You are having good friends and business associates over for a Saturday night dinner. Dinner is to be served in the dining room, and you have set the table with fine china, crystal, and silver. The candles are lit. You care about your company and want them to have a good impression of your hospitality.

We would now like for you to see one such dinner party where the guests, food, and wine are special. The tape you are about to see is not an advertisement per se, but it does use language and scenes you would expect to see in an ad. It is simply trying to show people as they really are in the home.

(Run video. After tape ends, read...)

As you could see, the wine being served with the meal in the tape was a chablis, produced in the U.S., i.e., a domestic chablis.

We want you to imagine yourself as hosting a weekend dinner party at home. "You" are the one serving the meal and choosing the wine for some special friends. You are serving chablis with a poultry dish, and are also serving soup, salad, vegetable and dessert, although the courses are light in texture and flavor.

So, from now on, always remember to think as if "you" are the one serving this wine.

Please proceed through the questionnaire, answering questions until you come to the next stop command. Always keep in mind that "you" are the host of a formal, weekend dinner party at home and are about to serve chablis to your guests.

Please continue to the next stop command.

(After all have stopped, read...)

Now, we want you to think about one, specific brand of chablis.

(Pull out bottle)

This is a 750 ml. size, about a fifth, bottle of Paul Masson premium chablis. It is priced as a premium white wine and is in the same price range as other brands of premium chablis. This wine is a corked, domestic chablis and is sold in most liquor and grocery stores here in Charlottesville.

Paul Masson wines have consistently won awards in wine competitions and are very well received by wine critics and knowledgeable consumers alike. This chablis is considered one of their best premium, blended wines. Experts consider this chablis to have a very good bouquet, well pronounced for a chablis wine. The wine is an excellent blend, resulting in a smooth and refined flavor. It goes very well with poultry, fish, and lighter meats. Paul Masson chablis is becoming the white wine

known for its exceptional quality and special appeal to discriminating palates.

Please answer the next questions now, some of which concern this Paul Masson brand. If this brand is the same one you had in mind for your favorite brand of chablis, that's OK. Just fill in the next question anyway, thinking of Paul Masson chablis again.

Remember! You are still imagining yourself as the host for a formal, weekend dinner party at home. Now, proceed to the next stop command.

(You begin opening and pouring wine. When all have stopped, read...)

Now we would like for you to taste this Paul Masson chablis, which is being considered for that formal dinner party. Please wait before tasting until I say to begin the taste test. It helps to follow a set procedure when tasting a wine.

(Distribute glasses)

The best way to sample and evaluate a wine is to follow the next few steps.

1. Raise the glass to the light, twirl it, examine it, and sniff for scent.
2. Sip the wine, slowly rolling it around with the tongue to reach all taste buds.
3. Swallow the wine and enjoy the aftertaste.
4. Slowly finish your wine as you answer the rest of the questions.

TREATMENTS: LOW SITUATIONAL INVOLVEMENT/LOW BRAND EXPECTATIONS

(Tell everyone to sit somewhere so as to have an empty chair on all sides surrounding the seat they are in)

Thank you for volunteering for this marketing study. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

To assure quality judgments, which reflect your own, personal opinions about wine, we ask that you not speak with the other people in the room until the study is over.

First, we want to make sure you have a chance at the bottle of wine being given away today.

Please put your name on the piece of paper my assistant is passing around. We will then collect these for the drawing, following the study.

(All collected papers should be put into the bag)

Now we are going to distribute the questionnaire on wines.

Please read the front page but do not open the booklet.

(While handing out...)

Remember, don't open the questionnaire until instructed to do so.

There are several places in the questionnaire where you are asked to stop and wait for further instructions. These stop commands will always be on a separate page in the questionnaire. Be sure and stop when you read this command.

Please open the questionnaire and complete the questions until you see the first stop command.

(After first stop, read...)

There are many times during the day when you might serve wine at home. We would like for you to think of only one such occasion. Think about an informal, weekday, supper at home.

Just imagine...Your family or you and your neighbor are sitting down to a casual supper during the week. Supper is in the kitchen and the meal is simple. You are serving fried chicken-- food everyone likes and is easy to prepare. You like to share a glass of wine with your spouse or neighbor without too much fuss.

We would now like for you to see one such supper where a typical family is eating. The tape you are about to see is not an advertisement per se, but it does use language and scenes you would expect to see in an ad. It is simply trying to show people as they really are in the home.

(Run video. After tape ends, read...)

As you could see, the wine being served with the meal in the tape was a chablis, produced in the U.S., i.e., a domestic chablis.

We want you to keep on imagining yourself as part of that family or as a neighbor having supper at home. "You" are the one serving the meal and choosing a wine for a casual glass with your spouse or friend. So, from now on, always remember to think as if "you" are the one serving the wine.

Please proceed through the questionnaire, answering questions until you come to the next stop command. Always keep in mind that "you" are part of the family or neighbor group having an informal, weekday supper at home, about to serve chablis. Please continue to the next stop command.

(After everyone has stopped, read...)

Now, we want you to think about one, specific brand of chablis.

(Pull out bottle)

This is a one liter, about a gallon and a half, bottle of Ernest and Julio Gallo chablis. It is priced as a popular priced white wine and is in the same price range as other standard white wines, although often discounted at grocery stores. This wine has a screw cap and is sold in all grocery and drug stores here in Charlottesville.

Gallo wines are mass produced and are very popular with the average wine drinker in the U.S. They are reliable wines from year to year. This chablis is considered to be Gallo's standard wine in their wine product line. It has a nice bouquet and is blended to lessen any "bite" or bitterness from the grapes used. It should be nice with many kinds of meat and poultry. A typical American wine drinker will probably like this Gallo product.

Please answer the next questions now, some of which concern this Gallo brand. If this brand is the same one you had in mind for your favorite brand of chablis, that's OK. Just fill in the next question anyway, thinking of Gallo again.

Remember! You are still imagining yourself as part of a family having an informal, weekday supper at home. Now, proceed to the next stop command.

(You begin opening and pouring wine. When all have stopped, read...)

Now we would like for you to taste this Gallo chablis, which is being considered for that formal dinner party. Please wait before tasting until I say to begin the taste test. It helps to follow a set procedure when tasting a wine.

(Distribute glasses)

The best way to sample and evaluate a wine is to follow the next few steps.

1. Raise the glass to the light, twirl it, examine it, and sniff for scent.
2. Sip the wine, slowly rolling it around with the tongue to reach all taste buds.
3. Swallow the wine and enjoy the aftertaste.
4. Slowly finish your wine as you answer the rest of the questions.

VITA

Claire Pera Bolfig was born in Memphis, Tennessee on July 29, 1949. She attended elementary and high school in Memphis, Tennessee, graduating from high school in 1967. The following September she entered St. Louis University in St. Louis, Missouri. In June 1971 she received a Bachelor of Science degree in Medical Technology. Following graduation, she was employed as a medical technologist and chemistry supervisor at hospitals in St. Louis, Missouri and Knoxville, Tennessee.

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