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Shopping Orientation and Mindsets: How Motivation Influences Consumer Information Processing During Shopping

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ABSTRACT

This research examines the cognitive procedures that underlie experiential versus task-focused shopping orientations. The authors propose that consumers with a task-focused shopping orientation and consumers with an experiential shopping orientation apply different cognitive procedures during shopping. Studies 1, 2, and 3 show that consumers with a task-focused shopping orientation are more likely to activate the cognitive procedures of an implemental mindset, whereas consumers with an experiential shopping orientation are more likely to activate the cognitive procedures of a deliberative mindset. Study 4 demonstrates a fit effect between activated cognitive procedures and shopping orientation. Activating a mindset that matches the shopping orientation increases the monetary value that consumers assign to a product. The studies extend previous research by linking shopping orientations to mindsets and by providing evidence for mindset fit. The findings suggest that marketers and retailers will benefit from addressing experiential and task-focused shoppers via the mindsets that underlie their shopping orientation. © 2013 Wiley Periodicals, Inc.

Research on the motivational orientations that underlie shopping behavior has a long history (Darden & Reynolds, 1971; Westbrook & Black, 1985). A basic distinction that has been applied repeatedly is the distinction between task-focused and experiential shopping orientations (Gupta & Kabadayi, 2010; Kaltcheva & Weitz, 2006; Liu, Chen, Melara, & Massara, 2008). Consumers with a task-focused shopping orientation view shopping as a task that must be completed, and they try to accomplish it as efficiently as possible. By contrast, consumers with an experiential shopping orientation seek stimulation during shopping and view shopping as an enjoyable task.

Previous research has found that shopping orientation is an important construct because it affects how consumers react to marketing stimuli (Baker & Wakefield, 2012; Büttner, Florack, & Göritz, in press; Kaltcheva & Weitz, 2006; van Rompay, Tanja-Dijkstra, Verhoeven, & van Es, 2012). However, this line of research is limited in two ways: First, it examined mainly one marketing instrument: store design and atmospherics (e.g., music or colors). Second, it focused on pleasure and arousal as processes that mediate the influence of atmospherics on customer behavior. For instance, Kaltcheva and Weitz (2006) showed that consumers with an experiential shopping orientation experience more pleasure in high-arousal environments, whereas consumers with a task-focused shopping orientation experience more pleasure in low-arousal environments; more pleasure resulted in higher approach intentions toward a retailer. In the same way, van Rompay et al. (2012) found that experiential shoppers prefer stores with arousing colors, whereas task-focused shoppers prefer spacious store layouts. Furthermore, Baker and Wakefield (2012) demonstrated that shopping orientation influences how consumer react to in-store crowding: task-focused shoppers experience more stress, which has negative consequences on patronage intentions. Recently, Büttner, Florack, and Göritz (in press) showed that shopping orientation

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already influences how consumers react toward advertising messages about a store environment: Task-focused shoppers preferred retailer claims that highlighted efficient shopping, whereas experiential shoppers preferred retailer claims that highlighted stimulation during shopping. Overall, these findings can be narrowed down to one key implication: Retailers and marketers should target experiential shoppers with arousing and stimulating store environments, whereas they should target task-focused shoppers with quiet and relaxing store environments.

However, this raises the question whether providing stimulation versus enabling efficiency is all that retailers and marketers could do to target experiential versus task-focused shoppers. Designing atmospherics and layout of stores is expensive and—except for online shopping—it is difficult to change, or even adapt to different types of shoppers. Moreover, marketing strategies are supposed to be more successful when they integrate several instruments, such as store design and promotions, rather than focusing on only one instrument. Thus, the present research examines an alternative route for addressing customers according to their shopping orientation: the set of cognitive procedures that consumers activate during shopping. If experiential and task-focused shoppers differ in the cognitive procedures they activate during shopping, retailers could match instruments—for instance, promotions, personal selling techniques, or features of the store other than atmospherics—to these cognitive procedures. This would increase the range of options that retailers can use to address their customers' shopping orientation.

The idea is based on research on deliberative and implemental mindsets (Gollwitzer, 2012; Gollwitzer, Heckhausen, & Steller, 1990). In a deliberative mindset, consumers' information processing is tuned toward evaluating the desirability and feasibility of options; an implemental mindset, by contrast, facilitates planning and implementation. Recent studies demonstrated that consumers apply different mindsets during shopping and, most important, these mindsets affect the success of persuasion techniques such as promotions or personal selling (Cheema & Patrick, 2008; Dhar, Huber, & Khan, 2007; Lee & Ariely, 2006; Xu & Wyer, 2007). Lee and Ariely (2006), for instance, suggest that conditional coupons elicit higher spending when consumers are in a deliberative mindset than when they are in an implemental mindset. Dhar, Huber, and Khan (2007) demonstrated the importance of considering mindsets during personal selling: An implemental mindset increases the purchase likelihood for products that were directly offered to consumers. In the light of these results, it is surprising that previous research has ignored the question whether consumers who differ in shopping orientation differ in the mindset they activate during shopping.

The present research examines the proposition that experiential shoppers are more likely to activate a deliberative mindset, whereas task-focused shoppers are more likely to activate an implemental mindset. Furthermore, it demonstrates that activating a mindset that fits a consumers' shopping orientation increases consumers' willingness to pay. The research contributes to the literature in two ways. First, it reveals differences in information processing between an experiential and a task-focused shopping orientation. Second, the results on mindset fit suggest that marketers and retailers can benefit from addressing their customers via the mindset that underlies their shopping orientation.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Shopping Orientation

Previous research has identified a number of different motives for why consumers go shopping (e.g., Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Ganesh, Reynolds, & Luckett, 2007; Westbrook & Black, 1985). These different shopping motives, such as choice optimization or stimulation, have been narrowed down to task-focused and experiential orientations (e.g., Gupta & Kabadayi, 2010; Kaltcheva & Weitz, 2006). These motivational orientations have been linked to value assessments of shopping trips (Babin & Attaway, 2000; Babin, Darden, & Griffin, 1994): When shopping under an experiential orientation, consumers seek to maximize the hedonic shopping value, for instance, by being entertained in a stimulating store environment; when shopping under a task-focused orientation, they seek to maximize their utilitarian shopping value by shopping efficiently. Within a cognitive approach to motivation, shopping orientation can be understood as a context-specific motivational orientation driven by consumers' process goals (cf. Van Osselaer et al., 2005). In the context of shopping, a process goal refers to *how* to perform the activity of shopping; it is not necessarily equal to the focal goal of buying something (Kaltcheva & Weitz, 2006). For example, consumers with a task-focused shopping orientation may pursue the focal goal of purchasing new shoes differently than consumers with an experiential shopping orientation may pursue the very same focal goal. A consumer with a task-focused shopping orientation may focus on the relevant product, collect information, and finish the decision process as quickly and efficiently as possible. By contrast, a consumer with an experiential shopping orientation may derive value from browsing through products and, hence, be more open to information that is irrelevant to his or her focal goal.

Situational features as well as interindividual differences may influence which shopping orientation is active. For example, browsing in a stimulating store environment may elicit a more experiential orientation than completing one's grocery shopping in an uninspiring store (Childers, Carr, Peck, & Carson, 2001). Furthermore, previous research has found

interindividual differences in consumers' chronic shopping orientation: Some consumers are more likely to show an experiential shopping orientation, whereas others are more likely to show a task-focused shopping orientation (Büttner, Florack, & Göritz, in press; Ganesh, Reynolds, & Luckett, 2007; Westbrook & Black, 1985). Taken together, the evidence suggests that a consumer's shopping orientation depends on the interplay between his or her chronic shopping orientation and features of the situation. Normally, consumers should activate a shopping orientation that corresponds to their chronic shopping orientation whenever they are confronted with a shopping situation. If, however, certain features of the shopping situation highlight task-focused or experiential aspects of shopping, these features may activate a corresponding situational shopping orientation and override a consumer's chronic shopping orientation. Recent findings from Kaltcheva, Patino, and Chebat (2011) support these assumptions: In normal store environments, consumers activated a self-concept that was close to their typical self-concept; by contrast, extraordinary environments elicited a more atypical self-concept.

Deliberative and Implemental Mindsets

According to goal systems theory (Kruglanski et al., 2002), activating a goal also activates the cognitive procedures for accomplishing the goal. Thus, the process goals that are related to a task-focused versus experiential shopping orientation can be assumed to activate different cognitive and behavioral procedures during shopping. But which types of cognitive procedures are linked to a task-focused versus experiential shopping orientation?

In terms of the mindset theory of action phases (Gollwitzer, 2012; Gollwitzer, Heckhausen, & Steller, 1990), the cognitive procedures that match the process goals of a task-focused shopping orientation and those that match the process goals of an experiential shopping orientation are comparable to different mindsets activated in different action phases. Mindsets refer to particular sets of activated cognitive procedures, which result in particular ways of processing information. A core assumption of the mindset theory of action phases is that the currently activated mindset is contingent upon the unique tasks to be solved in an action phase. A fundamental shift in mindset occurs when people have made a decision about which goal to pursue: At this point, they switch from the predecisional phase (goal setting) to the preactional phase (goal striving). The theory assumes that individuals in a predecisional phase activate a deliberative mindset, which helps them to weigh the pros and cons of decision alternatives and to assess whether options are desirable or not. By contrast, individuals who have already made a decision (i.e., who are in the preactional phase) are supposed to activate an implemental mindset, which helps in initiating action and applying instruments to implement the goal at hand. Many studies have shown differences in the information processing of individuals with deliberative and implemental mindsets (for an overview, see Gollwitzer, 2012). For instance, individuals' information processing is biased toward producing and recalling mindset-congruent thoughts (Gollwitzer, Heckhausen, & Steller, 1990; Heckhausen & Gollwitzer, 1987). Furthermore, individuals in a deliberative mindset pay more attention to incidental information (Fujita, Gollwitzer, & Oettingen, 2007) and have a larger memory span (Heckhausen & Gollwitzer, 1987) than individuals in an implemental mindset.

Previous research has demonstrated that consumers shop with a deliberative or implemental mindset depending on the phase of the shopping process: Consumers have a deliberative mindset in earlier stages of a shopping trip when they think about whether to buy something and which product to buy; once these decisions have been made, they switch to an implemental mindset (Dhar, Huber, & Khan, 2007; Lee & Ariely, 2006; Xu & Wyer, 2007). The central argument of the present research is that it is not only the phase of the shopping process that influences consumers' mindset, but also the way in which consumers prefer to shop, that is, their shopping orientation. Consumers with an experiential shopping orientation seek stimulation in the store, for instance by browsing around and discovering and evaluating new products. Hence, their information processing should be tuned toward thinking about wishes and desires, deliberating about the pros and cons of products, and evaluating whether offers are interesting to them. Thus, they should be more likely to shop in a deliberative mindset. By contrast, task-focused shoppers will make their decisions as early as possible in the shopping process (e.g., before going to a store) and minimize the time they spend with decisions in the store. As a consequence, their information processing should be tuned toward realizing their shopping; for instance by planning which stores to visit, thinking about where to find products in the stores, and thinking about what to do when problems occur such as not finding the right product. Thus, they should be more likely to shop in an implemental mindset.

H1: Consumers with an experiential shopping orientation are more likely to activate a deliberative mindset in a shopping context compared to consumers with a task-focused shopping orientation.

H2: Consumers with a task-focused shopping motivation are more likely to activate an implemental mindset in a shopping context compared to consumers with an experiential shopping orientation.

The effects of shopping orientation on mindset should be independent of whether the shopping orientation that is active in the current situation reflects

the chronic shopping orientation or is activated by features of the particular situation. For instance, a consumer with a chronic experiential shopping orientation might normally shop in a deliberative mindset. If, however, a situation that highlights task-focused aspects of shopping (e.g., time pressure) overrides the consumer's chronic experiential shopping orientation and results into a task-focused shopping orientation, the same consumer might shop in an implemental mindset in this particular situation.

Fit between Shopping Orientation and Mindset

Even if consumers with a task-focused and consumers with an experiential shopping orientation usually activate different mindsets, they are not expected to always accomplish a shopping task with the mindset that fits their shopping orientation. Indeed, research has demonstrated that mindsets can be activated by various features of the shopping situation, such as initial purchases (Dhar, Huber, & Khan, 2007), price negotiations (Chandran & Morwitz, 2005), or stage of the shopping process (Lee & Ariely, 2006). Also, a central feature of mindsets is that they often continue to be active when the task that activated the mindset is finished (Bayer & Gollwitzer, 2005; Chandran & Morwitz, 2005). Hence, the mindset that is active in a shopping context may or may not fit the mindset that corresponds to a consumer's shopping orientation.

But what are the consequences of a mindset fit or nonfit in shopping contexts? The present research proposes that consumers react more favorably to in-store stimuli when the activated mindset fits their shopping orientation than when it does not fit their shopping orientation. This hypothesis is informed by research on regulatory fit theory. Regulatory fit theory proposes that regulatory fit occurs when the manner in which individuals integrate information, form judgments, evaluate, and choose matches the individual's current motivational orientation; this fit elicits a state of "feeling right" (Higgins, 2002; Lee & Higgins, 2009). By contrast, regulatory fit theory proposes that a feeling of wrongness occurs when the manner in which individuals integrate information, form judgments, evaluate, and choose does not match their current motivational orientation. Regulatory fit and the resulting feeling of rightness (in contrast to regulatory nonfit and a feeling of wrongness) have been shown to increase the power of persuasive appeals and the monetary value of choice alternatives (Avnet & Higgins, 2003; Florack & Scarabis, 2006; Higgins, Idson, Freitas, Spiegel, & Molden, 2003). Higgins et al. (2003, Study 1), for instance, found that consumers assigned a higher price to a product if they were able to choose the product with a strategy that fit their regulatory focus than if they applied a strategy that did not fit their regulatory focus. Recent research has argued that the underlying process is based on increased engagement with a task, which is supposed to intensify positive reactions toward positive targets (Lee, Keller, & Sternthal, 2010).

The present research proposes that regulatory fit also occurs between shopping orientation and mindsets. Thus, consumers can be assumed to "feel right" when the activated cognitive procedures (i.e., the mindsets) fit their shopping orientation. In this case, the activated mindset supports the tasks that a consumer is about to pursue in a shopping situation. For instance, if a deliberative mindset is activated for a consumer with an experiential shopping orientation in a shopping situation, the activated cognitive procedures support the consumer in pursuing his or her task, that is, to evaluate and compare different products. Thus, in the case of fit, the shopping task will be experienced as more fluent and the consumer will experience a feeling of rightness. By contrast, a nonfit between mindset and shopping orientation should elicit a feeling of wrongness: The activated cognitive procedures hinder the consumer in accomplishing the shopping task in the way he or she wants. For instance, if a deliberative mindset is active with a consumer in a task-focused shopping orientation, the cognitive procedures foster evaluating different products. This will disrupt the original goal to implement an action as efficiently as possible and the consumer is expected to "feel wrong."

The fit and the resulting feeling of rightness should intensify positive reactions toward appealing products that consumers encounter during shopping (c.f. Lee, Keller, & Sternthal, 2010); as a consequence, consumers who experience fit between shopping orientation and mindset should assign a higher monetary value to appealing products than consumers who experience nonfit (c.f. Higgins et al., 2003).

H3: Consumers with a task-focused shopping orientation assign a higher monetary value to appealing products when in an implemental mindset than when in a deliberative mindset.

H4: Consumers with an experiential shopping orientation assign a higher monetary value to appealing products when in a deliberative mindset than when in an implemental mindset.

Testing these hypotheses has three objectives. First, demonstrating these fit effects would provide further support for the assumption that a task-focused shopping orientation corresponds to an implemental mindset, and that an experiential shopping orientation corresponds to a deliberative mindset. Second, such a fit would demonstrate that consumer judgments (in this case, the monetary value ascribed to a product) can be influenced by addressing consumers' shopping orientation. This can provide new directions for how retailers and marketers can target their customers: by addressing the mindset that underlies their shopping

orientation. Finally, demonstrating such a mindset fit contributes to the literature on regulatory fit: Higgins et al. (2003) speculated about fit effects between motivational orientations and mindsets, but this type of fit effect has never been tested.

Overview of the Studies

Four studies examined these hypotheses. Studies 1, 2, and 3 examined the basic assumption that consumers with an experiential shopping orientation activate a deliberative mindset in a shopping context, whereas consumers with a task-focused shopping orientation activate an implemental mindset. In Study 1, consumers' chronic shopping orientation and their information processing in a shopping scenario were measured. In Studies 2 and 3, consumers' situational shopping orientation was manipulated and indicators of a deliberative versus an implemental mindset were assessed. In Study 2, the indicator was participants' preference for tasks that were congruent with either a deliberative or an implemental mindset. In Study 3, the indicator was the production of mindset-congruent thoughts. Study 4 examined whether a fit effect exists between shopping orientation and active mindset. Participants' mindset was manipulated so that it either fit their chronic shopping orientation or not; then, it was tested whether a fit between chronic shopping orientation and active mindset increased the monetary value that consumers assign to an attractive product.

STUDY 1

This study examined the basic proposition that consumers' chronic shopping orientation influences which mindset is dominant in a shopping situation. It was hypothesized that consumers with an experiential shopping orientation activate a deliberative mindset during shopping. By contrast, consumers with a task-focused orientation should activate an implemental mindset. To test these hypotheses, participants' chronic shopping orientation was assessed and then participants were asked to answer questions about what they would think and how they would act in a shopping scenario. According to mindset theory (Gollwitzer, 2012) thoughts about which alternative to choose indicate a deliberative mindset, whereas thoughts about planning and carrying out the action indicate an implemental mindset. Thus, the more experiential the shopping orientation, (a) the more consumers should think about which products to buy and (b) the less they should think about planning their shopping trip. As one might argue that whether consumers focus more on deciding among different products or on carrying out their shopping plan is driven by consumers' involvement with the product category (Bloch, Ridgway, & Sherrell, 1989), involvement was included as a control variable.

Method

Participants. An interviewer approached students on campus and asked them to fill out a questionnaire in exchange for a chocolate bar. One hundred five participants agreed to participate. After excluding nine participants who did not answer all items in the questionnaire, 96 participants remained in the final sample (48% women; $M_{age} = 22.7$ years, $SD = 2.7$).

Procedure and Measures. Chronic shopping orientation was assessed by the 7-item Chronic Shopping Orientation (CSO) scale (Büttner, Florack, & Göritz, in press). An average CSO score was calculated, with low levels indicating a chronic task-focused shopping orientation and high levels indicating a chronic experiential shopping orientation ($1 = task\text{-}focused$, $7 = experiential$; $\alpha = 0.87$; $M = 3.52$, $SD = 1.28$).

After participants completed the CSO items, they read a shopping scenario. In detail, they were asked to imagine that they went on a shopping trip to purchase a pair of trousers. To increase immersion in the scenario, they were asked to write down a few sentences describing what this shopping trip would look like. Participants then indicated according to eight statements what they would think and how they would act during the shopping trip (see Table 1). Four items referred to evaluating trousers and making a decision about which pair to buy (deliberative processing) and four items referred to planning and carrying out the shopping trip (implemental processing). For each item, participants indicated on a 7-point rating scale from 1 (*does not apply at all*) to 7 (*fully applies*) whether the statement described the shopping trip they had imagined. A principal components analysis of the items showed that the two components are clearly distinct. The analysis yielded two factors (criterion: eigenvalue > 1), which explained 38.7% and 23.2% of the variance in the components, respectively. The factor loadings (Varimax rotation) were as expected (Table 1). Hence, the items were averaged to form an index of *deliberative processing* ($\alpha = 0.82$) and of *implemental processing* ($\alpha = 0.74$). The measures were correlated at $r = -0.24$, $p = 0.02$. Finally, involvement with fashion was assessed as a control variable with a 7-point rating item ("How important is fashion to you?"; $1 =$ *not at all important,* $7 =$ *very important*).

Results and Discussion

Participants' gender did not influence the results reported below. To test whether consumers with an experiential shopping orientation activate a deliberative mindset and consumers with a task-focused shopping orientation activate an implemental mindset in shopping contexts, the correlations between chronic shopping orientation and the indicators of deliberative processing and implemental processing were analyzed.

Table 1. Study 1—Items on Information Processing during Shopping with Factor Loadings Based on Principal Components Analysis ($N = 96$).

	Factor 1	Factor 2
Deliberative Processing		
When I find a nice pair of trousers, I deliberate a long time about whether I should buy them or not.	**0.86**	0.03
I probably would not decide for a long time which pair of trousers I would actually choose.	**0.88**	− 0.12
I would be very unsure which pair of trousers I should buy.	**0.74**	− 0.11
I would visit a number of stores before choosing a pair of trousers.	**0.71**	− 0.20
Implemental Processing		
I pay attention to how to get to the right stores as quickly as possible.	− 0.07	**0.89**
I think about how to get a pair of trousers that I like as quickly as possible.	0.07	**0.78**
I decide in advance which stores I would like to go to.	− 0.28	**0.66**
Right from the start, I would have a clear idea of what the pair of trousers should look like.	− 0.15	**0.61**

Note: Extraction criterion: eigenvalue > 1; Varimax rotation; variance explained: 38.7% (Factor 1) and 23.2% (Factor 2).

One-tailed tests were used for all directional hypotheses in this article.

As expected, chronic shopping orientation was positively correlated with deliberative processing (H1), $r = 0.43$, $p < 0.001$, and was negatively correlated with implemental processing (H2), $r = -0.52$, $p < 0.001$. The control variable involvement with fashion was correlated positively with chronic shopping orientation, $r = 0.37$, $p < 0.001$, but was not correlated with implemental, $r = 0.09$, $p = 0.52$, or with deliberative processing, $r = -0.07$, $p = 0.37$. Hence, involvement with fashion was not responsible for the relationship between chronic shopping orientation and information processing.

The results from Study 1 provide support for the assumption that chronic shopping orientation is associated with the activation of implemental and deliberative mindsets in shopping contexts. The more task-focused consumers' chronic shopping orientation, the more they engaged in implemental processing. In addition, the more experiential consumers' chronic shopping orientation, the more they engaged in deliberative processing. Differences in involvement with fashion did not account for the differences in information processing.

STUDY 2

Study 1 applied a correlational design and measured mindsets as reported information processing in a shopping scenario. To strengthen the findings of Study 1, Study 2 applied an experimental design and manipulated participants' situational shopping orientation instead of measuring their chronic shopping orientation. As argued above, the effects of shopping orientation on mindsets should be independent of whether shopping orientation in the situation at hand reflects the chronic shopping orientation or is influenced by situational factors. In addition, Study 2 examined whether the differences in information processing between experiential and task-focused shoppers really qualify as a mindset effect. For this, the study tested whether a well-established feature of mindsets applies: that they carry over to unrelated tasks (e.g., Bayer & Gollwitzer, 2005; Gollwitzer, Heckhausen, & Steller, 1990). First, an experiential versus a task-focused shopping orientation was activated; then, consumers' preferences for mindset-congruent tasks were assessed in a context that was unrelated to the context in which the mindsets were activated. The expectation was that participants would prefer mindset-congruent tasks because mindsets "tune" the cognitive system toward mindset-congruent information processing (e.g., Gollwitzer, Heckhausen, & Steller, 1990). As an experiential shopping orientation was assumed to activate a deliberative mindset, it was expected that consumers with an experiential shopping orientation prefer tasks that refer to evaluating alternatives; and as a task-focused shopping orientation was assumed to activate an implemental mindset, it was expected that consumers with a task-focused shopping orientation prefer tasks that refer to planning and implementing actions.

Method

Participants and Design. The hypotheses were tested in a between-subjects design with shopping orientation as the experimental factor (experiential vs. task focused). The study was set up as a Web experiment and participants were recruited from an online access panel. One hundred eighty-one participants between 20 and 55 years of age completed the study (61% women; $M_{age} = 40.2$ years, $SD = 10.1$).

Procedure and Measures. To manipulate participants' shopping orientation, they were randomly assigned to either an experiential ($n = 92$) or a task-focused scenario ($n = 89$). The experiential scenario asked participants to imagine that they have some time left until an appointment with a friend. While waiting, they encounter an interesting store and decide to browse in this store. The task-focused scenario asked participants to imagine that they were shopping for a pair of trousers for a job interview the next day and that the stores were about to close in an hour. To increase immersion in the scenarios, participants were asked to

write a few sentences on the imagined shopping trip. On the next page, participants' shopping orientation in the scenario was assessed as a manipulation check. For this, the seven items from the CSO scale (Büttner, Florack, & Göritz, in press) were reworded so that they referred to the imagined shopping trip (e.g., "I would have looked for entertainment."). Participants were asked to indicate how much the items applied to the shopping trip they had imagined. The items were aggregated to form a measure of situational shopping orientation ($1 = \textit{task-focused}$, $7 = \textit{experiential}$; $\alpha = 0.90$; $M = 3.41$, $SD = 1.62$).

On the next page, the dependent variable was assessed: whether participants preferred tasks that were either congruent with a deliberative mindset, or congruent with an implemental mindset. For nine topics (e.g., painting your apartment, applying for a new job), participants could choose between two alternative tasks that reflected a deliberative-congruent and an implemental-congruent alternative, respectively. For "painting your apartment," for instance, the deliberative task alternative was "thinking about whether you should paint your apartment or not" and the implemental task alternative was "planning how you would act when painting your apartment" (a complete list of the topics and alternative tasks is in Appendix A). Hence, participants were confronted with nine decisions in which they could choose between a deliberative and an implemental task alternative. These nine decisions were chosen to reflect a broad range of topics. To create a decision situation with real consequences, participants were told that for each topic, they should opt for the alternative that they would prefer to work on in the course of this study. On the next page, one of the nine topics would randomly be drawn, and participants would be able to work on the task they had chosen for this topic.[1]

The choice measure was defined as the number of times the implemental alternative was chosen over the deliberative alternative in the nine decisions. For instance, a score of 7 indicates that a participant chose the implemental task alternative for seven out of the nine decisions. Lower values indicate a preference for deliberative-congruent tasks; higher values indicate a preference for implemental-congruent tasks.

Results and Discussion

The manipulation of the shopping orientation was successful: Participants who read the experiential scenario indicated a more experiential shopping orientation ($M = 4.77$, $SD = 0.91$) during the imagined shopping trip than participants who read the task-focused scenario ($M = 2.00$, $SD = 0.80$), $t(179) = 21.70$, $p < 0.001$, $d = 3.23$.

To test whether consumers with an experiential shopping orientation prefer tasks that are congruent with a deliberative mindset (i.e., evaluating) and that consumers with a task-focused shopping orientation prefer tasks that are congruent with an implemental mindset (i.e., planning), the preference for implemental (vs. deliberative) tasks over the nine decisions was compared. The data supported H1 and H2: Participants in the task-focused shopping orientation condition chose the implemental task over the deliberative task more often ($M = 4.61$, $SD = 1.89$) than participants in the experiential shopping orientation condition ($M = 3.86$, $SD = 1.71$), $t(179) = 2.79$, $p = 0.003$, $d = 0.42$. Participants' gender did not influence the results.

Study 2 provides further support for the assumption that an experiential shopping orientation corresponds to a deliberative mindset and that a task-focused shopping orientation corresponds to an implemental mindset. When participants had imagined themselves in an experiential shopping scenario, they preferred tasks that were congruent with a deliberative mindset, whereas they preferred tasks that were congruent with an implemental mindset after they had imagined themselves in a task-focused shopping situation. These differences in preference emerged for tasks that were unrelated to the shopping scenario. This is in line with the repeated finding that mindsets carry over from the task that activated the mindset to unrelated tasks (e.g., Bayer & Gollwitzer, 2005).

An alternative explanation for the findings might be that the preference for deliberative versus implemental tasks is not driven by the activation of a corresponding mindset, but that thinking about an experiential versus a task-focused shopping scenario influences the attractiveness of the following tasks by altering participants' mood. As an experiential shopping orientation is linked to the fun aspects of shopping (Babin, Darden, & Griffin, 1994), thinking about an experiential shopping scenario might lead to a more positive mood than thinking about a task-focused shopping scenario. Thus, participants in the task-focused shopping scenario might have a preference for tasks that help in repairing their mood (Josephson, Singer, & Salovey, 1996). As previous research on mindsets has found that thinking about implementing a plan may bring forth a better mood than deliberating about the pros and cons of a decision (Taylor & Gollwitzer, 1995), implemental tasks might appear as more attractive to consumers who had thought about a task-focused scenario. Study 3 addressed this alternative explanation by controlling for mood after the manipulation of participants' shopping orientation.

STUDY 3

The preceding study found that consumers with an experiential shopping orientation preferred tasks

[1] At the end of the study, all participants were able to work on either the implemental or the deliberative task alternative for the topic "painting your apartment" (depending on their choice). This part was included only because it had been announced and is not relevant to the present research.

that were congruent with a deliberative mindset, whereas consumers with a task-focused shopping orientation preferred tasks that were congruent with an implemental mindset. Study 3 applied a more direct test of the assumed link between shopping orientation and mindset by assessing the use of deliberative versus implemental cognitive procedures in an unrelated task. Following a paradigm used by Gollwitzer, Heckhausen, and Steller (1990), the study examined whether activating an experiential versus a task-focused shopping orientation leads to applying the cognitive procedures of a deliberative versus an implemental mindset in constructing an unrelated story. The cognitive procedures that were applied should be reflected in the number of deliberative versus implemental episodes in the story. The rationale for this paradigm is the assumption that the cognitive procedures of an activated mindset are still pending, and that individuals apply these pending cognitive procedures when constructing a story (Gollwitzer, Heckhausen, & Steller, 1990).

The same scenarios as in Study 2 were used for activating shopping orientation. To test the effects on constructing a story, Study 3 included the task applied by Gollwitzer, Heckhausen, and Steller (1990) where participants were asked to continue a fairy tale. The fairy tale instead of a more shopping-related topic was used for two reasons that would strengthen the conclusion that a positive result really qualifies as a mindset effect. First, demonstrating that the mindset carries over from thinking about a shopping situation (the experimental manipulation) to a completely unrelated topic provides a strong test of the carry-over effect, which is a central feature of mindsets (Bayer & Gollwitzer, 2005). Second, this setting replicates the original study by Gollwitzer, Heckhausen, and Steller (1990), except that the present study manipulated shopping orientation, whereas the original study manipulated mindsets directly.

According to the proposed link between shopping orientation and mindsets, participants with an experiential shopping orientation should continue the fairy tale in deliberative episodes, whereas participants with a task-focused shopping orientation should continue the fairy tale in implemental actions. In addition, the study checked for the alternative explanation that the effect is driven by differences in mood that might be induced by the different shopping orientations.

Method

Participants and Design. The study applied a between-subjects design with shopping orientation as the experimental factor (experiential vs. task focused). Fifty-three participants completed the study in a laboratory session in return for course credit. Three participants were removed based on probing after the study: Two participants were already familiar with the task, and one participant had guessed the intention of the study. The final sample consisted of 50 students (41 women; $M_{age} = 23.7$ years, $SD = 3.0$).

Procedure and Measures. First, a scenario manipulated participants' shopping orientation. Participants were randomly assigned to either the experiential ($n = 24$) or the task-focused condition ($n = 26$). The two scenarios were the same as in Study 2. To increase their immersion in the scenario, participants were asked to write a few sentences on the imagined shopping trip. On the next page, participants' situational shopping orientation in the scenario was assessed as a manipulation check using the same seven items as in Study 2 ($\alpha = 0.95$, $M = 3.68$, $SD = 1.91$). Next, participants' current mood was assessed using four adjectives (good, bad, pleased, and uncomfortable) with 7-point rating scales. The ratings were aggregated into a measure of mood with higher values reflecting a more positive mood ($\alpha = 0.85$, $M = 5.52$, $SD = 1.07$)

The part for assessing mindset followed the procedure and instructions applied by Gollwitzer, Heckhausen, and Steller (1990). Participants were told that they would read a fairy tale that would cease at a certain point in the plot. Their task was to continue the fairy tale in three sentences. In line with the instructions of the study by Gollwitzer, Heckhausen, and Steller (1990), the instructions highlighted that they should follow their imagination and should not hesitate in writing their own creative ideas and thoughts, as unusual as they might be. Moreover, participants were told that the story did not need to have an end. The fairy-tale task was introduced as a creativity test. To enhance the credibility of this cover story, participants were asked to rate their perceived degree of creativity on a 7-point rating scale at the beginning of the study. Then, they read the first of the fairy tales used by Gollwitzer, Heckhausen, and Steller (1990). The fairy tale was about a king who was going to war. The king had a daughter and did not know whom to entrust her while being away. The description ceased with "The king..." and participants should continue the fairy tale.

Fairy Tale. A rater who was blind to the experimental conditions of the participants coded the stories using two mutually exclusive categories. An episode was scored as *deliberative* when the subject of the sentence (e.g., the king or the daughter) deliberated or turned to others for advice. An episode was scored as *implemental* when the subject of the sentence planned actions or acted. If an episode could not be related to deliberative or implemental, it was not coded and therefore not counted. Coding examples are in Appendix B. For each participant, the deliberative and implemental episodes were counted. In case a participant reported more than three sentences, the coder only analyzed the first three sentences. Thus, the maximum sum for the deliberative and the implemental episodes was three. To assess inter-rater reliability, a second coder reanalyzed the

episodes that had been coded as deliberative or implemental. The coder was blind to the original coding of the episodes. Both coders agreed on 91% of the episodes, indicating high inter-rater reliability. Inconsistencies were resolved by the first author, who was blind to the experimental conditions of the participants.

Results and Discussion

Gender had no effect on the results. The manipulation of shopping orientation was successful: Participants who read the experiential scenario indicated a more experiential shopping orientation ($M = 5.46, SD = 0.90$) than participants who read the task-focused scenario ($M = 2.04$, $SD = 0.77$), $t(48) = 14.40$, $p < 0.001$, $d = 4.09$.

To test whether consumers with an experiential shopping orientation activate a deliberative mindset whereas consumers with a task-focused shopping orientation activate an implemental mindset, the number of deliberative and of implemental episodes in the fairy tale were analyzed. Consumers with an experiential shopping orientation mentioned more deliberative episodes ($M = 1.33$, $SD = 0.82$) than consumers with a task-focused shopping orientation ($M = 0.77$, $SD = 0.95$), $t(48) = 2.24$, $p = 0.015$, $d = 0.63$. By contrast, consumers with a task-focused shopping orientation mentioned more implemental episodes ($M = 1.88$, $SD = 0.91$) than consumers with an experiential shopping orientation ($M = 1.25, SD = 0.85$), $t(48) = 2.55, p = 0.007$, $d = 0.72$. These findings support H1 and H2.

The difference in participants' mood between the experiential ($M = 5.78$, $SD = 0.97$) and the task-focused condition ($M = 5.27$, $SD = 1.14$) was only marginally significant, $t(48) = 1.73, p = 0.09$. More importantly, mood did not correlate with the dependent variables, neither with number of deliberative episodes, $r = -0.02$, $p = 0.91$, nor with number of implemental episodes, $r = 0.09$, $p = 0.54$. These findings rule out that differences in mood due to shopping orientation are responsible for whether participants activate a deliberative or an implemental mindset.

The results further support the assumption that an experiential shopping orientation activates a deliberative mindset, whereas a task-focused shopping orientation activates an implemental mindset. Participants with an experiential shopping orientation mentioned more deliberative episodes in the fairy tale than participants with a task-focused shopping orientation; participants with a task-focused shopping orientation mentioned more implemental episodes than participants with an experiential orientation. This is in line with the carry-over effect found in mindset research (e.g., Bayer & Gollwitzer, 2005) and in Study 2. The findings complement the findings of Study 2 by applying a classic (Gollwitzer, Heckhausen, & Steller, 1990) and more direct measure of mindsets (i.e., the thoughts that participants produce when writing a story). Moreover, the findings from the present study rule out the alternative explanation that applying the cognitive procedures of a deliberative versus an implemental mindset is driven by differences in mood caused by the shopping scenarios.

STUDY 4

Studies 1, 2, and 3 provide support for the assumption that consumers with an experiential shopping orientation more readily activate a deliberative mindset in a shopping situation, whereas consumers with a task-focused orientation more readily activate an implemental mindset. The goal of Study 4 was to extend these findings by establishing a fit effect between shopping orientation and mindset. It was assumed that consumers experience regulatory fit when a mindset is activated that sustains their shopping orientation; they should experience nonfit when the activated mindset disrupts their shopping orientation. Fit and nonfit are supposed to influence consumers' evaluation of products: The hypothesis was that consumers attribute a higher monetary value to an appealing product in the two fit conditions (deliberative mindset and experiential orientation; implemental mindset and task-focused orientation) than in the two nonfit conditions (deliberative mindset and task-focused orientation; implemental mindset and experiential orientation). This assumption was tested in an experiment in which consumers' chronic shopping orientation was measured, whereas mindset (deliberative vs. implemental) was manipulated by a procedure from mindset research (Dhar, Huber, & Khan, 2007).

Method

Participants and Design. The study applied a 2 (chronic shopping orientation: task-focused vs. experiential) × 2 (mindset: deliberative vs. implemental) between-subjects design. Chronic shopping orientation was a measured variable, whereas mindset was manipulated. The study was set up as a Web experiment. One hundred forty-five male participants from an online panel completed all parts of the study. Five participants were excluded because they did not indicate a realistic price they were willing to pay for the offered product. Thus, 140 participants were included in the final sample ($M_{age} = 39.1$ years, $SD = 13.1$).

Procedure and Measures. Chronic shopping orientation was measured with the CSO scale (Büttner, Florack, & Göritz, in press) and an average CSO score was calculated (1 = *task-focused*, 7 = *experiential*; $\alpha = 0.83$; $M = 3.41$, $SD = 1.08$). After participants had completed the CSO scale, they were randomly assigned to either the deliberative ($n = 66$) or the implemental mindset condition ($n = 74$). The mindset was manipulated by a task employed by Dhar, Huber, and Khan (2007). In the *deliberative mindset condition*,

participants listed three arguments in favor of buying a new car and three arguments against buying a new car. The equal number of pros and cons should ensure that participants' attitudes were not systematically biased in a positive or a negative direction. In the *implemental mindset condition*, participants imagined they were buying a new car and listed six steps that were necessary when buying a new car. The next part of the study was introduced as unrelated questions on consumer behavior in mundane purchasing contexts. Participants were asked to imagine themselves on a Saturday shopping trip. To enhance their immersion in the scenario, they were told to close their eyes for a moment while thinking about the shopping trip. Subsequently, participants read that during their shopping trip, they passed a chocolate store that offered various sorts of chocolate at a booth in front of the store. The text included a picture of an upscale chocolate store and a picture of different high-quality chocolate bars without reference to any brand. As a measure of the monetary value, participants were asked how much (in EUR) they would be willing to pay for 100 grams of the chocolate shown in the picture.

Results and Discussion

Based on the assumption that a deliberative mindset matches an experiential shopping orientation and an implemental mindset a task-focused shopping orientation, experiential shoppers should be willing to pay a higher price for the product when in a deliberative mindset than when in an implemental mindset. Task-focused shoppers, by contrast, should be willing to pay a higher price when in an implemental mindset than when in a deliberative mindset.

A multiple regression analysis tested the effect of the fit between mindset and shopping orientation on the willingness to pay for the offered product. Chronic shopping orientation (mean centered), mindset (dummy coded), and the interaction between these two variables were predictors, and willingness to pay was the dependent variable (Aiken & West, 1991). The fit hypothesis was supported by the significant Mindset × Chronic Shopping Orientation interaction, $B = -0.45$, $\beta = -0.41$, $t(136) = -3.45$, $p < 0.001$.

The interaction (Figure 1) was examined using spotlight analysis: The significance of the mindset variable was tested at the level of 1 *SD* below the sample mean of chronic shopping orientation (task-focused shoppers), and 1 *SD* above the sample mean of chronic shopping orientation (experiential shoppers; Aiken & West, 1991). As predicted by Hypothesis 3, task-focused shoppers were willing to pay a higher price when in an implemental mindset ($M = 1.86$ EUR) than when in a deliberative mindset ($M = 1.23$ EUR), $B = 0.63$, $\beta = 0.36$, $t(136) = 3.15$, $p = 0.001$. By contrast, experiential shoppers were willing to pay a higher price in a deliberative mindset ($M = 2.12$ EUR) than in an implemental mindset ($M = 1.78$ EUR), $B = -0.35$, $\beta = -0.20$, $t(136) = 1.73$, $p = 0.044$. This finding supports Hypothesis 4.

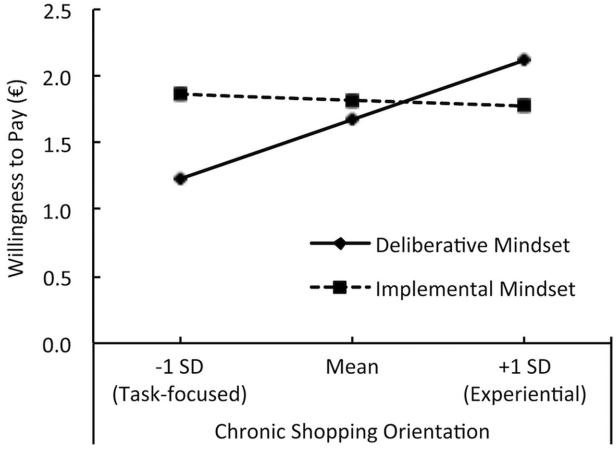

Figure 1. Study 4—Simple slope regression lines for willingness to pay predicted by chronic shopping orientation and mindset ($N = 140$).

The results support the postulated effect of a fit between active mindset and chronic shopping orientation: Task-focused shoppers were willing to pay a higher price when in an implemental mindset; experiential shoppers were willing to pay a higher price when in a deliberative mindset. This is in line with the finding that regulatory fit increases the monetary value that consumers assign to a product (Avnet & Higgins, 2003; Higgins et al., 2003). The result has three implications. First, it provides further support for the assumption that shopping orientations are linked to mindsets. Second, it suggests that retailers can influence customers' evaluation of products by addressing the mindset that underlies their shopping orientation. Finally, the study introduces mindset fit as a new variant of regulatory fit.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Four studies examined the link between shopping orientation and implemental versus deliberative mindsets. The studies showed consistently that an experiential shopping orientation corresponds to a deliberative mindset, whereas a task-focused shopping orientation corresponds to an implemental mindset. The effects were demonstrated with chronic shopping orientation (Studies 1 and 4) and with experimentally manipulated shopping orientation (Studies 2 and 3). Moreover, the effects were tested over a variety of dependent measures. Study 1 found that experiential shoppers reported more deliberative processing in a shopping scenario, whereas task-focused shoppers reported more implemental processing. Study 2 demonstrated that shopping orientation leads to a preference for mindset-congruent tasks in a set of choices. Study 3 replicated a classic experimental set-up from mindset

research (Gollwitzer, Heckhausen, & Steller, 1990) and demonstrated that shopping orientation leads to the production of mindset-congruent thoughts in continuing a fairy tale. Finally, Study 4 established a fit effect between shopping orientation and mindset: Consumers were willing to pay a higher price for a product when a mindset was activated that fit their shopping orientation than when the activated mindset did not fit their shopping orientation.

The findings are in line with a central feature of mindsets: Mindsets carry over to tasks that are unrelated to the task in which the mindset was activated (Bayer & Gollwitzer, 2005). The present research demonstrated such carry-over effects. The effects on mindset-congruent choices (Study 2) and thought production (Study 3) were measured in a situation that was unrelated to the situation in which the shopping orientation was manipulated. In Study 4, a deliberative versus an implemental mindset was activated in a task that was unrelated to the shopping situation in which the fit effect emerged. Overall, these findings strengthen the assumption that differences in activated mindset underlie the effects of shopping orientation.

Furthermore, the studies ruled out two alternative explanations. Involvement with a product category might be responsible for whether consumers engage more in evaluating and comparing alternatives (deliberative processing) or in implementing their shopping trip (implemental processing). Study 1 ruled out this alternative explanation: Involvement with the product category did neither correlate with deliberative nor with implemental processing. A second candidate for an alternative explanation is mood. An experiential shopping orientation has been linked to fun and enjoyment (Babin, Darden, & Griffin, 1994), and research on mindsets has found that an implemental mindset elicits a more positive mood than a deliberative mindset (Taylor & Gollwitzer, 1995). Thus, consumers with a task-focused shopping orientation might prefer implemental processing, because it provides an opportunity to repair their mood (Josephson, Singer, & Salovey, 1996). Study 3 ruled out this alternative explanation: Mood did not influence whether consumers reported more deliberative or implemental episodes in completing a fairy tale.

The present research shows that shopping orientation is linked to different mindsets, and how this link influences consumer judgments such as preference for tasks or willingness to pay. Previous research on shopping orientations has predominantly focused on affective processes and has demonstrated that consumers react more favorably toward retail environments when they provide an affective experience that fits their shopping orientation (Kaltcheva & Weitz, 2006). The present research extends this line of research by demonstrating that consumer reactions can also be influenced by addressing consumers' way of information processing. Consumers prefer a way of processing information that is in line with their shopping orientation (Study 2). Furthermore, the results on mindset fit (Study 4) show that activating a fitting way of information processing increases consumers' willingness to pay. This suggests that retailers will benefit from targeting experiential and task-focused shoppers via the corresponding mindset (see Section Managerial Implications).

The link between shopping orientation and mindsets provides concrete implications for advancing a theory of shopping orientation. Further research should address the various differences between deliberative and implemental mindsets that research on mindset has demonstrated. For instance, a deliberative mindset has been shown to entail a higher openness to incidental information (Fujita, Gollwitzer, & Oettingen, 2007). The present research implies that these differences in information processing also apply to shopping under an experiential versus a task-focused orientation. This suggests an alternative explanation for how shopping under an experiential orientation may elicit unplanned purchases: Because of their deliberative mindset, consumers with an experiential shopping orientation may be more likely to get sidetracked by other options than their focal goal (c.f. Büttner, Florack, Leder et al., in press). Moreover, mindset research has found negative effects of an implemental mindset caused by biased information processing: Individuals in an implemental mindset often disregard disadvantages of a decision and may be overly optimistic (Taylor & Gollwitzer, 1995). This implies that consumers with a task-focused shopping orientation—who shop in an implemental mindset—may overestimate their expertise and stick with nonoptimal decisions. Overall, these hypotheses on further mindset-based effects of shopping orientations warrant attention in further research.

Another contribution of the present research is that it has established mindset fit as a new variant of regulatory fit. Mindset fit differs from the instances of regulatory fit that have been analyzed in previous research, such as fit based on regulatory focus (Florack & Scarabis, 2006), regulatory mode (Avnet & Higgins, 2003), or activity orientation (Bianco, Higgins, & Klem, 2003) as motivational orientations. Although Higgins et al. (2003) speculated about fit effects driven by mindsets, this type of fit effect has not yet been demonstrated. In combination with previous findings on effects of regulatory focus fit, regulatory mode fit, and activity orientation fit, the demonstration of mindset fit effects contributes to the assumption that regulatory fit is a pervasive motivational phenomenon that applies to a broad range of motivational orientations (Avnet & Higgins, 2003; Higgins et al., 2003).

Managerial Implications

The present studies are informative for retailing and marketing practice in two ways. First, they reveal that experiential and task-focused shopping orientations are linked to different mindsets. Second, they suggest that mindset fit increases the value that

consumers attribute to appealing products, and thus mindset fit increases consumers' willingness to pay. These two aspects are important because retailers have tools to tailor communication and shopping contexts to deliberative or implemental mindsets. For example, Lee and Ariely (2006) demonstrated that goal-evoking promotions (e.g., conditional coupons) are more effective when a deliberative mindset is likely to be predominant. Cheema and Patrick (2008) showed that consumers in an implemental mindset focus on different aspects of promotions than consumers in a deliberative mindset. Hence, retailers can address consumers with promotions that are tailored to their mindset. Furthermore, Fennis, Adriaanse, Stroebe, and Pol (2011) have demonstrated how advertising can foster implemental information processing.

Thus, retailers can foster mindset-congruent information processing in advertising or direct mailings. For instance, the message could highlight deliberative aspects for an experiential customer, such as the pros and cons of various options. For a task-focused customer, the message could stress implemental aspects of the purchase, such as home delivery or payment by installments. In online shops, different interfaces could be designed to be mindset congruent. For instance, Internet retailers frequently provide additional purchase alternatives when a customer is examining a product (e.g., Amazon's "Customers who bought this item also bought . . . "). This tool is congruent to a deliberative mindset, as it enhances the possibility to compare different products. Hence, such a tool will fit the deliberative mindset of experiential shoppers, but might backfire with task-focused shoppers, as it does not fit their implemental mindset. For the latter, providing implemental information (e.g., payment and delivery options, information on gift wrapping and gift messages) at the moment the customers is examining a product might be more adequate. Overall, retailers have many possibilities of addressing the mindsets of their customers. The present research indicates that retailers will benefit from using these techniques in a way that fits their customers' shopping orientation.

Targeting experiential and task-focused shoppers via their corresponding mindset, however, raises the question of how retailers and marketers get to know their customers' shopping orientation. This is easy for highly experiential stores (e.g., Abercrombie & Fitch) or highly task-focused stores (e.g., Walmart), because these stores are likely to attract mainly shoppers with a corresponding shopping orientation or to activate a corresponding shopping orientation for other shoppers. In addition, temporary features of the store might influence which type of shopping orientation prevails. For instance, experiential in-store events might attract more experiential shoppers than task-focused shoppers (Sands, Oppewal, & Beverland, 2009). In more ambiguous stores, market research could assess the shopping orientation of potential customers, for instance, by using the CSO scale (Büttner, Florack, & Göritz, in press). When retailers know the predominant shopping orientation of their customers, they can tailor their communication strategies to the mindset that underlies this shopping orientation.

When customers vary significantly in their shopping orientation, addressing a particular customer via his or her chronic shopping orientation is more difficult. Then, information about the shopping orientation of individual customers is needed. This is feasible whenever individual information can be collected and linked to an individual customer, such as when they sign up for a loyalty card program or register at an online shop. Then, information on a customer's shopping orientation can be used in further communication with the customer. In one-time encounters in brick-and-mortar retailing, the identification of shopping orientations is more difficult, but not impossible. Research has shown that individuals can assess basic orientations of others within a few seconds (Peracchio & Luna, 2006). It would be a fruitful approach to test whether experienced sales people are able to do so.

Limitations

One limitation of the present research is that all four studies worked with scenarios both to induce the shopping orientation as well as to measure the dependent variables. Furthermore, Study 4 assessed willingness to pay as dependent variable but did not assess actual choice behavior or long-term consequences such as loyalty or recommendation likelihood. Scenarios are a common method in research that manipulates shopping orientation (Kaltcheva & Weitz, 2006; van Rompay et al., 2012) because this approach allows controlling for confounding variables such as customers' actual shopping goals. However, this limits the external validity of the findings and calls for further research that is conducted in real stores and examines consequences for real shopping behavior. Such studies could address, for instance, whether experiential and task-focused shoppers react differently to in-store promotions that either foster an implemental or a deliberative mindset.

The studies addressed shopping orientation in the context of brick-and-mortar shopping. Consumers, however, make a large share of their purchases over the Internet. Thus, further research should examine how different channels and switching between channels interact with mindsets that underlie shopping orientation. To illustrate one example: A growing problem for brick-and-mortar retailers is that some consumers visit their stores to seek entertainment and to evaluate items that they later buy on the Internet—a phenomenon that has been labeled "showrooming" (Zimmerman, 2012, January 23). A desperate yet common reaction of brick-and-mortar retailers is to match the low prices of online competitors (Bhasin, 2013). The present research suggests a different strategy: Brick-and-mortar retailers should be more successful if they address these customers via their deliberative

mindset. According to the present findings, this should lead to fit with the experiential shopping orientation and, as a consequence, to an increased willingness to pay. This should reduce the motive for consumers to postpone the purchase and to buy at cheaper online retailers. Further research should address this hypothesis.

Conclusion

The present research shows that motivational orientations during shopping are linked to differences in cognitive processes. The studies demonstrated that an experiential shopping orientation corresponds to a deliberative mindset, whereas a task-focused shopping orientation corresponds to an implemental mindset. Moreover, priming cognitive procedures that fit the corresponding mindset enhanced consumers' evaluations of attractive offers.

It is clear that shopping orientation cannot completely be reduced to mindsets. An important difference between shopping orientation and mindsets, for instance, is the strong connection of shopping orientation to affect, such as pleasure and arousal. Mindsets, however, reflect sets of cognitive procedures that are not tied to particular affective states. Both an individual in a deliberative mindset and an individual in an implemental mindset may enjoy their activities—the first one, when thinking about a desirable option, the latter when being able to smoothly pursue a goal. Thus, the present research implies that mindsets are an additional yet important part of shopping orientation, and that mindset theory leads to further hypotheses that could advance a theory of shopping orientation.

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APPENDIX A

Choices between Implemental and Deliberative Task Alternatives (Study 2)

On this page, you will find different tasks regarding different topics. Two alternative tasks exist for each topic. Please indicate which alternative you prefer to work on.

During the course of the study, we will randomly choose one of the topics and you will be able to work on your preferred alternative.

Topic Cell Phone: Which task do you prefer to work on?

- Thinking about how and where you can inform yourself about different cell phone contracts. (I)
- Thinking about whether you want to switch your current cell phone contract (if you do not have a contract: thinking about whether to sign up for a contract). (D)

Topic Job: Which task do you prefer to work on?

- Planning how to enhance your job/study situation. (I)
- Thinking about what you like and what you do not like in your job/study situation. (D)

Topic Apartment: Which task do you prefer to work on?

- Thinking about whether to paint your apartment or not. (D)
- Planning how you would act when painting your apartment. (I)

Topic New Year's Resolutions: Which task do you prefer to work on?

- Planning how to implement your New Year's resolutions. (I)
- Thinking about which resolutions you want to carry out in the New Year. (D)

Topic Climate Protection: Which task do you prefer to work on?

- Thinking about the pros and cons of different actions for climate protection. (D)

- Thinking about how you could contribute to climate protection in a concrete way. (I)

Topic Car: Which task do you prefer to work on?

- Thinking about how you could plan the purchase of a car in the best way. (I)
- Thinking about arguments in favor of buying a new car and arguments against it. (D)

Topic Party: Which task do you prefer to work on?

- Planning to prepare a party. (I)
- Thinking about who you want to invite to a party and who you do not want to invite to a party. (D)

Topic Job Application: Which task do you prefer to work on?

- Thinking about arguments in favor of applying for a new job and arguments against it. (D)
- Planning how you would apply for a new job. (I)

Topic Vacation: Which task do you prefer to work on?

- Thinking about how to prepare your next vacation well. (I)
- Thinking about which holiday destinations would be interesting to you and which not. (D)

Note: I = implemental alternative; D = deliberative alternative. Topics and answers were presented in random order.

APPENDIX B

Examples for Coding the Fairy Tale (Study 3)

Examples of Deliberative Episodes

"So he asked the girl: 'What do you think is the best idea?'"

"The king was thinking about how he could protect his beloved daughter."

"He held a knightly battle to find the appropriate candidate for his daughter."

"... searched his conscience for advice"

"... deliberated about a maneuver"

"... confided in a healer and asked her for advice"

Examples of Implemental Episodes

"He hid his daughter in the castle."

"So he took the young girl with him."

"... called his bravest knight and ordered him to take care of his daughter"

"... went to a small village where he used to play as a child"

"... sent her to a small island in the Atlantic Ocean"

"... went to the local sorcerer and asked him to transform her into a horse"