

DELIGHT BY DESIGN:

The Role of Hedonic Versus Utilitarian Benefits

Ravindra Chitturi*

Rajagopal Raghunathan

Vijay Mahajan

December 2007

Ravindra Chitturi is Assistant Professor of Marketing at the College of Business and Economics, Lehigh University (e-mail: rac2@lehigh.edu). Rajagopal Raghunathan is Associate Professor of Marketing at the Red McCombs school of Business, the University of Texas at Austin (e-mail: raj_raghunathan@mcombs.utexas.edu). Vijay Mahajan is John P. Harbin Centennial Chair at the Red McCombs School of Business, the University of Texas at Austin (e-mail: vijay.mahajan@mcombs.utexas.edu). The first author acknowledges the support of the Laura

* Corresponding Author: Ravi Chitturi, Department of Marketing, College of Business & Economics, Lehigh University, Bethlehem, PA 18015; e-mail: rac2@lehigh.edu.

Bonham fund for research at The University of Texas at Austin. The authors would like to thank K. Sivakumar and James Maskulka for comments on an earlier draft of this paper. The authors would also like to thank Roland Rust and three anonymous reviewers for their helpful suggestions.

DELIGHT BY DESIGN:

The Role of Hedonic Versus Utilitarian Benefits

ABSTRACT

What is the relationship between product design benefits (hedonic vs. utilitarian) and the post-consumption feelings of customer delight and satisfaction? The primary insights provided by this research are: 1) products that meet or exceed customers' utilitarian needs and fulfill *prevention* goals enhance customer satisfaction (e.g., a car with anti-lock brakes and vehicle stability assist); and, 2) products that meet or exceed customers' hedonic wants and fulfill *promotion* goals enhance customer delight (e.g., a car with panoramic sunroof and six speaker audio-system). Further, the research finds that the primary antecedent feelings of satisfaction are the prevention emotions of confidence and security provided by utilitarian benefits, while the primary antecedent feelings of delight are the promotion emotions of cheerfulness and excitement provided by hedonic benefits. Finally, the results show that delighting customers improves customer loyalty as measured by word-of-mouth and repurchase intent compared to merely satisfying them. The theoretical contribution and strategic insights provided by the research for product designers and marketers are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

For the past few decades, customer satisfaction has been the mantra by which firms have tried to manage the relationship between their products and customers. Much to their disappointment, managers are discovering that high levels of customer satisfaction do not necessarily translate into high levels of customer loyalty. For instance, they are surprised to find that more than 60% of customers who switch to another brand would classify themselves as “satisfied” (Jones and Sasser 1995; Keiningham and Vavra 2001; Reichheld 1993). These findings point to a theoretically and substantively interesting research question: why does customer satisfaction with products translate into such low levels of customer loyalty? Moreover, how can we improve it? One possibility is that customers are looking for more than mere satisfaction—perhaps they are looking to be *delighted* in exchange for greater loyalty (Keiningham and Vavra 2001; Norman 2004; Rust and Oliver 2000). In order to address this possibility, we need to understand the nature of customers’ consumption goals as they are fulfilled by the benefits offered by a product, their post-consumption emotional consequences, and associated customer loyalty behavior as measured by word-of-mouth and repurchase intentions (Jacoby and Chestnut 1978).

This research builds upon previous work on hedonic vs. utilitarian benefits¹, regulatory focus theory, customer satisfaction, and delight (e.g., Bagozzi, Gopinath, and Nyer 1999; Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007; Oliver 1997; Rust and Oliver 2000) to address two questions: (1) is there a difference in the nature of the emotional experience that results from the consumption of hedonic versus utilitarian benefits, and if so, do they differ in their ability to satisfy and/or delight the customer? and (2) are customers, delighted with product consumption, more (or less) likely to indulge in word-of-mouth and report greater repurchase intent than

¹ See End Notes 1 & 2

satisfied customers? We address these two questions by building on the following two well-established ideas: (1) products evoke a positive emotional response when they exceed expectations on important benefit dimensions (Mittal, Ross Jr., and Baldasare 1998; Oliver 1997); and, (2) there is a fundamental difference in the type of goals hedonic and utilitarian benefits help attain (Chernev 2004; Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007). Our contribution lies in qualifying these findings: we predict that the *type* of positive emotional response evoked by the product consumption depends on whether the offering exceeds expectations on the utilitarian or the hedonic dimension. Specifically, we propose that while exceeding a utilitarian expectation merely evokes satisfaction, exceeding a hedonic expectation evokes delight. Further, we propose that while failing to meet a utilitarian expectation evokes anger, failing to meet a hedonic expectation evokes dissatisfaction.

Findings across three studies with cell phones, laptop computers, and automobiles are consistent with our predictions. Our results are theoretically interesting because they suggest that the benefit dimension that produces delight may be different from that which produces satisfaction. From a substantive standpoint, our findings provide product designers and marketers with a better conceptual understanding of hedonic versus utilitarian product benefits and their relationship with delight, satisfaction, and loyalty.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows. We begin, in the next section, with definitions of the terms utilitarian, hedonic, promotion and prevention goals. We then move on to our theoretical model, wherein we review relevant literature to derive our main predictions. We then discuss empirical tests of these predictions and end with a discussion of our main theoretical and substantive contributions.

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Definition of Utilitarian and Hedonic Benefits

Consistent with previous research in marketing, we will use *utilitarian* benefits to refer to the functional, instrumental and practical benefits of consumption offerings, and *hedonics* to refer to their aesthetic, experiential, and enjoyment-related benefits (Batra and Ahtola 1990; Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007; Dhar and Wertenbroch 2000; Strahilevitz and Myers 1998). Holbrook (2006, p8) says that consumer value is an experience resulting from the consumption of such benefits. In the context of cell phones, for example, the phone's battery life and sound volume are utilitarian benefits, while aesthetic appeal from its shape and color are hedonic benefits. Likewise, in the case of a car, fuel economy and safety are utilitarian benefits, while the sun roof and the luxurious interior are hedonic benefits.

Examining the relative consumer preference for these two benefit dimensions has been a fertile area of research in recent years (e.g., Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007; Dhar and Wertenbroch 2000; Kivetz and Simonson 2002b; Okada 2005; Voss, Spangenberg, and Grohmann 2003). Prior research has focused primarily on assessing the relative weight that consumers attach to these two dimensions in *pre-consumption* decisions. For example, Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan (2007) document that consumers attach greater importance to the hedonic (vs. utilitarian) dimension, but only after a "necessary" level of functionality is met. Similarly, Kivetz and Simonson (2002a) document that consumers attach greater weight to the utilitarian (vs. hedonic) dimension, unless they feel that they have "earned the right to indulge."

By contrast, our focus here is on the interplay between these two dimensions in influencing *post-consumption* emotional and behavioral consequences, an issue that needs more investigation. We build upon the seminal work of Oliver and others (e.g., Mano and Oliver 1993;

Oliver 1997; Rust and Oliver 2000; Westbrook 1987) to develop a conceptual framework of the role that hedonic and utilitarian benefits play in evoking various types of positive and negative post-consumption emotions. Based on the recent work by Chernev (2004) and Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan (2007) the proposed framework (as shown in Figure 1) posits that the consumption of superior hedonic benefits offered by a product evoke greater promotion emotions of cheerfulness and excitement, whereas the consumption of superior utilitarian benefits evoke greater prevention emotions of confidence and security. These promotion and prevention emotions are the primary antecedents of the post-consumption measures of delight and satisfaction respectively leading to greater word-of-mouth and repurchase intent. This research empirically validates the proposed relationships in the model shown in Figure 1.

Goals, Consumption Experience, and Emotional Consequences

Consumers usually purchase products on the basis of their expectations of the product's performance to meet their goals. Post-consumption emotions result from a perceived discrepancy between the expected performance and the actual performance (Oliver 1997). Specifically, depending on the level of expectancy confirmation or disconfirmation on important benefit dimensions, a product may evoke positive, negative, or a mixed set of emotions (Bagozzi, Gopinath and Nyer 1999; Chaudhuri 2006; Westbrook and Oliver 1991). Extant research has implicitly assumed that expectancy confirmation or disconfirmation on one important benefit dimension is conceptually equivalent to expectancy confirmation or disconfirmation on any other equally important dimension; for example, prior research has implicitly assumed that a product that is twice as good as expected on the utilitarian dimension would produce the same type and intensity of positive emotional response as one that is twice as good as expected on the hedonic dimension. In contrast, as shown in Figure 1, we argue that expectancy confirmation (or

disconfirmation) on the utilitarian dimension evokes a *qualitatively* different emotional response than does expectancy confirmation (or disconfirmation) on the hedonic dimension. This is primarily due to the fact that the nature of the consumption experience and goals associated with utilitarian benefits are different from those associated with hedonics (Chernev 2004; Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007; Higgins 2001).

Prevention Goals and Utilitarian Benefits, and Promotion Goals and Hedonic Benefits.

There is converging evidence that the type of goals that consumers expect to be fulfilled by the utilitarian dimension of a product are different from those that they seek from the hedonic dimension (Chernev 2004). Specifically, while consumers expect the fulfillment of *prevention* goals on the utilitarian dimension, they seek the fulfillment of *promotion* goals on the hedonic dimension (e.g., Chernev 2004; Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007; Higgins 2001; Higgins 1997). But what are prevention and promotion goals?

According to the regulatory focus theory (Higgins 2001; Higgins 1997), prevention goals are those that ought to be met, such as, “behaving in a safe and secure manner,” and “being responsible.” Fulfillment of prevention goals in the context of product consumption eliminates or significantly reduces the probability of a painful experience, thereby making consumers experience emotions that result from fulfillment of prevention goals—i.e., the positive prevention emotions of confidence and security (Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007, Higgins 1997). For example, in the case of a car, prevention goals might be served by its safety features or the 10 years or 100,000 miles bumper-to-bumper warranty that the car manufacturer offers. Promotion goals, on the other hand, are those that one aspires to meet, such as, “looking cool,” or “being sophisticated.” Fulfillment of promotion goals in the context of product

consumption significantly increases the probability of a pleasurable experience, thereby enabling consumers to experience emotions that result from the fulfillment of promotion goals—i.e., the positive promotion emotions of cheerfulness and excitement (Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007; Higgins 2001). The proposed conceptual framework in Figure 1 captures the relationships between hedonic versus utilitarian benefits, consumption experience, and promotion versus prevention emotions respectively. However, are promotion and prevention goals considered equally important by the customers, or is one considered more important than the other? There is a large body of work in philosophy, sociology, and political science that assigns lower status to luxuries compared to necessities in the hierarchy of needs (Berry 1994; Maslow 1970; Weber 1998). Moreover, Kivetz and Simonson (2002b) argue for luxuries to be typically hedonic in nature and necessities to be typically utilitarian in terms of the benefits they offer to consumers. Holbrook (2006, p. 8) says that consumer value is created by need- or want-satisfying experiences as a result of consuming such benefits. Further, the principle of precedence positions the fulfillment of “needs” to be a morally superior obligation than the fulfillment of “wants” (Berry 1994, p. 199). These findings collectively point to a conceptual parallel between luxuries-wants-hedonic benefits and necessities-needs-utilitarian benefits. Given that avoiding pain is a necessity (i.e., a need one “must meet”) and seeking pleasure a relative luxury (i.e., a want one “aspires to meet”), customers give higher priority to utilitarian benefits (i.e., fulfillment of prevention goals) over hedonic benefits (i.e., fulfillment of promotion goals) (Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007; Higgins 1997; Higgins 2001). However, once the prevention goals are met, the *principle of hedonic dominance* motivates customers to focus more on the continued fulfillment of promotion goals (Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan

2007). Therefore, the emotional consequences arising from meeting and failing to meet utilitarian and hedonic expectations will differ significantly.

Utilitarian benefits and Confidence/Security, Hedonics and Excitement/Cheerfulness.

What are the positive emotions that result from the fulfillment of prevention and promotion goals? We propose that the *type* of positive emotion experienced will depend on whether a utilitarian or a hedonic expectation is met.

To understand why, consider the differences in the basic characteristics of the goals associated with the utilitarian and hedonic dimensions of product benefits, reviewed earlier. The ‘*must meet*’ nature of prevention goals increases customers’ focus on utilitarian benefits offered by a product because it has been shown that utilitarian benefits are perceived as closer to necessities or needs that help fulfill prevention goals (Chernev 2004; Higgins 1997; Kivetz and Simonson 2002b). However, when prevention goals are not fulfilled, customers experience increased pain in the form of negative feelings. For example, customer awareness that the absence of air bags and seat belts in a car could lead to severe injury in the event of a car accident is likely to evoke anxiety whenever the customer is in a fast moving car. The presence of safety features such as air bags, anti-lock brakes, and vehicle stability assist reduces the pain of anxiety and increases feelings of security and confidence. On the other hand, the ‘*aspire to meet*’ nature of the promotion goals increases customers’ focus on the hedonic benefits offered by a product (Chernev 2004). However, unlike the case of prevention goals, the non-fulfillment of promotion goals is perceived as a loss of pleasure rather than an increase in pain. It is because hedonic benefits are perceived to be closer to luxuries or wants that fulfill promotion goals (Chernev 2004; Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007; Higgins 1997; Kivetz and Simonson 2002b). A loss of pleasure is likely to evoke sadness and disappointment, but an increase in pain

is likely to cause anger. For example, driving a convertible along the beautiful California coast on a sunny day is likely to be cheerful and exciting, leading to enhanced pleasure. However, driving a car without a convertible top is unlikely to be painful, although it could create a dissatisfactory experience. Therefore, consistent with Chernev (2004), Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan (2007), Higgins (1997), and Higgins (2001) the fulfillment of promotion goals by hedonic benefits is likely to evoke feelings of cheerfulness and excitement, and the fulfillment of prevention goals by utilitarian benefits is likely to evoke feelings of confidence and security.

H1: A positive consumption experience with utilitarian benefits evokes feelings of confidence and security, whereas a positive consumption experience with hedonic benefits evokes feelings of cheerfulness and excitement.

Utilitarian benefits and Satisfaction, Hedonic Benefits and Delight. As discussed earlier, utilitarian benefits fulfill prevention goals and alleviate pain, and hedonic benefits fulfill promotion goals and enhance pleasure. However, in order to delight customers, it is not sufficient simply to avoid pain by meeting prevention goals. It is important that the fulfillment of prevention goals by the consumption of utilitarian benefits be complemented with the enhancement of pleasure by the consumption of hedonic benefits that fulfill promotion goals. For example, once the goals of Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) mileage, passenger capacity, and reliability of an automobile are met, further improvements in EPA mileage, passenger capacity, and/or reliability could perhaps lead to higher levels of satisfaction by increasing peace of mind, but not delight. The increase in peace of mind is due to a significant reduction in the probability of financial and physical pain from frequent re-fuelling, insufficient passenger capacity, and automobile breakdowns. However, for customers to be delighted, they need more than the low arousal feelings associated with peace of mind from meeting or

exceeding prevention goals. They need high arousal pleasure from meeting or exceeding promotion goals. For example, automobile designers would have to offer hedonic benefits that help fulfill promotion goals, such as convertible top, eight speaker audio/video entertainment console, and beautiful interior. Therefore, consistent with the principle of hedonic dominance (Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007), once prevention goals are fully met and consumers are satisfied, they give greater priority to hedonic benefits that help them meet promotion goals and enhance high arousal feelings of excitement and cheerfulness leading to delight. Chitturi, Raghunathan and Mahajan (2007) show that at the time of purchase customers feel more confident and secure with products that offer greater utilitarian benefits, and feel more cheerfulness and excitement with products that offer greater hedonics. Therefore, customers associate the fulfillment of prevention goals with anticipated utilitarian benefits, and the fulfillment of promotion goals with anticipated hedonic benefits offered by products (Chernev 2004; Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007). The degree to which these expectations of anticipated fulfillment of prevention and promotion goals materialize during consumption will determine if these pre-consumption feelings of confidence, security, cheerfulness, and excitement would persist beyond consumption and contribute to customer satisfaction and/or delight. Therefore, we posit that products that meet or exceed utilitarian expectations will evoke low arousal feelings of confidence and security leading to satisfaction—an emotion that is also low in arousal (Hunt 1977; Oliver (1997, p. 300); Russell 1980). On the other hand, products that meet or exceed hedonic expectations will evoke high arousal feelings of excitement and cheerfulness leading to delight—an emotion that is also high in arousal (e.g., see Ortony, Clore and Collins 1988 for a review; Roseman 1991).

H2: While a product that meets or exceeds utilitarian expectations will evoke satisfaction, one that meets or exceeds hedonic expectations will evoke delight.

Prevention Goals and Anger, and Promotion Goals and Dissatisfaction. Thus far, we have generated predictions about the type of positive emotions likely to be evoked by the fulfillment of prevention and promotion goals from utilitarian and hedonic benefits respectively. A question that naturally follows is: what types of negative emotions are evoked in post-consumption contexts?

We know that consumers experience negative emotions when products fail to meet expectations (Mano and Oliver 1993; Westbrook 1987). We add the following qualification to this general rule: while the failure to meet a utilitarian expectation leads to anger, the failure to meet a hedonic expectation merely leads to dissatisfaction. We evoke the ‘must meet’ and ‘aspire to meet’ characteristics, respectively, of utilitarian and hedonic benefits to make these predictions (Higgins 1997).

That utilitarian goals are of a “must meet” nature is simply another way of saying that consumers consider the fulfillment of utilitarian expectations to be a necessity (Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007; see also Kivetz and Simonson 2002b). As such, when a product fails to meet a necessity (i.e., utilitarian expectation), consumers are likely to experience intense negative emotions that are high in arousal (Lazarus 1991; Roseman 1991). We expect this emotion to be anger-related for two reasons. First, as per the precedence principle consumers are likely to have paid particular attention to whether or not a product meets utilitarian requirements before selecting it. Any failure on the part of the product to meet utilitarian goals is likely to be attributed to others (e.g., the manufacturer or retailer) than to themselves; appraisal theories of affect suggest that negative outcomes attributed to others are likely to lead to anger (Roseman 1991). Second, if consumers choose a more utilitarian product over a more attractive

hedonic product to ensure fulfillment of prevention goals, there is already a sense of sadness and disappointment due to an anticipated loss of pleasure as a result of this tradeoff (Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007). Under such circumstances, if the utilitarian product does not fulfill minimum prevention goals, it is likely to further add to the existing feeling of disappointment and evoke higher arousal negative feelings. Given that the product did not perform as promised on the utilitarian dimension, there is a much stronger reaction and tendency to blame the manufacturer or retailer, leading to the high arousal feeling of anger (Roseman 1991).

In contrast to the anger evoked by the failure to meet utilitarian expectations and therefore “must meet” prevention goals, failure in meeting hedonic expectations and “aspire to meet” promotion goals is likely to evoke low arousal feelings of sadness and disappointment, leading to dissatisfaction (Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007; Inman, Dyer, and Jia 1997). This is because hedonic goals are perceived as a relative luxury compared to utilitarian goals, which are perceived as necessities (Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007; see Kivetz and Simonson 2002b). As such, products that don’t meet hedonic expectations are likely to evoke negative emotions low in arousal, such as dissatisfaction. Therefore:

H3: While a product that fails to meet utilitarian expectations will evoke anger, one that fails to meet hedonic expectations will evoke dissatisfaction.

Post-consumption Emotions, Word-of-mouth, and Repurchase Intentions

An analysis of the emotional consequences of the fulfillment and frustration of utilitarian and hedonic goals is theoretically interesting. It is also substantively relevant because it helps predict post consumption behavior. Because our primary goal is to understand how the promotion-focused and prevention-focused emotions influence delight,

satisfaction, and customer loyalty, we examine how they influence two variables associated with loyalty: word of mouth and repurchase intent (Jacoby and Chestnut 1978).

Satisfaction, Delight, Word-of-Mouth, and Repurchase Intent. According to psycho-evolutionary theories of affect (e.g., Frijda 1987; Lazarus 1991; Plutchik 1980), different emotions are associated with different action tendencies (cf. Frijda 1987). For example, the action tendency associated with anger is one of “boiling inwardly,” whereas that associated with sadness is one of feeling “helpless” (e.g., see Frijda 1986 for a review). Building on previous research (e.g., Mehrabian and Russell 1974), we argue that the likelihood that an action tendency is translated into actual behavior depends on the level of arousal associated with the emotion in question. The feelings of cheerfulness and excitement arising from the fulfillment of promotion goals by hedonic benefits are high arousal feelings (Lazarus 1991; Roseman 1991). They are also the antecedent feelings of delight—an emotion accompanied by high arousal. On the other hand, the fulfillment of prevention goals by utilitarian benefits leads to the low arousal feelings of confidence and security (Higgins 1997; Lazarus 1991). Moreover, the feelings of confidence and security are antecedent feelings of satisfaction—an emotion accompanied by relatively lower arousal compared to delight (Oliver 1997).

Therefore, we hypothesize that:

H4a: Consumers are more likely to indulge in positive word-of-mouth when their hedonic expectations are met or exceeded, than when their utilitarian expectations are met or exceeded.

H4b: Consumers are more likely to indulge in repeat purchase behavior when their hedonic expectations are met or exceeded, than when their utilitarian expectations are met or exceeded.

Anger, Dissatisfaction, Repurchase and Word of Mouth. Thus far, we have argued that delighted (vs. satisfied) customers are more likely to: (1) express positive word-of-

mouth, and (2) indicate intentions of repeat purchase, for reasons discussed earlier. What happens when the consumption experience is negative?

As discussed earlier, there is a conceptual parallel between necessities-needs-utilitarian benefits and luxuries-wants-hedonic benefits (Chernev 2004; Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007; Higgins 1997; Kivetz and Simonson 2002b). Additionally, Maslow's hierarchy of needs and the precedence principle position necessities-needs-utilitarian benefits to be of greater importance than luxuries-wants-hedonic benefits. Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan (2007) show that consumers are focused more on utilitarian benefits than hedonic benefits offered by a product until their minimum expectations of fulfilling prevention goals are met. Further, utilitarian benefit offered by a product is a promise of a certain level of functionality by the manufacturer or a retailer. In the case when this promise is not fulfilled, customers blame the retailer and/or the manufacturer. When negative feelings are clearly attributable to an entity, the customers feel angry (Lazarus 1991; Roseman 1991). However, in the case of hedonic benefits such as style and visual appeal, what you see is what you get. Customer and not the manufacturer determines at the time of purchase if the product is stylish and attractive. Under these circumstances, customers are more likely to blame themselves rather than the manufacturer if their friends do not find the product stylish and attractive. Therefore, not meeting minimum utilitarian expectations of functionality generates a much more intense negative feeling such as anger than a less intense feeling such as disappointment or dissatisfaction that results from not meeting minimum hedonic expectations.

Because anger is accompanied by higher levels of arousal compared to dissatisfaction, we expect that it is the failure of products to meet utilitarian (versus hedonic)

expectations that will lead to greater negative word of mouth and lower repurchase intentions.

H5a: Consumers are more likely to indulge in negative word-of-mouth when their utilitarian expectations are not met, than when their hedonic expectations are not met.

H5b: Consumers are less likely to engage in repeat purchase when their utilitarian expectations are not met, than when their hedonic expectations are not met.

OVERVIEW OF STUDIES AND RESULTS

Based on three studies with cell phones, laptop computers, and cars, we show that the hedonic and utilitarian benefits offered by a product differ in their ability to delight and satisfy the customers. The products were chosen to ensure that subjects were familiar with the attributes and benefits of the products and could imagine the product in various usage scenarios. At the same time, we wanted the chosen products to be the ones that are both visible and useful to enhance the relevance of both the hedonic as well as the utilitarian benefits. The first two studies with cell phones and laptop computers involved student subjects at a North American university for extra credit. The third study was conducted with automobile owners to tap into their real feelings based on real consumption experience as suggested by one of the reviewers.

STUDY 1

Design and Task

We used a 2 (product design benefits²: hedonic vs. utilitarian) x 4 (consumption experience: confirm/confirm, confirm/disconfirm, disconfirm/confirm, disconfirm/disconfirm) between-subjects design. A total of 240 undergraduate students participated for extra credit. The subjects were randomly assigned to each of the eight cells.

² See End Note 2

Participants were given a booklet titled, “Consumer Decision Making Questionnaire” with the following starting instructions on the first page.

“In this questionnaire, we are interested in finding how you feel about a product after its purchase and consumption. In the following pages, you will read about two scenarios that describe your needs, attributes of a chosen product, and subsequent consumption experience. Please read the two scenarios carefully and respond to the questions that follow.”

On the following page, participants read information about the two cell phone choices. Each cell phone was described as a combination of the three hedonic and three utilitarian attributes. Three of the attributes were primarily hedonic and added to the hedonic consumption benefits, while the other three attributes were primarily utilitarian and added to the utilitarian consumption benefits³. The three hedonic and three utilitarian attributes were combined with a picture of the cell phone. Each of the six attributes and the cell phone picture⁴ had two levels and associated consumption benefits—high and medium. The group of attributes offering benefits, hedonic or utilitarian, labeled “high” was given a *Consumer Reports* rating of 4.5 out of 5, and the group labeled “medium” was given a *Consumer Reports* rating of 3.0 out of 5. After reviewing the information about each cell phone including the picture, the participants were asked to read two product choice and consumption scenarios. The first scenario described the purchase and subsequent consumption experience with one of the cell phones and the second scenario described the purchase and subsequent consumption experience with the other cell phone. The consumption experience within a group condition was kept the same across the two scenarios. Only the cell phone choice (hedonic vs. utilitarian) changed between the two scenarios. The subjects were then asked to imagine themselves in the first scenario and asked

³ See End Note 3

⁴ See End Note 4

to answer questions about how they would feel in that situation. They were asked to report their level of feelings on a total of 14 anchor measures of discrete positive and negative emotions⁵. They rated fourteen emotions (i.e., guilt, anxiety, sadness, dissatisfaction, regret, anger, disappointment, surprise, security, confidence, excitement, satisfaction, cheerfulness, and delight) with the following instructions: “Based on the overall experience of using my current product, I feel ...” on a seven-point scale of “1 = Not at All, 7 = Extremely.” (see Appendix B for sample measures). This was followed by a four item scale to measure arousal (Mehrabian and Russell 1974). The four item scale included measures comprising stimulated/relaxed, excited/calm, aroused/unaroused, and jittery/dull. Then the subjects were asked to answer questions about positive word-of-mouth, negative word-of-mouth, and repurchase intentions (see Appendix B for sample measures). These measures of emotions, word-of-mouth and repurchase intentions served as dependent variables across the treatment conditions. Finally, subjects completed the section containing manipulation checks and demographic variables.

Stimuli Construction

The objective was to construct more realistic stimuli while retaining the level of control that is needed to test the hypotheses. To accomplish this objective two pretests were conducted. For pretest1, we made a comprehensive list of attributes based on real product manuals of some of the most popular cell phones in the market (e.g., Nokia, Samsung, Motorola). This led to a list of over 50 attributes. For practical reasons the goal was to identify the top 3 most influential attributes that offer hedonic benefits and top 3 most influential attributes that offer utilitarian benefits to construct the stimuli for the experiment.

⁵ See End Note 5

To accomplish this we asked over 100 subjects to rate all the attributes in terms of importance and impact on purchase decision. Based on the pretest1 responses, we selected the top 15 most influential attributes on purchase decision. To test our theory we needed to construct product stimuli that have a group of attributes that is primarily hedonic and another group that is primarily utilitarian in terms of the benefits they offer. This was accomplished by a second pretest. Pretest2 was done to rate the attributes using HED/UTI scale developed by Voss, Spangenberg and Grohmann (2003). Each attribute was tested and selected for the primary nature of their benefits—hedonic or utilitarian. Based on the ratings, three attributes were selected to construct the hedonic dimension, and another three were selected to construct the utilitarian dimension of the product benefits. Each attribute was manipulated to create two levels. These attributes were then combined with the pre-tested pictures of cell phones to create the stimuli. One of the cell phone choices was highly stylish and attractive (hedonic) with medium consumer reports rating of 3.0 out of 5 on functionality (utilitarian). The other was a highly functional (utilitarian) cell phone with medium consumer reports rating of 3.0 out of 5 on style & attractiveness (hedonics).

Stimuli Description

The utilitarian benefits dimension of each cell phone was made up of the level of network coverage (98% vs. 95%), battery capacity (3 days vs. 2 days), and sound clarity (high vs. medium). The hedonic benefits dimension was made up of oyster flip phone feature (yes/no), option to change phone colors (yes/no), and the ability to program new ring tones (yes/no). These attribute descriptions and levels were combined with pictures of the two cell phones. One picture showed a highly stylish and attractive oyster flip phone and the other showed a medium rated non-flip feature cell phone.

Manipulation Checks

Expectancy Disconfirmation. On a seven-point scale, participants indicated to what extent the consumption experience met their expectations on hedonic dimension (1 = Better than Expected, 7 = Worse than expected). The same question was repeated for the utilitarian dimension. The measures were reverse coded for data analysis. The t-tests showed that the manipulation was successful. The means for the four experience conditions for the product with superior hedonic benefits were: (1) confirm/confirm: 5.84/4.96, (2) disconfirm/disconfirm: 2.8/2.32, (3) confirm/disconfirm: 5.18/2.43, and (4) disconfirm/confirm: 3.1/4.61. Similarly, the means for the four experience conditions for the product with superior utilitarian benefits were: (1) confirm/confirm: 5.27/5.56, (2) disconfirm/disconfirm: 2.73/2.51, (3) confirm/disconfirm: 4.98/2.77, and (4) disconfirm/confirm: 2.4/5.11.

Results and Discussion

To test H1, we ran MANOVA across four experience conditions and two product types (superior hedonic benefits versus superior utilitarian benefits) for prevention emotions of confidence and security and promotion emotions of excitement and cheerfulness. The results from MANOVA were significant for product type (Wilks's $\lambda = .605$, $F = 37.389$, $p < .01$) and experience (Wilks's $\lambda = .510$, $F = 14.69$, $p < .01$), and all univariate tests for cheerfulness, excitement, confidence and security were significant as well ($p < .05$). The cell means and standard deviations for all the positive emotions as a result of consumption experience with a cell phone with superior hedonic benefits versus superior utilitarian benefits are shown in Table 1. A two sample t-test found that in the case of a positive consumption experience, consumers feel greater intensity of excitement and cheerfulness

with a more hedonic cell phone over a more utilitarian cell phone ($t_{excitement} = 6.84, p < .01$; $t_{cheerfulness} = 3.38, p < .01$; see Appendix A (Figure A-1)). On the other hand, positive experience with a utilitarian cell phone leads to greater security and confidence ($t_{security} = 5.32, p < .01$; $t_{confidence} = 5.22, p < .01$, see Appendix A (Figure A-1)). The result with cell phones is consistent with our expectations as stated in H1. To test H2 and H3 we ran MANOVA across two product types for emotions of delight, satisfaction, anger, and dissatisfaction. The results for two product type groups were significant (Wilk's $\lambda = .903, F = 12.518, p < .01$) and all univariate tests for delight, satisfaction, anger, and dissatisfaction were significant. To show that delight and satisfaction are impacted differently by hedonic and utilitarian benefits, we also tested the difference between delight and satisfaction across hedonic and utilitarian cell phones and found this difference to be significant. As discussed above, the changes in benefits offered by the cell phone (hedonic vs. utilitarian) has greater influence on the emotion of delight than on satisfaction. The results show that changes in customers' post-consumption feeling of delight are much greater between hedonic vs. utilitarian cell phone compared to the changes in satisfaction for the same two cell phones ($t_{Diff-Of-Diff} = 2.48, p < .01$). Further, the tests also show that change in customers' post-consumption feeling of anger is much greater between hedonic vs. utilitarian cell phone compared to the change in feeling of dissatisfaction for the same two cell phones ($t_{Diff-Of-Diff} = 2.02, p < .05$). The findings about customer emotions show that results are significant in the right direction—hedonic cell phones are better than utilitarian cell phones in fulfilling promotion focused emotional goals, and utilitarian cell phones are better at fulfilling prevention focused emotional goals (Chernev 2004; Higgins 2001).

Next, as stated in H4a, H4b, H5a, and H5b, we want to find out if these differences in hedonic vs. utilitarian product benefits and the consumption experience elicited emotions discussed so far are also accompanied by significantly different levels of arousal, positive word-of-mouth, negative word-of-mouth, and repurchase intentions in the case of positive and negative consumption experiences. The two-sample t-test shows that customers experience greater arousal with hedonic cell phone over utilitarian cell phone ($t_{arousal} = 4.10$, $p < .01$). The two-sample t-test shows that customers are more likely to indulge in positive word-of-mouth (WOM) behavior and have greater repurchase intentions (RPI) in the case of positive consumption experience with a hedonic cell phone than with a utilitarian cell phone ($t_{WOM} = 5.19$, $p < .01$; $t_{RPI} = 4.73$, $p < .01$). On the other hand, consumers experience greater arousal with a utilitarian cell phone over a hedonic one in the case of negative consumption experience ($t_{arousal} = 3.54$, $p < .01$). Therefore, as expected, we found that consumers are more likely to indulge in negative word-of-mouth behavior and have less repurchase intentions with a utilitarian cell phone over a hedonic cell phone ($t_{NWOM} = 4.90$, $p < .01$; $t_{RPI} = 3.70$, $p < .01$). This demonstrates that the consumption of hedonic vs. utilitarian benefits offered by a product does indeed generate significantly different intensities of post-consumption emotions and is accompanied by greater levels of positive (or negative) word-of-mouth and repurchase intentions when the experience is positive (or negative).

----Insert Table 1 here----

----Insert Table 2 here----

STUDY 2

Design and Task

In the first study we used cell phones to collect our data. In the second study we used laptop computers to test our hypotheses. Based on a pretest for perceived importance of hedonic and utilitarian benefits with the cell phones and laptop computers, we found that subjects consider utilitarian benefits to be relatively more important in the case of laptop computers and give relatively more weight to hedonic benefits in the case of cell phones. Therefore, this study tests the same hypotheses with a relatively more utilitarian product category (i.e., laptop computers) compared to the first study. The design was identical to the first study. Another group of 240 undergraduate business students participated for extra credit. The subjects were assigned randomly to each of the eight cells and the instructions to participants were the same as in the first study with cell phones. The dependent measures of emotion, word-of-mouth and repurchase intentions were used followed by manipulation checks for expectancy and needs disconfirmation, and demographics.

Stimuli Description

We followed all the same steps and processes to construct stimuli for this experiment using laptop computers that were followed to construct the stimuli for the first study involving cell phones. After the two pretests we used two laptop computers that were a combination of three attributes for hedonic dimension and another three attributes for the utilitarian dimension of the consumption benefits. The utilitarian dimension was made up of the level of processing speed (3 Gigahertz vs. 1.5 Gigahertz), memory size (20 GB vs. 10 GB), and audio clarity (high vs. medium). The hedonic dimension was made up of screen size (wide screen vs. regular screen), change laptop color (yes/no), and the weight (5 pounds vs. 10 pounds). These attribute descriptions and levels were combined with pictures of the

two laptop computers. One picture showed highly stylish and attractive laptop computer and the other showed medium rated laptop computer.

Results and Discussion

To test H1, we ran MANOVA across four experience conditions and two product types (superior hedonic benefits versus superior utilitarian benefits) for prevention emotions of confidence and security, and promotion emotions of excitement and cheerfulness. The results from MANOVA were significant for product type (Wilks's $\lambda = .721$, $F = 33.261$, $p < .01$) and experience (Wilks's $\lambda = .498$, $F = 16.39$, $p < .01$), and all univariate tests for all measures were significant as well ($p < .05$). A two sample t-test finds that in the case of a positive consumption experience, consumers feel greater intensity of excitement and cheerfulness with a hedonic laptop computer over a utilitarian one ($t_{excitement} = 6.57$, $p < .01$; $t_{cheerfulness} = 3.57$, $p < .01$; see Table 1 for cell means and standard deviation statistics). On the other hand, positive experience with a utilitarian laptop computer leads to greater security and confidence ($t_{security} = 3.08$, $p < .01$; $t_{confidence} = 3.11$, $p < .01$). The result with laptop computers is consistent with our expectations as stated in H1. To test H2 and H3 we ran MANOVA across two product types for emotions of delight, satisfaction, anger, and dissatisfaction. The results for two product type groups were significant (Wilk's $\lambda = .843$, $F = 17.321$, $p < .01$) and all univariate tests for delight, satisfaction, anger, and dissatisfaction were significant. Consistent with study 1, the results show that change in customers' post-consumption feeling of delight is much greater between hedonic vs. utilitarian laptop computers compared to the change in feeling of satisfaction for the same two laptop computers ($t_{Diff-Of-Diff} = 2.80$, $p < .01$). Further, the tests show that change in customers' post-consumption feeling of anger is much greater between hedonic vs. utilitarian laptop computer

compared to the change in feeling of dissatisfaction for the same two laptop computers ($t_{Diff\text{-}of\text{-}Diff} = 2.12, p < .05$; see Table 2 for the means and standard deviation statistics).

Next, we tested H4a, H4b, H5a, and H5b. The results are consistent with the results from study 1. The two-sample t-test shows that customers experience greater arousal with hedonic laptop computer over utilitarian laptop computer ($t_{arousal} = 3.84, p < .01$). The two-sample t-test shows that customers are more likely to indulge in positive word-of-mouth (WOM) behavior and have greater repurchase intentions (RPI) in the case of positive consumption experience with a hedonic laptop computer than with a utilitarian laptop computer ($t_{WOM} = 3.90, p < .01$; $t_{RPI} = 4.00, p < .01$). On the other hand, consumers experience greater arousal with a utilitarian laptop computer over a hedonic one in the case of negative consumption experience ($t_{arousal} = 3.54, p < .01$). Therefore, as expected, we find that consumers are more likely to indulge in negative word-of-mouth behavior and have lower repurchase intention with a utilitarian laptop computer over a hedonic laptop computer ($t_{NWOM} = 3.77, p < .01$; $t_{RPI} = 2.89, p < .01$). The results are consistent across the two studies with cell phones and laptop computers⁶.

STUDY 3

The first two studies were conducted with undergraduate students, and the experimental design measured consumption emotions and loyalty measures based on “imagined experience scenarios” rather than “real experiences.” To address this issue raised by one of the reviewers and to improve the external validity, a third study was conducted with car owners visiting national automobile service franchises. The same set of fourteen dependent measures of post-consumption emotions and customer loyalty were measured

⁶ See End Note 6

based on the real experiences with the car they own. The results are consistent with the findings in the first two studies and provide additional insights on the research question.

Design and Task

The questionnaire was designed to collect information from car owners about their feelings about the car based on their consumption experience. A total of 142 car owners participated in the study. Each participant answered questions about how they feel about their car based on their experience with it. They rated fourteen emotions (i.e., guilt, anxiety, sadness, dissatisfaction, regret, anger, disappointment, surprise, security, confidence, excitement, satisfaction, cheerfulness, and delight with the following instructions, “Based on the overall experience of using my current car, I feel ...” on a seven-point scale of “1 = Not at All, 7 = Extremely” (see Appendix B for sample measures). After the emotion measures, the participants were asked to rate how likely they are to recommend their car to others as a measure of the positive word-of-mouth, and how likely are they to repurchase this car if they had to do it all over again. The word-of-mouth and repurchase intentions were measured on a seven point scale of “1 = Not at all Likely, 7 = Extremely Likely.” This was followed by participant’s overall impression of the product on the hedonic dimension of “style & attractiveness” and the utilitarian dimension of “functionality” on a seven point scale of “1 = Not at all Impressive, 7 = Extremely Impressive.” This was followed by a four item measure of arousal (Mehrabian and Russell 1974). After this they were asked to answer questions if the product met their expectations on the “style & attractiveness” and “functionality” dimensions. The participants then provided demographic information before completing the study.

Results and Discussion

Based on the median split of participant response on the overall rating of “style & attractiveness” and “functionality” of their cars, we created four groups (i.e., 1=High/High, 2=Low/Low, 3=High/Low, and 4=Low/High). The results for emotions from MANOVA were significant for the four group conditions (Wilks’s $\lambda = .444$, $F = 1.89$, $p < .01$), and the univariate tests for all emotions except guilt, anxiety, and surprise were significant as well ($p < .05$). There have been studies in the literature that have linked pleasant surprise (i.e., positive disconfirmation) as a necessary condition for delight, but we did not find that to be the case in this study (see general discussion section for more elaboration on the relationship between surprise and delight). Our primary focus in this paper is to identify the differences in the antecedents of delight and satisfaction resulting from the respective consumption of products with superior hedonic benefits and superior utilitarian benefits. Based on Higgins (1997), Higgins (2001), and Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan (2007), we group the emotions of confidence and security by averaging them to form a measure of prevention emotions, and averaging the emotions of excitement and cheerfulness to form a measure of promotion emotions. As shown in study1, a positive consumption experience with superior hedonic benefits results in promotion emotions, and a positive consumption experience with superior utilitarian benefits results in prevention emotions.

We propose and test two models to study the relationship between hedonic and utilitarian benefits with loyalty as measured by word-of-mouth and repurchase intent as shown in Figure 2. Finally, we conclude with the test of a combined model to assess relative influence of hedonic and utilitarian benefits on delight, satisfaction, word-of-mouth and repurchase intent (see Table 4 for a summary of results). The means, standard deviation and the correlation matrix for the relevant measures is shown in Table 3. Although delight and

satisfaction are positively correlated ($\alpha = .52$), we also find evidence that there are significant differences between delight and satisfaction in terms of the antecedent emotions. The discussion of the results of our analysis follows.

The first model (see Figure 2, model 1) tests the proposed relationships between promotion emotions, delight, and loyalty as measured by word-of-mouth and repurchase intentions using mediation analysis (Baron and Kenny 1986). The second model tests the proposed relationships between prevention emotions, satisfaction, word-of-mouth, and repurchase intentions (see Figure 2, model 2). The results from testing model 1 reveal that delight partially mediates the relationship between promotion emotions and word-of-mouth (i.e., both promotion emotions and delight significantly influence word-of-mouth behavior). Further, consistent with findings by Oliver, Rust, and Varki (1997), delight does not mediate (fully or partially) the relationship between promotion emotions and repurchase intentions—the relationship between delight and repurchase intentions becomes non significant when regressed with promotion emotions ($\beta_{delight} = .22$, $t = 1.12$, $p < .227$) (see Figure 2, model 1 for path coefficient values and significance level). The results from testing model2 reveal that satisfaction partially mediates the relationship between prevention emotions and word-of-mouth as well as repurchase intentions (see Figure 2, model 2 for path coefficient values and significance level). To supplement the tests for H4a and H4b from studies 1 and 2 that show that hedonic benefits influence delight more than satisfaction, and utilitarian benefits influence satisfaction more than delight, we combine the two models shown in Figure 2. A summary of the relevant results of regression with a combined model are listed in Table 4. The results show that both delight and satisfaction directly influence word-of-mouth ($\beta_{delight} = .163$, $p < .05$; $\beta_{satisfaction} = .546$, $p < .000$; $R^2_{Adjusted} = .374$), and delight significantly improves

word-of-mouth in addition to satisfaction. Similarly, both delight and satisfaction directly influence repurchase intent ($\beta_{delight} = .243, p < .034$; $\beta_{satisfaction} = .714, p < .000$; $R^2_{Adjusted} = .371$), and delight significantly improves repurchase intent in addition to satisfaction. The results demonstrate that customer delight improves customer loyalty by improving word-of-mouth and repurchase intent. But, what about the role of hedonic versus utilitarian design benefits in delighting versus satisfying a customer? The results in Table 4 show that only hedonic benefits contribute to delight. The effect of utilitarian benefits on customer delight is not significant ($\beta_{utilitarian} = .124, n.s.$; $\beta_{hedonic} = .405, p < .000$; $R^2_{Adjusted} = .170$). However, in the case of satisfaction, both hedonic and utilitarian benefits significantly improve satisfaction, and consistent with results from the first two studies, utilitarian benefits have greater influence on satisfaction than hedonic benefits ($\beta_{utilitarian} = .298, p < .009$; $\beta_{hedonic} = .197, p < .019$; $R^2_{Adjusted} = .180$). Further analysis of the relationship between design benefits, promotion emotions, and prevention emotions reveals that only hedonic benefits influence promotion emotions ($\beta_{utilitarian} = .070, n.s.$; $\beta_{hedonic} = .478, p < .000$; $R^2_{Adjusted} = .211$), whereas both hedonic and utilitarian benefits influence prevention emotions. As predicted, utilitarian benefits have greater influence on prevention emotions than hedonic benefits ($\beta_{utilitarian} = .400, p < .000$; $\beta_{hedonic} = .227, p < .019$; $R^2_{Adjusted} = .271$). Consistent with our proposed model, we find that delight is only influenced by promotion emotions ($\beta_{prevention-emotions} = .126, n.s.$; $\beta_{promotion-emotions} = .797, p < .000$; $R^2_{Adjusted} = .741$), whereas satisfaction is influenced by both promotion and prevention emotions ($\beta_{prevention-emotions} = .373, p < .000$; $\beta_{promotion-emotions} = .325, p < .000$; $R^2_{Adjusted} = .399$). As discussed above and summarized in Table 4, the results show a stronger association of hedonic benefits with promotion emotions and delight, and a stronger association of utilitarian benefits with prevention emotions and satisfaction.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Should we delight the customer? What is the difference between delight and satisfaction? These are some of the questions that have been explored in prior research (Keiningham and Vavra 2001; Oliver, Rust, and Varki 1997; Rust and Oliver 2000). In this paper, we studied and found evidence for the research proposition that the type and intensity of the emotional experience arising from the consumption of hedonic benefits is qualitatively different from that of utilitarian benefits. This difference in emotional experience results in significantly different levels of customer delight, satisfaction, word-of-mouth, and repurchase intent. We explored this question with studies involving cell-phones, laptop computers, and automobiles. The first two studies involved students from a North American university, and the third study with automobile owners tapped into their consumption experiences with cars. The results across the three studies were consistent and support the fundamental research proposition and the proposed conceptual framework shown in Figure 1.

The primary insights provided by this research are: 1) products that meet or exceed customers' utilitarian needs and fulfill *prevention* goals enhance customer satisfaction; and, 2) products that meet or exceed customers' hedonic wants and fulfill *promotion* goals enhance customer delight. Further, the research finds that the primary antecedent feelings of satisfaction are the prevention emotions of confidence and security provided by utilitarian benefits (Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007; Higgins 1997; Higgins 2001), while the primary antecedent feelings of delight are the promotion emotions of cheerfulness and excitement provided by hedonic benefits (Higgins 1997; Higgins 2001; Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007). Additionally, the research shows that customer delight improves customer loyalty by improving both word-of-mouth and repurchase intent. A

summary discussion of the theoretical contribution follows. The paper concludes with a discussion of the strategic insights provided by this research for product designers and marketers.

Theoretical Contribution

Based on prior work by Higgins (1997), Higgins (2001), Chernev (2004), and Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan (2007) we proposed that the goals of prevention focus served by utilitarian benefits are primarily to avoid pain, whereas the goals of promotion focus served by hedonic benefits are primarily to seek pleasure. Consistent with our predictions we found that the type and the intensity of consumption emotions differ between hedonic and utilitarian benefits because they help fulfill different goals of seeking pleasure and avoiding pain. The results from the three studies prove a correspondence that links hedonic benefits with promotion emotions of cheerfulness and excitement leading to delight, and a correspondence that links utilitarian benefits with prevention emotions of confidence and security leading to satisfaction. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to demonstrate such a correspondence between product design benefits (hedonic versus utilitarian), post-consumption emotions (delight versus satisfaction), and loyalty.

Hedonic Benefits and Delight, and Utilitarian Benefits and Satisfaction. Prior work on emotion theories has shown that delight and satisfaction are not the same feelings (Lazarus 1991; Oliver, Rust, and Varki 1997). The emotion of delight has been shown to accompany greater levels of arousal compared to satisfaction (Oliver 1997). As discussed earlier, the fulfillment of prevention goals leads to greater confidence and security—emotions low in arousal (Lazarus 1991; Roseman 1991). On the other hand, the fulfillment of promotion goals leads to greater excitement and cheerfulness—emotions high in arousal

(Lazarus 1991; Roseman 1991). Given the high arousal levels of delight and the promotion emotions of excitement and cheerfulness, we predicted and found evidence that promotion emotions of excitement and cheerfulness are the primary antecedent feelings of delight. We also found that the promotion emotions fully mediate the relationship between hedonic benefits and delight (see Figure 2, Model 1). Similarly, consistent with our prediction, we found evidence that the low arousal feelings of confidence and security from utilitarian benefits are the primary antecedent feelings of satisfaction. Further, the prevention emotions fully mediate the relationship between the level of utilitarian benefits and satisfaction (see Figure 2, Model 2). Additionally, we found that there was a significant difference between the correlation of arousal and promotion emotions and the correlation of arousal and prevention emotions. The intensity of arousal as well as the magnitude of its correlation was stronger with the promotion emotions than with the prevention emotions. This shows that positive consumption of hedonic benefits leads to greater arousal than the positive consumption of utilitarian benefits. However, in the case of negative consumption experience, greater arousal was associated with the consumption of utilitarian benefits (i.e., anger) and not hedonic benefits. This is consistent with the principle of precedence that states that fulfillment of prevention goals by utilitarian benefits is more important than fulfillment of promotion goals by hedonic benefits (Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007).

Delight, Promotion Emotions, Word-of-Mouth, and Repurchase Intentions. This research proposed and tested a model of relationships involving promotion emotions, delight, word-of-mouth, and repurchase intent (see Figure 2, Model 1). It also found that promotion emotions directly impact delight, word-of-mouth, and repurchase intent. However, delight only partially mediated the relationship between promotion emotions and word-of-mouth.

Further, delight did not directly influence repurchase intent in Model 1. The insight generated from the results of testing Model 1, shown in Figure 1, is that even delight may not be an adequate measure of total consumption experience from fulfillment of promotion goals. There are other aspects of product consumption experience captured by promotion emotions of cheerfulness and excitement that directly impact word-of-mouth and repurchase intent.

Satisfaction, Prevention Emotions, Word-of-Mouth, and Repurchase Intent. We proposed and tested a second model of relationships involving prevention emotions, satisfaction, word-of-mouth, and repurchase intent (see Figure 2, Model 2). The research found that prevention emotions directly impact satisfaction, word-of-mouth, and repurchase intent. Additionally, satisfaction partially mediates the relationship between prevention emotions and word-of-mouth. The relationship between prevention emotions and repurchase intent is also partially mediated by satisfaction. The insight generated from the results of testing Model 2, shown in Figure 1, is that satisfaction may not be an adequate measure of total consumption experience from fulfillment of prevention goals. There are other aspects of product consumption experience captured by prevention emotions of confidence and security that directly impact word-of-mouth and repurchase intent.

Managerial Implications and Future Research

The research findings in this paper could have significant implications for decision makers in product design and marketing organizations. Due to budget and time constraints, designers and managers are often compelled to choose among various attributes. If there is no budget or time constraint, then perhaps the best solution is to maximize on both hedonic and utilitarian dimensions of benefit. But what is the limit for maximization? At what point

do diminishing returns begin to negatively impact the return-on-investment (ROI)? Are the diminishing returns significantly different for hedonic and utilitarian benefits? Does this fundamental difference lead to significant differences in the diffusion of innovations? These are potential topics for future research. These unknowns make the tradeoff process between various attributes and benefits difficult and non-optimal (Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007). However, more often than not, product designers and managers are forced to make a tradeoff between selecting one attribute versus the other for a variety of reasons. In such situations, we believe that the designers and marketing managers would be able to make better decision if they consider the insights offered by this research.

Keiningham and Vavra (2001, p. 176) state that, “Creating delight for your customers first requires knowing and eliminating their points of pain, and then listening to their desires.” Norman (2004) and Postrel (2003) propose the role of design in enhancing the emotional experience with the consumption of a product. Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) studied the role of brand equity on brand performance in the context of hedonic and utilitarian benefits offered by a product. Chaudhuri (2006) discusses a correspondence between merchandising value and utilitarian value; and differentiation value and hedonic value. Mahajan and Wind (2002) discuss an emotion based product positioning strategy. The discussion on how the insights developed in this research could potentially bridge some gaps between managerial assertions and academic literature on design, delight, and loyalty follows.

Design Strategy, Delight, and Satisfaction. The results from this research demonstrate a correspondence between utilitarian benefits, prevention emotions of confidence and security, and customer satisfaction. We find that customer delight is not

directly influenced by either prevention emotions or satisfaction. Therefore, improving utilitarian benefits well beyond customers' needs and expectations could perhaps achieve high satisfaction, but not delight. If designers and marketers want to delight the customers, they should consider offering greater levels of hedonic benefits that fulfill promotion goals leading to excitement and cheerfulness. Further, we also find that satisfaction is directly influenced by prevention emotions, but not promotion emotions and delight.

What does it all mean for the design, development, and marketing of products? The process of product development and testing can be made much more benefits-experience-emotion centric rather than purely "attribute centric" by including the following steps: 1) Every attribute being considered for inclusion in the design specification must be rated on its ability and likelihood of fulfilling target customers' promotion and prevention goals; 2) Use conjoint analysis to identify the most desirable combination of the promotion and prevention goals and their relative importance to maximize customer loyalty; 3) calibrate and match the attributes based on their contribution rating on promotion and prevention dimensions from step 1 with the ideal combination of promotion and prevention goals for the target customer segment from step 2; and, 4) concept testing, product use-testing, and market testing must then be calibrated iteratively with the ideal profile of promotion and prevention goals developed in steps 1, 2, and 3 until an optimal product and marketing plan is achieved. We believe that the incorporation of above steps in the new product development process would improve the probability of success for a new product. As a potential topic of future research, it would be useful to know if the above proposition is beneficial and also if this approach is more beneficial for radical versus incremental innovations.

Does Delight Improve Loyalty? Although practitioners often make assertions that delight is essential for greater loyalty, the evidence in the literature is mixed (Rust and Oliver 2000). This research provides new insights on this issue. It shows that customer delight directly impacts word-of-mouth and repurchase intent. Therefore, delight does improve two of the key measures of loyalty and must be pursued (Jacoby and Chestnut 1978). Additionally, we find that promotion emotions that directly impact delight also directly impact word-of-mouth and repurchase intent. This demonstrates the role of hedonics in improving loyalty by improving promotion emotions that also improve delight. Further, analysis shows that both delight and satisfaction directly impact word-of-mouth and repurchase intent. These findings suggest that there is more going on between the customer and the product than just satisfaction. We suggest that designers and marketers pursue the goal of not just satisfying, but also delighting the customer. In addition improving promotion emotions of cheerfulness and excitement, and improving prevention emotions of confidence and security would further improve loyalty. One of the potential topics for future research could be to see if promotion emotions, prevention emotions, and delight improve loyalty for B-to-B products and services as well.

Is Surprise Necessary to Delight Customers? Chandler (1989) considers customer delight as being fundamentally different from customer satisfaction, but claims that surprising (i.e., unanticipated) satisfaction is necessary for delight. In this research we did not find evidence that surprise is necessary to be delighted. But we did find evidence of arousal influencing delight. It is possible that arousal fully mediates the relationship between surprise and delight. If the above conjecture is true, then in the case of a completely utilitarian product, perhaps surprise is the only means to increasing the arousal that is necessary for

delight. Therefore, depending on the primary nature of the product (hedonic or utilitarian), marketers need to use either surprise or hedonics as a potential means to delight. We also know that surprise is harder to sustain (Rust and Oliver 2000). Therefore, surprise-based delight could also be difficult to sustain. It would be useful to find out if hedonics-based promotion emotions leading to delight are easier to sustain because they are not based on surprise. This is a potential topic of future research that has significant managerial implications for product design and marketing strategy.

CONCLUSION

Based on the results from studies with students and automobile owners, we demonstrated a correspondence between hedonic benefits, delight, and loyalty. Similarly, we demonstrated a correspondence between utilitarian benefits, satisfaction, and loyalty. We also found evidence that although delight and satisfaction are positively correlated, they are significantly different in terms of their antecedent emotions—promotion and prevention emotions respectively, and the consequences for customer loyalty as measured by word-of-mouth and repurchase intent. Finally, we showed that delighting customers improves word-of-mouth and repurchase intent compared to merely satisfying them.

END NOTES

1. Voss, Spangenberg and Grohmann (2003, p. 310, emphasis added) state, “Investigation of the *hedonic* and *utilitarian* components of attitude has been suggested in such diverse disciplines as sociology, psychology, and economics. This multidisciplinary recognition of the hedonic and utilitarian elements of *consumption* mirrors parallel theoretical development in marketing, mainly from a series of articles (e.g., Batra and Ahtola 1990; Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2007; Dhar and Wertenbroch 2000; Okada 2005)”.
2. The benefits offered by the attributes of a product can be broadly categorized along two dimensions--hedonic and utilitarian. These benefits can be high or low depending on the product (Crowley, Spangenberg and Hughes 1992). Consistent with work done by Dhar and Wertenbroch (2000) and Okada (2005), this research conceptualizes hedonic (or utilitarian) product alternatives as ones that offer relatively superior hedonic (or utilitarian) benefits.
3. Using the HED/UTI scale developed by Voss, Spangenberg and Grohmann (2003), each attribute was selected for the primary nature of their benefits—hedonic or utilitarian. Three attributes were selected to construct the hedonic dimension and another three were selected to construct the utilitarian dimension of the product benefits.
4. Cell phone and laptop computer pictures were pre-tested for their style and attractiveness. A collection of 9 cell phone and laptop computer pictures were rated by 47 students on a scale of 1 to 10 on the overall measure of “style and attractiveness” (1 = Low, 10 = High). The picture that was rated the highest (cell phone Mean = 8.7; laptop computer Mean = 7.5) and the one that was rated in the middle (cell phone Mean = 4.6; laptop computer Mean = 4.1) were picked to construct the stimuli. The most stylish and attractive picture was used with superior hedonic benefits combined with medium utilitarian benefits, and the other picture was used with medium hedonic benefits combined with superior utilitarian benefits to construct the stimuli for the two products used in study 1 and study 2.
5. Single-item discrete emotion measures are prevalent in emotion literature. For a more detailed discussion see Larsen and Fredrickson (1999, pages 40-60). See also Bergkvist and Rossiter (2007) for a more detailed discussion on the effectiveness of single-item versus multi-item measures.
6. A study with the same design was replicated with non-students using cell phones. The results are consistent with the first two studies with students. Therefore, in the interest of space, we have not reported the results of that study.

REFERENCES

- Bagozzi, Richard P., Mahesh Gopinath, and Prashanth U. Nyer (1999), "The Role of Emotions in Marketing," *Academy of Marketing Science*, Volume 27, No. 2, 184-206.
- Baron, Reuben M. and David A. Kenny (1986), "The Moderator-Mediator Variable Distinction in Social Psychological Research: Conceptual, Strategic, and Statistical Considerations," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51, 1173-1182.
- Batra, Rajeev and O. T. Ahtola (1990). "Measuring the Hedonic and Utilitarian Sources of Consumer Attitudes." *Marketing Letters*. 2:2, 159-170.
- Bergkvist, Lars and John Rossiter (2007), "The Predictive Validity of the Multiple-Item Versus Single-Item Measures of the Same Constructs." *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. XLIV (May 2007), (175-184).
- Berry, Christopher J. (1994), *The Idea of Luxury: A conceptual and Historical Investigation*, New York, Cambridge University Press.
- Chandler, Colby H. (1989), "Quality: Beyond Customer Satisfaction," *Quality Progress*, 22 (February): 30-32.
- Chaudhuri (2006), *Emotion and Reason in Consumer Behavior*, Elsevier: Butterworth-Heinemann, Oxford, UK.
- Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001), "The Chain of Effects from Brand Trust and Brand Affect to Brand Performance: The Role of Brand Loyalty," *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 65, 81-93.
- Chernev, Alexander (2004), "Goal-Attribute Compatibility in Consumer Choice," *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, Volume 14, Number 1 & 2, 141-150.
- Chitturi, Ravindra, Rajagopal Raghunathan and Vijay Mahajan (2007), "Form Versus

- Function: How the Intensities of Specific Emotions Evoked in Functional Versus Hedonic Tradeoffs Mediate Product Preferences,” *Journal of Marketing Research*, 44 (November), 702 - 714.
- Crowley, Ayn E., Eric R. Spangenberg, and Kevin R. Hughes (1992), “Measuring the Hedonic and Utilitarian Dimensions of Attitudes toward Product Category,” *Marketing Letters*, Volume 3, Number 3, 239 – 249.
- Dhar, Ravi and Klaus Wertenbroch (2000), “Consumer Choice Between Hedonic and Utilitarian Goods,” *Journal of Marketing Research*, 37 (1), 60 – 71.
- Frijda, Nico H. (1986), *The emotions*. Cambridge England: Cambridge University Press.
- (1987), Emotion, cognitive structure, and action tendency. *Cognition and Emotion*, 1, 115-143.
- Higgins, E. Tory (2001), “Promotion and Prevention Experiences: Relating Emotions to Nonemotional Motivational States,” in *Handbook of Affect and Social Cognition*, (ed.) Joseph P. Forgas, Lawrence Erlbaum: London, pp. 186 - 211.
- (1997), “Beyond Pleasure and Pain,” *American Psychologist*, 52(12), 1280-1300.
- Holbrook, B. Morris (1999), *Consumer Value: A Framework for Analysis and Research*. New York: Routledge.
- Hunt, H. Keith (1977), “CS/D—Overview and Future Research Directions,” in *Conceptualization and Measurement of Consumer Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction*, ed. H. Keith Hunt, Cambridge, M.A: Marketing Science Institute, 455-488.
- Inman, Jeffrey J., James S. Dyer, and Jiamin Jia (1997), “A Generalized Utility Model of Disappointment and Regret Effects on Post-choice Valuation,” *Marketing Science*, 16(2), 97-111.

- Jacoby, Jacob and Robert W. Chestnut (1978), *Brand Loyalty: Measurement and Management*, New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Jones, Thomas O. and W. Earl Sasser, Jr. (1995), "Why Satisfied Customers Defect," *Harvard Business Review*, November-December, 88-99.
- Kivetz, Ran and Itamar Simonson (2002a), "Earning the Right to Indulge: Effort as a Determinant of Customer Preferences Toward Frequency Program Rewards," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 39(2), 155 - 170.
- Kivetz, Ran and Itamar Simonson (2002b), "Self-Control for the Righteous: Toward a Theory of Precommitment to Indulgence," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 29 (September), 199 - 217.
- Keiningham, Timothy and Terry Vavra (2001), *The Customer Delight Principle*, McGraw-Hill, New York, NY.
- Larsen, Randy J. and Barbara L. Fredrickson (1999), "Measurement Issues in Emotion Research," in *Well-Being: The Foundation of Hedonic Psychology*, (eds.) Daniel Kahneman, Ed Diener, and Norbert Schwarz, Russell Sage Foundation, New York, pp. 40-60.
- Lazarus, Richard S. (1991), *Emotion and Adaptation*. Oxford University Press, New York.
- Mahajan, Vijay and Yoram (Jerry) Wind (2002), "Got Emotional Product Positioning?" *Marketing Management*, 11 (May-June), 36-41.
- Mano, Haim and Richard L. Oliver (1993), "Assessing the Dimensionality and Structure of Consumption Experience: Evaluation, Feeling, and Satisfaction," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 20 (December), 451-466.
- Maslow, Abraham H. (1970), *Motivation and Personality*, 2nd ed., New York: Harper and Row.

- Mehrabian, Albert and James Russell (1974), *An approach to Environmental Psychology*.
Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Mittal, Vikas, William T. Ross, Jr., and Patrick M. Baldasare (1998), "The Asymmetric Impact of Negative and Positive Attribute-Level Performance on Overall Satisfaction and Repurchase Intentions," *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 62, No. 1, 33 - 47.
- Norman, Donald A. (2004), *Emotional Design: why we love (or hate) everyday things*. Basic Books, New York, NY.
- Okada, Erica M. (2005), "Justification Effects on Consumer Choice of Hedonic and Utilitarian Goods," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 42 (1), 43 – 53.
- Oliver, Richard (1997), *Satisfaction: A Behavioral Perspective on the Consumer*, McGraw-Hill Series in Marketing, New York, NY.
- , Roland T. Rust, and Sajeew Varki (1997), "Customer Delight: Foundations, Findings, and Managerial Insight," *Journal of Retailing*, 73 (3), 311-336.
- Ortony, Andrew, Gerald L. Clore, and Allan Collins (1988), *The Cognitive Structure of Emotions*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Plutchik, Robert (1980), *Emotion: A Psychoevolutionary Synthesis*, New York: Harper and Row.
- Postrel, Virginia (2003), *The Substance of Style*, HarperCollins Publishers, New York.
- Reichheld, Frederick F. (1993), "Loyalty-Based Management," *Harvard Business Review*, 71 (March-April), 64-73.
- Roseman, Ira J. (1991), "Appraisal Determinants of Discrete Emotions," *Cognition and Emotion*, 5 (3), 161-200.
- Russell, James A. (1980), "A circumplex model of affect," *Journal of Personality and*

- Social Psychology*, 39(6):1161--1178, 1980.
- Rust, Roland L. and Richard L. Oliver (2000), "Should We Delight the Customer?,"
Academy of Marketing Science, Volume 28, No. 1, 86-94.
- Strahilevitz, Michal and John G. Myers (1998), "Donations to Charity as Purchase
Incentives: How Well They Work May Depend on What You Are Trying to Sell,"
Journal of Consumer Research, 24 (4), 434-46.
- Voss, Kevin E., Eric R. Spangenberg and Bianca Grohman (2003), "Measuring the Hedonic
and Utilitarian Dimensions of Consumer Attitude," *Journal of Marketing Research*,
40 (August), 310-320.
- Weber, Max (1998), *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*, 2nd ed., Los Angeles:
Roxbury.
- Westbrook, Robert A. (1987), "Product/Consumption-Based Affective Responses and
Postpurchase Processes." *Journal of Marketing Research*, 24 (August), 258-270.
- Westbrook, Robert A. and Richard L. Oliver (1991), "The Dimensionality of Consumption
Emotion Patterns and Consumer Satisfaction." *Journal of Consumer Research*, 18
(June), 84-91.

Table 1

POST-CONSUMPTION EMOTIONAL RESPONSES FOR POSITIVE EXPERIENCE WITH HEDONIC VERSUS UTILITARIAN PRODUCT BENEFITS

Post-consumption Customer Emotions	Product with Superior Hedonic Benefits Mean (SD)	Product with Superior Utilitarian Benefits Mean (SD)	Estimate of Difference t value
<i>CELL PHONE (STUDY 1)</i>			
Excitement	6.07 (1.31)	3.70 (1.37)	6.84**
Cheerfulness	5.47 (1.36)	4.20 (1.54)	3.38**
Delight	5.87 (1.31)	4.47 (1.53)	3.82**
Security	3.80 (1.54)	5.70 (1.21)	5.32**
Confidence	3.47 (1.50)	5.47 (1.41)	5.22**
<i>LAPTOP COMPUTER (STUDY 2)</i>			
Excitement	5.83 (1.36)	3.50 (1.39)	6.57**
Cheerfulness	5.03 (1.40)	3.80 (1.27)	3.57**
Delight	5.57 (1.52)	4.17 (1.32)	3.81**
Security	3.97 (1.61)	5.13 (1.31)	3.08**
Confidence	3.77 (1.30)	5.03 (1.81)	3.11**
* Significant at p< .05			
** Significant at p< .01			

Table 2

POST-CONSUMPTION EMOTIONAL RESPONSES FOR NEGATIVE EXPERIENCE WITH HEDONIC VERSUS UTILITARIAN PRODUCT BENEFITS

Post-consumption Customer Emotions	Product with Superior Hedonic Benefits Mean (SD)	Product with Superior Utilitarian Benefits Mean (SD)	Estimate of Difference t value
<i>CELL PHONE (STUDY 1)</i>			
Dissatisfaction	6.20 (1.10)	5.27 (1.62)	2.62*
Anger	3.70 (1.78)	5.73 (1.01)	5.07**
<i>LAPTOP COMPUTER (STUDY 2)</i>			
Dissatisfaction	5.97 (1.13)	4.80 (1.40)	3.55**
Anger	3.80 (1.65)	5.80 (1.06)	5.58**
* Significant at p< .05			
** Significant at p< .01			

Table 3

POST-CONSUMPTION POSITIVE EMOTIONS OF CAR OWNERS (STUDY 3)

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations*

	Mean (SD)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Delighted	4.53 (1.70)	1							
2. Satisfied	5.35 (1.31)	.52	1						
3. Excited	4.58 (1.85)	.78	.58	1					
4. Confident	5.09 (1.38)	.63	.61	.64	1				
5. Cheerful	4.62 (1.67)	.86	.57	.84	.65	1			
6. Secure	5.11 (1.48)	.52	.44	.48	.81	.56	1		
7. Word-of-Mouth	5.28 (1.47)	.57	.59	.48	.62	.44	.51	1	
8. Repurchase Intent	4.67 (1.99)	.48	.59	.49	.47	.47	.38	.78	1

* All correlations are statistically significant ($p < .01$)

Table 4**FULL MODEL STATISTICS OF RELATIONSHIPS INVOLVING HEDONIC AND UTILITARIAN DESIGN BENEFITS, DELIGHT, SATISFACTION, WORD-OF-MOUTH, AND REPURCHASE INTENT (STUDY 3)**

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Std. Coeff. β	p-value	R² Adjusted
Word-of-Mouth	Delight	.163	.050	.374
	Satisfaction	.546	.000	
Repurchase Intent	Delight	.243	.034	.371
	Satisfaction	.714	.000	
Delight	Hedonic Benefits	.405	.000	.170
	Utilitarian Benefits	.124	n.s.	
Satisfaction	Hedonic Benefits	.197	.019	.180
	Utilitarian Benefits	.298	.009	
Promotion Emotions	Hedonic Benefits	.478	.000	.211
	Utilitarian Benefits	.070	n.s.	
Prevention Emotions	Hedonic Benefits	.227	.006	.271
	Utilitarian Benefits	.400	.000	
Delight	Promotion Emotions*	.797	.000	.741
	Prevention Emotions**	.126	n.s.	
Satisfaction	Promotion Emotions	.325	.000	.399
	Prevention Emotions	.373	.000	
Delight	Promotion Emotions	.765	.000	.742
	Prevention Emotions	.099	n.s.	
	Satisfaction	.099	n.s.	
Satisfaction	Promotion Emotions	.215	n.s.	.401
	Prevention Emotions	.256	.009	
	Delight	.137	n.s.	

* Promotion Emotions of Excitement and Cheerfulness (Higgins 2001; Higgins 1997)

** Prevention Emotions of Confidence and Security (Higgins 2001; Higgins 1997)

Figure 1

PROPOSED CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

DELIGHT/DISSATISFACTION *VERSUS* SATISFACTION/ANGER

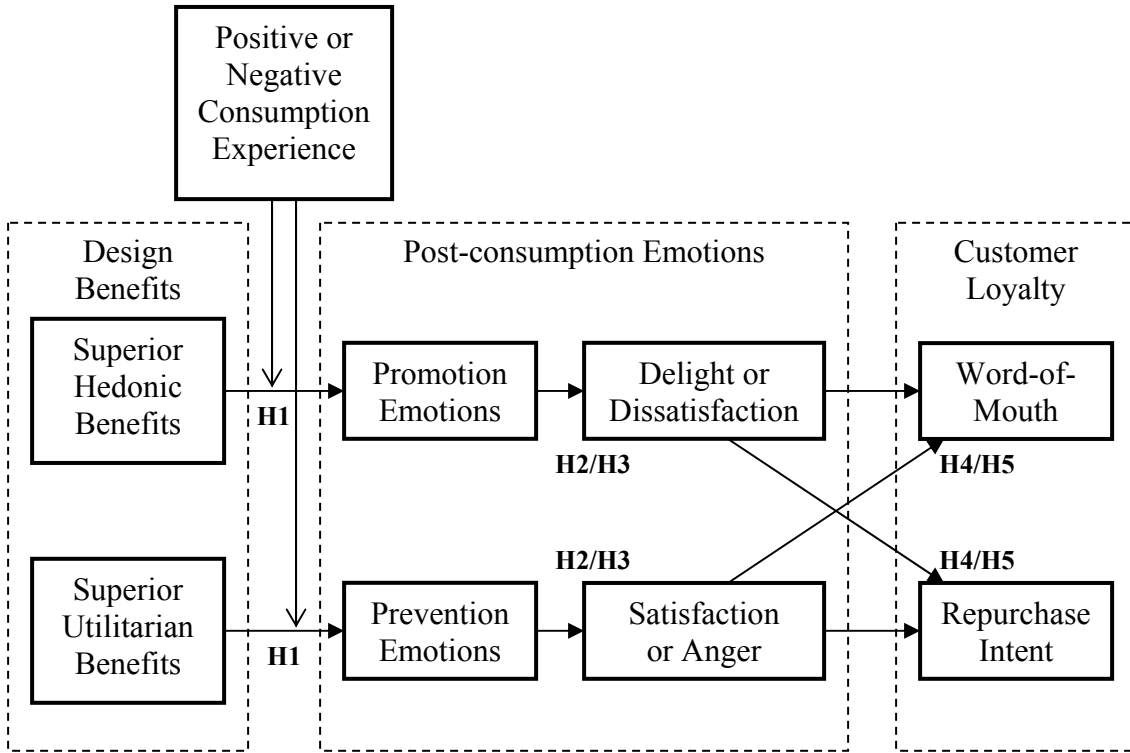
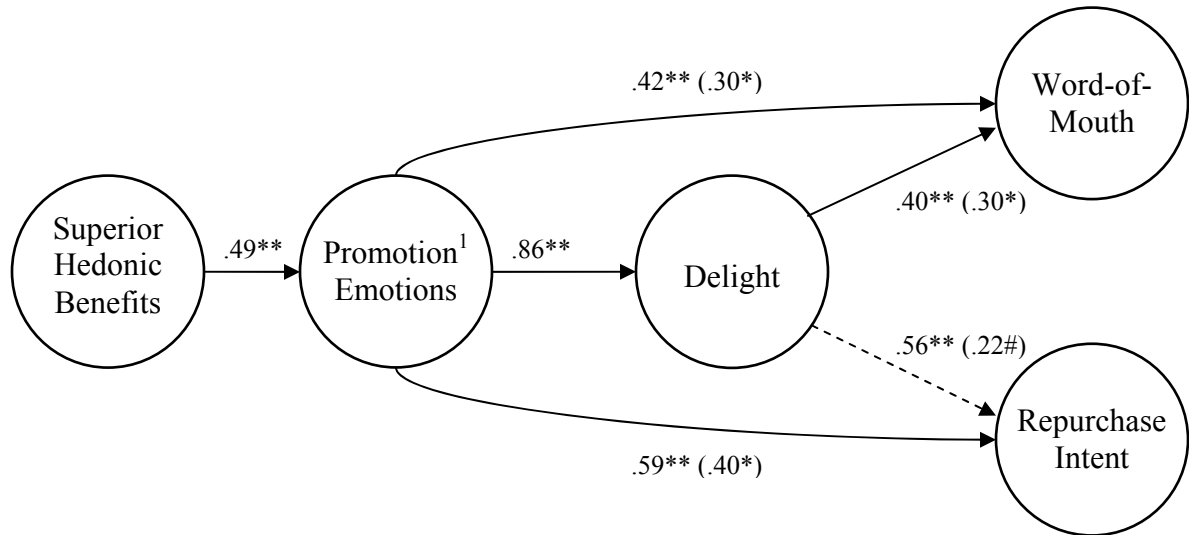


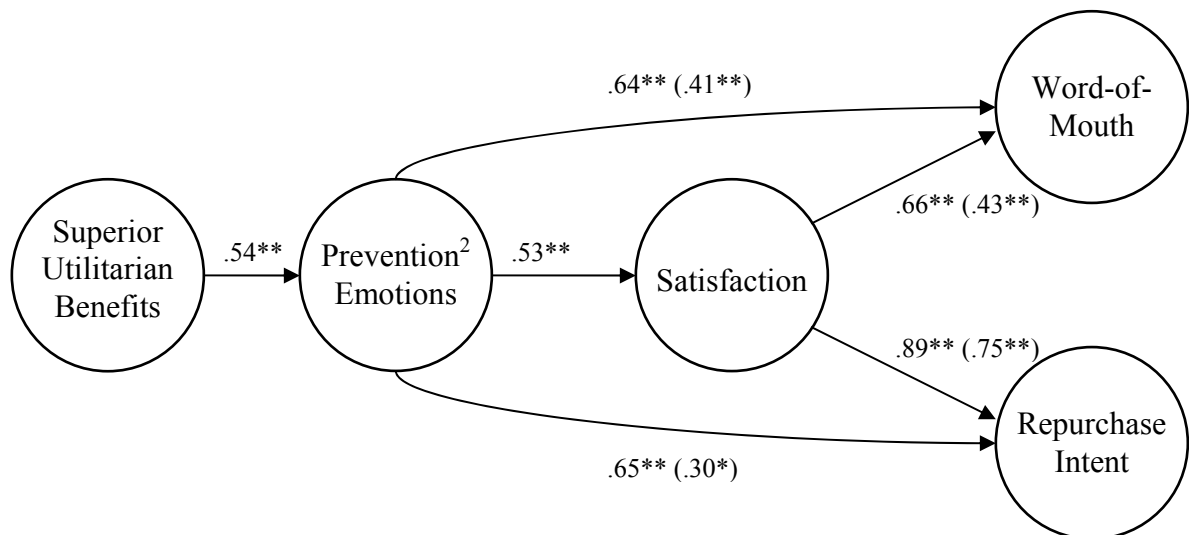
Figure 2

MODELS OF POST-CONSUMPTION POSITIVE EMOTIONS AND LOYALTY OF CAR OWNERS BASED ON THE CONSUMPTION OF SUPERIOR HEDONIC BENEFITS (MODEL 1) AND SUPERIOR UTILITARIAN BENEFITS (MODEL 2)

(Study 3) Model 1: Promotion Emotions, Delight, and Loyalty



(Study 3) Model 2: Prevention Emotions, Satisfaction, and Loyalty



- 1 - Promotion Emotions of Excitement and Cheerfulness (Higgins 2001; Higgins 1997)
- 2 - Prevention Emotions of Confidence and Security (Higgins 2001; Higgins 1997)
- # - Not significant
- * - Relationship significant at p < .05
- ** - Relationship significant at p < .01

Appendix A

INTENSITY OF POST-CONSUMPTION EMOTIONS FOR PRODUCTS WITH SUPERIOR HEDONIC *VERSUS* SUPERIOR UTILITARIAN BENEFITS

Figure A-1 (Study 1)
EXCITEMENT-CHEERFULNESS *VERSUS* CONFIDENCE-SECURITY

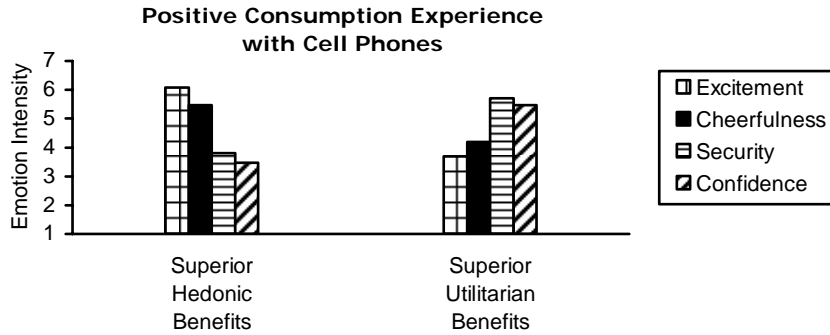


Figure A-2 (Study 2)
DELIGHT *VERSUS* SATISFACTION

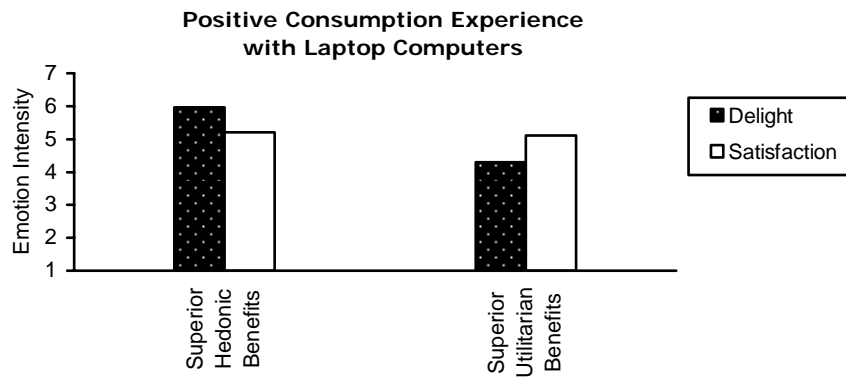
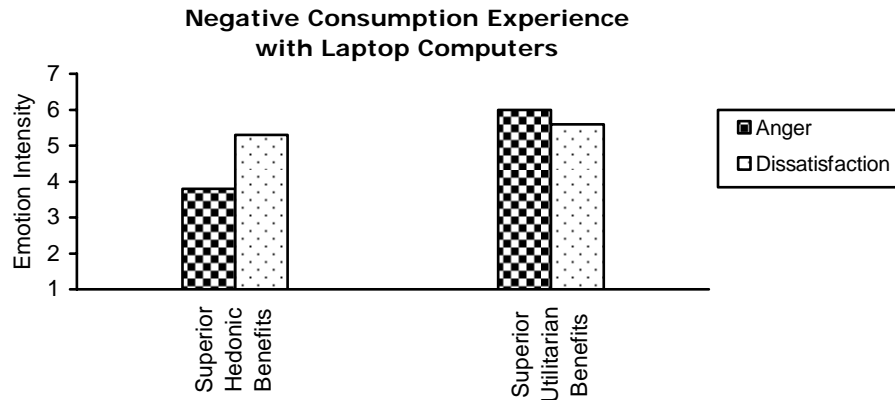


Figure A-3 (Study 2)
ANGER *VERSUS* DISSATISFACTION



Appendix B

SAMPLE ITEMS FROM STUDY MEASURES

Post-consumption Emotion Measures

Based on the overall experience of using my car, I feel ...

	<u>Not at all</u>					<u>Extremely</u>	
Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Delighted	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Word of Mouth

Given the experience with your car, how likely are you to recommend your car to others?

<u>Not at all</u>						<u>Extremely</u>
<u>Likely</u>						<u>Likely</u>
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Repurchase Intentions

Given the experience with your car, would you repurchase the same car, if you had to do it all over again?

<u>Not at all</u>						<u>Extremely</u>
<u>Likely</u>						<u>Likely</u>
1	2	3	4	5	6	7