WWW=WAIT, WAIT, WAIT: EMOTIONAL REACTIONS TO WAITING ON THE INTERNET

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the topic of waiting on the Internet from a marketing perspective. Although the speed of the Internet has increased notably since its popularization in the 1990s, consumers' expectations have also increased significantly. This paper reports on a qualitative study of online consumer experiences of waiting on the Internet. This is an important issue because online waiting has been linked to negative business outcomes such as consumer abandonment, lack of trust, interrupted interactivity and negative brand attitudes. The study finds that online waiting does not always involve negative emotional reactions, especially when the wait is followed by the successful completion of the task at hand. Indeed, the reaction to online waiting was often one of resignation and the acceptance of a certain amount of delay. This finding contrasts with the conventional wisdom on waiting in services that making consumers wait for service is negative and should be eliminated. Theoretical explanations are sought for this result which is contradictory to mainstream research. In the specific context of waiting online, this study suggests that companies would be well advised to direct more efforts towards assisting the user to accomplish his/her task online rather than simply speeding up download times.

Keywords: Waiting; Internet; Consumer-behaviour; Emotions

1. Introduction

This study examines the topic of waiting on the Internet. Academics, professionals and users have been complaining about the slowness of the Internet since the mid 90's [Chebat et al. 2010; Dabholkar & Sheng 2009; Dellaert & Kahn 1999; Sears et al. 1997; Tze-Hsien & Ching-Jui 2014]. Although the Internet is much faster nowadays, consumers' expectations have also increased significantly. We now expect instantaneous results from the Internet [Kedrosky 2006; Weatherhead 2014]. Just as waiting in everyday life is undesirable, waiting on the Internet produces negative effects on the Internet user experience, which in turn leads to negative word-of-mouth [Román & Riquelme 2014]. The phenomenon of web rage has been widely reported in the popular press [Team Register 2014], while books and pop songs have been dedicated to the experience of waiting on the Internet [Bowman 2002; Ryan 2014]. It has been suggested that waiting online provokes negative feelings of frustration and impatience on the part of the user [Román & Riquelme 2014; Eisenberg 2002], which can lead users to abandon web sites [Dabholkar & Sheng 2008; Kaufman-Scarborough & Lindquist 2002; Rajamma et al. 2009] and to develop negative attitudes towards them [Rose & Straub 2001]. Waiting on the Internet has also been linked been linked to a lack of trust in the security of web sites [Yoon 2002], to the interruption of the 'flow' experience [Rettie 2001; Van Beveren et al. 2003] and to problems in maintaining interactivity [Stewart & Pavlou 2002].

Most of the existing studies on this topic focus on just one single type of online waiting situation, commonly labelled download delay, i.e. the delay involved in waiting for web pages to download and appear on the user's screen [Nah 2004; Rose & Straub 2001; Rose et al. 2003; Weinberg 2000; Weinberg et al. 2003]. From a marketing perspective this ignores a whole range of online waiting situations in online services that were identified and described by Ryan & Valverde [2005], including waiting for replies from customer support services, waiting for onscreen advertising to end, waiting to access traffic congested websites or for websites temporarily closed for maintenance. The overriding emphasis on measuring just tolerance of download time has left many questions unanswered and many gaps in our knowledge of the wider consumer experience while waiting on the Internet. Indeed, no previous study has examined the emotional or affective consequences of waiting on the Internet in any great detail. This gap in our knowledge and understanding of online consumer behaviour is surprising considering that from a marketing perspective, waiting on the Internet has been linked to serious issues including the loss of potential clients and the elimination of one of the main motivations for shopping online, i.e. timesaving and convenience [Foucault & Scheufele 2002; Rodríguez 2002,]. The objective of this paper is to identify and consider the emotional reactions of consumers when they experience waiting on the Internet.

2. Literature review

This section examines the literature related to waiting on the Internet. Firstly, we examine the three main disciplines that consider this topic, Human Computer Interaction (HCI), Internet Quality of Service (QoS) and e-Services Marketing. Secondly, we examine the related literature on consumers' reactions to waiting in traditional (offline services) in order to consider the implications for research on waiting in online services. Thirdly, we examine the literature on emotions in order to consider the emotional reaction to waiting on the Internet.

In HCI research, the concept of 'delay' has been studied since the early 1980's [Shneiderman 1984; Weiss et al. 1982]. It demonstrates that delays in the response of personal computers cause uncomfortable feelings of annoyance and frustration among users [Schleifer & Amick 1989]. Research on waiting on the Internet from a HCI perspective is based on the premise that delays on the Internet will provoke similar feelings among web users [Jacko et al. 2000; Meyer & Hildebrandt 2002] including the abandonment of the web site [Nah 2004]. In fact, because the widespread assumption is that the reaction to delay is always negative [i.e. frustration, anxiety], this is the only emotional response that has been previously studied.

Related research in QoS examines how users perceive objective system quality parameter improvements such as increases in Internet download speed [Bhatti et al. 2000; Bouch & Sasse 1999]. In this sense, the focus of studies of waiting on the Internet within QoS examines how improvements in download time affect users' perceptions of network quality. The authors have not identified any previous studies on the emotional aspects of waiting on the Internet from a QoS perspective.

From a marketing point of view, waiting on the Internet is equivalent to keeping consumers waiting in a virtual queue. Marketers have been examining the problem of waiting in traditional (or 'offline') services since the early 1980s [Hornik 1984; Maister 1985] as consumer research in general began to take into account various aspects of the actual consumption experience. Indeed, this led to the emergence of emotional and affective aspects of consumption as a significant and enduring line of research [e.g. Derbaix & Pham 1991; Gardner 1985; Hirschman & Holbrook 1982; Hopkinson & Pujari 1999; Mano & Oliver 1993]. Waiting has been studied in a wide and diverse range of service contexts, such as fast food [Church & Newman 2000] and traditional restaurants [Dubé et al. 1989], video rental outlets [Metters et al. 2002], hospitals [Winbald et al. 2010] retail banking [Sarel & Marmorstein 1998; Voorhees et al. 2009], supermarkets [East et al. 1994], call centers [waiting on the telephone] [Antonides et al. 2002; Peevers et al. 2009] and so on. Consumers do not like to wait for service and in general the longer the wait, the more intense the negative emotional response of the consumer [Davis & Heineke 1998; Tom & Lucey 1995]. For example, the reaction is influenced by how long the individual expects to wait [Carmon 1991; Chebat & Filiatrault 1993; East et al. 1991]. Faced with an equally long wait, an individual who expects a shorter wait will react more negatively that an individual who has estimated a longer wait. The greater the value (or importance) the individual assigns to the service the less negative the reaction to the wait [Davis & Heineke 1994; Jones & Peppiatt 1996]. A positive state of mind or good humour generally reduces the negative reaction [Chebat et al. 1995; Davis & Heineke 1994; Hui et al. 1997] while time pressures tend to amplify the negative emotions [Bennett 1998; East 1997; Gross 1987; Mattson 1982].

There is also some evidence that some actions may be taken to reduce the negative effects of waiting. For instance, feedback or information on the progress of the wait may reduce the negative effects of the wait [Carmon 1991; Hui and Tse 1996]. In addition, once the wait is over and the service is completed, the consumer's perception of the quality of the service tends to affect their subsequent emotional reaction to the wait [Davis & Heineke 1994; Katz et al. 1991; Taylor 1994]. Finally, individuals who attribute the delay to causes other than the actual service provider are more

likely to experience a less negative waiting experience [East et al. 1991; Folkes et al. 1987; Taylor 1995; Tom & Lucey 1995].

Waiting in services has been studied extensively for more than three decades across a range of disciplines with the fundamental premise being that the longer consumers are forced to wait, the less favourable they will evaluate the service [Taylor 1994]. Yet, despite this considerable and sustained research effort, consumers are still waiting for services [Giebelhausen et al. 2011] in a broadening array of service contexts that adds waiting on the Internet and waiting on the telephone to the 'traditional' context of waiting in offline services. Yet despite the overriding emphasis on the adverse and negative aspects of waiting, there are some grounds to support a less negative interpretation of waiting. The literature that identifies the positive side of waiting is unconnected and scattered across a range of disciplines. Although it does not challenge the widely held and common sense view that waiting is negative, it does nevertheless suggest that sometimes consumers are willing to wait and may even choose a longer wait over a shorter wait. For instance, Dickson et al. [2005] suggest that consumers have come to expect and accept some waiting time and are not really that bothered by delays. Ahmadi [1997] and Heger et al. [2009] suggest that a certain amount of waiting time may even enhance a consumption experience, especially if the time is filled with entertaining activities. A number of authors claim that consumers often enjoy the social experience while waiting with others [Brady 2002; Rafaeli et al. 2002].

There is also much anecdotal evidence to suggest that waiting is not always unwelcome. For instance, dedicated fans of popular music sometimes spend days on end waiting outdoors just to be among the first to enter a concert [Argudo & Cano 2012; Metro 2012; Naoreen 2010]. Similarly, famous restaurants, such as Catalonia's El Bulli had a waiting list of over 3,000 customers willing to wait for many months to enjoy a singular gastronomic experience [Clelland 2011]. Likewise, in retailing, gadget fans worldwide regularly queue up for considerable time outside Apple stores, waiting to purchase their latest upgrade [Emery 2010; Truta 2012]. In marked contrast to the image of waiting lines full of bored, frustrated and agitated customers, as suggested by much of the academic research on the topic [Taylor 1994; Rafaeli et al. 2002], the opening of the doors at new Apple stores are typified by 'high-fives' from ecstatic salespeople and euphoric customers. Therefore, it seems that in certain contexts, rather than being considered a problem, waiting may be associated with positive emotions and behaviours [Friman 2010].

In the study of consumer behaviour, less is known about consumer's emotional responses than about how consumers make decisions and process information [Bagozzi et al. 1998]. Indeed, the most commonly measured consumer emotion is 'satisfaction' [Edwardson 1998], a ubiquitous, 'catch-all' term [Peterson & Wilson 1992] that often fails to portray the richness and variety of emotions displayed by consumers. As consumers we commonly purchase services not to be 'satisfied' but to experience emotions such as exhilaration (take the example of a rollercoaster or skiing) or terror (in the case of a horror movie) [Edwardson 1998]. Research suggests that an emotional service encounter is more likely to be remembered and recounted [Edwardson 1998; Pennebaker 1995] and that consumers often choose products and services based on emotional responses [Desmet 2003; Lu et al. 2012].

3. Research objectives

The objective of this study is to empirically explore the emotional responses of consumers to waiting on the Internet. Having examined the related literature, the authors were faced with the possibility of establishing a hypothesis [based on the premise that longer waits lead to more negative feelings]. However, because the research on this topic is at an early stage in its development, the authors preferred not to 'impose' any specific a priori relationship, but rather to let the results 'emerge' from the analysis of the Internet user experience. Nevertheless, it is important to point out that the widely held view in the extensive literature on waiting in services, is that the reaction of consumers to waiting is negative and that the longer the wait, the more intense the negative reaction [Taylor 1994].

4. Research methodology

Although, as mentioned before, researchers with very different backgrounds have studied waiting on the Internet, there has been an almost total reliance on one single research method, the laboratory experiment. The lack of variety in methodological choice is all the more surprising given that this is a relatively new topic of research, still in its exploratory stage. It should merit a whole range of approaches in order to address the variety of questions that tend to be posed when a new topic of research is emerging [Boyd et al. 1989]. Furthermore, most of these experiments employ a simulated (or manipulated) web site instead of a real (online) web site. While it is important to have absolute control of the variables in experimental design, a more naturalistic setting would be more appropriate in order to elicit the true reactions of subjects, especially in the exploratory stages of research. The authors do not question the validity of the laboratory experiment to examine the phenomenon of waiting on the Internet, but do take issue with the almost total reliance on this method. It is the authors' view that decisions on methodology should be guided by the nature of the research question [Morse & Field 1996]. Although all methods inherently possess both strengths and weaknesses, the

failure of researchers to adopt a broad range of methods means that the weaknesses of one method (in this case, the experiment) have not been counterbalanced by the use of different methods. Therefore, the present study adopts a predominantly constructivist perspective. The researcher is not equipped with existing testable theories on waiting on the Internet. Therefore, an inductive approach is taken [Gill & Johnson 1991; Richards & Richards 1994]. As this study required access to the everyday online user experience, non-intrusive qualitative research techniques were chosen because of their ability to allow the researcher access to the users' daily Internet sessions. Therefore, the personal diary method was employed. The diary method represents a written form of self-reporting. Self-reporting of personal subjective emotions is a commonly used procedure for measuring emotions [Bagozzi et al. 1999]. This is especially true in marketing research [Van Dolen et al. 2001]. One of the main advantages of self-reports in the form of diaries is that it allows the participants to report their own subjective emotions, in an unobtrusive manner, in their own frames of references, explaining in their own words, thus reducing the influences of the researcher-suggested alternatives.

To avoid drop-outs, to maintain contact with the participants during the research period and to ensure the quality of the diary entries, all respondents were asked to send the researchers their diaries (in-progress) on two occasions during the nine-week period of the field research and to send in the full completed diary at the end of the period. A personalised feedback message was sent to each individual by the researchers each time they sent in their diary in-progress. Where necessary, participants were asked to provide more details on the contextualisation of the waiting situation or more developed descriptions of their thoughts and feelings during the waiting situations. The instructions for the diary research placed much emphasis on the degree of richness and the contextualisation of the situations.

A purposeful intensity sampling strategy was employed for choosing the participants in the study [Miles & Huberman 1994]. In other words, the researcher sought rich examples of Internet users, individuals who use the Internet on a very regular, habitual basis (everyday users), but not unusual Internet users (Internet addicts or individuals who only use the Internet for one sole or overriding purpose such as game playing or downloading music). It was felt that this type of Internet user might potentially experience waiting on the Internet many times during the period of the fieldwork, and would provide the depth and richness of information required for the present study. The typical profile was of a university graduate, professionally employed with a regular income, between 25 and 50 years old. The empirical work involved 92 Internet users who kept personal diaries of their online waiting experiences over a nine-week period.

A number of actions were taken throughout the research process of the present study in order to guarantee the highest levels of rigour. For instance 'adequacy' [Glaser & Strauss 1967; Morse 1994] was achieved by ensuring that sufficient data was collected on a sufficient number and variety of waiting situations. A detailed audit trail [Morse 1994] was maintained throughout the research project. A teamwork approach [Morse 1994] was taken to the entire data analysis process. Fit [Glaser & Strauss 1967] was ensured by seeking the consumer/user perspective of the phenomenon being studied, through the unobtrusive method of diary research, with sufficient detail to allow the merging theory to 'fit' the daily reality of Internet use. Every effort was made to use the language used by the informants in the construction of the theory in order to maintain a high degree of understandability [Glaser & Strauss 1967]. Nvivo software was employed throughout the analysis of the qualitative data in order to assist the analysis. An initial task consisted of cleaning the data by clearly identifying each waiting instance and grouping them in each of the 14 types of online waiting situations identified by Ryan & Valverde [2005], as outlined on the left-hand side column of Table 1. With this complete, the analysis could begin. Regarding our analytical strategy, the aim was to approach the data with an open mind, thus facilitating the emergence of the categories from the qualitative data [Gibbs 2002]. However, given the extensive literature on waiting in services and the researchers' interest in the phenomenon of waiting, we did not approach the data with a tabula rasa. Initially the analysis was undertaken according to a concept driven approach employing a template analysis [Crabtree & Miller 1992]. However, the ensuing automatic coding resulted in a list of nodes that consisted of a list of decontextualized participant responses. Subsequently, the researchers decided to analyse the data from each waiting situation in a line-by-line manner, in effect, analysing one whole waiting event at a time. The change of procedure facilitated a more contextualised data coding. The data was analysed and interpreted by two researchers [Morse 1994]. Each researcher open coded [Strauss 1987] the data separately and later compared their codings. The inter-coder reliability was 82%, thus surpassing Klenke's [2008] measure of high inter-coder reliability of 80%. Subsequently, the researchers returned to the data to deal with the coding differences and agreed on a common coding scheme [Armstrong et al. 1997]. This served to identify the concepts and categories in the data, and to develop their properties through comparisons [Gibbs 2002]. In the subsequent axial coding phase, the categories and the relations between them were explored and refined [Gibbs 2002]. In the final selective coding stage, the "core" categories were established [Corbin & Strauss 1990]. All categories were compared constantly with the data throughout the entire codification process [Glaser 2001].

5. Findings

With regards to the range or general direction of the feelings associated with waiting on the Internet, ample data was collected for each of the 14 different types of online waiting situations [Ryan & Valverde 2005]. Table 1 illustrates the direction of feelings that were associated with each type of situation.

Waiting situation	Negative	Neutral	Positive	Dynamic
Revising Junk mail	Х	X		
Closing Pop-up Advertising	Х			
Part of process offline	Х	X		
Long process & poor usability	Х			Х
Installing software/plug-ins	Х	X		Х
Download delay	Х	X	Х	Х
Registering for access to websites	Х	X	X	Х
Waiting for product delivery	Х	X		Х
Waiting for reply to email enquiry	Х		Х	Х
In-process problem	Х	X	X	Х
Pre-process problem	Х	X	X	
Recuperating password	X		X	X
Time spent searching	Х	Х	Х	Х
Waiting for confirmation of transaction	Х	X		Х

Table 1: Emotions classified in terms of types of waiting on the Internet situations they were encountered in.

As noted earlier, the conventional wisdom among researchers on waiting in services and service practitioners is that waiting is negative and should be eliminated or minimised. However, the analysis of the qualitative data in this study suggested that different types of negative responses were not the only emotional outcomes to waiting on the Internet. In light of this intriguing result, it became necessary to map the variety of feelings that were identified in the analysis of the qualitative data. To do so, Ortony et al.'s [1988] model of emotions was employed (see figure 1). The authors decided to employ this specific model because of its widespread use among marketing scholars when examining consumer emotions [Bougie et al. 2003; Watson & Spence 2007] and because it covers a broad spectrum of emotions to cater for the unexpected variety of emotions we identified in our data. In the present study, informants were asked to describe their feelings during the online waiting situation. As the study examines reactions to events (the waiting situations), it was felt that the analysis of the data on feelings would mostly elicit feelings with regards to the part of Ortonys' model on reactions to the 'event' (as shown on the left-hand side of the figure). However, during the analysis of the data it became clear that Internet users also express affective responses in relation to the agents involved (i.e. in this case, online service providers, and the users themselves). The part of the Ortony model devoted to objects was not considered relevant for the purpose of the present analysis and this is why this part has not been developed in figure 1. The emotions identified in the analysis of the qualitative data will now be outlined in accordance with this model.

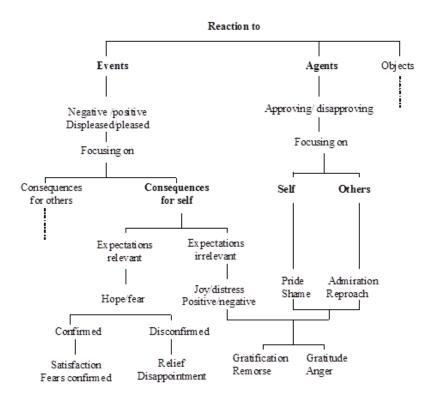


Figure 1: Structure of emotion types. Adapted from Ortony et al. 1988

5.1. Negative feelings

Very bad

Uncertain

5.1.1. Expectations irrelevant

These feelings represent a reaction to an event, where the focus is on 'consequences for self' and the individual's expectations are not relevant. Two sub-groups of negative feelings are identified in the data.

<u>General negative feelings:</u> This group represents negativity expressed in very general but clear terms, such as 'bad' and 'very bad', as the examples illustrate.

This time I felt really bad. I wanted to do lots of things on the Internet and I could practically do nothing.

<u>Tiredness</u>: This group of feelings is related to negativity due to increasing tiredness, weariness or fatigue. This emotion emerged and intensified when faced with repeated problems within one same waiting situation.

Fed up *You get fed up with so much waiting for every bit of information you ask for.*

5.1.2. Expectations relevant, but fear not yet confirmed

In the analysis of the data of situations where the individual's fears have not yet been confirmed, two sub groups of feelings were identified. These are identified as 'anxiety' and 'uncertainty', as the following examples illustrate.

Anxiety: This group of feelings represents varying degrees of anxiety, stress and tenseness during the waiting situation.

Very anxious It creates a sensation of anxiety, nervousness and general despondency and even more so when you have other work to do.

<u>Uncertainty</u>: The examples in this group are related to situations of uncertainty or lack of information, or not knowing whether or not the (online) process has worked.

The most general sensation was of uncertainty (Have I done it properly? Have I really sent it?)

5.1.3. Expectations relevant: hopes disconfirmed

The third group of negative feelings occurs later in the waiting event. They are indicative of situations where the individual's expectations are relevant and positive (hope) but where 'hopes have been disconfirmed'. The analysis of the data revealed three main groups of feelings in this category: frustration, disappointment and time wasting.

<u>Frustration</u>: In this group the individual expresses varying degrees of frustration or desperation because of the futility of the situation.

Very frustrated Having accepted the hopelessness of my efforts, I was very frustrated.

<u>Disappointment:</u> In this group the link between an expected positive outcome and an actual negative reality was very clear in the feelings of the informants.

Incredulous Once I had finished the whole process I was still amazed, the thing is at times this 'wreck' (PC) does things that no one could figure out.

<u>Time wasting</u>: In this group the feeling is very clear and consistent, that the time was simply wasted or lost.

Time wasting *I had an intense sensation of wasting time because I had already wasted about an hour.* 5.1.4. Agents: focusing on self

The following two sub-sections deal with the top, right hand side of figure 1. The analysis of the data revealed that Internet users' feelings were not confined to the waiting situation but were also directed towards 'agents' or parties, i.e. the 'self' (the individual user) or others (service providers etc.). These feelings are reactions to agents, distinguishing them from reactions to the actual waiting event.

As the examples illustrate, the data revealed feelings of 'stupidity', 'embarrassment', 'powerlessness' and so on, directed towards themselves. Indeed, this result was unanticipated, as no previous study in the area of marketing/consumer behaviour has identified negative self-directed feelings while waiting. It is surprising that the individual should have negative feelings towards him/herself in situations of waiting on the Internet. Neither has the individual been previously considered a factor when determining the causes of waiting on the Internet or in the literature on waiting in traditional services. Stupid Afterwards I felt ignorant for not knowing how to download files properly.

Afterwards I felt ignorant for not knowing how to download files properly. A little stupid, this has happened to me more than once.

When the situation began to change, when I had to try again, I felt like a real simpleton on others

5.1.5. Agents: focusing on others

In terms of negative feelings towards others, the focus of these negative feelings was mainly aimed at the owners/providers of the web site (companies, organisations, universities, etc.) and Internet access service providers. The negative feelings are based on a disapproval of someone else's blameworthy action and include synonyms such as appalled, contempt, disdain, indignation and reproach [Ortony et al. 1988]. Indeed, negative feelings towards other parties were commonplace throughout the data.

Insulted	But little by little I became insulted. I even thought that this must be a strategy of (name
	of company) to force sales of broadband, because up to a few months ago, this almost
	never happened, and now it happens at least once a week.
Indignant	I'm fairly indignant because of the incompetence (of the company).
Disdain	(I felt) disdain, and I wanted to spread the word as much as possible about this (name of
	brand) and the total negligence on the part of the advertisers of such a serious company.

5.2. Compound emotions

Compound emotions tend to be directed towards an agent. This type of feelings coincides with one of Plutchik's [1980] primary emotions, i.e. 'mixed emotions'. According to Ortony et al. [1988], negative compound emotions are a result of a combination of 'displeased' [about an undesirable event] plus disapproving of an agent's blameworthy action. The intersection of these feelings is illustrated in figure 1. as 'Anger'. A compound feeling is not a temporal relationship (i.e. one feeling followed by another) but an addition of two emotions at the same point in time. This implies that compound feelings are more likely to be stronger, more intense, than their constituent emotions.

Annoyed	When I really felt annoyed was when they called me by telephone to tell me that there were no tickets left. And I ask myself 'why don't they remove the offer from the web if there are no seats left?'
Very pissed off	At the same time I was getting pissed of because an organisation like (name of organisation) should have the proper technical resources to deal with so many connections at the same time.
Angry	I was angry, not just because of the fact that I couldn't get in because of losing the password, but also for the unclear, insufficient information that they gave me on the customer service helpline.
Very angry	It makes your blood boil. I was really angryangry with the Internet, (name of software company) and everything else.
Furious	I wanted to get 'revenge' for this lack of respect for the consumer and the need to let as many people know about it as possible.

5.3. Neutral feelings

In many cases Internet users expressed neither negative nor positive feelings. However, this did not necessarily imply the absence of feeling or emotion. Indeed, many informants did express some form of neutral feeling. These neutral feelings have been classified as indifference, resignation and philosophical. However, it should be noted that the very nature of neutral feelings makes the task of classifying them difficult.

5.3.1. Indifference

Indifferent feelings represent the most neutral affective response. In fact, 'indifference' could be considered as the absence of any particular or specific emotion or feeling. Indeed, some of the informants actually expressed indifference as the negation of any negative feeling (e.g. 'I didn't feel bad', 'I wasn't frustrated this time').

(I felt...) Nothing special as I understood that waiting is commonplace.

You don't feel anything in particular because you know that you can easily find a substitute for these web sites.

5.3.2. Resignation

In the analysis of the diaries, resignation appears in various forms: as a feeling, as the need to have the patience to put up with an undesired waiting situation, and as a strategy to cope with this situation.

Resignation is the word that describes how I felt.

This type of situation is normal and I can say that it doesn't affect me, the opposite of how my wife feels. When she sees the blank screen she turns off the computer and comes back later. However, I take it with a lot of patience and I stay in front of the screen for as long as necessary.

Feelings of resignation also occur at Expectations relevant: hopes disconfirmed. The analysis of the data revealed that in these situations, users do not respond with particularly negative feelings (as Ortony et al.'s [1988] model suggests). Instead, they respond with feelings of resignation. In this study, resignation has been interpreted not as a negative feeling but a neutral feeling on account of its low intensity. There is a theoretical basis for separating and distinguishing between negative feelings and neutral feelings. Indeed, Ortony et al. [1988] suggest that resignation may be better classified as a cognitive state rather than as a feeling. This supports the decision to place resignation in the group of neutral feelings. In any case, it is beyond the objectives of this paper to further this debate. As the data illustrates that the informants considered resignation as a feeling, it has been classified as so, under the heading 'neutral feelings' and is considered later in this paper.

5.3.3. Philosophical (accepting, reasoning)

Feeling "philosophical" is not a radically dissimilar feeling to that of resignation, in that it also involves accepting an undesirable situation without expressing overtly negative feelings. What differentiated the "philosophical" feeling from the other neutral feelings was the fact that the subjects tried to reason that the situation, while undesirable, was unavoidable, so they found ways to either search for a solution or justify to themselves that it wasn't so bad compared to other possible outcomes.

I feel that when you surf the web you do exactly that, surf. In any specific moment you can have a delay and you have to know where to look for alternatives and solutions. For some people maybe it's a real pain finding delays on the Internet. In my opinion Internet is nothing more than a prolongation of our world in which we constantly encounter delays for which we have to find solutions, alternatives and finally in the worst cases, adapt ourselves.

This is an operation that I repeat more than once a month with the same organisation without problems. Certainly, you have to consider than now and then this will happen. Banks are not perfect. It's possible that many users are connected at the same time doing similar operations. Having said that, it was probably quicker than actually going to the local branch, and of course at 23:00h it's difficult to find a branch that is open.

5.4. Positive feelings

Positive feelings occur in less than half of the different types of waiting situations and overall positive feelings occur less often than either neutral or negative feelings. Nevertheless, it is important to note that users may feel positive even when they are made to wait. In order to organise the description of the positive feelings, as well as following Ortony et al. [1988], it is also important to arrange the feelings according to their temporal location because they arise at different points of the waiting events. Thus, the explanation of the positive feelings that were identified in the data differentiates between those that occur at the beginning or during the wait and those that occur after the wait (that is, when the event had passed, thus previous expectations had been/not been met).

5.4.1. Beginning or during wait

Two groups of positive feelings were identified at the beginning and during the wait. The first group is related to the recognition that it is too early in the event to think, feel or do anything specific, and the second group is related to positive anticipation regarding the wait.

<u>Too early to react</u>: This group of positive feelings is the mildest form identified (with least intensity). In fact, if placed on a continuum between positive and negative feelings, it would be located just to the right of the centre (neutral feelings) with a slight tendency towards positive. In this case, the subjects have made an expectation of the likely duration of the wait and decide not to act, feel or contemplate any further until this time has passed. Thus the emotions are of the lowest intensity at this stage.

Relaxed At first I was relaxed, because I thought that it would take at least minimum of one day to receive confirmation.

<u>Positive anticipation</u>: In these instances that also occur at the initial stages of the waiting situation, the subject is looking forward to undertaking an Internet task. They are also making a positive expectation of this experience, but their expectation (hope) has not yet been confirmed.

Intrigued for the moment. I was looking forward to looking through the different sections of the movie website.

5.4.2. After the wait

Interested

Delighted

Relieved

The remaining positive feelings occur after the waiting situation has taken place and reflect the fact that a positive outcome has occurred. All of these positive feelings are fully mediated by the fact that the informant has achieved the objective or task that they set out to achieve on the Internet. Therefore, positive feelings after the wait are determined by a successful outcome. Under the heading 'positive feelings after the wait', it is possible to distinguish the following categories based on Ortony et al.'s [1988] classification:

<u>Hopes confirmed</u>: This group, together with the relief emotions, represents the most common positive feelings expressed by the informants.

This time I didn't leave the computer as I wanted to be there to see what happened. Therefore, after 1 hour and 30 minutes a message appeared telling me that the program had installed correctly and to run it I would have to exit the Internet, turn off and on again. Halleluiaaaah!

<u>Negative expectations disconfirmed</u>: In this case, the subject is pleased about the fact that an undesirable event has not occurred. This leads to a feeling of relief. Interestingly, these negative expectations are formed as events take a negative turn. Therefore, informants do not generally express negative expectations from the beginning of the online session. The negative feelings develop as the waiting occurs and the session is not progressing as they would have liked. Soon the informants begin to lose any hope that they had of successfully achieving their task. Consequently when the final outcome is positive the feeling is of relief or a sense of achievement.

Once I had finished supper I went back to the computer but I didn't have much hope of having made the reservation. When I saw that it had worked, it felt like a real weight had been taken off my shoulders.

Sense of achievement When I saw that the program was working (I felt) good, as if I had reached the top of a mountain, but doing so by waiting by my computer.

<u>Unexpected desirable events</u>: In this final category of positive events, the subject has entirely given up on his/her expectations or prospects with regards to achieving the task at hand. Therefore, when the desired objective occurs, it comes as a surprise. The subject sees this as something good but not because it is due to his/her own efforts or actions that the positive outcome has occurred (as opposed to the previous category where effort was expended).

Surprised SURPRISE!! It had just completed the transaction.

5.5. Dynamic feelings

Finally, on a number of occasions, informants expressed more than one type of feeling in relation to the same waiting situation, as their feelings changed during or after waiting on the Internet. These feelings were categorised as "dynamic" to reflect their varying nature. In general, these feelings may be classified either as improving or worsening. In order to describe how feelings develop or change during certain waiting situations, a small number of examples of dynamic feelings are outlined below. However, it is probably more interesting to consider why these changes in feelings occur. These changes are caused by a number of intervening variables. Nevertheless, it is not within the scope of this paper to discuss these factors. Therefore, this section is limited to providing examples of dynamic feelings in various waiting situations.

5.5.1. Positive to negative

When I began and I started to download the program, even though it was a holiday, I felt good because I could advance some work that I had to do anyway. This feeling changed radically when the time that I think is reasonable to download this type of file had passed and I was still waiting so I began to get anxious.

5.5.2. Decreasingly negative

During the wait when I couldn't find the specific product, I got fairly anxious but afterwards when I managed to find it I thought that it was logical that it should be in that particular section.

5.5.3. Negative to positive

I suppose that after the numerous occasions on which the connection failed, I began to think that I would not be able to send (the message). That's what made me negative and tense. But it's also what made me feel good when I eventually was able to send it.

6. Discussion and Conclusions

The results of this study suggest a number of conclusions and implications both for the study of waiting in the specific context of the Internet, as well as for waiting in the more general context of services marketing. Indeed, the association of positive feelings with waiting seemingly contradicts mainstream research on waiting and the conventional wisdom that making consumers wait is inherently bad for business. Waiting in services has been studied extensively since the mid 1980s [Hornik 1984], across a range of disciplines including operations research, services marketing and consumer behaviour. The largely uncontested and most fundamental premise of this literature is that waiting is negative [Taylor 1994]. The longer you make consumers wait, the more negatively they will evaluate the service. Hence, the almost singular goal of research on waiting in services marketing is to minimise or eliminate waiting. It is important to point out that the results of the present study do not challenge the "waiting is negative" paradigm. Nevertheless, the results do suggest that we should challenge the widely held view that waiting is inherently and necessarily negative and that the only solution to waiting is to reduce or eliminate it. Just as Dickson et al. [2005] propose that tourists come to expect and accept a certain amount of waiting, the results of this study suggest that Internet users are also accustomed to and come to expect some amount of waiting on the Internet. In this study the waiting situation labelled 'download delay' was often met with neutral feelings of resignation or even 'philosophy' and is in general proportionally less negative than other types of waiting situations. This seems to be because users are accustomed to encountering download delay (so much so that in some cases they even expect it). Therefore, not even download delay is necessarily a negative experience, at least if the wait results in an eventual successful outcome. Hence, the results suggest that waiting does not always bother online consumers, nor does it always negatively affect the online experience. Indeed, in this study, we detect an entire range of emotional reactions to waiting. Nevertheless, in light of the dissimilarity of the results with mainstream research, it is important to seek theoretical explanations. To this end, we note a number of theories that help enlighten the results. We employ these theories to assist us in understanding how in certain cases waiting may be interpreted in a more positive light.

We argue that consumers associate waiting with popularity, scarcity and higher service quality. Contrary to conventional wisdom in services marketing, queues and waiting are sometimes used as a positive business attribute and are utilised as a promotional tool to attract further consumers. There are a number of theories that support this assertion. For instance, Herd theory [Baneriee 1992; Debo & Veeraraghavan 2009] and Social Impact theories [Latané 1981] suggest that queues are a social influence on consumers and attract more consumers to join the wait [Fung 2006; Kostecki 1996; Veeraraghavan a& Debo 2009]. Indeed, there is empirical evidence to suggest that consumers are attracted to theme park rides, restaurants and retail outlets just because they have a queue of consumers [Debo et al. 2012; Raz & Ert 2008]. In this sense, tourists tend to join the queue for the attractions with the longest wait as they interpret the queue as an indicator of the popularity of the ride. In the same way, diners may interpret a queue of customers outside a restaurant or a nightclub as an indicator of popularity. In this sense, waiting may be considered a positive factor that attracts rather than repels consumers. Nevertheless, in the context of waiting on the Internet, the social aspect is not immediately apparent because the consumer waits alone in front of their computer screen or mobile device. Yet, there are online waiting situations in which the consumer may perceive the presence of a virtual queue. For example, when purchasing tickets for a concert on the Internet, a consumer may perceive that they are being forced to wait because many other consumers are also trying to make the same purchase. Indeed, this very same explanation was provided by a number of participants in the study when faced with slow websites. Further theoretical support is offered by signalling theory [Debo et al. 2012]. This suggests that consumers often determine service quality through the presence of queues. In this sense, services that require consumers to wait are often perceived as being more attractive and ultimately more desirable than services that involve no waiting. Indeed, when consumers interpret waiting as a signal of service value, consumers may prefer services with longer waiting times [Gavilán-Bouzas & García de Madariaga-Miranda 2009]. Finally, commodity theory [Brock 1968] suggests that when a product or service is perceived as scarce because of the long waiting time involved in acquiring it, consumers associate scarcity with greater quality [Ditto & Jemmott 1989]. Therefore, rather than associating waiting with negative emotions, consumers may experience positive emotions due to the connection between waiting, higher quality, scarcity and popularity.

Although in terms of density, 3 out of 4 feelings identified were negative, 1 in 4 cases of waiting on the Internet involved positive or neutral feelings. Of course, the intention of this paper is not to quantify the number of events associated with each type of feeling, but nevertheless the densities of the categories suggest that the positive or neutral feelings found were not merely anecdotal. This is the first time that this phenomenon has been clearly identified in empirical research. It supports the previous assertion that some users rate the speed of web sites, not on how quick they download, but on other factors such as whether or not they accomplish their objective or complete their task [Perfetti 2001]. Therefore, more efforts should be focused on assisting the user to accomplish his/her task online by providing more efficient online support and help services rather than simply speeding up the download speed of web pages. In sum, waiting on the Internet does not always correspond with negative feelings. This is not to suggest a causal relationship whereby waiting is the cause of neutral or positive feelings. This study has identified the presence of such non-negative emotions, but it does not attempt to establish their causality. In our specific instances, we have been able to observe that in online waiting, positive or neutral emotions are likely to be associated with the successful completion of the online task. Therefore, further studies should pursue such association and seek to identify the factors involved in causal relationships as well as moderating and mediating influences in the context of waiting on the Internet.

Finally, previous research is inconclusive with regards to how waiting affects consumers' feelings towards the brands, companies and web page providers that cause the waiting. The present study indicates that waiting on the Internet may cause negative feelings towards other 'agents' such as those outlined. In addition, waiting can cause negative feelings (often frustration or shame) towards the same individual user. This was an unexpected finding because the literature on waiting generally examines the role of the service provider in provoking the wait. To a lesser degree, research examines how fellow consumers cause waiting in the context of customer-to-customer interaction [Martin & Pranter 1989; Nicholls 2011]. We know of no other study that considers the role of the same consumer in creating a waiting situation. Therefore, we suggest that further research should examine the situation in which consumers feel that their own incompetence or inexperience results in them waiting for service.

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