

PATRONAGE BEHAVIOR OF NONUSERS, USERS,
AND HEAVY USERS OF CATALOGS FOR
CLOTHING PURCHASES

By

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

According to Schwartz (1986) direct purchases accounted for about 14 percent of the 1.4 trillion dollars in retail sales in 1985. In fact, 47 percent of Americans bought by mail this same year.

Despite the growth in catalog shopping there is a dearth of research in the area of catalog patronage behavior. Reynolds (1974) found that catalog shoppers were convenience oriented consumers who reported lower opinions of local shopping establishments than did store shoppers. Similarly, Korgaonkar (1981) found that catalog showroom patrons tended to be price and brand conscious consumers who did not consider in-store sales help important in store choice.

Other research in the area of catalog shopping has focused on typologies of patrons. Gillett (1970) examined socio-demographic characteristics of in-home food shoppers and found that they ranked significantly higher than other shoppers on family income, education, and occupational status of household head. Berkowitz, Walker, and Walton (1979) also found that in-home shoppers were more likely to work outside the home, had higher status occupations, and were younger than store shoppers. The Direct Marketing Association found that a high percentage of catalog users held professional occupations, attended college, were between the ages of 25-44, and were female (Stone, 1983).

Given the scope of research in this area there is little evidence regarding catalog patronage behavior for specific product classes (Lumpkin & Hawes, 1985). Research has shown that patronage behavior varies for various product classes (Cardozo, 1974-1975; Udell, 1966). Researchers have attributed such behavioral differences to the perceived risks experienced by consumers either with the product class or with the retail establishment (Dash, Schiffman, & Berenson, 1976; Korgaonkar, 1982; Laurent & Kapferer, 1985; Prasad, 1975; Spence, Engel, & Blackwell, 1970).

Laurent and Kapferer (1985) found that the risks involved with purchases of clothing included an element of social risk not found with other product classes. Spence, Engel, and Blackwell (1970) found that the risks involved with purchases made through mail order catalogs were greater than the risks associated with purchases made through traditional retail establishments. Hence, differences due to the retail outlet as well as to the product class would be apparent.

The present researcher sought to investigate differences in relation to catalog patronage behavior and shopping preferences for clothing purchases. Understanding the differences in patronage behavior for selected product classes would assist marketers in formulating strategies to position products effectively. Furthermore, increased understanding in this area will aid home economists by providing information to develop and implement programs to inform consumers, thus reducing the perceived risks involved with catalog shopping. In addition, research of this nature will aid marketers in developing strategies to meet the product quality and information needs of consumers who utilize computer based information buying systems and other methods of direct purchasing.

Theoretical Rationale

The theoretical framework on which the study was based was Sheth's (1983) theory of shopping preference. This theory was chosen due to its relevance to the present investigation. Underlying shopping preference theory are four constructs and four determinants which are discussed in the following sections.

Constructs of Shopping Preference Theory

The constructs of shopping preference include shopping motives, shopping options, choice calculus, and shopping predisposition. Sheth (1983) noted that the following constructs integrated the vast majority of existing knowledge regarding shopping preferences.

Shopping Motives. According to Sheth (1983, p. 15) "shopping motives refer to a customer's needs and wants related to a choice of outlets at which to shop for a specific product or service class, such as groceries." Shopping motives are of two types:

1. Functional motives relate to time, place, and possession needs such as one-stop shopping, cost, and convenience in parking and shopping. In general, functional motives are intrinsic to outlets.

2. Nonfunctional motives relate to the associations of various shopping outlets with social, emotional and epistemic values such as store atmosphere and the store's general business practices. Overall, nonfunctional motives are extrinsic to outlets.

Sheth (1983) stated that given a product class some customers will be functionally driven while others are nonfunctionally driven in their

shopping behavior. Hence, value oriented and status oriented outlets could exist simultaneously for the same product class.

Shopping Options. The second construct underlying shopping preference theory includes shopping options. Sheth (1983) noted that shopping options referred to the evoked set of outlets available to customers to satisfy their shopping motives for a specific class of products and services. Given the number of shopping outlets available to customers in a particular trading area a specific outlet choice will be determined by customers' shopping motives. Following this, customers will ultimately choose acceptable outlets based on the use of choice calculus.

Choice Calculus. In describing shopping preferences, Sheth (1983) referred to the rules or heuristics used by consumers in establishing their shopping predisposition as choice calculus. Three choice rules are possible in establishing shopping predisposition for a particular outlet.

The first choice rule is referred to as sequential calculus. Sheth (1983, p. 14) stated that when this rule was in order the customer "sequentially eliminates shopping options by utilizing his or her shopping motives in order of importance and classifying all shopping options into acceptable and nonacceptable categories."

The second choice rule is referred to as tradeoff calculus which implies that consumers evaluate each shopping option on all criteria simultaneously and subsequently determine an acceptability score. The scores may indicate several shopping options; however, scores may, more than likely, skew in favor of one or two options.

The third choice rule is referred to as dominant calculus. Sheth (1983, p. 14) stated that in dominant calculus the "customer utilizes one and only one shopping motive and establishes preferences for various shopping options by evaluating them in light of that motive." The consumers' previous experiences and learning related to shopping for a particular product class determines which rule applies when choosing an outlet.

Shopping Predisposition. Sheth (1983, p. 11) described shopping predisposition as the "relative shopping preferences among an evoked set of outlet alternatives for a specific product class purchase such as shopping for groceries or clothing." Sheth (1983) stated that shopping preferences are limited to acceptable outlets for a particular product class. The alternatives acceptable for a particular purchase may also be product specific. In addition, Sheth (1983) stated that outlet preferences were relative to the purchase situation. Consumers could have a strong preference for one outlet and a weak preference for all other outlets for a particular product class and a different outlet preference for another product class.

Determinants of Shopping Preference Theory

The determinants of shopping preference theory include market, company, personal, and product determinants. Although Sheth (1983) labeled these factors as determinants, he noted that previous research supported results which were correlational in nature.

Market Determinants. According to Sheth (1983, p. 16) "market determinants refer to those factors which determine the competitive

structure of a trading area and therefore a customer's general shopping options, such as the number and type of outlets for such product classes as 'clothing and appliances.'" Market determinants include the location of the outlets in a particular trading area, the types of retail institutions in a trading area, and the position and image of the various outlets in the trading area.

Company Determinants. Company determinants refer to those factors which influence a customer's specific shopping options for a particular product class such as dresses as opposed to slacks. Company determinants include the merchandise carried in the store, the store's advertising and promotional strategies, and the store's service policies such as full service versus self-serve, credit policy, store hours and delivery of merchandise.

Personal Determinants. Personal determinants refer to the factors that determine the customers' general shopping preferences. These factors would constitute what Sheth (1983, p. 23) referred to as 'shopping style.' Personal determinants include an individual's personal values and beliefs about what to look for when shopping and an individual's social values that comprise the influence of family, friends, reference groups, and society at large. Epistemic values are also included among personal determinants and include the need for diversion, novelty, and sensory stimulation when shopping.

Product Determinants. According to Sheth (1983, p. 23) product determinants "shape and control a customer's specific shopping motives for a given product class purchase." Whereas company determinants also control and shape a customer's specific shopping motives, the difference

between company and product determinants reflects two different orientations. Product determinants include the actual product, such as apparel, the use of the product, such as for either personal or guest consumption, and brand predisposition.

Sheth (1983) noted that personal and product determinants influence the customer's shopping motives whereas market and company determinants influence the customer's shopping options. Choice calculus rules are subsequently combined and utilized to formulate the individual's shopping predisposition. For the present study, the researcher decided to examine those factors which influence the customer's shopping motives for clothing purchases.

Purpose

The purpose of the present investigation was to examine the patronage behavior of catalog nonusers, users, and heavy users for clothing purchases. The objectives of the study were as follows:

1. Determine differences among nonusers, users, and heavy users, of catalogs regarding
 - a. demographic characteristics,
 - b. personal determinants,
 - c. brand predisposition,
 - d. salience of shopping motives, and
 - e. shopping predisposition for selected outlets.
2. Determine the relationships among demographic characteristics, personal determinants, brand predisposition, salience of shopping motives, and shopping predisposition for selected outlets.

Hypotheses

The following relationships were hypothesized based on the underlying theoretical framework and the objectives of the study. Hypotheses centered on differences among nonusers, users of catalogs and shopping preferences for clothing purchases.

- H₁: There are no significant differences among nonusers, users, and heavy users of catalogs regarding
- a. income, education, sex, marital status, employment status, children living at home, occupation, and dollar amount spent via catalogs,
 - b. personal determinants,
 - c. brand predisposition,
 - d. salience of shopping motives, and
 - e. shopping predisposition for selected outlets.
- H₂: There are no significant differences among nonusers, users, and heavy users regarding credit card use.
- H₃: There are no significant relationships between
- a. income and education on salience of shopping motives,
 - b. employment status and occupation on salience of shopping motives
 - c. age and gender on salience of shopping motives,
- H₄: There are no significant relationships between the salience of shopping motives and personal determinants.
- H₅: There is no significant relationship between the salience of shopping motives and shopping predisposition.
- H₆: There is no significant relationship between brand predisposition and shopping predisposition.

Assumptions

In the present study, the researcher assumed that nonusers, users, and heavy users could be identified according to the prescribed definition. It was also assumed that a common understanding would exist regarding the nature of catalogs by respondents; hence, a definition of catalogs was not given in the questionnaire.

Limitations

The study was limited to the target population residing in a specific geographic locality. The study was also limited to apparel items. Because of the nature of the population frame and product class under investigation, the evidence presented can only be generalized to this situation.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined as used in the study.

Brand Predisposition refers to the preference an individual may have for a particular brand in a specific product class (Sheth, 1983).

Catalog Nonusers are consumers who have not purchased apparel through catalogs for themselves in the past 12 months.

Catalog Users are consumers who purchase clothing through catalogs. In this study, catalog users will be those who have purchased apparel through catalogs for themselves one to five times in the past 12 months.

Epistemic Values refer to the values related to the desire for curiosity, novelty, sensory stimulation and learning about new trends when shopping.

Heavy Catalog Users are consumers who have purchased apparel through catalogs for themselves six or more times in the past 12 months.

Instrumental Values refer to desirable modes of conduct and include self-actualization values, moral values, and competence values (Rokeach, 1973).

Personal Determinants refer to the factors that determine customers' general shopping options. For the present study, personal determinants include an individual's personal values.

Personal Values reflect the inner-directed nature of values (Sheth, 1983). According to Riesman (1955) individuals acquire early in life an internalized set of goals which direct behavior. Furthermore, such individuals that are predominately inner directed manage the choices society gives without strict or tradition-oriented direction. Personal values help to formulate customers' shopping styles (Sheth, 1983).

Product Typology refers to "the classification of products into distinct categories or typologies for which the shopping motives are inherently different because they possess different types of utilities" (Sheth, 1983, p. 23). In the present study the category or typology investigated consisted of apparel.

Shopping Motives (often referred to as determinants, attributes, and factors) refer to "a customer's needs and wants related to the choice of outlets at which to shop for a specific product or service class" (Sheth, 1983, p. 15). Shopping motives result from two types of needs:

- a. Nonfunctional motives relate to the associations of various shopping outlets with social, emotional, and epistemic values such as store atmosphere and the store's general business practices. Overall, nonfunctional motives are extrinsic to outlets (Sheth, 1983).

b. Functional motives relate to time, place, and possession needs such as one-stop shopping, cost, and convenience in parking and shopping. In general, functional motives are intrinsic to outlets (Sheth, 1983).

Shopping Predisposition "refers to relative shopping preferences among an evoked set of outlets" (Sheth, 1983, p. 11). In the present study shopping predisposition refers to the store types that consumers consider acceptable for purchases of clothing.

Social Values refer to values influenced by friends, family, and reference groups when evaluating shopping motives for selected product classes (Sheth, 1983). Social values reflect the other-directed nature of values.

Terminal Values refer to end-states of existence. Terminal values may be intrapersonal or interpersonal in focus, are self-centered or society centered and include personal and social values (Rokeach, 1973).

Usage Typology identifies the situational and social settings in which a product class is used (Sheth, 1983). In the present study, apparel was identified in the setting of personal use.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The literature reviewed focused on eight areas: 1) shopping motives, 2) the influence of store image on store choice, 3) shopping style, 4) the relevance of values in the study of patronage behavior, 5) brand predisposition, 6) direct marketing, 7) the influence of demographic characteristics on patronage behavior, and 8) credit use.

Shopping Motives

Shopping motives are the underlying motivations which influence consumers' patronage behavior. Empirical research in the area of shopping motives has been extensive (Darden & Ashton, 1974-75; Gutman & Mills, 1982; Stephenson & Willett, 1970; Tauber, 1972). Motives of retail patronage were examined by Berry (1969) and Arnold, Oum, and Tigert (1983). Berry (1969) identified 12 shopping motives of retail patronage that included 1) price of merchandise, 2) quality of merchandise, 3) assortment of merchandise, 4) fashion of merchandise, 5) sales personnel, 6) location convenience, 7) other convenience factors, 8) services, 9) sales promotions, 10) advertising, 11) store atmosphere, and 12) reputation on adjustments. Arnold, Oum, and Tigert (1983) in a study of determinant attributes across seasonal, temporal, regional, and international boundaries found that differences existed in patronage behavior of food store shoppers. Determinants investigated

included store size, price, merchandising display techniques, location, level of service, and quality and assortment of fresh foods.

Much of the research has focused on the salience of selected shopping motives to retail patronage behavior (Gentry & Burns, 1977-78; Hansen & Deutscher, 1977-78; Jolson & Spath, 1973). Gentry and Burns (1977-1978) studied evaluative criteria in shopping center patronage and found that convenience was not considered as important as value for price, prices, and variety of products. However, Bellenger, Robertson, and Greenberg (1977) and Bearden (1977) found that convenience, such as location and parking facilities, was considered important to shopping center patronage. Furthermore, Bearden (1977) found that atmosphere and friendliness of salespeople were critical factors that customers used in determining whether to shop downtown or in an outlying shopping center. In a survey of consumer attitudes regarding shopping center patronage, Chain Store Age Executive ("Surveying Consumer Attitudes," 1981) found that mall shoppers placed greater emphasis on practicality such as price, selection and convenience rather than on sales help or food service facilities.

Functional and Nonfunctional

Shopping Motives

Attempts by researchers to classify retail patronage motives into functional and nonfunctional determinants have been minimal (Eroglu & Harrell, 1986; Hirschman & Krishnan, 1981; Sheth, 1983). Sheth (1983) noted that functional determinants were intrinsic to stores while non-functional motives were extrinsic to stores. Hirschman and Krishnan (1981) examined subjective and objective criteria in retail patronage.

They suggested that the absence of information concerning subjective criteria would reduce the ability of the consumer to satisfactorily discern between products. In an investigation of retail store patronage, objective criteria included pricing, location, savings during sales, and credit/billing policies. Subjective criteria included layout, atmosphere and merchandise display. Salesclerk service, merchandise quality, merchandise variety/selection, guarantee, exchange and adjustment policies were attributes that included both an objective and a subjective dimension. Results showed that the attribute dimensions of both objective and subjective criteria do exist in consumers' choices among retail stores.

In a discussion of shopping motives Eroglu and Harrell (1986, p. 352) described motives as the "internal force or predisposition that directs behavior toward fulfillment of needs or objectives." They identified two classes of shopping motives as task-oriented and nontask-oriented and suggested that consumers who are task oriented placed greater emphasis on functional aspects of a store such as pricing policies than on nonfunctional aspects such as store decor. Nontask-oriented consumers attempted to satisfy epistemic curiosity and other recreational motives. They also placed greater emphasis on nonfunctional aspects of store patronage such as store decor and friendliness of salespeople.

Store Image

The relationship between shopping motives, store image, and subsequent store preference is apparent in a number of models regarding patronage behavior (Fisk, 1961-1962; Monroe & Gultinan, 1975; Nickel &

Wertheimer, 1979). According to Monroe and Gultinan (1975) consumers formulate images of stores based on important shopping motives. Customers then form positive or negative attitudes toward the store which, in turn, affect store preference and consequently store choice. Similarly, Nickel and Wertheimer (1979) found that consumers' images of pharmacies were based on shopping motives that affected store patronage. However, Fisk (1961-1962) suggested that image was a latent guiding force that preceded shopping motives. Rather, Fisk (1961-1962) noted that image perceptions are the result of precipitating circumstances or cues which arouse wants. These circumstances include the change in the buyer's situation and the change in the retail shopping environment which aid consumers in formulating store perceptions or images. However, the model developed by Fisk (1961-1962) demonstrated a strong link between shopping motives and store patronage.

Schiffman, Dash, and Dillion (1977) examined five store image characteristics in relation to sales of audio equipment. The five image characteristics were 1) convenience of store location, 2) best price and/or deals, 3) guarantee/warranty policies, 4) salesmens' expertise, and 5) variety of merchandise to choose from. Results indicated that department store customers placed greater importance on store location than did customers of specialty stores. Department and specialty customers placed substantial importance on price and price deals and guarantee/warranty policies. Department and specialty store customers differed greatly regarding expertise of salesmen and variety of merchandise. Specialty store customers considered these criteria more important than did department store customers.

Nickel and Wertheimer (1979) investigated consumers' images in

relation to drugstore choice. Store location was considered a vital criterion for customers of clinic pharmacies, independent pharmacies and chain shopping center pharmacies. Chain free standing pharmacies and department or discount store pharmacies attracted customers who considered price the most important criterion.

Reich, Ferguson, and Weinberger (1977) examined four factors of image information: store, location, price, and clientele. These factors were combined to form an overall image rating. The researchers conducted an experiment to determine the influence of these factors on subjects' behavioral intentions to shop at a particular store and subjects' favorability judgments of the stores. Results indicated an unequal weighting of the importance of the four factors with 'store' contributing substantially more information in the subject's overall image than the other factors investigated.

Shopping Style

Shopping motives influence shopping style and consequently store choice of consumers. Sheth (1983) noted that customer-specific factors influenced and determined a customer's general shopping motives which were manifested in a customer's shopping style. Hence, shopping style influences the consumer's store preference and eventually store choice. Store image research contributes substantially to this area by providing information regarding shopping behavior of consumers (Pessemier, 1980; Williams, Painter, & Nicolas, 1978). Much of the research in this area focuses on the shopping behavior of consumers regarding attribute importance when choosing retail outlets (Anderson, 1971; Anderson, 1972; Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Dardis & Sandler, 1971; Goldman, 1977-1978;

Hansen & Deutscher, 1977-1978; Kelly, 1958; Singson, 1975; Stephenson & Willett, 1970). Dardis and Sandler (1971) found that regular customers of discount stores considered lower prices, convenient hours, large selection of merchandise and location near residence as important attributes to discount store patronage. Hansen and Deutscher (1977-1978) also found that demographic information such as age, income, and position in the community influenced consumers' shopping style.

Various researchers have examined the shopping style of convenience and recreational shoppers (Anderson, 1971, 1972; Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Bellenger, Robertson, & Greenberg, 1977; Kelly, 1958). Results show that convenience oriented consumers tend to be well educated and have little interest in shopping as a leisure activity (Bellenger, Robertson, & Greenberg, 1977). Recreational shoppers, on the other hand, tend to be more actively engaged in information seeking than convenience shoppers (Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980). Recreational shoppers considered quality of merchandise, variety of merchandise, and decor important in choosing a store (Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980). In addition, recreational shoppers prefer to patronize department stores as opposed to various other retail outlets (Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980). Furthermore, recreational shoppers are more likely to shop with others, are less likely to have an idea of what they are going to buy when they go shopping, and are more likely to continue to shop after making a purchase than convenience shoppers (Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980).

Values

Sheth (1983) suggested that values (personal, social and epistemic)

contributed to consumers' shopping motives and subsequently shopping preferences. Values are common to all personalities (Howard & Woodside, 1984). Values can be either conscious or unconscious; however, values are standards for guiding behavior (Howard & Woodside, 1984). According to Howard and Woodside (1984) consumers can be grouped according to their similarity in values. Consumers of similar value systems are likely to answer questions similarly as opposed to individuals of different value systems (Howard & Woodside, 1984). Furthermore, consumers of different value systems will most likely differ regarding their socioeconomic backgrounds (Howard & Woodside, 1984).

Research in the area of values focuses on the importance of values in evaluating household objects, in market segmentation research, and in store choice (Boote, 1981; Boyd & Allen, 1981; Stone, 1954). Results indicated that demographic information only partially explained consumer behavior and that values were a major contributor in explaining phenomena. Boote (1981) found in a study of brand preference that the resulting segments were identified by their respective value systems. Boyd and Allen (1981) found that like/dislike judgments were major components of the total value judgment. However, Sheth and Talarzyk (1972) found that perceived instrumentality contributed more toward determining brand preference than value importance. They suggested that the weakness of value importance is not specific to a brand but rather is general for a product class.

Morganosky (1985) investigated the influence of consumer values on apparel store patronage. The researcher defined values in the context of the industrial value orientation in which "more was better" and the post-industrial value orientation in which consumption was responsible

and efficient. Findings indicated that department store customers were more likely to value quality over quantity in product decisions than discount store shoppers. Furthermore, department store shoppers bought from a want rather than a need orientation more so than discount store shoppers. National chain store shoppers did not value locational convenience in shopping for apparel. Morganosky (1985) suggested that future studies of store patronage should consider the importance of values as predictor variables.

Personal Values

According to Sheth (1983) personal values represented the inner-directed dimension of values. In addition, Prakash (1984) suggested that personal values represented enduring needs and beliefs that are affected by the cultural background of the individual consumer. Holman (1984) suggested that inner-directed consumers acknowledged the expectations that others may have for them but chose not to behave up to those expectations. Riesman (1955) described inner directed as

the source of direction for the individual is 'inner' in the sense that it is implanted early in life by the elders and directed toward generalized but nonetheless inescapably destined goals. (p. 30)

Such goals can include the desire for money, possessions, power, knowledge, fame and goodness. Furthermore, such goals are interrelated and are maintained throughout an individual's life.

Personal values are instrumental in solving buying behavior problems (Howard & Woodside, 1984). Personal values influence problem recognition, search behavior and subsequent beliefs (Howard & Woodside, 1984). According to these authors consumers use values that are relevant to solving particular problems. In the case of product choice,

if the product does not relate to the consumer's value system the product will be ignored. Personal values also affect beliefs which subsequently influence choice criteria (Howard & Woodside, 1984). Again, in the case of choosing a product, values help consumers to form opinions regarding selected criteria for a product. Hence, personal values help determine the evaluative criteria for product purchase decisions (Howard & Woodside, 1984).

Social Values

When examining values one must consider the influence of social values in determining the importance of shopping motives. Sheth (1983) suggested that social values included the influence of friends, family and reference groups when shopping. Riesman (1955) suggested that persons dominated by social values are identified as other-directed and that

what is common to all other-directed people is that their contemporaries are the source of direction for the individual either those known to him or those with whom he is indirectly acquainted, through friends and through mass media. (p. 32)

The influence of social values is apparent when an individual asks for advice from friends or conforms to reference group pressures. In general, individuals dominated by social values consider the importance of other people's opinions of them (Riesman, 1955). Assael (1983, p. 316) suggested that "reference groups provided points of comparison on which to evaluate attitudes and behavior." Reference groups can be viewed negatively or positively and can be of several types (Assael, 1983). Reference groups can be informal or formal as in a shopping group or political club. Individuals are also influenced by groups to

which they aspire. The role of reference groups in society is four-fold (Assael, 1983). Reference groups establish rules or standards of conduct, establish roles or functions for their members, provide status for their members, and provide an environment suitable for socialization both as a member of society and as a consumer. Reference groups can exert expert power or reward power on individuals (Assael, 1983). In consumption behavior reference groups provide information to consumers, serve as a comparative influence regarding beliefs, attitudes, and behavior and also serve as a normative influence in the pressure to conform to group norms (Assael, 1983).

Other outside influences affecting consumer decision making include opinion leadership and innovativeness. The literature regarding these areas is extensive (Darden & Reynolds, 1972 and 1974; King & Ring, 1979; Mason & Bellenger, 1973-1974; Schrank & Gilmore, 1973; Summers, 1970). Research shows that opinion leadership is product specific. Opinion leaders are gregarious, cosmopolitan, venturesome, mobile, and affluent. However, innovators communicate new product information visually rather than verbally. Characteristics of innovators include affluence and nonconformity.

The family also acts as a major outside influence in consumer decision making. According to Davis (1976) problems arise regarding conflict in at least three areas: 1) who should make various purchase decisions, 2) how the decisions should be made (amount of search, reliance on advertising, and personal recommendations), and 3) who should implement the decision. Product choice is one source of conflict in family decision making. In addition, Davis (1976) noted that sometimes family members come to accept a particular family member as the expert

with a particular product or shopping activity. Thus the person is called upon for advice or made responsible for making the purchase without interference. Family decision making often takes various forms. One is problem solving in which an agreement exists about which goals are desired. Persuasion strategies occur when family members do not agree about goals (Davis, 1976). Budget strategies focus on what the family can afford. This strategy utilizes a nonpersonal arbitrator such as an itemized budget to solve family conflicts. Bargaining strategies solve family conflict by installing long term tradeoffs in order to decide on family purchases.

Epistemic Values

Epistemic values include novelty seeking, sensory stimulation, and learning about new trends (Sheth, 1983). Tauber (1972) hypothesized that individual motives for shopping were a result of many variables, some of which had nothing to do with the actual product purchase. Tauber (1972) suggested that retail institutions provided shoppers many forms of sensory stimulation in store displays or by the handling of merchandise. Shoppers learn about new trends when visiting stores (Tauber, 1972). Individuals may be interested in keeping up with the latest fashions or product innovations, hence, store browsing behavior becomes prevalent (Tauber, 1972).

Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) viewed consumption experiences as directed toward the pursuit of fantasies, feelings, and fun. They suggested that such personality constructs as sensation seeking, creativity, and religious world view should be examined in an investigation of individual consumer differences. In addition, they suggested that

much relevant fantasy life and many key symbolic meanings lie just below the threshold of consciousness . . . and that they can be retrieved and reported if sufficiently indirect methods are used to overcome sensitivity barriers. (p. 136)

Hirschman (1980) presented a conceptual framework that incorporated innovativeness, novelty seeking and consumer creativity. She suggested that innovativeness was socially influenced as opposed to genetically inherent in the individual. Moreover, novelty seekers seek new and potentially discrepant information. Hirschman (1980) suggested that novelty seeking took two forms: 1) inherent novelty seeking in which the desire of individuals is to seek out novel stimuli, and 2) actualized novelty seeking in which the actual individual behavior is to acquire new products. In addition, the objective of novelty seeking is to improve problem-solving skills (Hirschman, 1980). Hirschman (1980, p. 286) defined consumer creativity as "the problem-solving capability possessed by the individual that may be applied toward solving consumption related problems." She suggested that cognitive development affected creativity and that a direct relationship existed with consumption behavior in that the consumer must learn to understand products and consumption situations.

Brand Predisposition

Sheth (1983) suggested that brand predisposition influenced brand loyalty. Subsequently, brand predisposition influences store preference as well (Sheth, 1983). According to Sheth (1983)

if customers have strong brand preference and outlet preferences, these preferences are likely to generate a monopolistic competition structure in a product-class, resulting either in dominance of a single brand-outlet combination or more likely in a segmented market. This seems especially true in the case of many specialty chains

such as Foot Locker, Just Jeans, County Seat, and electronic outlets where customers have strong brand as well as outlet preferences. (p. 24)

In addition Sheth (1983) suggested that in cases in which consumers have a strong outlet preference but a weak brand preference that

one would expect the emergence of distribution monopoly or oligopoly, resulting in backward integration. Clearly, this has been historically true for Sears in this country and Marks & Spencer in Great Britain. The retail giants have literally full-time dedicated manufacturers whose product identity is not known to the customer. Instead, the retail outlet superimposes its own name or another name clearly identified with the retail chain. (p. 25)

Other research in the area of brand predisposition focuses on product choice and risk reduction. A preference for a particular brand contributes substantially to risk reduction for consumers in the consumption of products (Sheth & Venkatesan, 1968). Sheth and Venkatesan (1968) explored the risk reduction process with respect to hair sprays over time using an experimental design method. Findings indicated that information seeking was greatest in initial product purchases and that brand preference was greatest in subsequent purchases of the product.

Bass and Talarzyk (1963) investigated brand preference and attitudes for frozen orange juice, mouthwash, toothpaste, toilet tissue, lipstick, and brassieres. Results supported the hypothesis that brand preference was related to attitudes based on product attributes. Similarly, Sheth (1973) examined the influence of beliefs and attitude importance in constructing brand profiles. Findings suggested that measures of attitudes could be sought through measures of consumers' evaluative beliefs about a brand.

Direct Marketing

Direct marketing includes methods of promoting and selling goods and services directly to consumers. Methods of direct marketing include direct mail, catalogs, direct ads in magazines, newspapers, coupons, computerized buying networks, catalog showrooms, two-way cable networks, telemarketing, and door-to-door sales (Korgaonkar, 1984; Kono & Buatsi, 1984). Korgoankar (1984) noted that all direct response modes functioned as methods of nonstore retailing; however, variations existed regarding merchandising, pricing, and promotional strategies.

The direct response modes listed previously are advantageous to marketers. For example, direct mail is a cost-effective sales method and supports many field sales representatives (Direct Marketing, 1985). Use of direct marketing strategies can increase store traffic and sales, increase overall sales, test products, expand market territory, and provide additional profit centers (Coe & Lipstein, 1979). In addition, use of direct marketing strategies provides marketers opportunities to reach specific target markets with personal, creative, private, and attention holding material (Direct Marketing, 1985).

Direct Marketing Research

Previous research focuses on differences in patronage behavior for selected direct response modes. Bellenger and John (1981) investigated users and nonusers of catalog showrooms in Atlanta, Georgia. Interviews of randomly selected respondents in 1,571 households provided data for discriminant analysis. Results showed that 62 percent of the catalog showroom shoppers were between the ages of 18 and 34, affluent, more geographically mobile, and more active in hobbies and leisure

activities than noncatalog showroom shoppers. On the contrary, Peters and Ford (1972) found that female in-home shoppers of door-to-door selling were less educated, had lower family incomes, and tended to be married to men from lower occupational categories than in-store shoppers.

Kono and Buatsi (1984) examined consumer response to catalogs, direct mail, and direct ads on radio/television. A sample of males and females who were 18 years or older and lived in the New York metropolitan area provided data for analyses. Results showed that catalog shoppers were likely to be older, married females who were not employed outside the home. Direct mail buyers were likely to be married males, who were 30 years or older and reported incomes of less than \$20,000 annually. Radio/TV buyers were more likely to be single males who were under 50 years of age and who reported incomes of over \$20,000 annually.

Catalog Shopping

Today catalog businesses are growing at five times the rate of retail stores (Muldoon, 1984). Moreover, catalog businesses are growing at a rate of 10 percent annually with sales in the billions of dollars (Schwartz, 1986). The rise in catalog use by consumers has been due to several competitive, technological, marketing, and socio-economic factors occurring in the U. S. economy. Some competitive factors include inconvenient store hours, unsatisfactory in-store service, difficulty of parking, and the development of mail order services by traditional retailers (Quelch & Takeuchi, 1981). Technological advances include advances in transportation and communication systems (May, 1979). May noted that marketing factors included the

the increased integration of wholesaling and retailing, the growing importance of fashion to enhance sales, and the growth in brand names and packaging of consumer goods. According to Quelch and Takeuchi (1981), socioeconomic factors included a rise in discretionary income among consumers, more women in the work force, the increased number of single households, an older population, and growth of the "me" generation. In addition, they noted that the availability of the WATTS (800) lines, expanded use of credit cards, and low cost data processing, via computerization, also contributed to the catalog boom. Muldoon (1984) noted that the population shift from urban to rural areas has contributed significantly to the rise in catalog use. In addition, Muldoon (1984) stated that the energy crisis of the late seventies created a need for catalog shopping. She noted that

. . . although the urgency of the energy crisis has faded for the present, consumers who benefited from catalog shopping ten years ago have remained loyal. Even today, no one knows whether another energy crisis will develop. A distinct advantage direct marketers have over retail establishments is their ability to prepare for the possibility of curtailed oil supplies and adapt to meet the needs this situation may create. (p. 5)

History of Catalog Shopping. Historically, the roots of catalog shopping emerged in Europe during the Middle Ages after the invention of the Gutenberg press in the fifteenth century. Aldus Manutius of Venice printed the first trade catalog in 1498; it consisted of 15 of his published texts. Other catalogs among the oldest known include seed and nursery catalogs also produced in the late 1400s (Fact Book on Direct Marketing, 1984).

In 1774, Benjamin Franklin published a catalog displaying six hundred books relating to the sciences and other academic subjects. It

was not until after the Civil War, however, that the catalog mail order business emerged and grew as a powerful force (Fact Book, 1984). In 1872 Montgomery Ward started his catalog business in Chicago. Ward displayed such items as writing paper, needles, and fans in an eight-page booklet. By 1884 the Ward catalog consisted of 240 pages with thousands of items (Fact Book, 1984).

Sears and Roebuck started their catalog business with the sale of watches in 1886. By 1897 the Sears catalog had seven hundred pages and thousands of items. By the same year, Sears surpassed Montgomery Ward in sales volume (Fact Book, 1984).

Other successful catalog businesses stemmed from the prosperity of the post-Civil War industrial growth. These included L. L. Bean, founded in 1912, and Book of the Month Club, founded in 1926. L. L. Bean's policy - "sell good merchandise at reasonable prices and treat your customers like human beings and they'll always come back for more" - helped generate total sales for 1983 of \$224 million dollars (Fact Book, 1984, p. 8). The Book of the Month Club spurred the growth of other book clubs such as Literary Guild and Reader's Digest direct mail operations.

Catalog Shopping Abroad. Catalog shopping has not only experienced a boom in the United States but abroad as well. According to Waddington and Campbell (1982) catalog companies originated to serve the poorest and most disadvantaged in the United Kingdom. Home economists in England have taken advantage of catalog services to serve the elderly and disabled in a dignified manner.

According to Advertising Age (Seeking Dollars, 1985) the rise in catalog shopping abroad occurred within the past five years following

the boom in the United States. Catalogs have been extremely popular in Western Europe and Japan, with success directed to the same types of goods sold in the United States such as nonfood products. Advertising Age (Seeking Dollars, 1985) noted that the same conditions that made the climate favorable for catalog use in the United States also applied to foreign markets.

Problems with Catalog Shopping. Previously, traditional stores have been the primary distributors of retail goods (Rosenberg & Hirschman, 1980); at that time consumers valued their money more than they valued their time. According to Rosenberg and Hirschman (1980), catalog businesses have been hindered by the lack of adequate systems for displaying merchandise, payment and delivery of goods. According to Business Week (Mail Order, 1985), most mail order shoppers rated the experience as fair to poor, rather than very good to excellent. Consumers enjoy browsing through catalogs; however, they are hesitant to purchase goods because of problems associated with returning merchandise. McQuade (1980) stated:

. . . catalogue browsing has become a fascinating pastime for many Americans. The hundreds of pages of products and descriptive copy may even be a part of the enormous escape literature of our time by now. (p. 111).

Lydon (1982) suggested that the fact that consumers cannot examine products personally hindered catalog use.

Rosenberg (1987, p. 1D) noted that catalog businesses have "rebounded from the hard times brought on by explosive growth, with retailers attacking the mail order market with a more focused sales pitch." During booming years catalog businesses fought for a greater share of the market through mass distribution strategies. As a result,

profit margins fell due to the expense of producing catalogs and lack of target markets which yielded minimal response rates. However, due to computerized mailing lists catalog businesses are now able to gain significant shares of their target market with less expense. Some catalog companies recently started charging for their catalogs or sending catalogs only to customers that ordered minimal dollar amounts per year to cover expenses involved with producing slick, high quality magazines (Rosenberg, 1987). Bloomingdales catalog business, which represents the second highest volume "store" in their chain, introduced advertisements to their By Mail catalog. According to Rosenberg (1987, p. 10) these strategies have not hurt catalog retailers, rather they have "separated serious shoppers from browsers."

Catalog Users. Studies regarding catalog shoppers have been minimal. Moreover, catalog research has been limited to female samples and limited in geographic locality. Cunningham and Cunningham (1973) investigated socioeconomic and attitudinal characteristics of active and inactive in-home shoppers in two communities in Michigan (N=519). Results showed that active in-home shoppers were less conservative, had a more positive attitude toward the use of credit, and were more cosmopolitan than inactive in-home shoppers. Active in-home shoppers tended to be affluent, socially upscaled consumers when compared to inactive in-home shoppers. These findings are consistent with findings of Berkowitz, Walker, Walton (1979) and Gillett (1970).

Bolfing, Hills and Barnaby (1981) investigated urban and rural in-home shopping and found that rural in-home shoppers tended to have negative attitudes toward local shopping conditions and tended to perceive less risk involved with mail order shopping than urban in-home

shoppers. Female homemakers from an Appalachian community (N=59) and an urban city (N=171) in Tennessee provide data for the survey.

Korte (1977) examined self-confidence of in-home shoppers who used catalogs. The sample consisted of female household heads from a midwestern metropolitan area. Results indicated that proneness to use catalogs was due to shoppers self-confidence regarding shopping in general.

Schwartz (1986, p. 32) noted that "the convenience of mail order attracts busier and more affluent people." According to Schwartz (1986), the

typical mail-order customer is between the ages of 35 and 44, earns more than \$30,000 a year, lives outside a metropolitan area, is a college graduate, is married, and has at least one child living at home. (p. 32)

In a study probing consumer attitudes toward catalog shopping, Edwards (1985) found that respondents were divided into six different groups based on willingness to purchase via mail order. The first group, labeled Mailbox Gourmets, consisted of the most frequent users of catalogs. These buyers were sophisticated, educated, active, affluent, and predominantly female. The second group, labeled the Young Turks, included trendy sophisticated, educated, single men who enjoyed shopping by mail; however, they were more hesitant to use this method than the first group.

The third group, labeled Life Begins at 50, represented seven percent of the sample population. This group consisted of older, empty nested individuals employed in either white or blue collar occupations. These consumers bought bigger ticket items than the other groups according to the survey. The next group, labeled Dear Occupants, represented 14 percent of the sample. This group was considered

"transparent and average" with no outstanding characteristics; however, this group was receptive to catalog buying.

The fifth and sixth groups were not receptive to catalog purchasing, yet represented approximately 43 percent of the sample. The Kitchen Patriots considered home life important to them. This group consisted of older, blue-collar and middle income consumers. According to the study (Edwards, 1985) this group enjoys browsing through catalogs but was not likely to purchase from them. The last group, The Above It Alls were "leaders, career oriented, involved, affluent and predominantly male" consumers (Edwards, 1985, p. 68). Attitudes of this group toward catalog shopping were negative and they were not in favor of this method of purchasing goods.

Lumpkin and Hawes (1985) profiled users and nonusers of catalogs from 14 communities located in a southwestern state. The sample included respondents from communities of less than 1,000 persons, and from cities of more than 50,000 persons. A self-administered mailed questionnaire resulted in a sample size of 581 respondents. Results showed that catalog users tended to be married, home owners, primarily women, affluent with children living in the home. Older respondents also tended to be catalog shoppers. This finding is consistent with Seitz (1984) who found that catalog shoppers were older in age than what had been previously reported in the literature. Contrary to findings by Reynolds (1974), Lumpkin and Hawes (1985) found that nonusers tended to be employed full time outside the home. Contrary to findings of Bolfig, Hills, and Barnaby (1981), location of residence did not influence catalog use.

Catalog Users for Clothing Purchases. Studies regarding catalog shoppers of clothing have been limited to fashion research. In a study of light and heavy catalog usage, Smallwood and Wiener (1987) found that heavy shoppers tended to have higher incomes and were more likely to be fashion opinion leaders than light users. Contrary to the majority of the research reported in this area, the sample of catalog shoppers tended to be older in age, married without children living at home, and living in urban areas throughout a southwestern state. In addition, Smallwood (1987) found that heavy users tended to be more interested in clothing, tended to spend a greater portion of their income on clothing, attended more fashion shows, and enjoyed wardrobe planning and clothing selection activities to a greater extent than light shoppers. Similarly, Seitz and Branson (1985), in a study of fashion consciousness and mail order shopping found that catalog shoppers with higher income and education levels had higher fashion opinion leadership and clothing interest scores. Furthermore, catalog shoppers with high levels of fashion consciousness attributed less importance to price information and greater importance to style in their mail order purchases.

Demographic Characteristics and Patronage Behavior

In most studies using human subjects, researchers report demographic information of respondents. According to Wells (1975), demographics are used extensively in marketing research. Bellenger, John, and Bryant (1980, p. 436) used cross tabulations with demographic characteristics to "provide a more complete picture of retail patronage groups."

Jolson, Wiener, and Rosecky (1987) found that income, age, and education were key correlates in predicting patronage behavior of consumer markets. Lumpkin, Allen, and Greenberg (1981) found that heavy and light purchasers of apparel differed significantly regarding income, occupation, education, and marital status.

Until recently, researchers ignored life cycle variables in predicting consumer expenditures and patronage. However, the significance of this variable is of some question. Wagner and Hanna (1983, p. 290) found that when income was not included in family life cycle models, the model was "moderately successful in representing the effect of those variables on expenditures." In addition, the researchers noted that "the use of family life cycle variables is awkward" (Wagner & Hanna, 1983, p. 290). Wells and Gubar (1966) suggested that life cycle stage, rather than age, should be incorporated into studies of consumer behavior; however, use of this variable proposes several methodological weaknesses. Weaknesses include the lack of sameness among researchers on life cycle categories and the concern that some households do not fit neatly into such categories which ultimately biases research findings.

Race, a variable that few researchers have examined, plays a relatively minor role in identifying patronage groups. Whipple and Neidell (1971-1972) found that blacks and whites held similar perceptions of competing department stores; however, the researchers noted that the study was exploratory in nature and that a more representative sample was needed in future research. Slama and Tashchian (1985) investigated race and purchasing involvement and found no significant differences between blacks and whites. Hence, the researchers

concluded that race was not a strong indicator of purchasing involvement.

Much of the research in recent years has explored female shoppers, particularly females employed in professional careers. Reilly (1982) investigated the influence of career on convenience consumption and found that working wives' income contributed significantly to increased consumption of time saving durables. However, a limitation of the study included the relatively small sample from which conclusions were drawn. Reilly (1982) stated that although the sample size satisfied the requirements for the number of variables investigated and statistical tests used, greater confidence in the results could occur with larger samples.

Joyce and Gultinan (1978) investigated female professionals, nonprofessionals and housewives regarding salience of store attributes and general shopping behavior. Results showed significant differences between professionals and nonprofessionals; however, there were no significant differences between working women and housewives regarding the variables investigated. Similarly, Lumpkin, Allen, and Greenberg (1982) found that housewives, professionals and nonprofessionals differed significantly. Results also showed that single working females differed significantly from married working females. Single working females tended to be shopping opinion leaders and fashion innovators; married females tended to spend less on apparel and were more likely to shop by mail. Professional wives tended to spend more on apparel than nonprofessional wives and housewives.

In a study of the changing roles of women, Venkatesan (1980, p. 196) found that feminists tended to be young, educated and "sympathetic to

risk behavior." Similarly, Bellenger, Robertson, and Hirschman (1976-1977) found that age and education were key correlates of store selection for female shoppers. Martin (1975) found that the elderly female shopper differed significantly from her younger counterpart in shopping behavior; however, both groups enjoyed and desired to be in-fashion.

Credit Use

Quelch and Takeuchi (1981) stated that credit cards prompted the widespread use of catalogs. The Statistical Abstract of the United States (U. S. Department of Commerce, 1987) reports that approximately 62 percent of families own at least one credit card. The incidence of use is largest for higher income categories and for individuals between the ages of 35 to 44 years of age. In 1972, reasons for increased credit use among Americans included increased urbanization of the population, changing age distribution to a youthful society, an attitude of willingness to incur debt, women in the workforce, and the trend to home ownership and to own durable goods rather than to purchase services (National Commission on Consumer Finance, 1972). According to the Statistical Abstract of the United States (U. S. Department of Commerce, 1987) store credit cards account for the largest share of the credit business; approximately 54 percent of the population owned at least one store credit card. Approximately 40 percent of the U. S. population own at least one bank card (U. S. Department of Commerce, 1987).

Research regarding patterns of credit usage have had similar findings. Slocum and Mathews (1970) found that higher income, higher social class consumers tended to use credit cards as a convenient exchange medium; however, low income, low social class consumers used credit

cards to generate revolving credit. Similarly, Canner and Cynrak (1986) found that credit card use was positively related to family age, income, and financial liquidity.

Hirschman and Goldstucker (1978) investigated bank credit card holders and department store purchasing. Users of bank credit cards for store purchases differed significantly from bank card holder/nonusers; users were found to be socially upscale, active, and affluent. In addition, users regarded themselves to be fashion opinion leaders and possessed fewer department store credit cards than nonusers. Hirschman (1979) conducted a study of consumer purchase behavior by credit card payment systems and found that credit card ownership influenced purchasing behavior. Persons owning credit cards were more likely to make larger total dollar purchases than those who purchase goods with cash.

Summary and Predicted Findings

The literature presented suggest that shopping motives are instrumental in determining shopping preference. Previous research also suggests that location, merchandise assortment, prices, sales help, parking facilities, store atmosphere, store policies, and convenience are major components of store patronage. The literature also supports the premise that the importance of shopping motives is perceived differently by various consumer segments thus eliciting different types of shopping behavior which can be categorized and tested. Shopping motives also aid consumers in formulating images of stores which in turn influences store preferences and subsequent store choices.

Previous research also supports the notion that personal, social, and epistemic values are important influences on store patronage and

should be considered in research of this nature. Previous research suggests that brand predisposition is valuable in the investigation of store patronage. Strong brand preferences can influence store preferences and subsequently influence store choice. Brand preference for various products helps reduce the risk involved in purchasing for consumers. Consumer attitudes, values, and beliefs are useful in determining evaluative information regarding brand preference.

Previous research also suggests that age, income, education, occupation, sex, and marital status are viable predictors of consumer patronage behavior. Race and family cycle variables do not provide reliable information in patronage behavior research.

Direct marketing includes catalogs, catalog showrooms, computerized buying networks, two-way cable, direct mail, direct advertising on radio and TV, and door-to-door sales. Research indicates that patronage behavior differs for selected direct response modes. In addition, the research reported indicates that catalog shoppers are a distinct consumer market worthy of scholarly attention. Catalog shoppers tend to be occupationally upscaled, socially active, married with children living at home, value conscious, affluent, and likely to use credit cards to purchase goods. However, conflicting results have been found regarding age, employment status, presence of children, and area of residence of catalog shoppers. Research has shown that the growth of brand names influenced the rise in catalog shopping; hence, it is predicted that catalog shoppers will have a greater brand predisposition than non-catalog shoppers. Previous research further indicates that catalog shoppers can be segmented according to shopping preferences for various outlets.

Many gaps exist in the literature regarding catalog shopping. A large portion of the studies reported were conducted in the seventies, consisted primarily of female samples, were limited in geographic locality, and were limited in scope regarding usage for specific product classes. Studies regarding clothing and patronage behavior of catalog shoppers have been limited to fashion opinion leadership and clothing interest characteristics.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The following research design provided the basis for examining catalog patronage behavior in terms of shopping motives, personal determinants, brand predisposition, shopping predisposition, and demographic characteristics. In addition, the research design provided the basis for testing of the proposed hypotheses.

Sample Selection

Quelch and Takeuchi (1981) stated that credit cards prompted the widespread use of catalogs. Since the literature indicated that approximately 62 percent of the U. S. population owned at least one credit card (U. S. Department of Commerce, 1987), the general public in Tulsa and Oklahoma City were chosen as the population for the study. In addition, the literature indicated that previous studies regarding catalog shopping had been limited to investigations of single communities (Lumpkin & Hawes, 1985); therefore, the researcher sampled both metropolitan areas. The researcher utilized the data sources of the Oklahoma City and Tulsa telephone directories as the sampling frames for the present study. A table of random numbers was used to select 300 names from each directory totaling a sample size of 600 possible respondents. The lists were checked for duplication of names and other potential problems that might occur when using a frame of this nature.

The sample size was determined by the number of variables involved in the study, response rates previously cited in the literature regarding mailed surveys (Lumpkin & Hawes, 1985; Peters & Ford, 1972), and existing financial constraints.

Variables

Variables of interest included shopping motives, personal determinants, shopping predisposition, brand predisposition, catalog use, and selected demographic characteristics. Selected demographic characteristics were based on the literature reviewed and included age, education, children living at home, income, occupation, employment status, marital status and credit card use. To determine occupation, seven major occupation groups and occupational titles previously employed by Smith (1972) were used. The researcher was primarily interested in differences between occupational groups rather than in specific occupations. Occupational groups consisted of professional, semiprofessional, skilled, semiskilled, unskilled, agriculture, and day labor.

In examining the salience of shopping motives, most researchers have used bipolar scales ranging from very important to very unimportant (Bearden, 1977; Gentry & Burns, 1977-78; Hansen & Deutscher, 1977-78). However, Jolson and Spath (1973) used a rank order technique to examine salience of shopping motives of shoppers and retailers. For the present study, the researcher used a semantic-Likert scale ranging from very important to very unimportant; a score of one was equated with very unimportant and a score of five with very important. Subjects assessed the salience of the selected shopping motives in terms of

clothing purchases. The researcher examined such motives as sales promotions, level of services, store atmosphere, price of merchandise, location, parking facilities, and friendliness of sales personnel. Reliability and validity of previously used instruments were not available for comparison. However, a split-half test revealed a 0.89 reliability coefficient for the shopping motives instrument used in the present study.

Personal determinants consisted of personal values. Since pretest results indicated a lack of suitable instruments to measure social and epistemic values, these values were not included in the study objectives. In measuring personal values, the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) (Rokeach, 1973) has been used extensively (Vinson & Munson, 1976; Vinson, Scott, & Lamont, 1977). The instrument consists of 18 terminal and 18 instrumental values which are ranked in importance by subjects. Instrumental values are "preferable modes of conduct" or behavior, while terminal values are "preferable end-states" or states of being (Howard & Woodside, 1984, p. 4). Since the theoretical framework from which the study was based referred to states of being rather than behavior, only terminal values were included in the survey questionnaire. Rokeach (1973) tested the instrument using college students, prisoners, and the general public. Such tests revealed that the reliability of the instrument ranged between .65 and .75 using alternative instrument formats.

Although the ranking method provides substantial information regarding values, Munson and McIntyre (1979) found that the modified Likert method also proved effective in measuring the importance of values when using the RVS. However, in terms of reliability, Reynolds and Jolly

(1980) found that the rating method, using modified Likert scales, was less reliable in measuring values than either the rank ordering method or the paired comparison method. In the present study, the researcher used the modified Likert scale to measure the importance of personal values with the Rokeach Value Survey. The reasons for using this method rather than the rank order method were as follows: 1) rank order data provides less information than interval data; differences in intensity of the values cannot be procured through rank order data, and 2) rank order data does not allow for use of more powerful statistical procedures such as analysis of variance. A split-half test of reliability revealed a 0.92 reliability coefficient for the Rokeach Value Survey in the present study using the rating method.

Product typology consisted of product class, product usage, and brand predisposition. To operationalize product class clothing was conveyed in the questionnaire instructions as the product under investigation. Regarding product usage, clothing purchases were identified in terms of purchases for the individual respondent in the questionnaire directions (See Appendix B). Brand predisposition was operationalized in a statement asking subjects if they had certain brand preferences when they shopped for clothing. Responses were measured on a seven point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree, with a score of seven, to strongly disagree with a score of one.

Catalog use was operationalized as frequency of use during the past year. Previous research (Cunningham & Cunningham, 1973; Lumpkin & Hawes, 1985) operationalized catalog use in terms of frequency of use. Instruments included scales describing use as "regularly," "occasionally," "very rarely," and "not at all" (Cunningham & Cunningham, 1973). Other

studies incorporated instruments that described catalog use in terms of dollar amount purchased in the past year (Schiffman, Schuse, & Winer, 1976; Smallwood & Wiener, 1987). Further still, other researchers used open ended questions describing the frequency of catalog orders (Bolfing, Hills, & Barnaby, 1981). According to Bolfing, Hills, and Barnaby frequency measures are most commonly used in empirical studies of users and nonusers of catalogs. Therefore, the researcher developed range categories for frequency of use (See Appendix B). To further examine the extent of catalog use the researcher included questions regarding dollar amount purchased through catalogs in the past year and the reasons for using catalogs.

According to Sheth, shopping predisposition referred to those outlets a buyer considered acceptable for a specific product purchase. To operationalize shopping predisposition for clothing purchases and selected store types, a semantic-Likert scale ranging from very unacceptable to very acceptable was developed by the researcher. A score of five was associated with "very acceptable" while a score of one was associated with "very unacceptable." Subjects assessed the acceptability of each store type listed; store types included discount stores, catalogs, two-way cable television networks, specialty stores, department stores, and factory outlets (See Appendix B). Definitions of the types of outlets accompanied the list to clarify terms (Jarnow, Gurreiro, & Judelle, 1987). A split-half test revealed a 0.74 reliability coefficient for the shopping predisposition instrument in the present study.

Pretest

A pretest was conducted April 24, 1987, to determine the validity and reliability of the research instruments. In addition, clarification of terms and statements used in the questionnaire were examined at that time. Fifty-one students enrolled in a clothing, textiles, and merchandising course at Oklahoma State University were sampled. The researcher encouraged respondents to offer suggestions and criticisms regarding the questionnaire. Since previous testing of the instruments used in the present study had been conducted using college students, the researcher sampled college students for comparative analysis. Faculty members and graduate students from the Clothing, Textiles, and Merchandising Department at Oklahoma State University also completed questionnaires and examined the instruments for content (face) validity. Pretest results and suggestions from respondents and reviewers provided the basis for development of the final instrument.

As part of the development of the final instrument, the researcher included the Arousal Seeking Tendency (AST) scale originally developed by Mehrabian and Russell (1973). The AST consisted of 32 statements which assessed "a person's preference for highly arousing situations, work experiences, and life style" (Mehrabian, 1978, p. 717). The researcher incorporated this instrument to measure epistemic values of respondents. Responses were measured on a Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Factor analysis was performed to determine construct validity of the instrument (Churchill, 1979). According to Churchill (1979, p. 69) factor analysis confirms whether "the number of dimensions conceptualized can be verified empirically."

Mehrabian (1978) determined that the number of dimensions underlying the construct equaled five; pretest results yielded 11 factors.

Churchill (1979) noted that:

When factor analysis is done before the purification steps suggested heretofore, there seems to be a tendency to produce many more dimensions that can be conceptually identified. This effect is partly due to the 'garbage items' which do not have the common core but which do produce additional dimensions in the factor analysis.
(p. 69)

In addition, reliability of the instrument was determined using split-half correlation method. Mehrabian (1978) determined the reliability of the AST instrument to be .93 using a sample of college students. Pretest results determined the reliability of the instrument used in the present study to be only .58. After examination of pretest data, it was decided to eliminate the Arousal Seeking Tendency scale from the questionnaire. This decision was based on the determined lack of purity of the construct under investigation and the low reliability of the instrument.

Also as a part of the development of the final instrument, the Rokeach Value Survey instrument was modified for clarification purposes. The original instrument incorporated additional statements to clarify each value; however, comments of reviewers suggested that these additional statements introduced confusion rather than clarity to the instrument. Rokeach (1973) tested the RVS using both formats and found that the reliability of the instrument was unaffected by this change. Therefore, the additional statements were eliminated from each value. Pretest results yielded a reliability coefficient of .70 using the split-half correlation technique.

Collection of Data

A cover letter and questionnaire (Appendix B) with a self-addressed stamped envelope were mailed to 600 Oklahoma men and women on June 1, 1987. After three weeks a 13.3 percent response rate resulted; hence, a second mailing was conducted. Results of the two mailings yielded a total of 177 usable questionnaires resulting in a 29.5 percent response rate. This is consistent with previous studies of catalog shopping behavior in which mailed surveys resulted in 30 percent response rates (Cunningham & Cunningham, 1973; Lumpkin & Hawes, 1985). On July 13 and 14, 1987, the researcher contacted a random sample of nonrespondents by phone to determine differences between the two groups. Nonrespondents were asked for information regarding catalog use, marital status, occupation, brand predisposition, income and education level, age, and credit card use.

Method of Data Analysis

Statistical methods used for data analyses consisted of multiple discriminant analysis, analysis of variance procedures, factor analysis, Student's t-test, and chi-square analysis. Based on examination of the data, some categories were regrouped in order to conduct further analyses. The original six categories relating to frequency of purchases through catalogs were collapsed into three categories: nonusers -- those who purchased through catalogs zero times, users -- those who purchased through catalogs one to five times, and heavy users -- those who purchased through catalogs six or more times.

The original 12 categories of dollar amount purchased through catalogs were collapsed into six. Categories of \$1 to \$25 and \$26 to

\$49 were collapsed into one group, and dollar amounts of \$300 and over were combined into one group.

The original seven categories for brand predisposition were collapsed into five. Categories six and seven were combined and categories one and two were combined. The categories were renamed for ease of interpretation as follows: Strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, and strongly disagree.

Since the number in some categories was small, the original five levels of acceptability regarding shopping predisposition were collapsed into three levels. Very acceptable and acceptable levels were combined into one group and renamed acceptable. Very unacceptable and unacceptable levels were combined and renamed unacceptable.

Due to small number of respondents in categories, income levels were collapsed into six groups. Income levels of \$65,000 to \$79,999 and \$80,000 and over were combined and renamed \$65,000 and over.

The researcher used multiple discriminant analysis to examine and test for significant differences between nonusers, users, and heavy users of catalogs. Multiple discriminant analysis (MDA) develops discriminant models to classify observations into two or more groups according to numeric variables (SAS, 1982). According to Perreault and Darden (1975, p. 340), MDA "determines the (weights of the) combination of the criterion variables which maximize departure from the null hypothesis." An underlying assumption regarding discriminant analysis is multivariate normality of distribution (SAS, 1982).

Chi-square analysis was used to test for significant differences between expected and observed frequencies for catalog use and credit card use. According to Steel and Torrie (1980) chi-square tests the

hypothesis regarding departure from a specified distribution.

When using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) computer package to conduct chi-square analysis, a warning will appear when 20 percent of the cells have below five observations. When this warning appeared with significant chi-square values, the researcher implemented the Claypool Adjustment Procedure previously used by Mellina (1984). This procedure evaluates the contribution of cells with under five observations to the total chi-square value. Specifically, chi-square values from these cells are subtracted from the total chi-square value. This total is then divided by the remaining cells with counts of five or over resulting in an average cell chi-square value. The average cell value is multiplied by the total number of cells resulting in an adjusted chi-square value that reflects a value had the cells with low counts not contributed disproportionately to the total (Mellina, 1984).

Two-way multivariate analysis of variance (2x2 factorial design) was used to test for significant main effects and interaction between selected demographic characteristics and salience of shopping motives. The researcher assumed unequal cell sizes in the analyses and incorporated general linear models for overcoming this design problem (Perreault & Darden, 1975; SAS, 1982). This procedure was followed by two-way univariate analysis of variance and tests of multiple comparison of means (Duncan's) to further determine relationships between significant variables and the direction of the relationships.

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to test for the relationship between personal determinants and the salience of shopping motives and shopping predisposition and the salience of shopping motives. MANOVA assumes normality of distribution and interval

data. According to Hawes and Lumpkin (1984) MANOVA detects differences among group centroids. If significance is found, then further analysis is conducted to examine univariate F-ratios for each independent variable in the model to determine its contribution to the dependent variable (Hawes & Lumpkin, 1984). The researcher assumed unequal cell sizes and therefore incorporated general linear models in the analysis (SAS, 1982). Univariate analysis of variance and tests of multiple comparison of means (Duncan's) followed the MANOVA procedure to further determine relationships between significant variables and to examine the direction of these relationships.

Chi-square analysis was also used to test for significant relationships between brand predisposition and shopping predisposition. Since chi-square analysis assumes categorical data and nonnormality of distribution this test was used.

Student's t-tests and chi-square analysis were used to test for significant differences between Tulsa and Oklahoma City respondents and to test for differences between respondents and nonrespondents. The t-test is similar to univariate analysis of variance; however, this test is limited to comparison of two groups.

A prior critical value of $p < .01$ was set as the value to determine significance. This procedure avoids Type I errors regarding acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis; however, this procedure also influences the making of Type II errors (Steel & Torrie, 1980). A Type I error exists when the critical value is set at a high level such as $p < .05$ and the null hypothesis is rejected when it should be accepted. However, a Type II error may occur when the critical value is set at a low level, such as $p < .01$ and the null hypothesis is accepted when

the hypothesis should be rejected. A chart showing the relationships among the objectives, the hypotheses, and the statistical tests used is found in Table I.

TABLE I
SUMMARY OF OBJECTIVES, HYPOTHESES,
AND STATISTICAL TESTS

Objectives	Hypotheses	Test
1. Determine differences among nonusers, users, heavy users of catalogs regarding a. demographic characteristics, b. personal determinants, c. brand predisposition, d. salience of shopping motives, e. shopping predisposition for selected outlets.	H ₁ : There are no significant differences among nonusers, users and heavy users of catalogs regarding a. income, education, sex, marital status, employment status, children living at home, occupation, and dollar amount spent, b. personal determinants, c. brand predisposition, d. salience of shopping motives, and e. shopping predisposition for selected outlets.	Multiple Discriminant
	H ₂ : There are no significant differences among nonusers, users, and heavy users regarding credit card use.	Chi-square Analysis
2. Determine the relationships among demographic characteristics, personal determinants, brand predisposition, salience of shopping motives, and shopping predisposition for selected outlets.	H ₃ : There are no significant relationships between a. income and education on salience of shopping motives, b. employment status and occupation on salience of shopping motives, c. age and gender on salience of shopping motives.	2X2 Multivariate Analysis Variance (MANOVA)
	H ₄ : There are no significant relationships between the salience of shopping motives and personal determinants.	Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)
	H ₅ : There is no significant relationship between the salience of shopping motives and shopping predisposition.	Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)
	H ₆ : There is no significant relationship between brand predisposition and shopping predisposition.	Chi-square Analysis

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The researcher assessed the patronage behavior of nonusers, users, and heavy users of catalogs for clothing purchases. The analyses were organized around six hypotheses given in Chapter I. The researcher used multivariate discriminant analysis, one- and two-way multivariate analysis of variance, and chi-square analysis to test the hypotheses. The researcher used the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) computer package; hence, observations with missing values were not included in the analysis. Therefore, the total number of observations may not have equaled the total sample size in some analyses.

Description of Respondents

The researcher surveyed 600 Oklahoma City and Tulsa residents listed in the telephone directories of the two cities. A 29.5 response rate resulted from two mailings. A sample of 21 nonrespondents were contacted by phone to determine differences between the two groups.

Nonrespondents and Respondents

Chi-square analysis was conducted to determine differences between nonrespondents and respondents regarding catalog use, brand predisposition and demographic characteristics. Results yielded no significant differences between nonrespondents and respondents ($p < .01$).

Characteristics of Respondents

Demographic characteristics of respondents are given in Table II. Over half (56.5%) of the respondents were female. One-third (34.5%) of the respondents were 60 years or older and three-fourths (75.7%) had some college or vocational training, college, and/or graduate degrees. Over half (69.5%) were married and 65 percent had no children living at home. Approximately half (46.8%) of the respondents reported incomes between \$20,000 to \$49,999 dollars. Furthermore, almost half (45.4%) of the respondents were employed fulltime and half (50%) were in semiprofessional positions. The respondents were approximately equally divided between Tulsa and Oklahoma City. Sixty-two percent of the respondents used credit cards for their clothing purchases, and slightly more than a third (39.4%) had preferences for certain brands of clothing when they shopped. In comparison with the general population of Tulsa and Oklahoma City (U. S. Department of Commerce, 1983), respondents were older in age; however, regarding income and education, respondents were consistent with census data available. Table XXXII, Appendix C, illustrates the demographic characteristics of respondents categorized as nonusers, users, and heavy users of catalogs.

Table III illustrates catalog use characteristics of respondents. Fifty-six percent of the respondents had not used catalogs in the past year but seven percent used it six or more times in the past year. An examination of data frequencies indicated that eight responses were inconsistent regarding frequency of times and dollar amount spent through catalogs. Approximately 57 percent of the respondents spent over \$100 dollars on clothing purchases through catalogs in the past year. Less than one-third (31.1%) of the respondents browsed through

TABLE II
DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS
(N=177)

Variable	Frequency	Percent
<u>Gender</u>		
Male	77	43.5
Female	100	56.5
<u>Age</u>		
20 years or younger	3	1.7
21-29	24	13.6
30-39	31	17.5
40-49	31	17.5
50-59	27	15.3
60 years or older	61	34.5
<u>Education</u>		
Less than high school	13	7.3
High school graduate	30	16.9
Some college/Vocational training	61	34.5
College graduate	51	28.8
Graduate degree	22	12.4
<u>Marital Status</u>		
Single, never married	17	9.6
Married	123	69.5
Separated, widowed, divorced	37	20.9
<u>Presence of Children</u>		
Yes	62	35.4
No	113	64.6
<u>Family Income</u>		
\$ 9,999 or less	13	7.5
\$10,000-\$19,999	29	16.8
\$20,000-\$34,999	45	26.0
\$35,000-\$49,999	36	20.8
\$50,000-\$64,999	26	15.0
\$65,000 and over	24	13.9
<u>Employment Status</u>		
Currently unemployed, looking for work	7	4.0
Employed full time	79	45.4
Employed part time	14	8.0
Full time homemaker	21	12.1
Student	2	1.1
Retired	51	29.3
<u>Current or Former Occupation</u>		
Professional	39	22.2
Semiprofessional	88	50.0
Skilled	16	9.1
Semiskilled	20	11.4
Unskilled	3	1.7
Never employed	9	5.1
Other	1	0.6
<u>City</u>		
Oklahoma City	87	49.2
Tulsa	90	50.8
<u>Credit Use</u>		
Yes	108	62.4
No	65	37.6
<u>Brand Predisposition</u>		
Strongly agree	27	15.4
Agree	42	24.0
Neither agree nor disagree	50	28.6
Disagree	23	13.1
Strongly disagree	33	18.9

catalogs to learn about new fashion trends, or to see new clothing items being carried in stores.

TABLE III
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES FOR CATALOG USE
FOR CLOTHING PURCHASES

Variable	Frequency	Percent
<u>Times Purchased Through Catalogs</u>		
0 times	99	55.9
1-5 times	65	36.7
6 times and over	<u>13</u>	<u>7.3</u>
	177	99.9 ^a
<u>Total Amount Purchased Through Catalogs</u>		
\$ 1 - \$ 49	19	22.1
\$ 50 - \$ 99	18	20.9
\$100 - \$199	19	22.1
\$200 - \$299	10	11.6
\$300 and over	<u>20</u>	<u>23.3</u>
	86 ^b	100.0
<u>Reasons for Using Catalogs</u>		
To browse	55	31.1
To purchase clothing	23	13.0
To browse and purchase clothing	42	23.7
I do not use catalogs	55	31.1
I do not use catalogs except to browse	<u>2</u>	<u>1.1</u>
	177	100.0

^aPercentage does not total 100 due to rounding.

^bNinety-one respondents indicated that they spent \$0.

Oklahoma City and Tulsa Respondents

Chi-square analysis and Student's t-tests were used to determine significant differences between Oklahoma City and Tulsa respondents. Results of the analyses are illustrated in Tables IV and V. Oklahoma City and Tulsa respondents differed significantly regarding dollar amount spent through catalogs and the value social recognition ($p < .01$). More Tulsa respondents spent at the level of \$200 and up than Oklahoma City respondents. Sixty-five percent of the Tulsa respondents, as opposed to 35 percent of Oklahoma City respondents, spent \$300 or more on clothing purchases through the mail. The largest number of Oklahoma City respondents spent between \$50 to \$199 on clothing items through the mail. Moreover, Oklahoma City respondents felt that social recognition was more important than Tulsa respondents. The mean score for Oklahoma City respondents was 3.60 as opposed to 3.10 for Tulsa respondents.

Salience of Shopping Motives

Mean scores regarding the importance placed on selected shopping motives by respondents are given in Table VI. Respondents considered value for the price, quality of merchandise, and price of merchandise, as most important shopping motives when purchasing clothing. Store size and advertising by outlet bordered on unimportance by respondents. Table XXVII, Appendix C, includes the frequency distribution of responses to individual items regarding shopping motives.

TABLE IV
 CHI-SQUARE ANALYSES FOR DOLLAR AMOUNT PURCHASED
 THROUGH CATALOGS BY CITY
 (N=86)

City		Dollar Amounts				
		\$ 1- \$49	\$50- \$99	\$100- \$199	\$200- \$299	\$300 plus
Oklahoma City	ROW PCT	16.28	34.88	27.91	4.65	16.28
	COL PCT	36.84	83.33	63.16	20.00	35.00
	N	7	15	12	2	7
Tulsa	ROW PCT	27.91	6.98	16.28	18.60	30.23
	COL PCT	63.16	16.67	36.84	80.00	65.00
	N	12	3	7	8	13

Note: $\chi^2 = 16.03$, $df = 4$, $p < .01$.

TABLE V
 STUDENT'S t-TEST VALUES FOR SOCIAL
 RECOGNITION BY CITY

City	df	Mean	t Value	Significance Level	N
Oklahoma City		3.60			85
	172		3.21	0.01	
Tulsa		3.10			89

TABLE VI
MEAN SCORES FOR SHOPPING MOTIVES

Shopping Motive	Mean ^a	Standard Deviation	N
Value for the price	4.43	1.12	176
Quality of merchandise	4.42	1.05	175
Price of merchandise	4.24	1.05	176
Friendliness of sales personnel	4.15	1.08	177
Guarantee and warranty policies	4.10	1.12	176
Savings during sales	4.09	1.20	177
Reputation for handling adjustments	4.06	1.10	175
Convenience of purchasing merchandise	4.05	1.07	176
Expertise of sales personnel	3.94	1.09	176
Assortment of merchandise	3.88	1.10	170
Level of services	3.86	1.05	177
Up-to-date fashionable merchandise	3.81	1.04	176
Store atmosphere	3.79	1.04	176
Hours of operation	3.71	1.15	176
Parking facilities at store	3.69	1.13	177
Location of outlet	3.44	1.12	177
Store layout	3.31	1.09	175
Sales promotions	3.12	1.24	174
Credit and billing policies	3.08	1.35	173
Store size	2.92	1.07	176
Advertising by outlet	2.89	1.10	172

^a1 = very unimportant; 2 = unimportant; 3 = neither important nor unimportant; 4 = important; 5 = very important.

Factor Analysis for Shopping Motives

In preparation for subsequent analysis, a factor analysis with varimax rotation was employed to gain a clearer understanding of the nonfunctional and functional dimensions underlying shopping motives. In addition, factor analysis was used to reduce the number of variables involved in the analysis. As shown in Table VII, three factors were

extracted which explained 60 percent of the variance. Factor scores of .450 and above were included in the factors. If an item loaded heavily on more than one factor then the researcher included the item in the factor in which the highest loading was apparent.

TABLE VII
FACTOR ANALYSIS OF SHOPPING MOTIVES

Shopping Motives	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Quality of merchandise	<u>0.610</u>	0.604	-0.001
Parking facilities at store	<u>0.595</u>	0.179	0.248
Store atmosphere	<u>0.664</u>	0.318	0.226
Friendliness of sales personnel	<u>0.810</u>	0.342	0.110
Expertise of sales personnel	<u>0.858</u>	0.127	0.081
Level of services	<u>0.831</u>	0.167	0.085
Reputation for handling adjustments	<u>0.557</u>	0.418	0.177
Guarantee and warranty policies	<u>0.553</u>	0.544	0.158
Assortment of merchandise	<u>0.307</u>	<u>0.597</u>	0.235
Value for the price	0.414	<u>0.803</u>	-0.049
Price of merchandise	0.209	<u>0.823</u>	0.007
Savings during sales	0.181	<u>0.778</u>	0.281
Convenience of purchasing merchandise	0.397	<u>0.589</u>	0.272
Location of outlet	0.248	<u>0.303</u>	<u>0.475</u>
Advertising by outlet	0.133	0.055	<u>0.705</u>
Credit and billing policies	0.035	0.392	<u>0.543</u>
Sales promotions	-0.184	0.435	<u>0.661</u>
Store layout	0.242	0.009	<u>0.742</u>
Store size	0.126	-0.094	<u>0.803</u>
Hours of operation	0.204	0.396	<u>0.513</u>
Up-to-date fashionable merchandise	0.257	0.436	<u>0.296</u>
Eigen values	4.67	4.56	3.41
Percentage of explained variance	22.24	21.72	16.24

Note: Motives included in each factor are underlined.

Factor 1 consisted of primarily nonfunctional shopping motives such as friendliness of sales personnel, quality of merchandise, expertise of sales personnel, level of services, reputation for handling adjustments, guarantee and warranty policies and store atmosphere. Factor 1 emphasized intrinsic cues or humanistic attributes that consumers used to evaluate outlets. Factor 2 consisted of economic shopping motives including price of merchandise, savings during sales, convenience of purchasing merchandise, assortment of merchandise, and value for the price. These items were intrinsic to consumers and emphasized the value of the purchase regarding money, time, and energy saved. Quality of merchandise and guarantee and warranty policies loaded heavily on Factors 1 and 2. Factor 3 consisted primarily of functional shopping motives including advertising by outlet, credit and billing policies, sales promotions, store layout, store size, location of outlet and hours of operation. Factor 3 emphasized extrinsic cues that consumers use to evaluate an outlet. In addition, Factor 3 represented store investments that promote customer patronage. Up-to-date fashionable merchandise did not load on any of the factors according to the specified limit. Table XXXI, Appendix C, includes mean scores for factors categorized by nonusers, users, and heavy users of catalogs.

Shopping Predisposition for Selected Outlets

Table VIII presents mean scores for the acceptability of selected outlets for clothing purchases. Department stores, specialty stores, and factory outlets bordered on acceptability regarding clothing purchases. However, computerized buying networks and two-way cable were regarded as unacceptable to very unacceptable for clothing purchases.

Table XXIX, Appendix C, includes the frequency distribution of responses to individual items regarding shopping predisposition.

TABLE VIII
MEAN SCORES FOR SHOPPING PREDISPOSITION
OF SELECTED OUTLETS

Selected Outlet	Mean ^a	Standard Deviation	N
Department stores	3.66	0.81	177
Specialty stores	3.24	1.10	176
Factory outlets	3.13	1.12	175
Discount stores	2.98	1.27	177
Mail order catalogs	2.50	1.34	172
Warehouse clubs	2.31	1.30	173
Catalog showrooms	2.14	1.27	176
Computerized buying networks	1.60	1.05	176
Two-way cable TV networks	1.56	1.01	175

^a1 = very unacceptable; 2 = unacceptable; 3 = neither acceptable nor unacceptable; 4 = acceptable; 5 = very acceptable.

Importance of Personal Determinants

Mean scores regarding the importance placed on personal determinants by respondents are given in Table IX. In general, respondents considered all but three of the personal determinants as important to very important. Self-respect and freedom were determinants rated most important by respondents. Table XXX, Appendix C, includes the frequency of distribution of responses to individual items regarding personal determinants.

TABLE IX
MEAN SCORES FOR PERSONAL DETERMINANTS

Personal Determinant	Mean ^a	Standard Deviation	N
Self-respect	4.77	0.72	175
Freedom	4.75	0.77	176
Family security	4.66	0.84	175
Happiness	4.66	0.77	175
Inner harmony	4.64	0.76	177
True friendship	4.63	0.81	175
National security	4.59	0.80	176
A world at peace	4.55	0.82	176
Mature love	4.54	0.88	176
Wisdom	4.52	0.84	175
A sense of accomplishment	4.50	0.88	175
Salvation	4.29	1.12	174
A world of beauty	4.27	0.87	176
Equality	4.21	0.95	176
Pleasure	4.11	0.85	176
A comfortable life	3.79	0.71	176
An exciting life	3.65	0.96	173
Social recognition	3.34	1.05	174

^a1 = very unimportant; 2 = unimportant; 3 = neither unimportant nor important; 4 = important; 5 = very important.

Testing the Hypotheses

Inferential statistics were used to test six hypotheses of interest. To test H_1 multiple discriminant analysis was performed. To test H_3 - H_5 multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used. To test H_2 and H_6 chi-square analysis was used. The three factors (Nonfunctional, Economic, and Functional motives) which emerged as a result of factor analysis of shopping motives were used in subsequent analyses.

H₁: There are no significant differences among nonusers, users, and heavy users of catalogs regarding

- a. income, education, sex, marital status, employment status, the presence of children living at home, occupation, and dollar amount spent via catalogs,
- b. personal determinants,
- c. brand predisposition,
- d. salience of shopping motives, and
- e. shopping predisposition for selected outlets.

This hypothesis was partially rejected ($p < .01$). Results of multiple discriminant analysis are given in Table X. Two variables emerged as effective in discriminating among nonusers, users, and heavy users. First, the variable dollar amount spent was the most effective variable in discriminating among the three groups. An analysis of group means indicated that heavy users spent significantly more dollars on clothing purchases in the past year than users or nonusers (Table XI).

Shopping predisposition for catalogs emerged as the second effective variable in discriminating among nonusers, users and heavy users. An analysis of group means revealed greater acceptability of catalogs for clothing purchases among users and heavy users than among nonusers. The function explained 85 percent of the variance between the three groups. A classification matrix procedure was also incorporated to determine the ability of the discriminant function to classify the sample population (Table XII). The function classified approximately 94 percent of the sample including 53 percent of nonusers, 38 percent of users and 10 percent of heavy users.

TABLE X
SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS OF MULTIPLE DISCRIMINANT
ANALYSIS FOR NONUSERS, USERS,
AND HEAVY USERS OF CATALOGS

Variable	Partial R ²	F-Value	Wilk's Lambda	Significance Level
Dollars spent	0.66	128.49	0.33	0.0001
Shopping Predisposition for catalogs	0.19	15.72	0.27	0.0001

TABLE XI
CLASS MEANS FOR DOLLAR AMOUNT AND CATALOG ACCEPTABILITY
FOR NONUSERS, USERS AND HEAVY USERS

Variable	Nonuser	User	Heavy User
	Mean	Mean	Mean
Dollars spent ^a	1.25	4.74	6.30
Acceptability of catalogs ^b	1.71	3.42	3.30

^aDollar amount purchased through the mail: Range 1 = \$0; 2 = \$1-\$25; 3 = \$26-\$49; 4 = \$50-\$99; 5 = \$100-\$199; 6 = \$200-\$299; 7 = \$300 and over.

^bAcceptability of catalogs: Range 1 = very unacceptable; 2 = unacceptable; 3 = neither unacceptable nor acceptable; 4 = acceptable; 5 = very acceptable.

TABLE XII
 CLASSIFICATION MATRIX FOR NONUSERS, USERS,
 AND HEAVY USERS OF CATALOGS

Actual Classification	Total Number	As Classified by the Discriminant Function			Accumulative Percentage Correct
		Nonuser	User	Heavy	
Nonuser	71	69	2	0	52.59
User	54	1	49	4	37.78
Heavy user	10	1	0	9	9.63
Totals	135 ^a	71	51	13	94.08

^aDue to missing values, not all observations were included in the analysis.

H₂: There are no significant differences among nonusers, users, and heavy users regarding credit card use.

This hypothesis was rejected ($p < .01$). Results of chi-square analysis yielded significant differences between nonusers, users, and heavy users regarding credit card use (Table XIII). Eighty-five percent of the heavy users and 74 percent of users but only 52 percent of nonusers used credit cards for clothing purchases.

H₃: There are no significant relationships between

- a. income and education on salience of shopping motives,
- b. employment status and occupation on salience of shopping motives,
- c. age and gender on salience of shopping motives.

TABLE XIII
 CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS FOR CREDIT USE BY CATALOG USE
 (N=173)

Catalog Use		Credit Use	
		Yes	No
Nonuser	ROW PCT	51.58	48.42
	COL PCT	45.37	70.77
	N	49	46
User	ROW PCT	73.85	26.15
	COL PCT	44.44	26.15
	N	48	17
Heavy User	ROW PCT	84.62	15.38
	COL PCT	10.19	3.08
	N	11	2

Note: $\chi^2 = 11.09$, $df = 2$, $p < .01$.

Results of the MANOVA are given in Table XIV. Partial rejection of this hypothesis was apparent ($p < .01$). Findings indicated that there were significant main effects for income, education, and age; however, hypothesized interactions were not significant.

Results of significant univariate ANOVA for income and education are given in Table XV. Factor 1 (Nonfunctional motives) and Factor 3 (Functional motives) contributed to the overall significance of income. Duncan's tests for comparison of means were not significant ($p < .01$). Factor 1 (Nonfunctional motives), Factor 2 (Economic motives), and Factor 3 (Functional motives) contributed to the overall significance of education. Duncan's tests for comparison of means were not significant ($p < .01$) for Factors 1 and 2. However, respondents with less than

TABLE XIV
 MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FINDINGS FOR
 INCOME, EDUCATION, GENDER, AGE, EMPLOYMENT
 STATUS AND OCCUPATION AND SALIENCE
 OF SHOPPING MOTIVES

Variable	df	Multivariate F-Value ^a	Significance Level	N
Income	5	2.79	0.001	156
Education	4	2.93	0.001	156
Income x Education	15	1.35	N.S.	156
Gender	1	1.77	N.S.	159
Age	5	2.33	0.01	159
Gender x Age	4	0.92	N.S.	159
Employment Status	5	1.47	N.S.	155
Occupation	6	1.41	N.S.	155
Employment Status x Occupation	12	1.12	N.S.	155

^aMultivariate F-Value reported in the present study included Wilk's Criterion.

TABLE XV
 SIGNIFICANT UNIVARIATE ANOVA FINDINGS FOR
 INCOME AND EDUCATION AND SALIENCE
 OF SHOPPING MOTIVES

Variable	Dependent Variable	df	Univariate F-Value	Significance Level	N
Income	Factor 1	5	3.54	0.01	156
	Factor 3	5	3.84	0.01	156
Education	Factor 1	4	5.85	0.001	156
	Factor 2	4	4.01	0.01	156
	Factor 3	4	4.50	0.01	156

a high school education differed significantly from other education levels regarding Factor 3. They considered functional motives less important than three other education groups tested (Table XVI). Although results of MANOVA indicated a significant main effect for age, univariate ANOVA did not produce contributing information.

TABLE XVI
MEAN SCORES FOR FUNCTIONAL MOTIVES (FACTOR 3) AND EDUCATION

Education Level	Mean Score	Duncan's Grouping ^a	N
Less than high school	17.87	B	8
High school graduate	22.92	A	25
Some college/vocational training	23.82	A	51
College graduate	22.34	A	50
Graduate degree	20.59	A B	22

^aMeans with the same letter are not significantly different.

H₄: There are no significant relationships between the salience of shopping motives and personal determinants.

Results of MANOVA are given in Table XVII. Partial rejection of this hypothesis was apparent ($p < .01$). Results indicated that the relationships between the salience of shopping motives and the personal determinants sense of accomplishment and pleasure were significant ($p < .01$). Results of Univariate ANOVA are given in Table XVIII. Findings indicated that Factor 2 (Economic motives) contributed to the overall significance of a sense of accomplishment. Mean scores for

economic motives were significantly lower for respondents that considered sense of accomplishment very unimportant than for the other groups (Table XIX).

TABLE XVII
MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FINDINGS FOR
SALIENCE OF SHOPPING MOTIVES AND
PERSONAL DETERMINANTS
(N=154)

Personal Determinant	df	Multivariate F-Value ^a	Significance Level
A comfortable life	4	0.34	N.S.
An exciting life	4	0.84	N.S.
A sense of accomplishment	4	2.66	0.01
A world at peace	3	1.71	N.S.
A world of beauty	4	1.05	N.S.
Equality	4	1.48	N.S.
Family security	3	1.98	N.S.
Freedom	1	0.06	N.S.
Happiness	2	0.68	N.S.
Inner harmony	2	0.42	N.S.
Mature love	3	1.12	N.S.
National security	2	0.19	N.S.
Pleasure	3	3.33	0.001
Salvation	4	0.70	N.S.
Self-respect	1	0.73	N.S.
Social recognition	4	1.22	N.S.
True friendship	4	0.85	N.S.
Wisdom	3	0.88	N.S.

^aMultivariate F-Value reported in the present study included Wilk's Criterion.

TABLE XVIII
SIGNIFICANT UNIVARIATE ANOVA FINDINGS FOR
SALIENCE OF SHOPPING MOTIVES AND
PERSONAL DETERMINANTS

Personal Determinant	Dependent Variable	df	Univariate F-Value	Significance Level	N
A sense of accomplishment	Factor 2	4	5.83	0.001	154
Pleasure	Factor 3	3	6.71	0.001	154

TABLE XIX
MEAN SCORES FOR ECONOMIC MOTIVES (FACTOR 2)
AND A SENSE OF ACCOMPLISHMENT

Importance Level	Mean Score	Duncan's Grouping ^a	N
Very unimportant	7.20	B	5
Unimportant	15.00	A	1
Neither important nor unimportant	17.25	A	4
Important	19.97	A	40
Very important	22.10	A	104

^aMeans with the same letter are not significantly different.

Functional motives (Factor 3) contributed to the overall significance of pleasure. An examination of mean scores indicated that respondents that considered pleasure unimportant regarded functional motives significantly less important than other groups tested (Table XX).

TABLE XX
MEAN SCORES FOR FUNCTIONAL MOTIVES (FACTOR 3) AND PLEASURE

Importance Level	Mean Score	Duncan's Grouping ^a	N
Very unimportant	16.33	B C	3
Unimportant	14.25	C	4
Neither unimportant nor important	19.72	A B C	22
Important	22.32	A B	74
Very important	24.31	A B	51

^aMeans with the same letter are not significantly different.

H₅: There is no significant relationship between the salience of shopping motives and shopping predisposition.

Partial rejection of the fifth hypothesis was apparent ($p < .01$). Results of MANOVA yielded significant differences for the salience of shopping motives regarding specialty stores (Table XXI). Results of ANOVA indicated that nonfunctional motives (Factor 1) contributed to the overall significance of shopping motives (Table XXII). Duncan's grouping revealed that respondents that considered specialty stores very acceptable or neither acceptable or unacceptable regarded nonfunctional

motives significantly more important than respondents that considered specialty stores very unacceptable (Table XXIII).

TABLE XXI
MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FINDINGS
FOR SHOPPING PREDISPOSITION
AND SHOPPING MOTIVES
(N=154)

Selected Outlets	df	Multivariate F-Value ^a	Significance Level
Department stores	4	2.02	N.S.
Specialty stores	4	2.29	0.01
Factory outlets	4	1.34	N.S.
Mail order catalogs	4	0.78	N.S.
Computerized buying networks	4	0.78	N.S.
Two-way cable TV networks	4	0.67	N.S.
Warehouse clubs	4	1.00	N.S.
Discount stores	4	1.56	N.S.
Catalog showrooms	4	1.09	N.S.

^aMultivariate F-Value reported in the present study included Wilk's Criterion.

H₆: There is no significant relationship between brand predisposition and shopping predisposition.

Partial rejection of this hypothesis was apparent ($p < .01$).

Results of chi-square analyses yielded significant differences for brand

TABLE XXII
 SIGNIFICANT UNIVARIATE ANOVA FINDINGS FOR
 SHOPPING PREDISPOSITION AND SALIENCE
 OF SHOPPING MOTIVES

Selected Outlet		df	Univariate F-Value	Significance Level	N
Specialty stores	Factor 1	4	4.33	0.01	154

TABLE XXIII
 MEAN SCORES FOR SALIENCE OF NONFUNCTIONAL MOTIVES
 (FACTOR 1) BY SHOPPING PREDISPOSITION
 FOR SPECIALTY STORES

Shopping Predisposition	Mean Score	Duncan's Grouping ^a	N
Very unacceptable	26.83	B	12
Unacceptable	30.31	A B	16
Neither acceptable nor unacceptable	33.25	A	39
Acceptable	31.05	A B	39
Very acceptable	33.10	A	48

^aMeans with the same letter are not significantly different.

predisposition and shopping predisposition for department stores, factory outlets and mail order catalogs. Respondents that considered department stores unacceptable for clothing purchases indicated preferences for certain brands when they shopped. Seventy-five percent of the respondents that considered department stores unacceptable had preferences for certain brands of clothing when they shopped (Table XXIV).

TABLE XXIV
CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS FOR BRAND PREDISPOSITION
BY SHOPPING PREDISPOSITION FOR
DEPARTMENT STORES
(N=175)

Strength of Brand Predisposition		Shopping Predisposition		
		Unacceptable	Neither	Acceptable
Strongly disagree	ROW PCT	9.09	9.09	81.82
	COL PCT	25.00	15.00	18.88
	N	3	3	27
Disagree	ROW PCT	0.00	30.43	69.57
	COL PCT	0.00	35.00	11.19
	N	0	7	16
Neither disagree nor agree	ROW PCT	0.00	8.00	92.00
	COL PCT	0.00	20.00	32.17
	N	0	4	46
Agree	ROW PCT	9.52	7.14	83.33
	COL PCT	33.33	15.00	24.48
	N	4	3	35
Strongly agree	ROW PCT	18.52	11.11	70.37
	COL PCT	41.67	15.00	13.29
	N	5	3	19

Note: $\chi^2 = 21.15$, $df = 8$, $p < .01$.^a

^aAlso significant using the Claypool Adjustment Procedure.

Approximately 53 percent of the respondents that considered factory outlets unacceptable also had weak brand preferences when they shopped as opposed to 26 percent that considered factory outlets acceptable (Table XXV). Forty-seven percent of the respondents that considered mail order catalogs acceptable also had a preference for certain brands of clothing when they shopped (Table XXVI). A summary of the hypotheses tested and the results are found in Table XXVII.

TABLE XXV
CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS FOR BRAND PREDISPOSITION
BY SHOPPING PREDISPOSITION
FOR FACTORY OUTLETS
(N=173)

Strength of Brand Predisposition		Shopping Predisposition		
		Unacceptable	Neither	Acceptable
Strongly disagree	ROW PCT	28.13	21.88	50.00
	COL PCT	28.13	13.73	17.78
	N	9	7	16
Disagree	ROW PCT	36.36	31.82	31.82
	COL PCT	25.00	13.73	7.78
	N	8	7	7
Neither disagree nor agree	ROW PCT	6.00	36.00	58.00
	COL PCT	9.38	35.29	32.22
	N	3	18	29
Agree	ROW PCT	7.14	33.33	59.52
	COL PCT	9.38	27.45	27.78
	N	3	14	25
Strong agree	ROW PCT	33.33	18.52	48.15
	COL PCT	28.13	9.80	14.44
	N	9	5	13

Note: $\chi^2 = 21.09$, $df = 8$, $p < .01$.

TABLE XXVI
 CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS FOR BRAND PREDISPOSITION
 BY SHOPPING PREDISPOSITION FOR
 MAIL ORDER CATALOGS
 (N=170)

Strength of Brand Predisposition		Shopping Predisposition		
		Unacceptable	Neither	Acceptable
Strongly disagree	ROW PCT	62.50	9.38	28.13
	COL PCT	27.78	7.89	15.00
	N	20	3	9
Disagree	ROW PCT	45.45	27.27	27.27
	COL PCT	13.89	15.79	10.00
	N	10	6	6
Neither disagree nor agree	ROW PCT	36.73	28.57	34.69
	COL PCT	25.00	36.84	28.33
	N	18	14	17
Agree	ROW PCT	20.00	25.00	55.00
	COL PCT	11.11	26.32	36.67
	N	8	10	22
Strongly agree	ROW PCT	59.26	18.52	22.22
	COL PCT	22.22	13.16	10.00
	N	16	5	6

Note: $\chi^2 = 20.20$, $df = 8$, $p < .01$.

TABLE XXVII
SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES AND RESULTS OF
STATISTICAL ANALYSES

Hypothesis	Test	Conclusion
<p>H₁: There are no significant differences among nonusers, users, and heavy users of catalogs regarding:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. income, education, sex, marital status, employment status, children living at home, occupation, and dollar amount spent, b. personal determinants, c. brand predisposition, d. salience of shopping motives, e. shopping predisposition for selected outlets. 	Multiple Discriminant Analysis	<p>Partially rejected.</p> <p>Dollar amount spent and shopping predisposition for catalogs significant.</p>
<p>H₂: There are no significant differences among nonusers, users, and heavy users regarding credit card use.</p>	Chi-square Analysis	<p>Rejected.</p> <p>Heavy users and users used credit cards to a greater extent than nonusers.</p>
<p>H₃: There are no significant relationships between</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. income and education on salience of shopping motives, b. employment status and occupation on salience of shopping motives, c. age and gender on salience of shopping motives. 	2x2 Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)	<p>Partially rejected.</p> <p>Income, education, and age significant.</p>
<p>H₄: There are no significant relationships between the salience of shopping motives and personal determinants.</p>	Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)	<p>Partially rejected.</p> <p>Sense of accomplishment and pleasure significant.</p>
<p>H₅: There is no significant relationship between the salience shopping motives and shopping predisposition.</p>	Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)	<p>Partially rejected.</p> <p>Shopping predisposition toward specialty stores significant.</p>
<p>H₆: There is no significant relationship between brand predisposition and shopping predisposition.</p>	Chi-square Analysis	<p>Partially rejected.</p> <p>Department stores, factory outlets, mail order catalogs significant.</p>

Discussion

Results of the analyses yielded partial or total rejection of the hypotheses tested and support for the underlying theoretical framework. A discussion of the findings follows with references made to previous research efforts.

Differences Among Nonusers, Users, and Heavy Users

Nonusers, users and heavy users differed significantly regarding dollar amount purchased through catalogs and their shopping predisposition towards mail order catalogs. Heavy catalog users spent a higher total dollar amount via catalogs than users and nonusers. This finding supports previous research results of Smallwood and Wiener (1987) who found that heavy catalog shoppers also spent the greatest dollar amount through the mail. Findings also indicated that shopping predisposition toward mail order catalogs was more favorable for heavy users and users than for nonusers. This supports findings by Tate, Daniels, and Ball (1981) who found that catalog shoppers had more positive attitudes toward mail order than noncatalog shoppers.

Catalog Use and Credit Card Use. Results indicated that nonusers used credit less for clothing purchases than users and heavy users. This finding supports previous studies by Cunningham and Cunningham (1973) and Quelch and Takeuchi (1981). Cunningham and Cunningham (1973) found that active in-home shoppers have more positive attitudes toward credit than inactive in-home shoppers. Quelch and Takeuchi (1981) found that the expanded use of credit cards also increased mail order use.

An examination of group means and analysis of credit use revealed a relationship among credit use, dollar amount purchased, and catalog use. Heavy catalog shoppers used credit more than users and nonusers and also spent a greater dollar amount through catalogs. This finding is supported by Hirschman (1979) who found that persons who used credit were more likely to make larger dollar purchases.

Shopping Motives

Age, income, and education influenced the salience of shopping motives. These results support findings by Hansen and Deutscher (1977-1978) who found that age and income influenced the importance given to shopping motives by respondents. Furthermore, respondents with less than a high school education tended to consider all shopping motives less important than other education groups. This may be due to the respondents' inability to understand and discern product information. Younger respondents tended to regard functional motives less important than older respondents. This may be due to the lack of product knowledge, shopping experience, and emphasis on the fashionability of the clothing rather than functionability.

Personal Determinants and Shopping Motives. Results indicated that personal determinants influenced the salience respondents place on shopping motives. This finding supports the hypothesized relationship presented by Sheth (1983). Moreover, according to Howard and Woodside (1984) personal values help determine the choice criteria that will be used to evaluate products. A direct relationship existed between the importance given to sense of accomplishment and salience of economic shopping motives. The consumer may experience a sense of accomplishment

when he or she makes a choice purchase of what they need at the right price. The right price may include the value, merchandise assortment, savings, and convenience in time and energy associated with the purchase.

Shopping Predisposition and Shopping Motives. A relationship was found between shopping predisposition and the salience given to shopping motives. Respondents that regarded specialty stores acceptable for clothing purchases also considered nonfunctional motives important. Given that specialty stores are often regarded as status-oriented retailers, this finding supports Sheth's (1983) model whereby customers that regard nonfunctional motives tend to patronize status-oriented stores. However, given that nonfunctional motives represent more humanistic, intrinsic concerns, than functional motives, specialty store consumers may desire fulfillment of humanistic needs. Such consumers may be less persuaded by extrinsic cues or functional motives including advertising by the outlet, store size and store layout. This also supports findings by Schiffman, Dash, and Dillion (1977) who found that specialty store customers regarded expertise of sales personnel important. However, these researchers also found that specialty store customers regarded economic motives such as price and assortment of merchandise important to store patronage.

Brand Predisposition and
Shopping Predisposition

Findings indicated that brand predisposition varied as a function of shopping predisposition. This finding supports the hypothesized relationship proposed by Sheth (1983). An inverse relationship existed

between brand predisposition and shopping predisposition for department stores. Perhaps department store customers regard other cues more important than brand. The wide assortment of brand name merchandise carried by most department stores may hinder customers' identification of certain brands when they shop for clothing. According to Schiffman, Dash, and Dillion (1977) department store customers regarded location, price, and price deals, rather than brand, important to store patronage. The lack of brand preference for department store patronage supports these findings by Schiffman, Dash, and Dillion (1977). Sheth (1983) noted that customers that have strong outlet preferences and weak brand preferences result in retailing outlets such as Sears. At such outlets the product identity is not known to the consumer but rather the store name or another name is superimposed to identify the retail chain to consumers. Department stores often represent a multitude of brand names not known to consumers. Furthermore, private label merchandise programs, extensive in most department stores, create retail store identities rather than brand name identities for consumers.

Direct relationships were found for brand predisposition with factory outlets and mail order catalogs. These findings support those of May (1979) who found that catalog shoppers tended to have stronger brand preferences. However, these findings are contrary to those of Korgaonkar (1984) who found that nonstore retailing attracted convenience and value oriented consumers but not brand conscious consumers. Perhaps brand name communicates quality and other clothing cues for catalog users since they cannot examine clothing items personally. Factory outlets are often manufacturers' warehouses for goods. Brand emphasis may reduce the risks involved with purchases from factory

outlets; thus customers experience greater acceptability toward the outlets. Sheth (1983) suggested that customers with strong brand and outlets preference were likely to generate monopolistic competition structures regarding a product class. A result of this is the increased preference for specialty chains. Recently, various catalogs have been developed and marketed to specific target markets. Such catalogs are booklets carrying limited lines of products - a specialty store in booklet form. Factory outlets could also be considered specializing in limited lines of merchandise since most factory outlets represent a single manufacturer.

Theory of Shopping Preference

Support for Sheth's model of shopping preference was found in the present study. However, favorable shopping predispositions toward traditional retailers suggest that perhaps intervening factors rather than shopping preferences for catalogs lead consumers to utilize mail order catalogs and other direct response means for clothing purchases. In addition, support was found regarding the influence of functional and nonfunctional motives on shopping predisposition. Results of the present study revealed that nonfunctional motives included intrinsic cues or humanistic attributes of consumers that contributed to store patronage. According to Sheth (1983) these cues are extrinsic to outlets. However, functional motives included store investments that contributed to store patronage. Functional motives might be further described as extrinsic to consumers; however, according to Sheth (1983) these cues are intrinsic to outlets. A third factor emerged that emphasized economic aspects of shopping motives. These findings

contradict those of Hirschman and Kishnan (1981) who found that dimensions of retail store patronage included the dimension of subjective and objective criteria rather than economic criteria.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The researcher examined nonusers, users, and heavy users of catalogs in terms of shopping motives, shopping predisposition, personal determinants, brand predisposition, and demographic characteristics. In addition, relationships among these variables were examined based on relationships prevalent in the literature and according to Sheth's (1983) model of shopping preference. The sample consisted of 600 randomly selected names from the Tulsa and Oklahoma City telephone directories. The researcher collected data through mailed questionnaires; a total of 177 usable questionnaires were returned resulting in a 29.5 percent response rate after two mailings. Data were analyzed using multiple discriminant analysis, analysis of variance techniques and chi-square analysis.

Over half of the respondents were female and approximately one-third of the respondents were 60 years of age or older and three-fourths had some college or vocational training. Over half of the respondents were married and over half were without children living at home. Almost half of the respondents reported incomes between \$20,000 to \$49,999. Furthermore, almost half of the respondents were employed full time and half were in semiprofessional positions. In addition, 39 percent of the respondents had preferences for certain brands of clothing when they shopped. Two-thirds of the respondents used credit cards for clothing purchases.

Nonrespondents and respondents did not differ significantly regarding demographic characteristics. Tulsa and Oklahoma City respondents differed significantly regarding dollar amount purchased and social recognition. Tulsa respondents spent a greater dollar amount via catalogs than Oklahoma City respondents while Oklahoma City respondents valued social recognition to a greater extent than did Tulsa respondents.

Respondents regarded value for the price, price of the merchandise, and quality of merchandise as the most important motives when shopping for clothing. Furthermore, respondents had a favorable shopping predisposition toward department stores, specialty stores, factory outlets, and discount stores for clothing purchases. However, a large portion of the respondents considered computerized buying networks, two-way cable television networks, catalog showrooms, and warehouse clubs unacceptable for purchases. Respondents valued self-respect and freedom as the most important personal determinants.

Factor analysis using varimax rotation was used to gain a clearer understanding of the dimensions underlying shopping motives. Three factors were extracted which explained 60 percent of the variance. Factor 1 consisted of primarily nonfunctional motives, factor 2 consisted of economic motives, and factor 3 consisted of primarily functional motives. These factors were incorporated in subsequent analyses in the study.

Nonusers, users, and heavy users differed significantly regarding dollar amount spent for catalog purchases and shopping predisposition toward catalogs. Heavy catalog users spent the greatest dollar amount, while users had the most favorable predisposition toward catalogs.

Heavy users and users used credit cards more for clothing purchases than nonusers.

Results showed that income, education, and age were related to the salience of shopping motives. Factors 1 and 3 (Nonfunctional and Functional motives) contributed to the overall significance of income while all three factors (Nonfunctional motives, Economic motives, and Functional motives) contributed to the overall significance of education.

Results showed that two personal determinants, sense of accomplishment and pleasure, influenced the salience of shopping motives. Factor 2 (Economic motives) contributed to the overall significance of sense of accomplishment while Factor 3 (Functional motives) contributed to the overall significance of pleasure.

Findings indicated that the salience of shopping motives was influenced by shopping predisposition toward specialty stores. Factor 1 (Nonfunctional motives) contributed to the overall significance of shopping predisposition for specialty stores. Respondents that considered specialty stores very unacceptable for clothing purchases regarded nonfunctional motives less important than respondents that considered specialty stores neither acceptable nor unacceptable.

Results indicated that significant relationships existed between brand predisposition and shopping predisposition for department stores, factory outlets, and mail order catalogs. Respondents that regarded department stores acceptable for clothing purchases did not indicate preferences for certain brands when they shopped. However, respondents that considered factory outlets and mail order catalogs acceptable for clothing purchases also had preferences for certain brands when they shopped.

In conclusion, results of statistical analyses yielded partial and total rejection of the hypotheses tested. Hypotheses one, three, four, five and six were partially rejected while the second hypothesis was totally rejected.

Implications

Although the research results are applicable only to the population frame, this research offers several implications for marketing practitioners. First, results concur with the literature that nonusers, users, and heavy users are three distinct market segments. An examination of class frequencies indicated that heavy users tended to report higher incomes than users and nonusers. In addition, users and heavy users were more likely to be female and to have no children living at home. Moreover, an examination of group means indicated that heavy catalog shoppers were more likely to value an exciting life and tended to have stronger preferences for certain brands than users and nonusers. Marketers can formulate strategies targeted to these consumers based on these characteristics.

In addition, heavy users are more likely to use credit cards to purchase clothing than nonusers. Catalog marketers might consider implementing a credit program that allows for optimal credit use for purchases of clothing. Catalog houses may consider establishing their own credit card in addition to bank cards since the majority of Americans own store credit cards (U. S. Department of Commerce, 1987).

Results showed that respondents that found catalogs acceptable also had strong preferences for certain brands when they shopped. Marketers can formulate advertising strategies that emphasize this

attribute. Apparently, consumers identify outlets they patronize according to the brands carried as well as other attributes. Brand name may communicate quality as well as other characteristics to consumers which, in turn, influences what they buy and where they buy it. For catalog shoppers, brand name may communicate the nature of clothing attributes that cannot be examined personally. Catalog marketers may want to introduce private label merchandise programs, in addition to well known brand name merchandise, in clothing lines. This strategy has been implemented by L. L. Bean, J. C. Crew, and Sears.

Results indicated that personal determinants influence the salience of shopping motives. Marketers may consider emphasizing the values sense of accomplishment and pleasure in advertising campaigns to create value identities for outlets. Consumers that possess similar value structures may ultimately patronize and remain loyal to such outlets.

Results seemed to indicate that respondents still favor department stores over catalogs as outlets for purchases of clothing. Perhaps situational factors intervene whereby consumers must resort to catalogs for purchases of clothing. Such intervening situational factors may be presented in advertising strategies to promote catalogs as a convenient risk-free alternative for purchases of clothing. Furthermore, Urbany and Talarzyk (1983) suggested that retailers should consider their role in educating the public regarding various direct methods available to consumers for purchasing merchandise. Catalog houses may consider using bill inserts to inform customers of innovative means of purchasing merchandise, such as computerized buying networks prior to establishing such networks for purchasing goods. Since direct response

consumers are more likely to explore novel means of purchasing goods, providing information may expedite acceptance and use of these new methods for purchases of clothing.

Furthermore, low levels of acceptability of direct response modes, such as catalogs, for clothing purchases implies the need for consumer oriented educational programs to increase knowledge and provide hands on experience with direct purchasing methods. Home economists can play a vital role by disseminating information and educational materials to consumers. In addition, home economists in merchandising can assist small retailers in establishing catalogs that reach target markets. Furthermore, home economists work with mail order houses in developing catalogs that provide adequate and accurate information for clothing purchases. Extension home economists might provide information to acquaint disabled and elderly consumers with direct purchasing methods.

Recommendations

The results of this work suggest several directions for further research. First, since the present study focused on Oklahoma consumers primarily residing in urban areas, researchers may consider replicating the study using samples from different geographic regions, including rural as well as urban residents.

In addition, researchers may consider replicating the study using alternative sampling frames and survey methods. Telephone directories contain biases such as the lack of unlisted numbers, the lack of listing of new residents, duplications, and numbers and addresses of residents who have moved away. Researchers may consider phone interviews using the random digit dialing technique rather than mail surveys using

telephone directories. Researchers may also consider data bases provided by sampling firms or brokerage firms that specialize in up to date information regarding samples of the general public. Use of credit card lists from department stores should not be an alternative since such lists contain biases of their own and are not representative of the general public.

Future researchers may consider a comparative study of patronage behavior for different types of clothing items. Since the present study only examined the general product class of clothing, one might expect differences between clothing subclasses such as sportswear and formal wear or staple items versus fashion items. A question could be incorporated into surveys that asked respondents which clothing items were purchased via mail order. A comparative analysis could be conducted regarding patronage behavior from the resulting clothing categories. Furthermore, researchers may consider a comparative analysis of catalog patronage behavior for different product classes. Since clothing purchases provide social risks in addition to risks involved with the outlet, catalog patronage behavior may differ for product classes other than clothing.

It is apparent from the literature that various methods have been used to identify catalog users. Some researchers have used frequency of purchase to determine catalog use. This method was used in the present study. However, previous researchers have also used dollar amount spent as a means of identifying catalog use. McCorkle, Planchon, and James (1987) identified the lack of consistent measurement as a weakness of catalog research and recommended that future researchers determine a reliable means of measuring this variable. Future

researchers may consider a comparative analysis of these methods so that an optimal means of identifying catalog users may be incorporated in future research on a consistent basis.

Results showed that respondents considered computerized buying networks and two-way cable TV networks unacceptable for clothing purchases. Perhaps this is due to the lack of knowledge or experience with these shopping methods. Future researchers may conduct experimental studies dealing with use of these direct purchasing methods. A pre-test posttest design may provide insight into consumer acceptance behavior regarding these methods. Future researchers may also conduct preliminary interviews with subjects prior to surveys to determine knowledge of and experience with different direct purchasing modes available.

Researchers may incorporate focus group interviews in future studies to determine salient shopping motives for catalog purchases of clothing. In a previous study the researcher found that adequate sales information was more important to catalog users than to nonusers for clothing purchases. This shopping motive has only been recently introduced in patronage research (Sharma, Bearden, & Teel, 1983); however, this motive is important to catalog consumers. Perhaps through focus group interviews other motives important to catalog users can be identified and investigated in future studies of patronage behavior.

Researchers may consider alternative methods of measuring personal values. In the present study the Rokeach Value Survey, incorporating a Likert scale, was used. Although previous research has found this method suitable and reliable in the study of personal values, results indicated little variability regarding values considered.

Future researchers may consider incorporating an alternative scale that may discriminate further among the importance of the values. Perhaps an instrument that included agreement with statements rather than phrases would further discriminate among the values.

Researchers may consider an investigation of catalog patronage behavior using Sheth's (1983) model of patronage behavior as the underlying theoretical framework. Results from the current study indicate that catalog usage can be predicted based on shopping predisposition towards catalogs and dollar amount spent via catalogs. This suggests that perhaps catalog users and nonusers possess many similar traits and that intervening circumstances promote catalog use. Sheth's (1983) model of store patronage proposes that intervening variables such as time constraints influence outlet patronage. Moreover, Gehrt (1986) suggested that an investigation of situational factors, such as household time and financial resources may offer a more productive means of explaining differences in nonstore shopping. Such an investigation may further determine customer purchasing environments that promote catalog use.

Paksoy and Stevenson (1981) found that innovative behavior played a vital role in catalog use. The current study did not examine this construct in determining direct response use. Hence, future researchers may consider conducting a study of nonstore patronage based on diffusion and adoption theory (Moschis, Goldstucker, & Stanley, 1985; Urbany, & Talarzyk, 1983). The diffusion and adoption of new technologies implies a bell shaped curve of acceptance whereby innovators are first to utilize novel shopping methods such as computerized buying networks. Researchers may consider studies incorporating such a

theoretical framework to further identify potential users of catalogs and other direct purchasing methods.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

SHETH'S MODEL OF SHOPPING PREFERENCE

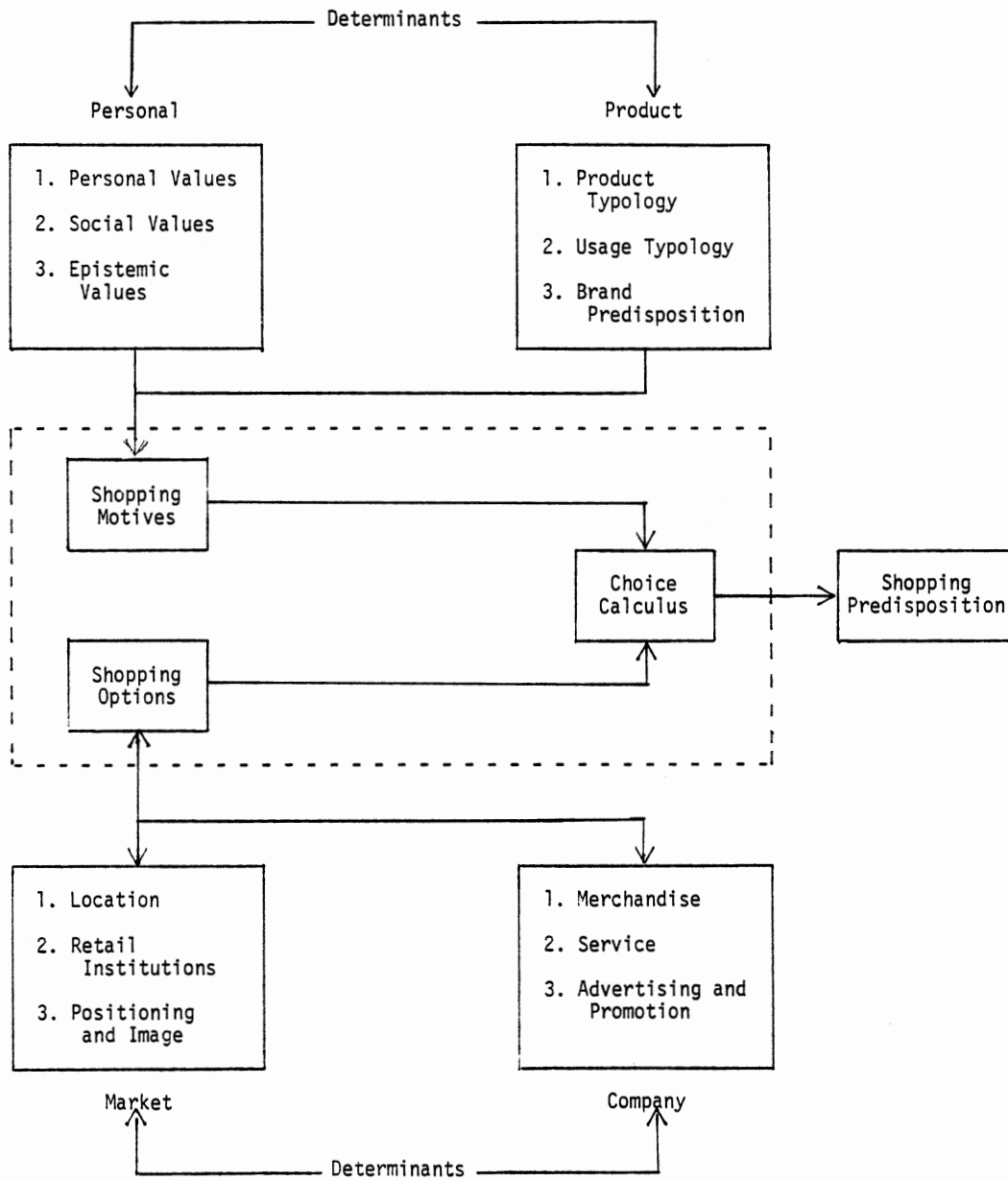


Figure 1. Sheth's Model of Shopping Preference

APPENDIX B

COVER LETTERS AND QUESTIONNAIRE

O K L A H O M A S T A T E U N I V E R S I T Y
Department of Clothing, Textiles & Merchandising

June 1, 1987

Dear Oklahoman,

Today's consumers have a choice of a multitude of outlets from which to make clothing purchases. Satisfaction with your purchases and with the shopping outlets available are important to you.

At Oklahoma State University we are attempting to learn more about Oklahoma consumers so that we can assist the various businesses in serving you more effectively.

This survey is being mailed to a small select group of consumers from Oklahoma. Because you are an Oklahoma consumer we value your judgment highly; and to ensure that replies truly reflect consumers' opinions accurately, it is important that we hear from you.

It will only take ten (10) minutes to complete the enclosed survey. There are no right or wrong answers. A pre-addressed post-paid envelope has been provided for your reply. Your reply will be kept absolutely confidential. Under no circumstances will a particular answer be attributed to a single individual.

Many, many thanks for your help in this research effort.

Sincerely,

Grovalynn Sisler, Ed.D.
Professor and Department Head

Victoria Seitz
Graduate Associate

O K L A H O M A S T A T E U N I V E R S I T Y
Department of Clothing, Textiles & Merchandising

June 26, 1987

Dear Oklahoman:

Recently a questionnaire regarding clothing purchase behavior was sent to you; as of yet we have not heard from you.

Since we value your judgment highly, it is vitally important that we hear from you. Only a select group of consumers from Oklahoma were surveyed so we want to ensure that replies truly reflect consumers' opinions accurately. Therefore, another copy of the questionnaire is enclosed for your reply.

Please take ten (10) minutes to complete the enclosed survey. There are no right or wrong answers. A pre-addressed postpaid envelope has been provided for your reply. Your reply will be kept absolutely confidential. Under no circumstances will a particular answer be attributed to a single individual.

Many, many thanks for your help in this research effort -- we look forward to hearing from you soon.

Sincerely,

Grovalynn Sisler, Ed.D.
Professor and Department Head

Victoria Seitz
Graduate Associate

SECTION I

Please complete the following questions below by circling the number that corresponds to the ONE response that comes closest to your own.

1. How many times have you purchased clothing FOR YOURSELF through catalogs since June 1986?

1 - 0 times	4 - 11-15 times
2 - 1-5 times	5 - 16-20 times
3 - 6-10 times	6 - 20 times and over

2. What was the total amount spent for clothing catalog purchases FOR YOURSELF since June 1986?

01 - \$ 0	05 - \$ 100-\$ 199	09 - \$ 500-\$ 699
02 - \$ 1-\$ 25	06 - \$ 200-\$ 299	10 - \$ 700-\$ 999
03 - \$ 26-\$ 49	07 - \$ 300-\$ 399	11 - \$1,000-\$1,999
04 - \$ 50-\$ 99	08 - \$ 400-\$ 499	12 - \$2,000 and over

3. For what reason(s) do you use clothing catalogs? (Circle all that apply)
 - 1 - to browse (to learn about new fashion trends, to see new clothing items being carried in stores.)
 - 2 - to purchase clothing
 - 3 - I do not use clothing catalogs

4. Do you use credit cards to make your clothing purchases?

1 - yes	2 - no
---------	--------

5. Please indicate the strength of your agreement with the following statement by circling the number that comes closest to your response.

I have a preference for certain brands of clothing when I shop.

Strongly agree	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
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SECTION II

When you shop for clothing FOR YOURSELF, how important are each of the following characteristics? Please rate the importance of each of the following characteristics by circling ONE number to the right of each statement that best describes the importance YOU place on that characteristic. Use the following guide for your response.

- 1-Very unimportant
- 2-Somewhat unimportant
- 3-Neither important nor unimportant
- 4-Somewhat important
- 5-Very important

1. Assortment of merchandise	1	2	3	4	5
2. Quality of merchandise	1	2	3	4	5
3. Value for the price	1	2	3	4	5
4. Up-to-date fashionable merchandise	1	2	3	4	5
5. Location of outlet	1	2	3	4	5
6. Parking facilities at store	1	2	3	4	5
7. Store atmosphere	1	2	3	4	5
8. Friendliness of sales personnel	1	2	3	4	5
9. Expertise of sales personnel	1	2	3	4	5
10. Level of services	1	2	3	4	5
11. Advertising by outlet	1	2	3	4	5
12. Price of merchandise	1	2	3	4	5
13. Credit and billing policies	1	2	3	4	5
14. Sales promotions	1	2	3	4	5
15. Reputation for handling adjustments	1	2	3	4	5
16. Store layout	1	2	3	4	5
17. Store size	1	2	3	4	5
18. Guarantee and warranty policies	1	2	3	4	5
19. Savings during sales	1	2	3	4	5
20. Convenience of purchasing merchandise	1	2	3	4	5
21. Hours of operation	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION III

When you shop for clothing FOR YOURSELF which of following shopping outlets would you consider for clothing purchases. Please rate how acceptable each of these shopping outlets are to you by circling ONE number to the right of each outlet that comes closest to your response. Use the following guide for your response.

- 1-Very unacceptable
- 2-Somewhat unacceptable
- 3-Neither acceptable nor unacceptable
- 4-Somewhat acceptable
- 5-Very acceptable

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Department stores (wide variety of merchandise sold) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Specialty stores (single category of merchandise sold) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Factory outlets (brand name and designer clothing--manufacturer owned) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Mail order catalogs | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Computerized buying networks | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Two-way cable television networks | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Warehouse clubs (Buying Clubs and Wholesale Clubs) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Discount stores (off-price stores, promotional stores) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. Catalog showrooms (samples of merchandise can be seen and ordered) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

SECTION IV

Please rate the importance of the following values by circling ONE number to the right of each statement that corresponds to the answer that best describes the importance YOU place on that value. Use the following guide for your response.

- 1-Very unimportant
- 2-Somewhat unimportant
- 3-Neither important nor unimportant
- 4-Somewhat important
- 5-Very important

1. A comfortable life	1	2	3	4	5
2. An exciting life	1	2	3	4	5
3. A sense of accomplishment	1	2	3	4	5
4. A world at peace	1	2	3	4	5
5. A world of beauty	1	2	3	4	5
6. Equality	1	2	3	4	5
7. Family security	1	2	3	4	5
8. Freedom	1	2	3	4	5
9. Happiness	1	2	3	4	5
10. Inner harmony	1	2	3	4	5
11. Mature love	1	2	3	4	5
12. National security	1	2	3	4	5
13. Pleasure	1	2	3	4	5
14. Salvation	1	2	3	4	5
15. Self-respect	1	2	3	4	5
16. Social recognition	1	2	3	4	5
17. True friendship	1	2	3	4	5
18. Wisdom	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION V

The following questions are for classification purposes only. Circle the number that corresponds to the answer that comes closest to your own. Please circle ONLY ONE response. PLEASE DO NOT OMIT ANY ANSWERS.

1. Please indicate your gender: 1 - male 2 - female
2. Please indicate your age range:

1 - 20 years or younger	4 - 40-49 years of age
2 - 21-29 years of age	5 - 50-59 years of age
3 - 30-39 years of age	6 - 60 years or older
3. Please indicate the highest level of education attained:

1 - Less than high school	4 - College graduate (B.S., B.A.)
2 - High school graduate	5 - Graduate degree (M.S., M.A., Ed.D., Ph.D.)
3 - Some college/Vocational training	
4. Please indicate your marital status:

1 - Single, never married	3 - Separated, widowed, divorced
2 - Married	
5. Do you have children living at home? 1 - yes 2 - no
6. Please indicate your family income range:

1 - \$ 9,999 or less	4 - \$35,000-\$49,999	7 - \$80,000 and over
2 - \$10,000-\$19,999	5 - \$50,000-\$64,999	
3 - \$20,000-\$34,999	6 - \$65,000-\$79,999	
7. Please indicate your present employment status:

1 - Currently unemployed, looking for work	4 - Full time homemaker
2 - Employed full time	5 - Student
3 - Employed part time	6 - Retired
8. Please indicate your current or former occupation: (Please circle only ONE)
 - 1 - Educator, doctor, lawyer, administrator, journalist, architect, etc.)
 - 2 - Businessperson, merchant, engineer, secretary, nurse, sales agent, etc.)
 - 3 - Electrician, jeweler, beautician, etc.
 - 4 - Factory worker, sales clerk, soldier, maid, police officer, etc.
 - 5 - Construction, building caretaker, etc.
 - 6 - Farmer, ranch worker, etc.
 - 7 - Never employed
 - 8 - Other, please specify _____

Again thank you for response.

This number is for classification purposes only: _____

APPENDIX C

TABLES

TABLE XXVIII
 DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES FOR SALIENCE OF
 SHOPPING MOTIVES FOR CLOTHING PURCHASES

Shopping Motives	Importance Level											
	Very Unimportant		Somewhat Unimportant		Neither Unimportant Nor Important		Somewhat Important		Very Important		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Assortment of merchandise	9	5.3	9	5.3	32	18.8	62	36.5	58	34.1	170	100
Quality of merchandise	9	5.1	5	2.9	7	4.0	36	20.6	118	67.4	175	100
Value for the price	12	6.8	2	1.1	12	6.8	22	12.5	128	72.7	176	100
Up-to-date fashionable merchandise	8	4.5	7	4.0	46	26.1	64	36.4	51	29.0	176	100
Location of outlet	13	7.3	16	9.0	61	34.5	53	29.9	34	19.2	177	100
Parking facilities at store	9	5.1	18	10.2	40	22.6	61	34.5	49	27.7	177	100
Store atmosphere	6	3.4	16	9.2	34	19.3	72	40.9	48	27.3	176	100
Friendliness of sales personnel	7	4.0	10	5.6	19	10.7	53	29.9	88	49.7	177	100
Expertise of sales personnel	8	4.5	10	5.7	31	17.6	61	34.7	66	37.5	176	100
Level of services	7	4.0	10	5.6	39	22.0	65	36.7	56	31.6	176	100
Advertising by outlet	29	16.9	19	11.0	74	43.0	41	23.8	9	5.2	172	100
Price of merchandise	8	4.5	4	2.3	22	12.5	45	25.6	97	55.1	176	100
Credit and billing policies	32	18.5	21	12.1	54	31.2	32	18.5	34	19.7	173	100
Sales promotions	28	16.1	18	10.3	54	31.0	52	29.9	22	12.6	174	100
Reputation for handling adjustments	10	5.7	8	4.6	17	9.7	65	37.1	75	42.9	175	100
Store layout	15	8.6	18	10.3	62	35.4	57	32.6	23	13.1	175	100
Store size	26	14.8	18	10.2	88	50.0	31	17.6	13	7.4	176	100
Guarantee and warranty policies	7	4.0	12	6.8	25	14.2	43	24.4	89	50.6	176	100
Savings during sales	15	8.5	4	2.3	18	10.2	53	29.9	87	49.2	177	100
Convenience of purchasing merchandise	8	4.5	8	4.5	24	13.6	63	35.8	73	41.5	176	100
Hours of operation	12	6.8	11	6.3	43	24.4	59	33.5	51	29.0	176	100

TABLE XXIX
 DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES FOR SHOPPING
 PREDISPOSITION FOR SELECTED OUTLETS

Outlets	Acceptability Level						Total	
	Unacceptable		Neither		Acceptable			
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Department stores	13	7.3	20	11.3	144	81.4	177	100
Specialty stores	30	17.0	43	24.4	103	58.5	177	100
Factory outlets	33	18.9	52	29.7	90	51.4	175	100
Mail order catalogs	73	42.4	38	22.1	61	35.5	172	100
Computerized buying networks	130	73.9	31	17.6	15	8.5	176	100
Two-way cable TV networks	132	75.4	30	17.1	13	7.4	175	100
Warehouse clubs	82	47.4	45	26.0	46	26.6	173	100
Discount stores	48	27.1	35	19.8	94	53.1	177	100
Catalog showrooms	94	53.4	44	25.0	38	21.6	176	100

TABLE XXX
 DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES FOR PERSONAL
 DETERMINANTS FOR CLOTHING PURCHASES

Values	Importance Level											
	Very Unimportant		Somewhat Unimportant		Neither Unimportant Nor Important		Somewhat Important		Very Important		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
A comfortable life	6	3.4	4	2.3	6	3.4	40	22.7	120	68.2	176	100
An exciting life	6	3.5	13	7.5	45	26.0	80	46.2	29	16.8	173	100
A sense of accomplishment	6	3.4	1	0.6	8	4.6	44	25.1	116	66.3	173	100
A world at peace	4	2.3	1	0.6	11	6.3	37	21.0	123	69.9	176	100
A world of beauty	3	1.7	5	2.8	17	9.7	67	38.1	84	47.7	176	100
Equality	6	3.4	4	2.3	17	9.7	69	39.2	80	45.5	176	100
Family security	6	3.4	1	0.6	4	2.3	24	13.7	140	80.0	175	100
Freedom	5	2.8	1	0.6	3	1.7	14	8.0	153	86.9	176	100
Happiness	4	2.3	1	0.6	6	3.4	27	15.4	137	78.3	175	100
Inner harmony	3	1.7	4	2.3	2	1.1	34	19.2	134	75.7	175	100
Mature love	6	3.4	1	0.6	8	4.5	37	21.0	124	70.5	176	100
National security	4	2.3	1	0.6	9	5.1	35	19.9	127	72.2	176	100
Pleasure	3	1.7	4	2.3	25	14.2	81	46.0	63	35.8	176	100
Salvation	11	6.3	3	1.7	17	9.8	35	20.1	108	62.1	174	100
Self-respect	4	2.3	1	0.6	3	1.7	15	8.6	152	86.9	175	100
Social recognition	16	9.2	6	3.4	76	43.7	54	31.0	22	12.6	174	100
True friendship	4	2.3	2	1.1	7	4.0	28	16.0	134	76.6	175	100
Wisdom	4	2.3	3	1.7	8	4.6	42	24.0	118	67.4	175	100

TABLE XXXI
 SUMMARY OF CLASS MEANS FOR NONUSERS, USERS,
 AND HEAVY USERS OF CATALOGS

Variable	Nonuser	User	Heavy User
<u>Shopping Motives</u>			
Nonfunctional motives	23.87	23.68	23.10
Economic motives	24.84	25.09	24.00
Functional motives	21.91	22.38	24.70
<u>Personal Determinants</u>			
A comfortable life	4.57	4.46	4.40
An exciting life	3.56	3.66	4.20
A sense of accomplishment	4.52	4.50	4.60
A world at peace	4.57	4.48	4.60
A world of beauty	4.26	4.20	4.20
Equality	4.22	4.20	4.40
Family security	4.69	4.61	4.60
Freedom	4.80	4.79	4.60
Happiness	4.71	4.61	4.60
Inner harmony	4.60	4.64	4.60
Mature love	4.56	4.51	4.60
National security	4.60	4.46	4.40
Pleasure	4.11	4.01	4.10
Salvation	4.38	4.11	4.20
Self-respect	4.83	4.72	4.50
Social recognition	3.36	3.20	3.40
True friendship	4.73	4.53	4.60
Wisdom	4.53	4.46	4.40
<u>Shopping Predisposition</u>			
Department stores	3.76	3.61	3.70
Specialty stores	2.97	3.42	3.20
Factory outlets	3.05	3.46	3.00
Mail order catalogs	1.71	3.42	3.30
Computerized buying networks	1.35	1.68	2.30
Two-way cable TV networks	1.33	1.51	2.20
Warehouse clubs	2.36	2.42	2.30
Discount stores	3.08	2.94	3.10
Catalog showrooms	1.92	2.33	2.50
<u>Brand Predisposition</u>			
	3.83	4.00	5.10

TABLE XXXII
 DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF NONUSERS,
 USERS, AND HEAVY USERS
 (N=177)

Variable	Nonuser		User		Heavy User	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Gender						
Male	51	51.5	24	36.9	2	15.4
Female	48	48.5	41	63.1	11	84.6
Age						
20 years or younger	1	1.0	2	3.1	0	0
21-29 years	12	12.1	10	15.4	2	15.4
30-39 years	18	18.2	12	18.5	1	7.7
40-49 years	17	17.2	12	18.5	2	15.4
50-59 years	14	14.1	9	13.9	4	30.8
60 years or older	37	37.4	20	30.8	4	30.8
Education						
Less than high school	12	12.1	1	1.5	0	0
High school graduate	19	19.2	8	12.3	3	23.0
Some college/vocational training	31	31.3	25	38.5	5	38.6
College graduate	28	28.3	19	29.3	4	30.8
Graduate degree	9	9.1	12	18.5	1	7.7
Marital Status						
Single, never married	8	8.1	8	12.3	1	7.7
Married	66	66.7	47	72.3	10	76.9
Separated, widowed, divorced	25	25.3	10	15.4	2	15.4
Presence of Children						
Yes	42	43.3	16	24.6	4	30.8
No	55	56.7	49	75.4	9	69.2
Family Income						
\$ 9,999 or less	11	11.5	2	3.1	0	0
\$10,000 - \$19,999	23	23.9	5	7.8	1	7.7
\$20,000 - \$34,999	21	21.9	22	34.4	2	15.4
\$35,000 - \$49,999	17	17.7	15	23.4	4	30.8
\$50,000 - \$64,999	13	13.5	8	12.5	5	38.5
\$65,000 and over	11	11.5	12	18.8	1	7.7
Employment Status						
Currently employed, looking for work	3	3.1	4	6.4	0	0
Employed full time	43	43.9	28	44.4	8	61.5
Employed part time	6	6.1	7	11.1	1	7.7
Full time homemaker	11	11.2	8	12.7	2	15.4
Student	2	2.0	0	0	0	0
Retired	33	33.7	16	25.4	2	15.4
Occupation						
Professional	20	20.4	18	27.7	1	7.7
Semiprofessional	44	44.9	34	52.3	10	76.9
Skilled	11	11.2	5	7.7	0	0
Semiskilled	13	13.3	6	9.2	1	7.7
Unskilled	3	3.1	0	0	0	0
Never employed	6	6.1	2	3.1	1	7.7
Other	1	1.0	0	0	0	0
Dollar Amount Spent Through Catalogs						
\$ 1 - \$ 49	3	37.5	16	24.6	0	0
\$ 50 - \$ 99	1	12.5	16	24.6	1	7.6
\$100 - \$199	3	37.5	15	23.1	1	7.7
\$200 - \$299	0	0	7	10.8	3	23.1
\$300 and over	1	12.5	11	16.9	8	61.5
Reasons for Using Catalogs						
To browse	38	38.9	16	24.6	1	7.7
To purchase clothing	2	2.0	19	29.2	2	15.4
To browse and purchase clothing	54	54.5	1	1.5	0	0
I do not use catalogs	3	3.0	29	44.6	10	76.9
I do not use catalogs except to browse	2	2.0	0	0	0	0

2
VITA

Victoria Ann Seitz

Candidate for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: PATRONAGE BEHAVIOR OF NONUSERS, USERS, AND HEAVY USERS OF
CATALOGS FOR CLOTHING PURCHASES

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