COMMUNICATIONS PATTERNS AND EFFECT IN SUPER MARKET CHOICE

Thesis for the Degree of Ph. D.
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Kenward Louis Atkin
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thesis entitled

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IN SUPER MARKET CHOICE

presented by

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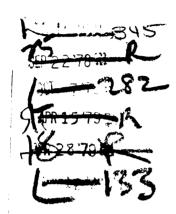
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COMMUNICATIONS PATTERNS AND EFFECT

IN SUPER MARKET CHOICE

Ву

Kenward Louis Atkin

AN ABSTRACT OF A THESIS

Submitted to
Michigan State University
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ABSTRACT

COMMUNICATION PATTERNS AND EFFECT IN SUPER MARKET CHOICE

I. Problem

This is an analysis of a field study conducted among a panel of consumers residing in a married housing development at Michigan State University. The principal purpose of the investigation was to study the relationship of certain communication factors to super market choice in a natural situation. It was anticipated that the results would also provide generalizations concerning the influence of demographic and socio-economic variables, attitudes and habits, and reference groups.

II. Background

The study of attitude formation and attitude change was held to be basic to an understanding of the process where-by advertising campaigns achieve their objective of influencing consumer behavior. In order for the advertiser to predict and control the behavior of consumers over extended periods of time, he must know something about the processes involved in changing attitudes when once formed. The advertising process is one phase in the influencing of consumer decisions,

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and its investigation was seen to require knowledge of other channels and messages concerning the message-object as mediated by the consumer's social environment and personality.

III. Method

A stratified sample of apartments was drawn in which the family member responsible for super market choice was interviewed twice by trained interviewers. The situation chosen which met the conditions for studying the salient variables was the everyday act of choosing a super market. The patronage act was viewed as part of a process in which the relevant attitudes preceding the patronage act were generated. The consumer's attitudinal structure, expressed in the concept of "image," was held to determine the patronage act. Instruments were developed to describe the characteristics, super market patronage patterns, and attitudes of the panel to measure changes in their attitudes and behavior relative to the alternative super markets available to them and to measure the communication influences to which the panel was exposed. Results were analyzed by single item and scaling techniques. Specific hypotheses were tested.

IV. Findings

The results were as hypothesized for six of the seven hypotheses tested: (1) exposure to advertising and



face-to-face messages, and predispositions were related to changes in store patronage; (2) face-to-face messages were more highly related to attitudinal shifts than was advertis-(3) the attitudinal profiles for the consumer's preferred super market and her "ideal" super market were more closely related than those of alternative super markets; (4) the consumers changing store preference showed greater attitudinal shifts for the several stores than did the nonchangers; (5) changes in super market patronage were related to the intensity of the consumer's attitudinal shift in an unfavorable direction; (6) the proportion of residents living on the same floor of an apartment dwelling patronizing the same store tended to increase over time, indicating that neighborhood groupings may give rise to "group norms" which will affect the super market preferences of some of its members.

The one hypothesis which the findings did not support assumed that there would be a positive relationship between attitudinal shifts and the combination of advertising, faceto-face, and predispositional messages about a super market. No relationship was found.

V. Conclusions

A. Relative to Theoretical Findings

1. The findings revealed that changes in attitudes were related to changes in patronage behavior.

Therefore, by studying attitudes directly as representing predispositions to action, at appears possible to obtain clues for the explanation and prediction of consumer behavior.

- 2. Consumers hold significantly more favorable attitudes toward their preferred stores. The attitudinal profiles of each super market remained quite stable over time for the panel as a whole.
- 3. The major communication variables studied--advertising, face-to-face, and predispositional or "self" messages--were found to be related, both singly and in combination, to patronage changes.
- 4. The combined influence of the communication variables was not related to the attitudinal shifts.

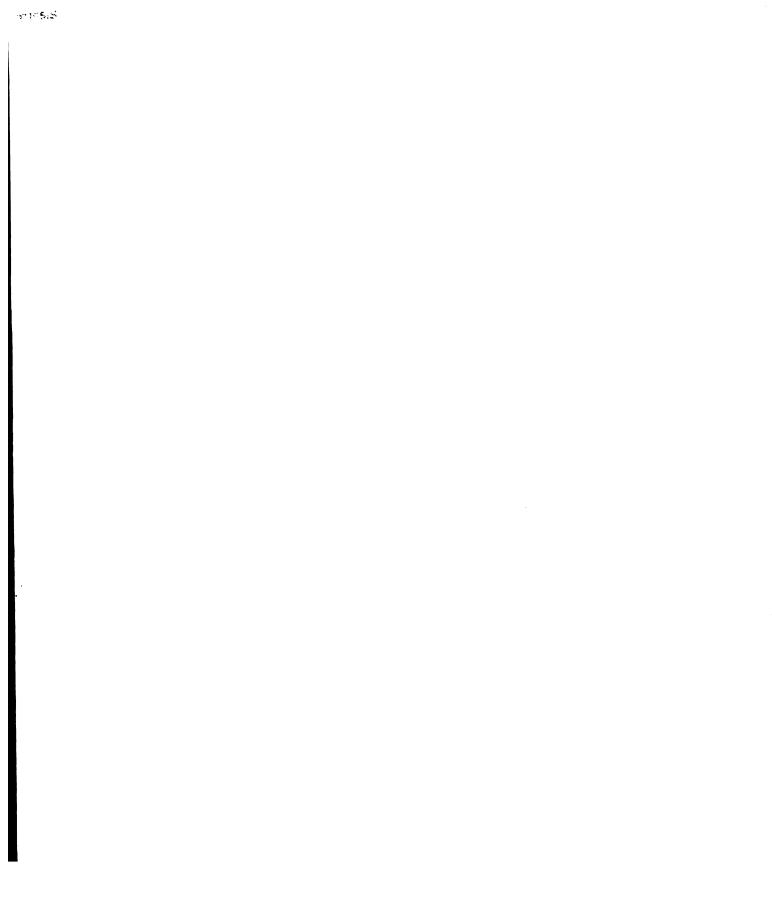
 Face-to-face messages, while related to attitudinal shifts, tended to have less influence on patronage changes than did advertising.
- 5. Changes in patronage were influenced by the one type of reference group studied.
- 6. There was little indication that either demographic or socio-economic variables influenced patronage changes.

B. Relative to Methodology

1. The design of this study provided a useful approach for the study of the processes of advertising and

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- face-to-face effect and the direction of effect, in conjunction with consumer predispositions.
- 2. The concept of "image" and the methodology for defining it, as developed in this study, appears to have generated valuable information for guiding management in taking more effective reinforcing and remedial action, such as a shift in advertising strategy.
- C. Relative to Substantive Findings
 - The concentration of retailers upon expediency and price appeals in their advertising was shown to be questionable. Attitudes precipitating behavior changed very slowly over time. Price was not important as a patronage factor when stores were similar.
 - 2. The store which is most successful in developing a favorable image may obtain a competitive advantage. This requires the careful nurturing of valued image components by improving related store attributes, by advertising and promotional campaigns designed to improve the consumer's attitudes toward the store, or by combining these approaches.



- 3. Favored super market attributes influenced choice only when obvious differences exist between stores. When alternative stores are objectively similar, the consumer selectively perceives favored attributes in the store she prefers.
- 4. Advertising was positively related to changes in consumer behavior. The amount of readership of newspaper advertisement appeared to be related to the content and presentation of advertisements.

 The use of other media to supplement the newspaper was indicated.

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PREFACE

This investigation into consumer behavior has as its principal goal the illumination of a basic, yet little understood, issue - that of explaining and predicting human behavior in the market place. The specific focus of the study concerns super market choice; nevertheless, the methodology and findings reported have implications beyond mere application by the super market industry into more encompassing problems of human behavior.

A secondary goal is to provide an example of empirical research in a field where basic data are inadequate and where studies using observational information concerning changes in consumer attitudes and behavior are still comparatively primitive. In doing so, the author emphasizes the need for those concerned with the field of marketing and advertising to become aware of the significant contributions from the parent social sciences, particularly where the purpose has been to study the action of man by applying the scientific method to man himself.

Advertising and marketing frequently have not been considered as distinct fields of investigation, but rather as technical aspects of economics. This has resulted in a narrow, unrealistic approach which has inhibited the development

of theory at the behavioral level. Ostensibly, marketing is that field of study which investigates the conditions affecting the movement of goods and services from producer to consumer. Advertising is the communicative aspect of marketing, whose purpose is to inform and persuade the buyer on behalf of the seller. Pragmatically, therefore, both marketing and advertising have a vested interest in developing a theory of consumer behavior.

This study is strongly influenced by the contributions emanating from the newly emerging discipline of communications, itself the offspring of both the social sciences and professional fields, e.g., journalism, advertising, speech, and public relations, and strongly oriented toward their behavioral aspects. Communications theory, synthesizing from theories of learning, perception, personality, social interaction, etc., as they relate to the process and effects of communication, offers a focused entry into an investigation of dynamic consumer behavior. While communication cannot be construed in itself as either an end or a goal, it is a necessary condition for producing any action, whether in the individual consumer or the largest socio-economic system.

The author's interest in the behavioral approach stems from earlier belief that it could contribute greatly

to theory pertaining to consumer behavior. Economics, among the social sciences, had tended to remain aloof from the movement to join together in the development of a general science of human behavior which has characterized sociology, psychology, political science, and anthropology in recent years.

In the final analysis, if the advertising and marketing discipline is to progress from its present status as an "art," emphasizing the "doing" or professional, technical, and applicative aspects, to becoming more scientific, where "knowing" is the goal, the scientific method must be utilized. Here the objective is to establish broad principles, not just settled rules of action, through observation, conceptualization, hypothesizing, and theory construction. If the behavioral approach is productive in extending knowledge in the economic area, once the status of findings as fact is established, ab uno disce omnes.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The completion of a dissertation is but a refreshing pause for the scholar who has trod the lonely night and who now sees the first radiance heralding a new and more challenging era. I approach this important task of expressing my gratitude in humble acknowledgment that many were the helping hands which guided me along the way.

Special mention must be made of three to whom the writer is deeply grateful, for without their valuable assistance this work would have despaired of reality. Their encouragement, patient counsel, and criticism were an inspiration throughout. They are: Dr. Paul Deutschmann, Director, Communications Research Center, Dr. Malcolm MacLean, Department of General Communication Arts, and Professor John Crawford, Head, Department of Advertising, Michigan State University.

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Mr. Donald Rocheleau, divisional advertising manager, Kroger Company, Grand Rapids, and Mr. Robert Kurtz, graduate

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Lastly, it was my wife, Jane, whose understanding patience and encouragement provided incalculable sustenance as the seed transformed into flower.

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INTRODUCTION

John Crawford (1960, p. 4) eloquently describes advertising as the "art of persuading people to do with frequency and in large numbers something you want them to do." To influence consumer behavior, the advertiser normally employs the mass media to transmit persuasive messages—advertisements—intended to evoke what Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955, p. 19) call "campaign" effects, i.e., to produce shifts in attitudes in the very short run.

The dominant concern of advertising research has been the study of the effectiveness of such campaigns upon consumer behavior. As Crawford (1960, p. 160) states, "Our most frustrating problems arise when we attempt to fit the bits and pieces of advertising research into a single, definitive answer that enables us to evaluate the effectiveness of a given advertisement or advertising campaign."

Much attention has been focused upon specific research concerns—communicator analysis, message analysis, media analysis, audience analysis—attempting thereby to impute effects by investigating one or more of the factors with which effects are associated. These well-known areas are the substance of both advertising and mass communications research. Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955, p. 25) have

gathered considerable evidence suggesting that a fifth variable, interpersonal relations, is also crucial in the chain accounting for effect.

The purpose of this thesis was to investigate several hypotheses concerning changes in consumer attitudes and behavior, using a situational approach, in order to develop systematic knowledge which could serve as a basis for prediction, decision, and action by the advertiser. Specifically, the study undertook to observe the existing conditions surrounding the choice of super markets by people living in a homogeneous community, focusing upon the relative roles played by predisposition or "self-messages," face-to-face messages, and advertising messages in modifying or changing the consumer attitudes and behavior over time.

The reasoning underlying the study can be simply stated. A principal function of advertising is to influence the consumer to take some action favorable to the advertiser. Assuming that the consumer's patronage behavior is in part a function of his attitudes, then to be effective advertising must first influence attitudes in order to influence the desired behavior. In other words, the consumer is viewed as formulating from his needs, drives, and expectations, some predispositions to action—or attitudes. By investigating attitudes directly, it seems

plausible that many of the difficulties in analyzing overt behavior can be short-circuited.

The main emphasis of the study stems from the concept of "two-step attitude change" proposed by Deutschmann (1960) as a result of an inquiry into the "two-step flow of communication" hypothesis suggested by Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955, p. 390). As used herein, consumer attitude change relative to super market choice is a function of the face-to-face and advertising communication received by the consumer in combination with the consumer's predispositions.

The research design also offered an opportunity for investigating the influence of the consumer's reference groups and the development of the consumer's "images" or complex of attitudes toward largely equivalent super markets, as described by a variation of Osgood's (1957) semantic differential technique. The findings from the panel also provided much useful information concerning patterns of shopping and communications behavior as they exist in a homogeneous community.

To observe attitudinal dynamics as they were influenced over time by the three major communication variables
posited--mass media messages, face-to-face messages, and
consumer predisposition--the measurement technique of the
semantic differential was employed. The study included two

waves of interviews on a carefully selected panel.

The remainder of this chapter will outline the problem, its derivation and significance, the procurement of the data and the limitations inherent in the design.

Chapter II discusses the theoretical background. Chapter III develops the several hypotheses, research design and procedure used in the study.

The findings of the study are presented in the next chapters: Chapter IV giving the descriptive data relative to the sample, together with shopping and communications patterns; Chapter V incorporates that phase of the study related to images; and Chapter VI pertains to the two-stage attitude change hypothesis.

Chapter VII discusses the results and their implications, and Chapter VIII includes the summary and conclusions.

NEED FOR RESEARCH

Empirical evidence accumulated to date relative to communications effect can be summarized in the rather gloomy conclusion drawn by Berelson (1948, p. 172): "Some kinds of communication on some kinds of issues, brought to the attention of some kinds of people under some kinds of conditions have some kinds of effects."

Klapper (1957, p. 454), however, feels there is basis for hope, calling for a phenomenistic approach, such as that used in the present study:

"The new orientation, which has of course been hitherto and variously formulated, can perhaps be described . . . as functional. It is a shift away from the tendency to regard mass communication as a necessary and sufficient cause of audience effects, toward a view of the media as influences, working amid other influences, in a total situation."

Gedalecia (Mayer, 1958, p. 310), referring to advertising research, points to the need for a better theoretical foundation to account for the many findings which now appear to be anomalous and sometimes contradictory. In other words, theory and findings relative to communications effect have produced few principles that are capable of predictive application.

Morgan (1958, pp. 93-219), after producing what is perhaps the most extensive and complete annotated bibliography to date on research on consumer behavior, concludes that explanation and prediction of consumer decisions must come from research on the relation of attitudes and behavior and on the sources of changes in attitudes, and laments the scarcity of empirical research in the area.

PROBLEM

This study is a problem-centered "effect" study.

The author, fully aware of the complexities of consumer

behavior, has accordingly limited the aspects of behavior abstracted for measurement to those surrounding a specific situation. The situation selected was one in which the variables chosen for investigation operated in a natural setting and could be observed: the every-day process in which the consumer makes her decision to select, patronize, and change among the super markets available to her.

The primary independent variables measured are predisposition, or intrapersonal communication, face-to-face communication, and advertising. The dependent behavioral variables measured are attitudes and overt behavior in the form of store patronage.

SIGNIFICANCE

Contributions to knowledge concerning the effects of communication are sorely needed. While studies of the effect of advertising on consumer behavior have sometimes been considered inappropriate for scholarly concern, it is hoped that this study will lend support to those contending that the empirical study of human action can hardly find a more fruitful source of data for developing systematic knowledge. The analysis of consumer behavior has implications far beyond its commercial application into basic theoretical and social questions.

There have been few studies of behavioral decisions as related to the communications process. It appears useful to study in a natural setting a decision process, such a choice of food stores, which is signalled by behavior and which can be related to some complex of communications events.

In addition, there is a paucity of information concerning changes in consumer attitudes and behavior as they take place over time. This study was conceived so as to test specific hypotheses which could provide a greater understanding of the variables and processes underlying consumer behavior and how it changes. One important problem faced by the investigator in assessing effects has been that the dynamics of attitude change can only be measured over time. A second problem involves the difficulty of doing field studies where the myriad influences and conditions are extremely difficult to observe and measure. Yet only in such a context can data be obtained capable of explaining the processes, factors, and directions of communications effects.

There is an unquestionable need for research which accounts for a known occurrence and which attempts to assess the roles of the several influences which produced it, for research that looks at the respondents

not as randomly selected individuals, but rather as persons having their being within a specific social context.

The analysis of communications patterns and effects relative to food stores can contribute to a more precise understanding of the economic effects of super market advertising. The retail food industry is currently spending some half-billion dollars each year for advertising, excluding the cost of trading stamps, yet very little is known relative to its effectiveness.

OBJECTIVES

It was anticipated that the results from the present study would provide generalizations concerning communication effect. It was also intended that the methodology used and the descriptive data obtained would yield insights of value to researcher and practitioner alike.

The specific objectives of the study were as follows:

- 1. To describe the super market patronage and communication patterns of a community.
- 2. To see if groupings of contiguous families would form norms which would influence the super market behavior of its members.
- 3. To investigate the possibility of adapting an attitudinal measuring instrument for the purpose of obtaining, analyzing, and presenting in graphic form the "images"

consumers have of their own and alternative super markets as they develop over time.

- 4. To investigate the utility of constructing typological classifications to help in predicting consumer patronage.
- 5. To test hypotheses concerning the effect of advertising and face-to-face communication, singly and in combination, upon the consumer's attitudes and behavior relative to super markets, as mediated by the consumer's predispositions.
- 6. To assess the roles of several situational and personality variables which mediate the effects of communications on attitudes and behavior relative to super market choice.

LIMITATIONS OF PRESENT STUDY

Conceived as a problem-centered "effect" study, the panel selected was designed primarily to provide a large enough number to show the interaction of the salient variables.

The objective of the study was to ascertain the existence of relationships rather than the extent of the relationships in a population. The pilot study preceding the investigation indicated the sample size necessary to provide a statistically satisfactory number for the categories of variables analyzed.

The sample design provides a stratified, representative selection of the population observed. The population itself, consisting of married students living in a university housing development, circumscribes the level of generality of the findings. A description of the sample design can be found in Chapter III.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The purpose of this chapter is to set forth theoretical and empirical considerations which underlie the present study.

The first section consists of two parts: (1) a brief review of the communications process, levels of communication, and the principal conditions which are necessary if messages are to elicit the intended response; (2) an abstract communications situation which focuses upon the variables which will be investigated, including predispositions, message-channels, and effects.

The second section develops the kind of a communications situation necessary for studying the selected variables as to their effect upon consumer behavior.

In the third section, theoretical and empirical evidence supporting the choice of attitude as the most profitable psychological unit for analyzing effect is presented, followed by an explanation of the two correlative concepts central to this study: (1) image, and (2) two-stage attitude change.

Last, two models are outlined which integrate the theoretical rationale with the situation selected for in-

vestigation: (1) store choice as a paradigm for an empirical analysis of action, and (2) a paradigm for analyzing advertising effect.

The specific hypotheses, study design, and methodology used in the study are presented in Chapter III.

THE COMMUNICATIONS SITUATION

One of the great paradoxes vexing the mainstreams of both economic and communications theory, though for distinctly different reasons, concerns the effect of mass communications upon behavior. Advertising, as a form of economic mass communication, has as its function to influence the consumer to take some action desired by the advertiser. Economic theories of rationality, based on the assumption that each consumer will maximize utility in the market-place, cannot readily accomodate advertising among the factors influencing demand. As Boulding (1956, p. 82) states, "It is the behavior of commodities not the behavior of men which is the prime focus of interest in economic studies." The pragmatic marketer, however, "knows" advertising is an essential element in marketing his products and is increasingly utilizing mass media messages to supplement or replace the "face-to-face" messages of his salesmen.

communication theorists have largely sought to explain effect from a behavioral viewpoint. To date, they have been unable to describe the process of effect with sufficient precision to diagnose and predict. Instead, there is what Klapper (1957, p. 454) terms a "plethora of relevant but inconclusive, and at times contradictory, findings."

The Communication Process. What is meant by the communication process? An understanding of the process is a prerequisite to understanding how communication achieves effect.

The various models of the communication process, such as those developed by Schramm (1954, pp. 3-26), Westley and MacLean (1957), Fearing (1953), Shannon and Weaver (1949), and Berlo (1960, p. 32) reveal a basic similarity. Most models incorporate four elements: source, message, channel, and receiver. Other elements, such as encoder, interpreter, decoder, and feedback, are frequently included, although the number and terminology may differ.

In advertising, for example, the S-M-C-R (source-message-channel-receiver) model of the communication process is illustrated when the advertiser (source) selects a set of words and pictures which becomes the advertisement (message) and transmits it by means of a newspaper (channel) to the newspaper's readers (receivers).

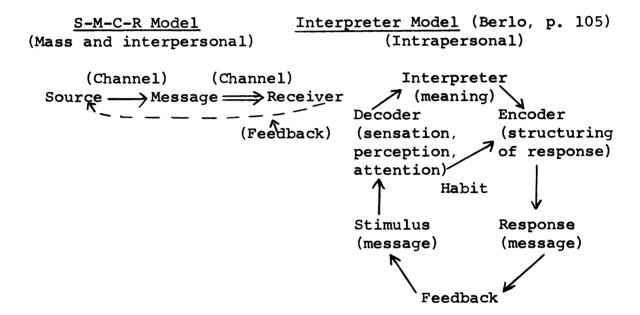
Viewing the communication process in terms of channels, three basic classes may be seen: institutional (mass media), interpersonal (face-to-face and group), and intrapersonal (self). The S-M-C-R model, while normally used to describe the process at the mass and interpersonal levels of communication, can also be reformulated at the intrapersonal level by drawing an analogy with the learning process. Berlo (1960, p. 99) states that the processes of learning and communication are very similar. An individual receives a stimulus (message) through his sensory capacities (channel), perceives (decodes) the stimulus and attaches significance to it (interprets), and makes a response (encodes).

It is important to note that the intrapersonal process postulates the "interpreter" element as another way of saying the individual acts as both a receiver and a source at that point. The theoretical position resembles that of Osgood, et al. (1957), who suggest that the meaning (interpretation) of the message-stimulus perceived by an individual selectively elicits representational processes as reactions. The response--vocal, orthographic, gestural, etc.--made by the individual is selectively elicited by representational processes as stimuli within the nervous system.

How a consumer behaves in a situation depends on the interpretation or meaning the situation has for him.

The easiest way that a person can react to a message is to give it a meaning which lets him respond to it with a reaction—habit—learned from previous experience. When a response is habitual, no new learning takes place; there is no interpretation. In other words, part of the intrapersonal communication process is short-circuited.

Diagrams of the two systems are shown below:



Effect. What is effect? How does communication achieve effect? Berlo (1960, p. 12) states the purpose of all communication is "to influence--to affect with intent." The success of a message must be inferred from an overt response made by an individual which is observable, measurable, and public. There is a second class of effect, covert responses, which take place within the person and whose existence must be inferred.

In this study, covert effects are changes in the meaning of concepts central to the message along one dimension only--the evaluative dimension (see Osgood, 1957, p. 189-192). Changes in the evaluation of a message - object is synonymous with attitude change. Covert responses, seen as changes that take place as a result of the learning process may also include the acquiring and perfecting of skills, additions to one's store of knowledge, or the mental activity of memorizing and retaining. Inasmuch as it was neither feasible nor desirable to investigate all the variables in the learning process which may influence message effect, changes in knowledge and skills were ruled out. Only changes in attitudes were considered at the covert level, operationally defined as the scores received on the attitudinal measuring instrument used.

Overt response can be broadly construed as that which requires physical action on the part of an individual and which can be observed and verified, such as the act of buying. The term "behavior" will usually be used to represent overt response.

dimension. At one end is the <u>immediate</u> response; at the other, the <u>delayed</u> response. The advertiser tends to evaluate his advertising subjectively in terms of an immediate, overt

response—the number of coupons returned or the number of people buying an advertised product the next day. However, the response is not always immediate; it may come much later in time due to other variables which modify effect. By measuring the covert or attitudinal response—the consumer's disposition to respond overtly in a favorable or unfavorable manner—message effect can be evaluated which may later result in an overt response.

Conditions of Effect. The several subdivisions of mass communications research—control analysis (source—advertiser), message or content analysis (message—advertise—ment), media analysis (channel—medium), and audience analysis (receiver—consumer)—are widely recognized areas of inves—tigation. Each helps us to understand what goes on between source and receiver to modify the effects of communications.

Following Schramm (1955, p. 23), who declares that mass communication effect can be predicted only in terms of the individual, not the mass audience, the communication process must also be investigated at the interpersonal and intrapersonal levels for most situations involving economic choice. Interpersonal communications must be considered because they ordinarily occur in conjunction with mass communications, jointly modifying effect. The

intrapersonal level must be also considered, as personality also modifies effect and is the source of the behavior to be explained.

Schramm (1955, p. 16) notes that there are two things we can say with confidence about predicting communication effects. One is that a message is much more likely to succeed if it fits the patterns of understandings, attitudes, values, and goals that a receiver has. The advertising practitioner states this succinctly as "start where the audience is." In other words, an individual's personality--his patterns of habits, attitudes, drives, needs, values, etc. -- grow very slowly but persistently. As in a building, when construction first begins, one brick may make a noticeable change. But, as construction proceeds, succeeding bricks follow the set patterns and become less and less distinguishable individually. So it is with messages. One brick of communication may make a large difference when attitudes and beliefs are not yet firmly fixed. Later bricks tend to follow the existing pattern and do not noticeably reshape the personality.

The second thing that can be said about communication effects is that they are a resultant of a number of
forces: the message, the situation in which the communication
is received and in which the response must occur, the person-

ality state of the receiver, and his group relationships and standards.

Personality refers to the receiver. The personality of a receiver is the sum total of all the characteristics and qualities possessed by the individual, such as his physical characteristics, abilities, temperament, motives, attitudes and beliefs.

The group refers to the fact that man is social animal. He learns most of his standards and values from the people surrounding him. He makes his responses to messages according to his roles within the various groups to which he relates himself.

The <u>situation</u> in which a communication is received and a response is to occur must be appropriate. A complex variable, it can be broadly defined as including the how, what, when, and where of the environment in which the message is received. For example, an advertisement for a product may be perceived by a consumer, arouse his interest and desire, result in a disposition to make a favorable response, but fail simply because the consumer does not have the money to buy the product.

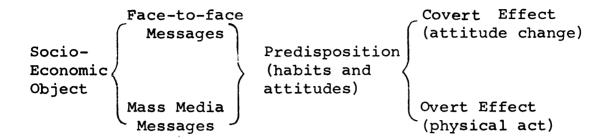
The message is the only element over which the advertiser can exercise some control. The advertiser, can decide on the content, copy and layout to be used, and

how it will be arranged. He can select the channel in which to transmit the message. He cannot, however, govern the situation, the personality state, or the group standards of the receiver, although he can inform himself of the normal conditions. Nor can he prevent the reception by the consumer of concurrent messages about the same object coming from the people with whom the consumer is associated.

In summary, the S-M-C-R and Interpreter models of the communication process and the conditions of effect have been described. The purpose of this study was to investigate a particular kind of effect—that resulting from messages concerning economic objects. In particular, it was felt that certain aspects of the situation, personality and the channel—levels would be productive of findings which might help in improving the prediction of message effect.

Identification of Salient Variables. The aspects of personality selected for study will be subsumed under the concept of predisposition. The channel levels carrying messages will be termed "face-to-face" and "mass" communication. These are the independent variables studied. The aspects of effect, as the dependent variable in the study, are (1) the overt action taken by the receiver related to a specified economic object, and (2) the covert response, in the form of attitude change, taking place in the receiver.

The diagram below suggests the process:



Messages in the mass media include advertisements made available to the consumer through the mass media.

Face-to-face messages are those which take place in conversational interaction between consumers.

Predisposition includes the learned responses of the consumer referred to as habits and the attitudes held by the consumer toward the message-object at a given time.

Habits need to be taken into account. To produce learning some existing habit pattern, some tendency to respond in the same way, must be broken in order for those messages whose intent it is to change existing consumer behavior. On the other hand, advertisers may wish only to strengthen existing habit patterns favorable to them, or perhaps to build upon existing patterns to obtain different responses which may be of greater value.

The concept of attitude is ubiquitous to the entire investigation and will be discussed in detail.

The need for a message to attract the attention of a receiver is recognized as being closely associated with perceiving the message. It will be necessary to select a situation in which the messages are attended to. At the mass media level, full page advertisements in the newspaper are used. At the face-to-face level, measurement will depend upon the recall of the receiver, as defined by the questionnaire and interviewer probes.

SELECTION OF SITUATION

The objective of this study was to examine communication effect in terms of changes in attitudes and actions of the consumer following receipt of messages concerning a selected socio-economic object transmitted through mass and interpersonal channels of communication.

What are the kinds of situations available that reflect the problem of analyzing effect in terms of variables set forth for study: the influence of face-to-face messages in conjunction with mass media upon attitudes and behavior, as screened through the mediating influence of predisposition? By what persons and under what conditions will the messages be perceived? What kind of people are favorably activated by the messages?

The situation chosen for study was a commonplace one, the act of choosing a super market. The super market,

as an economic object, is an important adjunct in every community. It is an object of common concern for the member of the family responsible for satisfying the family's food needs. In one way or another, super market messages reach a majority of those concerned at frequent intervals. This contact may take place as the result of direct exposure, often influenced by habit and favorable attitudes established through previous experience with a particular store. may take place as the result of face-to-face communication. The store itself may initiate the contact by means of messages placed in the local media. The relationship between the consumer and her super market is one which may be influenced by the norms and values of the consumer's reference groups. It can be assumed that super market choice by most people is the result of the interaction of all the factors.

Thus, by selecting the super market situation, we have a concrete situation for evaluating the variables selected for study. Effect can be measured in the two dimensions outlined: (1) changes in attitudes toward the super markets in the consumer's environment, and (2) changes in her overt behavior, e.g., shift in store patronage.

While the super market shopper has been thoroughly discussed, measured, and counted in terms of demographic and socio-economic variables (Charvat, 1961; Burgoyne Grocery and Drug Index, 1958, 1959; Home Testing Institute, 1956),

very little is known concerning the elusive thoughts that lead to the patronage act—why and how she chooses a particular store. She is bombarded with many different messages through the various media, yet little is known about the impact of either the messages or the media carrying them. She is also the recipient of face—to—face messages concerning these same stores. Can the effect of such personal influence on store choice be measured? Does her neighbor have more effect than her husband? Is the neighbor's influence more powerful than the advertisements?

Some authorities claim she makes her store choice rationally, on the basis of price, quality, and convenience.

Others feel that she is vulnerable to persuasive communications. Still a third group feels the most important factor may be the reference groups whose norms and expectations the consumer shares.

The process whereby change in super market preference takes place is complex. People vary widely in their personality structure. Environmental situations vary, e.g., availability of a preferred store. Social pressures are constantly shifting.

Her attitudes in particular need greater study.

These emotionally-colored points-of-view seem to influence store behavior and to be often independent of her stated reasons for making a choice.

In the next section, the theoretical rationale for using the concept of attitude will be presented, followed by an explanation of the two theoretical positions underlying the study in which attitudes are used as the central concept for analyzing communication effect: images and two-stage attitude change.

Because consumer behavior is a function not only of predisposition in the form of attitudes and beliefs held by the consumer toward a socio-economic object, but also of the situation from which stimulus-messages are perceived and may act to modify effect, the last section relates the predispositional and situational variables in the form of conceptual models. The three chapters incorporating the findings follow in logical sequence: situation-shopping and communication patterns, predispositions--images, and combined impact--two stage attitude change.

ATTITUDES

Acknowledging that behavior is a dynamic resultant of motivational, emotional, perceptual and learning processes, the question becomes a practical matter of selecting a more inclusive psychological unit for analyzing and predicting consumer behavior. Krech and Crutchfield (1947, p.150) suggest that attitudes and beliefs are the higher

order units incorporating the enduring organizations of perceptual, motivational, and emotional factors. Following this approach, a complete picture of the consumer's predispositions, her beliefs about and attitudes toward the various aspects of super market patronage, should yield reliable, predictive data concerning her behavior.

G. W. Allport (1954, p. 43) has labeled the concept of attitude as "probably the most distinctive and indispensable concept in contemporary American social psychology." Newcomb (1950, pp.31, 118-119) defines attitude as a predisposition to perform, perceive, think and feel in relation to an object—a state of readiness to be motivated toward or against it.

Krech and Crutchfield (1947, pp.150-152) define attitude as "an enduring organization of motivational, emotional, perceptual, and cognitive processes with respect to some aspect of the individual's world," as contrasted with belief which is "an enduring organization of perceptions and cognitions about some aspect of the individual's world." This definition of attitude reflects the Gestaltist viewpoint, looking upon belief as the cognitive embodiment of attitudes. In other words, the super market decision-maker incorporates relevant beliefs about super markets into her attitude structure.

Those attitudes which the individual incorporates into a hierarchial structure become a part of the individual's value system. For example, the woman who has a negative attitude toward a particular super market because she believes the floors are dirty may have a systematic complex of beliefs and attitudes in the form of a value system on health and sanitation.

The differentiation between beliefs, attitudes and value systems becomes important in understanding the attitudinal measures used in this study and the interpretation of the findings. The instrument used is a scale which attempts to give a measure of the <u>intensity</u> and <u>direction</u> of the attitudes held by the respondent. Thus it is dealing primarily with the strength of the affective component. The cognitive, or belief, component includes two additional dimensions, the specificity or generality of the attitude and the degree of differentiation in the structure of belief. The latter refers to the number of beliefs contained in an attitude—its complexity—and Krech and Crutchfield (1948, pp. 136-137) suggest that the simpler the attitude in cognitive structure, the easier it is to change.

Katz (1960, p. 168) provides a definition which seems most appropriate for the purposes of this study:

"Attitude is the predisposition of the individual to evaluate

some symbol or object or aspect of his world in a favorable or unfavorable manner." As such, attitudes include both the affective, or "feeling" component of liking and disliking, and the cognitive, or belief, elements which describe the object of the attitude, its characteristics, and its relationships to other objects.

Attitude Dynamics - Attitudes are not directly observable. They represent what scientists would like to measure, not what they actually measure. Yet it has been fruitful to use the concept as an intervening variable or "hypothetical construct" in accounting for communications effect. MacCorquodale and Meehl (Allport, p. 129) state that they exist factually, although invisible. For the most part, studies of communication effects have been studies of the ways in which communications changed attitude. Action change, defined as overt behaviors other than verbal, are the easiest kind of effects to observe, witness the many studies in the field of advertising alone (Caples, 1932; Lucas and Britt, 1950, pp. 524-561; Duffy, 1951; Whittier, 1955; Donnahoe, 1961). Unfortunately, they usually constitute only demonstrations of the fact and do not alone enable prediction and explanation of the underlying phenomena.

The relationship of attitudes to an act or overt behavior, such as super market choice by an individual, has

not yet been clearly described. Himmelstrand (1960, pp. 224-250) deals with the action structure of the attitude itself by distinguishing between attitudes where the affect is tied to behavior concerned with more objective referents of the attitude. In the first case, the symbol act, a person may not behave in a manner congruent with the verbal attitude. In the referent act, congruent behavior would be actual patronage in the case where an attitude revealed the intent, but other activities are included: making price calculations; seeking information on the quality of meats; checking to see how accessible the store is, etc. Cartwright (1949, pp. 253-257) calls this phenomenon the "action structure" of an attitude, while M. Brewster Smith (1947, pp. 507-523) refers to the dimension as policy orientation.

Katz (1960, pp. 163-204) suggests that there are four functions which attitudes perform which are relevant to understanding attitudinal dynamics: the adjustive function of satisfying utilitarian needs, based on reward and punishment; the ego-defensive function of handling internal conflicts, derived from Freudian-type psychology; the value-expressive function of maintaining self-identity and enhancing the self-image; and the knowledge function answering the need to give understanding and meaning to the ambiguities in the world around us.

Of these functions, the utilitarian-adjustive and cognitive components were felt to have the most theoretical relevance to the present study. It is reasonable to think of the consumer as making her choice among alternative economic objects so as to maximize rewards and minimize penalties associated with the choice. In the case of super markets, her attitudes and beliefs are the outgrowth of present and past perceptions of the utility provided by a particular store. Her utilitarian needs are reinforced by experience. Verbal appeals (advertisements and face-to-face communication) are commonly thought to have little effect unless the store no longer provides the satisfactions it once did. Katz (1960, p. 178) asserts flatly that the "mass media play a role secondary to direct experience in changing attitudes directly related to economic matters." For such attitudes to change involves an unsatisfactory relationship of the old attitude with the need state which it expressed.

Katona (1960) reasons that consumer choice is a function of enabling conditions, in the sense that the consumer must have economic means to purchase goods and services, and motivational forces. The consumer displays two types of behavior in his purchasing: (1) when strong motivational forces are present he indulges in problem solving—weighing alternatives and consequences; (2) in

the case of routine purchases of inexpensive commodities bought frequently, he follows habitual learning patterns which have been reinforced by the satisfaction or success he had with the purchase.

One assumption of this study concerns the decisionmaking process of the consumer relative to the topical area. Since the motivations of the consumer vary with the enabling factors in the situation, it must be assumed that the process of selecting a super market in which to buy the family's food needs would be sufficiently deliberative as to require the seeking of information from the media and from relatives, friends and neighbors. This is important in distinguishing between habitual behavior and genuine decisions where learning takes place. The economic concept of rational man postulates him as listing alternative courses of action, ranking the consequences, and choosing the best. The consumer, however, does not make such listings and act according to the odds calculated. Katona (1960, p. 140) sees problem solving behavior, as opposed to habitual behavior, as a highly selective process. The consumer utilizes certain cues from the environment, sees a store in a different context, and arrives at a new way for ordering among alternatives and to changed behavior. Problem solving implies response that is new rather than repetitive. Habitual forms of behavior may

be abandoned when the consumer perceives that a new situation prevails and calls for different reaction. Katona further notes that changes in behavior due to genuine decision-making tend to be substantial and abrupt rather than small and gradual, and may occur among many people at about the same time because of group belonging and group reinforcement.

It is proposed that the newly arrived consumer, confronted with the need to choose a super market will seek information, deliberate, and weigh alternatives. Prior experience, personality needs, new situational factors concerning both store and group are the forces affecting her decision. For some the behavior will follow habitual patterns. Yet even in this instance mass and/or interpersonal messages have some effect.

The psychological field of each consumer includes past experiences, present perceptions, and predictions as to the future. Many consumer motives, attitudes, and habits, which have become part of his personality, exist over long periods of time and influence shopping behavior irrespective of prospects and the greater or lesser uncertainty attached to them. Much has been written about irrational consumer behavior - especially from the area of so-called motivational research. However, this dimension has yet to be clearly defined. As Katz (1960, p. 263) notes,

people "do act at times as though they had been decoticated and at times with intelligence and comprehension." Present evidence suggests that the so-called irrational behavior takes place mostly when the choice does not matter too much. Katona (1960, p. 148) finds that being easily persuaded and suggestible, or acting upon information contrary to one's interest, is the exception where genuine problem solving is concerned.

The act of buying, looked at on a time continuum, reveals a sequence of events which are inextricably intertwined in their bearing upon the final act. Starting with childhood, the child learns a good deal of his economic knowledge from his parents. When moving into a new community, the young consumer will tend to do again what proved to be satisfactory in the past. Yet such a move offers an opportunity to re-weigh alternatives and change behavior. Taking into consideration the various situational and personality influences - the stores available, discussion and advice from spouse and friends, exposure to mass media store advertising - can affect her behavior.

Past experience with stores, personality factors, such as emotionally colored images of widely-known super markets and enabling conditions, such as need for a car to visit more distant stores, play roles. Strong group factors play a role.

Cognitions related to food-buying can be assumed to be salient to both economic and physiological needs, as well as such psychogenic needs as health of family and need to be a "good wife and mother," or a desire for approval by one's peers. True, the purchase of food may be considered a routine purchase, subject to habitual patterns of behavior. The assumption of this study that, while purchase of food items may be largely habitual, the choice of a store represents a genuine decision-making situation.

One derivation from dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957) is that people will actively seek out information which produces cognition consonant with the action taken in a decision-making situation. Following the decision there will also be an increase in confidence in the decision or an increase in the discrepancy in attractiveness between the alternatives involved in the choice, or both. The chosen alternative is clearly favored, the unchosen becomes less attractive. Ehrlich, Guttman, Schonbach, and Mills (1957, pp. 98-102) found that new car owners tended to read more ads for the car they purchased and fewer ads of other cars they had considered prior to the decision-act.

While this study takes the position that to affect behavior the advertiser must first change the attitudes relevant to the behavior, it should be noted that findings by Festinger (1957), Kelman (1953), and others show that attitudinal changes may follow behavioral changes as a means of reducing dissonance. This would suggest, for example, that a consumer with unfavorable attitudes toward a particular store might change them if she can be induced to patronize that store in return for a reward (gift, payment, etc.) sufficiently large to elicit the patronage.

Attitude Change in Super Market Choice - For residents moving to Spartan Village who had strong attitudes toward a store for which a similar unit exists in the new community, no genuine problem may exist. They will tend to choose the related store. But when the consumer finds herself aware of different possibilities of action, attitudes serve the function of steering the decision in a certain direction. Learned behavior is highly selective. In any given situation only certain aspects of the past and certain notions about the future become salient. Information organized according to effective predispositions helps to solve problems.

Since it is attitudes and expectations which change, they are basic to any study of the dynamics of change process.

Successive interviews with identical people offer unique opportunities for studying the origin of change or lack of change in attitudes or overt behavior. Two techniques are First, the respondents are grouped according to used. age income, education, etc., and analyzed to see whether those who have changed at the time of second interview differ from those who have not changed. Second, inquiry can be made at the time of the second interview to secure information as to what influences the respondent was exposed to in the interim. One grouping for changers can be made on a satisfied-dissatisfied continuum. Information acquired during the interim is very important: experience with a given store, communications from the media, communications from friends. The tracing of faceto-face conversation and exposure to mass communications information in form of advertisements through the various media was a major consideration in the design of this study

Image. The term "image" has played a classic role in the development of psychology, particularly in relation to the processes of perception, thinking, and memory. Conceptually, the term refers to the process of mental representation whereby individuals derive meaning for the world about them and for their own selves. In advertising,

this might be the mental picture of a product or firm held by the consumer, or to the picture which the advertiser desires to implant. Such images are not so much accurate representations or reality as they are the composition of a consumer's beliefs and attitudes toward the particular objects in question.

Boulding (1956) broadly defines "image" as "subjective knowledge," or what people believe to be true about the world. He abstracts ten non-discrete dimensions from the generic concept: spatial, temporal, relational (if . . . then), personal (self), affectional, conscious-subconscious, certainty-uncertainty, reality-unreality, and public-private. These dimensions are useful in thinking about the concept but are not the same thing as explicit and testable principles of human behavior.

At the individual level, a sensible approach to a more rigorous definition of "image" can be found in the various theories of cognitive dynamics, such as that of Osgood (1957), which offer detailed operational measures.

Osgood would refer to the image at the individual level as a cluster of "cognitive elements" (bits of knowledge about the world and one's self). He equates cognitive elements with the "meanings" of signs, indexed in terms of n bipolar dimensions or factors. In factor analytical

research, the most heavily loaded factor is the evaluative, or attitudinal factor.

Thus, for purposes of this study, it was logical to look upon "image" as the evaluative, or attitudinal dimension of meaning held by the respondents toward each super market in the area. Operationally defined, "image" refers to the scores received on the attitudinal measuring instrument used in the study, which will be discussed in Chapter III.

The analogue for a cognitive element for an individual is the social meaning, or public image, based on aggregate scores from representative groups of people. A cultural meaning with a high degree of uniformity resembles what Lippmann (1922) termed a "stereotype." Economic objects—firms, brands, products—which are of common interest to a population can be thought of as undergoing a process whereby attitudes and beliefs toward them develop, mature and recede. While few attain the structure and continuity of a stereotype, their very existence would imply that measures for assessing their strength and structure may yield valuable information for the advertiser.

Deutschmann (1960), using a variation of the attitudinal measuring instrument used in this study, has been successful in exploring the general structure of attitudes towards such social objects as universities and newspapers. Results were

obtained showing that attitudes and other dimensions of connotation could be described carefully and reliably, and which would be useful in promotional activities.

Burleigh Gardner (1955) is credited with introducing the concept of "product image" into marketing, focusing attention on the social and pyschological nature of economic To Gardner, the images of products associated with brand names are sets of ideas, feelings and attitudes that consumers have about brands (brand names, in this study, are equivalent to "A & P, " "Kroger, " etc). Because the consumer usually gives reasons for using a product that are inclined to be either strongly rationalized or related to the product's most obvious purposes, the advertiser should explore the particular constellation of goals and attitudes most pertinent to a product situation. From his many studies, Gardner concludes that (1) product images remain relatively stable through time, and (2) that is rarely possible for a product to be all things to all people due to personality and socio-economic factors.

Gardner's disciple, Martineau (1957), cites one study in which a super market chain was able to improve sales by improving its image. In another, women were asked to judge a strange department store entirely from the physical appearance of its advertisements. The evaluations

coincided almost exactly with those of women who did know the store personally, showing that women are very sensitive to symoblic cues in newspaper advertising. Martineau concludes that the present tendency of advertisers to assume that short-term efforts which result in immediate sales too often obscures the long-range need for building an attractive image.

Mindak (1955, 1961) has used a variation of the attitudinal measuring instrument used in this study to compare the effectiveness of radio appeals for new products and to obtain an image comparison for various brands of beer. Richmond (Osgood, 1957, p. 316) tested four advertisements and found that subjects rated illustrations significantly more favorably than the copy, when each was judged separately.

The notion of image promises to become increasingly significant for the advertiser as products and services become increasingly alike and objectively indistinguishable from one another. Even in the case of a complex product such as a super market, the principal stores in many communities can be considered to be essentially equivalent choices. The store which is most successful in developing a favorable image may obtain a competitive advantage. Image components can be nurtured by changing related store attributes, or by advertising and promotional campaigns designed to change

the consumer's attitudes toward the store.

As an important adjunct in every community, the super market is an object of common concern for the residents. In one way or another it reaches the majority of those who buy food at frequent intervals. This contact may take place through personal experience, advertising, or by face-to-face interaction, resulting in a constantly evolving image for a store. For the consumer, each store in her environment has a unique meaning. Thus, for the individual, various groupings of individuals, and for the community as a whole, the patterning of these meanings can provide valuable insights on present and future behavior.

For the advertiser, those attributes which contribute to the favorable image should be retained and reinforced, whether objective attributes or subjective qualities conveyed in its advertising messages. Weaker attributes should be negated or discarded. Messages should be likewise formulated.

Two-stage Attitude Change. If the advertiser is to predict the behavior of consumers, or if he is to control their actions, he must know something about the development of the beliefs and attitudes which direct consumer action. He should be aware of the process involved in reinforcing or changing attitudes when once developed.

Changing patronage attitudes involves working through the various formative agencies which influence them. From the paradigm of the buying act set forth in the next section, buying behavior is seen as an expression of specific attitudes which reflect the varied influences of the consumer's personality and the situation in which he has his being. Singled out as primary influences from the situation are the attributes of the economic object (super market) itself, and the messages about the object transmitted through the mass media and inter-personal channels. The effects of these messages, in turn, are modified by the predispositions, or "self-messages," of the consumer.

Thus the concept of "two-stage attitude change" as suggested by Deutschmann (1960), hypothesizes that the position of the consumer on an attitude continuum concerning an economic object (or any X in the receiver's environment) will move as a function of the combination of messages and predispositions.

From the growing body of literature on the general subject of mass communication effect, two classes of findings can be identified.

First, from research conducted in laboratory

experimental situations, there is accumulating a considerable

body of evidence suggesting that attitudes can be changed by mass media messages (Hovland, et al., 1953; Weiss and Fine, 1956; McNelly, 1961). Second, from research studies in natural situations, the weight of evidence suggests that mass media messages have little effect on attitudes (Hyman and Sheatsley, 1950; Lazarsfeld, et al., 1944, 1954; Klapper, 1948). Yet, some studies in a natural situation report spectacular effect, such as the Orson Welles radio dramatization (Cantril, 1940) and the Kate Smith radio marathon which sold millions of dollars' worth of war bonds (Merton, 1946).

The advertising industry, despite that fact that much of its research has not been designed to test hypotheses in a scientific sense, has developed a considerable body of evidence in support of its raison d'etre. The Saturday Evening Post (1960) found that one exposure to an advertisement resulted in a 24 per cent increase in willingness to buy the brand, 52 per cent with two exposures. Foote, Cone, & Belding (1960) report findings, using an attitudinal measuring technique (Mindex), which demonstrates that behavior follows attitude change; although they were unable to isolate the factors causing the change. Donnahoe (1961) found that twice as many readers of a newspaper carrying the advertising of a local super market patronized the market

(34 per cent) as compared with readers (17 per cent) of a second newspaper which did not carry the ads. Wells (1960) has found predisposition, expressed as a position of a product on a "buying readiness" continuum, is often closely related to purchases. Schwerin (1960) finds that consumer attitudes change differentially as a result of exposure to different advertising messages for the same product. Arons (1961) reports that attitudinal favorability was closely associated with frequency of shopping at a particular store, and that television commercials could affect the image of that store.

Studies relative to group influence have shown that the primary groups with which a consumer identifies himself may function as forces reinforcing or opposing the intended effect of mass media messages upon the consumer's attitudes. Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955, p. 309), testing the "two-step flow of communication" hypothesis suggesting that "ideas often flow from radio and print to the opinion leaders and from them to the less active sections of the population," found that the role of personal influence was more important than advertising in accounting for decisions to change brands. In addition, they found that certain women could be considered as "marketing leaders."

Concluding from the foregoing, it would seem the mass media are felt to be relatively ineffective in influencing attitudes. As Riesman (POQ, 13) recently wrote, "Cannot we interpret Personal Influence as meaning that people are afraid of being gulled by a distant persuader despite all the efforts at folksiness and 'parasocial' intimacy the media make, so that they will only open themselves up to people they know personally and not vicariously?" Or, to use a less sophisticated authority, columnist John Crosby (Bogart, p. 215) expressed it in "Crosby's law:"

"... the more important the subject is, the less influence the guy with the mike has."

Some would argue that the choice of a super market does not meet the test of saliency because it is not an important choice for the consumer. Advertising is effective only because it canalizes pre-existing behavior patterns or attitudes (Lazarsfeld and Merton, 1948). The consumer, who is already socialized in the use of the super market, cares little as to which particular super market she patronizes. In other words, super market advertising is successful because it does not attempt to create the need for the social mechanism for obtaining food, but merely offers a way to implement these existing needs.

Is this the actual model of advertising effect then? Or could it be that the influence of advertising and other persuasive communication is too easily generalized at the aggregative level where the complex of influences cancel individual changes? Even though people tend to select messages which jibe with their attitudes (Cooper and Dinerman, 1951; Klapper, 1957), they are still exposed to many different persuasions. These contradictory influences do not altogether cancel each other out; even among brands of toothpaste there is only one leading brand at any given time. It might be said that a residue of change is always being left by the messages of the mass media as well as by those absorbed in interpersonal contact, but the change has been more difficult to isolate and measure.

Thus, from the host of variables which have been documented as having influence in the process of communication effect, two categories have been selected as the most fruitful basis for investigating effect: media advertising and interpersonal communication on the one hand, and predispositions which intervene between the messages and consumer action on the other.

STORE CHOICE AS A PARADIGM FOR THE EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS OF ACTION

Lazarsfeld and Kornhauser (1955, p. 393) suggest that an individual's market behavior is determined on the one hand

by the total make-up of the person at the moment, and on the other hand by the total situation in which he finds himself.

The action is a joint product of factors in the individual and factors in the situation:

For example, in selecting a super market, hunger (or anticipation of it), and the availability of stores are equally necessary conditions for a patronage act. A super market's advertisement must be linked to the subjective interest or attitude which produced the reader's attentive response.

A decision to patronize a particular super market is a joint product of factors in the individual and factors in the situation. The super market may have placed an advertisement in the daily newspaper which served as the objective stimulus which had a correlative subjective interest or attitude on the part of the consumer, producing a "most-read" response. This response, in turn, may have served as a stimulus to building a more favorable attitude toward toward the super market, ultimately ending in a visit by the consumer.

The act of patronage, then, is the crucial point in a process taking place over time. An adequate accounting scheme

must consider previous familiarity with the super market, as well as successive influences which may play a part in precipitating the patronage act.

Figure 2.1 is a schematic representation of this process. Note that any present action must consider previous acts. These form a sequence of stages along a time continuum. In each stage the incremental learning of favorable attitudes is a response determined by both individual factors and situational factors at that time. The consumer as C₁ is not the same identical person as C₂ in that learning has taken place, thus changing his mental entity.

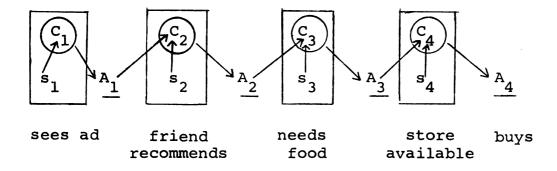


Fig. 2.1 Representation of Evolutionary Analysis of Action

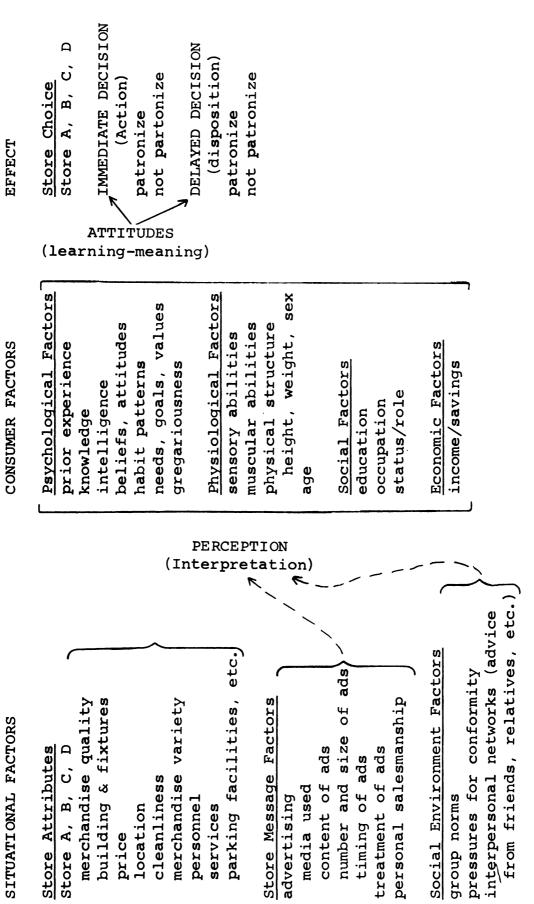
Beginning at the left with the consumer (C_1) at the time she reads an advertisement (s_1) for a particular super market, her response (A_1) is a favorable feeling toward the store. This changed attitude leaves her a different person (C_2) . A friend recommends the store (s_2) , increasing her knowledge and favorable attitude toward the store (A_2) . Now an even further changed person (C_3) , she discovers she must buy food for her next meal (s_3) and makes the decision (A_3) to go shopping for groceries. The patronage act (A_4) occurs when the consumer $(\text{now } C_4)$, with an attitude favorable to the store and for making a food purchase, finds the store open (s_4) . The time line above may

be only a few hours in duration; however, for practical purposes, an inquiry should begin at the stage where the want and means for gratifying clearly exist in the person's mind. It can be assumed the housewife already had a well-defined complex of beliefs, attitudes, knowledges, and needs related to her food store behavior.

By using the panel technique, it is possible to analyze at least two stages of the patronage process by repetitive interviews with the same respondents. Appropriate instruments can then enable the observer to analyze the relationship between selected situational and personality factors and a consumer's super market patronage over the period of time encompassed.

Figure 2.2 incorporates variables and constructs which are relevant to super market choice. It will be noted that the diagram is atomistic, viewing the behavior of one consumer making a single choice among a narrowly defined set of alternative super markets, and only partly dynamic in that any action must be viewed on a time continuum - consequences of previous acts affect attitudes which in turn relate to the current decision - therefore, the effects of such changes are not revealed.

As will be seen in Chapter III, the study was designed so as to hold constant many of the situational forces surrounding super market attributes. The selection



paradigm for analyzing communication effect Ø as - Supermarket patronage-act seen Fig.

of a homogeneous group minimizes individual variance in the complex area of needs, drives, values, beliefs, as well as physiological, social, and economic factors. The same can be said for most of the factors affecting the decision-making characteristics of the individual as they pertain to intelligence, mental abilities, generalized habits and attitudes, or the various abnormal responses.

Thus the investigation could focus upon perceptions or interpretation by the individual of the event as influenced by super market messages, by face-to-face communications, and by the consumer's predispositions. The dependent variables used for measuring change are attitudes and store patronage behavior.

Store Choice and Advertising Effect. The problem has been viewed as one in which a consumer's action in a specific decision situation is related to her attitudes, which are in turn affected by present and past communications concerning alternative super markets received directly by the consumer or mediated by her social environment.

The last step in this orientation is to draw together in systematic fashion the principal elements involved in the act of advertising

Fig. 2.3 illustrates a conceptual model for analyzing advertising effect. It implicitly recognizes the utility of

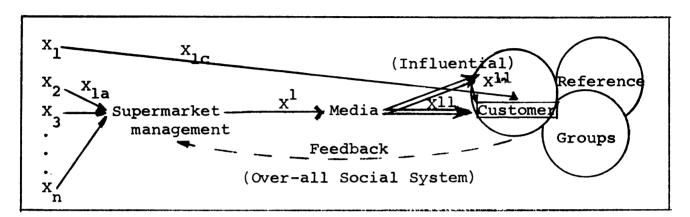


Fig. 2.3 Illustration of the Advertising Process*

Objects of orientation (X's), defined as supermarket's attributes (location, physical facilities, merchandise, price, etc.), are abstracted directly (X,) by the advertiser and transmitted in some form of symbols containing meanings shared with the consumer (X^{1}) thru a media-channel in which the message may take on somewhat different characteristics but retains its essential purpose. The consumer may have an X in his own sensory field (X_{1c}) , which he selects in part on his needs and problems. In some cases, the X₁ is transmitted through another person to the consumer, usually face-to-face (X^{11}) . The circles indicate interaction between consumer and his reference group which may influence his impression of an X. Note that the consumer not only orients toward the supermarket attributes alone but tends to orient simultaneously toward both advertiser and X's. This means the consumer sees an X not only on the basis of its intrinsic capacity to provide satisfactions and solve problems but also with respect to perceived relationship between advertiser and X. The "feedback" in this case normally is identified as store patronage.

*This model based on a similar model proposed by Bruce Westley and Malcolm MacLean. See "A Conceptual Model for Communications Research," <u>Journalism Quarterly</u>, Winter, 1957, pp. 31-38.

the S-M-C-R model of communication. Shown are the major variables which interact in the situational field: the attributes of the advertiser-product, the messages concerning the advertiser-product, the channels in which the messages are transmitted, and the consumer in her social environment.

SUMMARY

The study of attitude formation and attitude change was held to be basic to an understanding of the process whereby advertising campaigns achieve their objective of influencing consumer behavior. The raw material out of which the act of buying develops is to be found in the attitudes of the consumer. If the advertiser is to predict and control the behavior of consumers over extended periods of time, he must know something about the processes involved in changing attitudes when once formed. The advertising process is one phase in the influencing of consumer decisions, and its investigation was seen to require knowledge of other channels and messages concerning the message-object as mediated by the consumer's social environment and personality.

The situation chosen for investigating effect which met the conditions set forth as necessary for studying the salient variables was the everyday act of choosing a super market. The specific act of patronage was viewed as part

of an evolutionary process in which the relevant attitudes were generated as a prerequisite of the patronage act.

The resulting attitudinal structure, expressed in the concept of "image," was held to determine the patronage act.

The theoretical formulation of the "two-step attitude change" saw the position of a consumer on an attitude continuum concerning a super market X moving as a function of the combination of messages and predispositions related to the super market.

Actual patronage is the explicit goal of super market advertising. Consumer behavior is the dependent variable salient to this study: (1) in the form of the overt act of store patronage; (2) in the form of a disposition to act, as measured by an attitudinal scale.

In review, the basic premise of this study is derived from two propositions:

- Consumer behavior is influenced by communication; including predispositional or "self" messages, face-to-face and mass media messages.
- 2. Consumer attitudes relative to an economic goalobject will move as a function of the combination of messages and predispositions about the object.

The assumption underlying the propositions is that the influences and resultant attitudinal and behavioral changes can be measured.

Other general propositions which will be explored include:

- 3. An economic goal-object, such as a super market, has "meaning" for consumers in the form of an image, the attitudinal structure resulting from predispositions and communications, which can be described.
- 4. Patronage behavior is influenced by the reference groups of the individual.

Our model of consumer action has three elements: situation, personality, and action. Another way of viewing the process is to identify the specific variables relative to each element which the study measures:

- Perceived attributes of the economic goal-object (super market).
- 2. External communication influences to which the consumer is subjected (face-to-face and advertising messages about the alternative supermarkets available).
- 3. Internal influences to which the consumer is subjected (predispositions related to super market patronage).
- 4. Action is the effect (response) elicited by the message-types, singly or in combination. Two categories of effect were noted: (1) the covert responses, seen as changes in a consumer's attitudes or dispositions to act; and (2) overt responses, seen as actual store patronage behavior.

CHAPTER III

HYPOTHESES, RESEARCH DESIGN, AND PROCEDURE

The purpose of this chapter is three-fold: (1) to relate the theoretical background discussed to the specific hypotheses to be investigated in this study, (2) to set forth the design of the study, and (3) to provide a broad outline of the procedure involved.

The apparently chameleon-like changes that mark a consumer as she moves from situation to situation have long made it extremely difficult for the researcher to assess accurately the units underlying her behavior. Subject variability and investigator bias, plus the uncertainty of the criteria, were no less a cause for concern in designing this study.

Due to the paucity of existing research where changes in consumer attitudes and behavior have been observed and measured while taking place in a natural setting, the problem was conceived as problem-oriented rather than population-oriented. The present need is to refine both the concepts and methodology. Therefore, the study was designed to show the variables at work.

Consumer behavior, defined either as the expression of specific attitudes leading to a patronage decision or the act of patronage itself, is a product of a process which takes place over time. An analytical model should therefore account for past actions which contribute to the current behavior. The

conceptual model presented in Chapter II posits two principal elements, individual (predispositions, demographic and socio-economic characteristics) and situation (advertiser and product, mass and face-to-face messages, group-anchored norms). The act of patronage is seen as evolving from action-tendencies, or attitudes, which are a joint product of the individual and situation at any given time.

An empirical study of action requires the observer to make causal imputations on the basis of reports elicited from the respondents individually. The action should ideally be one involving a genuine decision which the respondents perform repeatedly and under comparable circumstances. To explain the process by which the attitudes are changed requires the individuals to be measured at least twice, approximating as nearly as possible the rigor of a controlled experiment in a field situation.

The hypotheses listed below focus upon attitude rather than knowledge as the major unit for measuring communication effect.

HYPOTHESES

The following specific hypotheses were derived for testing from the general propositions set forth in the summary of theoretical considerations, Chapter II.

- Preposition 1: Consumer behavior is influenced by communication; including predispositional or "self" messages, faceto-face, and mass media messages.
- Proposition 2: Consumer attitudes relative to an economic goal-object will move as a function of the combination of messages and predispositions about the object.

Hypothesis 1: A change in super market patronage is a function of the combined weights of communication unfavorable to a preferred super market, as measured by indices of "Predisposition A," face-to-face, and advertising messages perceived by a consumer.

Hypothesis 2: The position of a consumer on an attitude continuum concerning super market X, as measured by the semantic differential, will move in direction and intensity as a function of the combination of messages and predispositions related to the super market, as indexed by the "gross change weight" scale.

Hypothesis 3: A change in super market patronage is a function of the intensity of the preferential attitudinal shift in an unfavorable direction between a preferred super market and alternative super markets, as measured by the semantic differential.

Hypothesis 4: Face-to-face messages will have a greater effect upon attitudinal shifts on a continuum concerning a preferred store than will advertising messages in the mass media.

Proposition 3: An economic goal-object, such as a super market, has "meaning" for consumers in the form of an image, the attitudinal structure resulting from predispositions and communications, which can be described.

Hypothesis 5: The positions of a consumer on a attitude continuum concerning each of several alternative super markets and her "ideal" super market will reveal that the positions for "ideal" and the super market preferred will be the most closely related.

Hypothesis 6: The positions of a consumer on an attitude continuum concerning each of several alternative super market, as measured by the semantic differential, will show greater changes in direction and intensity following a change in behavior, defined as a shift in patronage, than will the positions of a consumer who has not shifted her patronage.

Proposition 4: Patronage behavior is influenced by the reference groups of an individual.

The last hypothesis is derived from reference group theory. The question can be asked: is the choice of food stores an individualistic phenomenon or is there a greater than chance coincidence of super market choice among interacting individuals? Defining the group as families on the same floor of an apartment dwelling, reference group theory suggests that the tendency of people to relate themselves to groups and refer their behavior to the group's norms and values would result in such "floor" groups tending to patronize the same super market

Hypothesis 7: The proportion of residents residing on the same floor of an apartment dwelling patronizing the same super market will tend to increase over time.

STUDY DESIGN

In choosing the setting for the study, several conditions seemed paramount:

- 1. A particular kind of advertising communication must be clearly definable.
- 2. The behavior of the consumer must be discernable, identifiable, and measurable.

- 3. The natural situation should be such as to minimize the number of operant variables outside the scope of this study.
- 4. The behavior should take place on a short-range basis.
- 5. The opportunity should exist for biasing factors to be kept to a minimum.

It appeared fortunate for achieving the objectives of the study that the conditions set forth as crucial to the success of a study of effects within an action framework were inherent in a unique community on the campus of Michigan State University. Spartan Village, consisting of 1300 student families living in a cluster of two-story apartment blocks, was found in a pilot study to be particularly amenable for studying the pertinent variables.

The community afforded these advantages and disadvantages:

- Unlike the normal community, the process of making super market choice is speeded-up due to the relatively short time the subjects reside in the community.
- 2. Cultural variables which might cause difficulties in a normal community are held to a minimum; for example, the community revealed only a vestige of a formal hierarchy. There is little opportunity for formal organizations to develop, making the patterns of informal group influence, a crucial variable, easier to measure.
- It is one of the few communities of such size which afford a homogeneous population. Socioeconomic factors are such that extremes are minimized.

- 5. The pilot study revealed that several typological distinctions could be made. For example, about 50 per cent of the respondents read the newspaper carrying the bulk of super market advertising, thus making a natural field experiment for testing the influence of newspaper advertising.
- 6. One of the principal situational variables known to affect super market choice, location convenience, was held constant by the physical location of super markets and community.
- 7. The homogeneous nature of the respondents helped to make it possible to obtain valid measurements and descriptions of the communication patterns.
- 8. The residents would cooperate.

also fulfilled the study requirements. Katz and Lazarsfeld found the decision to buy food to be very important to the decision-maker; however, choice of individual food products could not meet the test of a genuine decision-making situation, being largely non-deliberative or habitual purchases. The choice of a super market was found to be a topic of intense interest to nearly all of the respondents. Other factors confirming the wisdom of using super markets as the decision-eventwere:

- 1. The need to choose a super market was common to the entire Spartan Village population and takes place soon after arrival.
- 2. The super market utilized approximately the same quantity and quality of advertising.
- 3. The pilot study showed crucial product variables price, physical attributes, variety and quality

of merchandise, etc., were so much alike that store factors could be assumed to be constant among the chosen stores. Images held by the decision-makers could thus be assumed to be largely formed by other factors, despite stated reasons for choice.

- 4. All subjects were found to be knowledgeable on the general subject of super markets.
- 5. Super markets were found to be a topic of interest, one which the respondents readily discussed; there was little evidence of any reluctance to withhold desired information.
- 6. Pragmatically, the super market and associated industries among the largest contributors of advertising dollars in the U.S. may be interested in the findings. Food store advertising is considered by many to be largely ineffective. Advertiser, mass medium, and consumer alike have a stake in making this type of advertising more effective.

The study design was predicated on the assumption that an experimental design would not be feasible in view of the number of variables we wished to investigate. Yet the study objectives ideally required a situation in which it would be possible to approximate variable manipulation by isolating subgroups of a sample who had been subjected to different factors, i.e., new versus old residents, readers and non-readers of newspapers, etc., and observing their behavior.

One objective of the pilot study preceding this investigation was to ascertain the feasibility of exploring problem areas beyond the original tentative hypotheses concerning advertising effectiveness. The pilot study indicated the practicability of obtaining additional information which would provide

descriptive data and measurements concerning super market shopping patterns, and consumer characteristics which could help account for the choices made among alternative super markets in the area.

<u>Use of Panel</u>. Among the questions relevant to a study of campaign effect are two which are crucial:

- 1. What is the effect of the message-stimuli, singly or in combination, in producing changes in consumer attitudes and behavior?
- 2. What are the conditions which produce differential changes in the attitudes and behavior among the various classes of consumers in the population?

Whereas most poll findings commonly reported are confined to describing how aggregates of people feel about a given issue at a particular time, our need was for analysis of turn-over. For example, a total gain of ten customers by a super market may be the result of losing ten customers and attracting twenty new ones.

Not only was there a need for knowing size and composition of turnover, but also for identifying the individual changers objectively. The changers were the means for correlating attitudinal changes with changes in patronage. It was desirable to avoid relying upon the respondent's memory for correct identification. In addition, several change indices were to be used which could only be obtained by repeated interviews.

The panel method, which involves interviewing a sample of consumers representing the universe at two or more times, fulfilled our requirements. In using the panel technique to investigate change, three broad areas could be examined: (1) What kind of people were most likely to change? (2) Under what influences did the changes take place? (3) In what directions were the changes made?

The panel process also enabled the investigation of other influences which could affect change, e.g., demographic and socio-economic influences, susceptability to personal influence, and personality traits such as gregariousness.

Thus, a panel was constituted from a sample of families representing the universe of families composing Spartan Village. On the first wave, executed in October, 1960, the person in the family responsible for super market choice was ascertained and interviewed. The same person was reinterviewed on the second wave, which was undertaken in January, 1961.

To answer the question on the effect of the three communication variables on behavior, the panel made it possible to proceed in three steps: (1) measurement of each respondent's predispositions and attitudes toward the super markets available to them at the time of the first wave;

(2) measurement of each respondent's attitudes and behavior on the reinterview; and (3) determination of exposure indices

for the communication variables, singly or in combination, during the interval between interviews.

The use of the panel also enabled causal inferences to be made on each respondent separately and at an early stage of the investigation. This distinction is crucial when comparing the panel method with the studies on consumer behavior based on census data, descriptions of what people buy, or purely statistical predictions based on aggregate purchase data.

The problem of mutual interaction between attitudes and behavior occurring simultaneously could be partially controlled by means of the panel. For instance, positive correlations arising between advertising readership of direct mail and patronage of the advertiser's super market may be spurious due to the fact that a respondent belonged to a group most likely to patronize that super market. The panel method, by providing information on the interacting variables, makes possible analyses not otherwise feasible.

SAMPLE DESIGN AND SIZE

The sample design was constructed by using a stratified sampling procedure and applying the probability method for selecting the respondents.

The universe from which the panel was selected consisted of the population of Spartan Village, a married housing

development at Michigan State University. The village consists of 1308 apartments located in 118 two-story apartment buildings. A map of the village is shown in the appendix. The apartment buildings vary in size, 27 having eight apartment and 91 containing twelve apartments.

As one of the hypotheses to be tested concerned the effect of group norms upon store selection, a sample of apartment floors was selected from the total number of floors in the Village, using a table of random numbers. Based on the results of the pilot study done earlier, it was determined that the total number of families needed to meet the confidence limits necessary for the various tests desired would be approximately 170 families, of which 80 would be families who met the criterion of "new" residents. It was known that we could expect approximately 30 per cent of the apartments to be occupied by new dwellers; therefore, it would be necessary to select 55 floors. Every new resident was interviewed and every other old resident. The actual percentage of new residents was thus over-represented, and included 43 per cent of panel.

The individual to be interviewed in each household was designated as that person responsible for food store choice. In three cases, the wife was not available for reasons of pregnancy or sickness on Wave I. In these cases the interviews were completed with the husband on both waves. This

increased the number of males classified as responsible for store choice from eight to eleven.

The disposition of the sample over the two waves was as follows:

	Wave I	(October)	Wave	II (January)
Total Households Drawn	200	100.0%	189	100.0%
Interviews completed	189	94.5	169	89.3
Interviews not completed	11	5.5	0	0.0
Respondents moved out (Wave II)			20	10.7
Proportion of new residents	81	42.9	78	46.2
Proportion of old residents	108	57.1	91	5 3. 8

Because of the small size of the sample, the standard error for percentages is fairly large when making inferences about the population of Spartan Village. Thus a sample estimate of a population value of 50 per cent would suggest that the true population value would lie between 43 per cent and 57 per cent ninety-five times out of one hundred. Sampling errors of this magnitude can be expected for proportions in which the sample has been divided by categories of response (e.g., read newspapers versus do not read newspapers, married with children versus married with no children).

When somewhat finer measurement has been obtained, as in the case of the semantic differential items with responses

scored from 1 through 7, the sampling error must be examined in a slightly different fashion. A key aspect of the degree of confidence we have in a given mean semantic differential score is the amount of variation found in the sample.

For example, the responses to such a concept as

Ideal Super Market generally show very little variation. The

statistic used to measure the variation was the standard de
viation. When this is small, we have little uncertainty

about the population value.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

This section is concerned with the problems and procedures of collecting data, including the design and construction of questionnaire, the selection, training, and supervision of the field interviewers.

Interviews were conducted in the apartments of the respondents. All interviews took place within a one-week period on both waves, with approximately 80 per cent of the interviews being completed the first day.

Twenty-five interviewers were used on each wave.

Insofar as possible, the same interviewer did the reinterview.

Interviewers were selected from the Food Marketing Management program conducted by Michigan State University for super market executive trainees. All were given approximately six

hours of intensive training in interviewing techniques plus the opportunity to familiarize themselves thoroughly with the questionnaire. The administration of the semantic differential, which had to be filled-out by the respondents themselves, was given particular attention. Also stressed were the procedures for obtaining answers to probe-type questions and for measuring advertising readership.

The majority of interviews were completed in less than an hour. Three call-backs were required for panel members not available at time of first call. Those not contacted by the end of the interview "week" were dropped from the panel. From the original two hundred families selected, 189 interviews were obtained. At the time of the second wave, twenty respondents could not be contacted, thus leaving an effective panel of 169 respondents.

The Questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of two basic parts: Part I, administered in October, 1960, and Part II, administered in January, 1961. The timing was designed to coincide with the beginning of school terms at Michigan State University. All respondents answered both parts, with the exception of those residents moving away during the interim period.

The questionnaire (see appendix) was revised after testing in the pilot study conducted in January, 1960.

In order to secure the cooperation of the panel members, a letter was sent to each explaining the purpose of the study and requesting their cooperation. This device proved very helpful in winning assent. Of the 200 families sampled, less than five per cent were lost, all due to compelling reasons, e.g., the decision-maker was having a baby. No refusals were reported on either wave. Interviewers carried a copy of the letter for purposes of identification and as a reminder of the purpose of the survey.

The questions were arranged so as to "lead" the respondent through the questionnaire with a minimum of resistance. Questions which could conceivably interfere with valid responses, were carefully phrased, e.g., social status was determined by asking father's occupation. To check accuracy of responses, crucial questions were rephrased and repeated. "Sensitive" questions were withheld until the interviewer had the opportunity to win the confidence and interest of the respondent.

The questionnaire consisted of ten pages for each interview. The pilot study suggested the general topical sequence and specific wording.

Two criteria governed the order in which the topics appeared and the specific wording of the questions: ease in eliciting valid responses, and avoidance of eliciting responses

which reflect "ideal" behavior rather than actual behavior. Insofar as possible, the questionnaires met the assumptions of validity for the survey response as social datum and the assumption of dynamic equivalence among the survey responses, of between responses and actual behavior. For example, an advantage of the attitudinal measurement instrument used was its ability to hide its purpose from the panel. Advertising is acceptable if thought to be informative; it is suspect if thought to be persuasive, thus endangering a rational decision. This is also true of interpersonal influence. The American cultural pattern requires rejection of "influence" (Williams, 1956, p. 135).

- produce the questionnaires here, they will be summarized by categories according to purpose. The following categorization covers the total content of the questionnaire (Roman numerals I and II refer to the two waves of the questionnaire, Arabic numerals to questions):
 - a. Questions for the purpose of ascertaining demographic and socio-economic data. (I-12, 13)
 - b. Questions for the purpose of ascertaining the evaluative meaning for "ideal" and actual super markets in the area and to measure attitude change. (I & II - Part II)
 - c. Questions for the purpose of ascertaining overt behavior toward super markets, including shopping patterns. (I-1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 14; II-1)

- d. Questions for the purpose of assessing the role of advertising upon supermarket choice and to describe the mass communications behavior patterns of the sample. (I-2, 8, 9, 10, 12; II-3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8)
- e. Questions intended to assess the role of interpersonal influence upon super market choice and to describe interpersonal communications patterns of the sample. (I-2, 7, 11, 14; II-3, 4)
- f. Questions intended to assess the role of predispositions in influencing super market choice.
 (I-1, 2, 6, 7; II-1, 3)
- g. Questions for the purpose of ascertaining qualities of opinion-leadership and gregariousness. (I-15, 16, 17, 18; II-2)
- h. Questions designed to act as "filters," used to detect ineligible responses, e.g., respondents without radios who answered questions concerning radio advertising.
- i. Questions specifically designed to assess the influences which led to change in super market choice by the "changers" found in Wave II. (Part II-pp. 6-7)

INVENTORY OF CLASSIFICATIONS AND INDICES

The majority of the respondent classifications used in the study are either self-explanatory or so commonly used as to require only nominal definition. Four classifications, however, have definitions peculiar to this study as explained below. The several indices constructed for testing the hypotheses relative to attitude change are detailed in Chapter VI.

Family Life Cycle. The concept of "family life cycle" has been shown by Lansing and Kish (1957) to be better than age

classifications in explaining changes in consumer attitudes and behavior. The concept normally includes several stages in the life cycle of a family, starting with young single adults. Spartan Village, however, consisted almost entirely of young families, providing an opportunity for examining a limited number of life cycle classes.

The sample was divided into four categories:

- (1) respondent under 24, no children
- (2) respondent under 24, with children
- (3) respondent 24 or over, no children
- (4) respondent 24 or over, with children

It was assumed that both age and children would result in differing roles which might have an influence on store attitudes and behavior.

Table 4.1, Chapter IV, shows the family life cycle distribution for the panel.

Socio-economic Status. Position in the status hierarchy and income are important consumer variables, as well as determinants of communication influence. The traditional view holds that influence flows down the status ladder. Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955, p. 246) found that marketing influence was horizontal within classes. In the present study, the homogeneity of the student families made it desirable to use broad categorizations. The sample was divided into six groups along two dimensions:

Father's Occupation

Own Education

Professional (Upper and upper-middle class):

college graduate
some college
no college
college graduate

Non-professional (Other classes):

some college no college

easily obtained. To ascertain income and class, respondents were asked to describe the occupation of their father. The occupations were then categorized according to the Alphabetic Index of Occupations and Industries published by the U. S. Department of Commerce. "Professionals and semi-professionals," included those in the professions, sciences, and kindred areas. "Managers, proprietors and officials" included business executives and large proprietors. These were considered as "upper and upper-middle class." All other occupations -- "clerical," "sales," "craftsmen and foremen," "operatives," including semi-skilled and unskilled workers and laborers, and "farmers and farm laborers" were put into "other classes."

Table 4.1, Chapter IV, shows the life-cycle distribution for the panel.

Opinion leadership: Katz and Lazarsfeld (p. 246) have popularized the concept of "opinion leader," meaning those persons who are especially likely to lead in the crystallization of opinion in their fellows. Large family wives were

found to be the most frequent source of marketing leaders.

Opinion leaders were also found to be both exposed more generally to the mass media, and more specifically to the content most closely associated with their leadership (Katz and Lazarsfeld, p. 316). Therefore, it was deemed necessary to investigate the opinion leader in this study inasmuch as she might affect both super market choice and communications flow.

Findings from the pilot study and Wave I indicated that one two-part question would be sufficient to identify the "grocery" opinion leader satisfactorily (see questionnaire in appendix, I-15, II-2). Responses from Wave I, noted below, indicated that the proportion of opinion leadership varies according to the subject-area:

(15.1) Have you recently been asked your advice on: (n-189)

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	No Response
A community problem	10.1%	88.3%	1.1%
A personal problem	27.5%	71.4%	0.5%
A grocery problem	19.6%	78.2%	1.1%

(15.2) Compared to others, are you more or less likely than your friends to be asked for your advice on:

	<u>More</u>	<u>Less</u>	No Response
A community problem	30.7%	63.5%	5 .3 %
A personal problem	48.1%	46.0%	5 .3 %
A grocery problem	33.9%	60.8%	4.7%

It was decided to use only those answering "yes" on the grocery segment for ascertaining food store opinion leaders. The following index was constructed for denoting opinion

leaders for the final analyses; combining responses on both waves.

Wave I - II: yes-more - 1; yes-less/no-more - 2; no-less - 3.

By adding scores on each wave, the possible range is from two to six. Respondents with scores of four or less were designated as opinion leaders; those with scores of five or over as non-opinion leaders.

Table 4.1, Chapter IV, shows the opinion leadership distribution for the panel.

Gregariousness: It can be supposed that gregariousness, defined as those persons who are likely to have greater social contact, would be related to opinion leadership. However, even if not an opinion leader, the gregarious person might well serve as a bearer of supermarket information, thus an important communications influence. Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955, p. 242) found gregarious women more likely to be marketing leaders than women who were not gregarious. Such persons would therefore be important targets of the advertiser as influential links in interpersonal communication.

As with the opinion leader index, respondents were scored from two to six, based on their answers in both waves to two questions: "How many people are there with whom you are friendly and talk to fairly often?" "How many clubs and organizations do you belong to?"

Table 4.1, Chapter IV, shows the distribution of gregariousness for the panel.

ATTITUDE MEASUREMENT - THE SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL

In order to test the proposition that there are regularities among the verbal plans of action that people hold and the other crucial behaviors, e.g., super market patronage, a measurement methodology must be utilized which will meet the usual criteria of science.

It is necessary to collect and arrange attitudes in such a fashion that they can be measured and compared. This calls for agreement on the concepts held by people for the ordering of their plans of action, since people often present their attitudes in a form difficult to compare. There must be agreement on the significant variables in terms of which attitudes will be compared.

The additudinal measuring instrument used in the study was an adaptation of the Semantic Differential developed by Osgood and his associates (1957) for indexing the internal judgments of an individual. Essentially a combination of controlled association and scaling procedures, the instrument provided each respondent with seven super market concepts, each differentiated against a set of nine bipolar adjectives. The respondent had only to make a check on a seven-step scale for

each item (See Questionnaires for Waves I and II, pp. 9-10).

The arbitrary weights (1 to 7) assigned to the scale position checked thus became the measure of the intensity and direction of her association. The weights, in turn, could be converted into individual and group mean scores for purposes of analysis.

According to Osgood, words represent things because they produce in humans some replica of the actual behavior toward these things, as a mediation process. The meanings which different individuals have for the same signs will vary to the extent that their behaviors toward the thing signified have varied. In other words, if we take the bits of knowledge people have relative to super markets, these "cognitive elements" can be equated with the meanings of signs, e.g., "Kroger," where the meaning is attached either by direct association with the store or in association with other signs.

Osgood empirically defined and factor-analyzed the meanings that people have for concepts. The dominant evaluative factor, or tendency to see things as good or bad, accounted for approximately 75 per cent of the extractable variance. Evidence reveals the evaluative aspect is unidimensional, corresponding to what is thought of as attitude. Berlo (1960, p. 298) states that the evaluative dimension of meaning accounts for the largest part of the variability in meaning which people

have, and is used increasingly as an operational definition of attitude.

In terms of the operations of measurement with the semantic differential, attitude toward a concept is equivalent to a point in the evaluative dimension of meaning. In this study, attitude is defined as the score received on the instrument used.

A number of advantages of the semantic differential for measuring attitudes and attitude change have been pointed out by Deutschmann (1958, pp. 196-198) and Mindak (1961).

- 1. It can be expanded readily, thus increasing the possibility of attaining reliability through increasing the number of items.
- 2. It can be disguised easily so as to hide its attitudinal measurement purpose and restricting the possibility of responses being adjusted to fit the questioner or a socially acceptable response.
- 3. It is a quick and efficient means of getting in readily quantifiable form and for large samples the direction and intensity of attitudes.
- 4. Memory plays little or no part in a re-test, making possible obtaining unequivocable data on reliability. (Osgood has indicated that reliabilities between .85 and .90 were obtained.)
- 5. It is more sensitive than other scaling instruments in that small differences in attitude can be detected.
- 6. The measure has been shown to have a high degree of face validity.

- 7. It represents a standardized technique for getting at the multitude of factors which go to make up a brand or product image.
- 8. It eliminates some of the problems of question phrasing and facilitates interviewing of respondents, particularly those who may not be too articulate in their reactions.

Concepts and Scales. Six of the seven concepts chosen consisted of the six super markets in the East Lansing area which accounted for approximately 98 per cent of the panel's patronage. They constituted a representative grouping of national chains and local independents, shopping center stores and neighborhood stores, and clusters of equidistant (from Spartan Village) and otherwise similar stores. They were: A & P, Kroger, Wrigley, National Tea, Schmidt's, and Prince Bros. The seventh concept, "My Ideal Store," was used as a control concept.

In order to index the attitudes of our respondents toward the stimulus-concepts, it was necessary to select a set of scales which would elicit evaluative responses.

The nine pairs of polar adjectives selected were tested in the pilot study and good results obtained. Included were four pairs from the classic list of fifty-word pairs factor-analyzed by Osgood, et. al. (1957, Chapter 2), having heavy factor loadings on the evaluative dimension (good/bad, clean/dirty, fair/unfair, pleasant/unpleasant). The remaining five pairs (expensive/inexpensive, friendly/unfriendly, progressive/

conservative, close/distant, high class/low class) were included because they were felt to be more meaningful in the context of super markets and thus more appropriate to the problem. For example, "friendly-unfriendly" was felt to be important for three reasons: (1) customers value friendliness in stores, (2) friendliness is a function of part of the "gregariousness" index used in the study, and (3) one of the stores, Kroger, uses a copy approach in their advertising which emphasizes friendliness, thus could be tested. Price, location, and cleanliness are known to be highly important in store selection.

Two questions that arose concerned (1) whether or not the full set of scales was necessary, and (2) whether or not the five "tailor-made" scales could be considered a part of the evaluative dimension.

In answer to the questions, correlations were produced between scales (over concepts). To remove individual differences, mean scale scores for concepts were utilized. Thus each scale was shown by scale intercorrelation to be based upon the degree to which the set of concepts was ranked in the same way. There was an effective <u>n</u> of seven for each correlation coefficient.

The resulting correlation matrix was then analyzed by an approximation to factor analysis developed by McQuitty (1957) and which he refers to as "linkage analysis." The

method is both rapid and objective. The resulting data does not provide loadings, but does identify factors.

Table 3.1 provides a concise description of the procedure, as well as the matrix of correlations between the mean scale scores. The resultant type reveals the nine adjectival scales can be described by a single typal structure. While four of the "tailor-made" pairs (expensive/inexpensive, high class/low class, progressive/conservative, close/distant) are weakly associated, possibly reflecting other dimensions as well as the evaluative, the linkage analysis suggested that the variations in responses can be attributed to one major dimension, the evaluative, as intended.

CHANNEL AND MESSAGE TYPES

With reference to the channels of communication, three broad types were defined for purposes of the investigation:

1. <u>Self</u> - Self communication includes the messages a person "sends" himself from his memory of previous experience which he finds relevant to a decision-making situation, as well as his perceptions from direct experience of the moment;

TABLE 3.1

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MEAN SCALE SCORES FOR CONCEPTS

				Varia					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
									
1		. 72	.75	. 72	. 70	.41	. 19	. 50	. 35
2		<u></u>				.40			
3			•00	. 73	.77	.42	.13	. 50	. 36
4				•,,,	65	.40	.05	. 54	.42
5					•05	.43	.19	44	. 30
6						• • •		.23	
7							••-	11	
8									.49
9									
*Legend	1 -	good		4 -	clean		7 -	inex	pensive
_	2 -	fair		5 -	frien	dly	8 -	prog	ressive
			sant						class
Resultar	nt Typ	e - S	ingle E	Evalua	tive	Dimens	ion	_	
	.7		.75		.7			.44	
fa	air——	_ goo	dp	leasa	nt <u></u>	≠ frie	endly-		close
			.7	4/					
			cl	.ean					
			.55 /						
			progres	sive					
		.49	1						
		hig	h class	5					
	.27	1							
	expe	nśive							
Note:	Tllngt	ratio	n of Me	thod	of An	alveis	St	ene i	n Linkage

Note: Illustration of Method of Analysis - Steps in Linkage

- 1. Underline highest entry in each column of matrix.
- 2. Select highest entry in the entire matrix (.77).

 This mediates between scales 3 and 5 and constitutes the "brother-sister" relationship.
- 3. Select all scales which are most like 3 and 5 of the first type. This is done by reading across the rows 3 and 5 of the matrix and selecting the underlined entries. Entries thus selected are most like 3 and 5, and called "first cousins."
- 4. Select all scales most like the "first cousins" (1. 4, 6) in a manner similar to paragraph 3. These are "second cousins."
- 5. Search for third and higher order "cousins," (none).

for example, perceiving a super market while driving. The concept is derived from the "interpreter" model of the relationship between communication and learning (Berlo, p. 104) which suggests that central nervous system acts as an intrapersonal communication system.

- 2. <u>Mass Media</u> The four major channels of supermarket advertising are included: newspapers, television, radio, and direct mail.
 - 3. <u>Interpersonal</u> Much information concerning super markets is received directly (oral discussion) and indirectly (consumer's awareness of and need to conform with group norms and values surrounding supermarket behavior) from the people with whom the consumer associates. To a lesser degree, contacts with formal social groups may have influence on the consumer.

Messages are construed to have three operational types:

- 1. Predispositional Messages sent by the self, derived from past experience and direct exposure. For example, "I chose Kroger because that is where I used to shop in my hometown" is an example of the former; "I was driving over to the shopping center and just happened to notice the Kroger store near the bank," is an example of the latter.
- 2. <u>Face-to-face</u> The informal conversations which the decision-maker has during her normal routine at work, coffee sessions with neighbors, etc., whereby she may receive messages concerning super markets.

s

3. Advertising - Advertising here refers to the purposive messages, or advertisements, sent by the super markets through the mass media. The individual messages are nominally referred to as newspaper "ads," radio and television "commercials," and direct mail "flyers" or "pieces."

Following is a more specific categorization of the channels investigated in the study:

Figure 3.1
CATEGORIZATION OF MEDIA CHANNELS

<u>Class</u>	<u>Genus</u>	<u>Individual</u>
Ma ss Med ia	Newspaper Radio Television Direct Mail	<pre>State Journal, State News WJIM, WILS WJIM-TV, WILX-TV Kroger, A & P, etc., promotional pieces</pre>
Interpersonal	Relatives Neighbors Other Friends	Husband, mother, etc. Particularly those contiguous to consumer Classmates, etc.
	Work Associates Experts	Professor of Home Economics Store employee, etc.
	Church, Clubs, Sororities, etc.	Presbyterian Church, Red Cedar PTA, etc.
Self	Predispositions Self-exposure	Former customer of A & P visited A & P, etc.

TESTS FOR SIGNIFICANCE

Following the general practice in the behavioral area, tests of significance used in the study will be at the .05 level (two-tailed test) unless otherwise specified.

The use of a bivariate classification system was adopted for the majority of variables describing the sample (opinion leader/non-opinion leader, old resident/new resident, changer/non-changer, etc.). Therefore, the results were analyzed by the use of bivariate frequency distributions. For most of these, the statistic used was the Chi-square to test the null hypotheses that obtained and expected frequencies are equal.

Pilot study results indicated that the semantic differential tests could utilize parametric tests of significance.

Nearly all the data produced largely met the assumptions that the data came from a normally distributed population of measurements and that there existed homogeneity of variance. Senders (1958, p. 498) states that moderate violations of the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance will not seriously affect results when using such parametric tests as the analysis of variance.

A more serious objection can be raised in regard to the assumptions of equal interval in the scales constructed for measuring communication pressures and the semantic differential.

Technically, these are ordinal scales, and interval statistics are not applicable. The "as if" quality of interval and unidimensionality was recognized; however, the assumptions made possible the use of more powerful tests.

CHAPTER IV

SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS, COMMUNICATION AND SUPER MARKET BEHAVIOR PATTERNS

The first section of this chapter describes the characteristics of Spartan Villagers. In the second section, the communication patterns relative to the use of the mass media are described, with particular emphasis placed on the readership of newspaper advertising. In the final section, patterns of behavior relative to super market shopping are set forth.

The contents of this chapter describe the particular situation and population selected for study. As such it provides necessary background data for the findings on images and attitude change reported in the following chapters, as well as to report phenomena of practical interest concerning super markets. The <u>caveat</u> that the findings need validation across other populations is implicit; however, the difference in variability is one of degree rather than kind.

It can be shown that the findings are typical of other communities in some cases. For example, 8.4 per cent of the super market decision-makers were husbands in Spartan Village. This proportion agrees with findings of three separate studies in which male decision-makers ranged from

7.5 per cent to 9.8 per cent of the population (Dan Clark Associates, 1960). On the other hand, less than 80 per cent of the sample reported reading newspapers, compared with the approximately 90 per cent of the adults in the average community (Schramm, 1955, p. 78).

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE POPULATION SURVEYED

The panel was selected on the basis of probability, thus the observations can be projected to the population of Spartan Village. The extent or range of possible variation for any sample percentage from that which a census would produce will not exceed plus or minus 8% more than five times out of a hundred, using an n of 169 and proportion of 50%. Smaller percentages will provide smaller variance. It is emphasized that the representativeness of the sample is of secondary importance in the study.

Table 4.1 describes the demographic characteristics of the sample. The characteristics describe the respondents as of Wave I, with the exception of the opinion leader and gregariousness categories. These required responses on both waves, thus the \underline{n} was reduced to 169.

TABLE 4.1
SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

	(October,	1960,	n=189)
Characteristic			

Characteristic	Per Cent	(n)
Sex of Decision-Maker	9	
Male	8.4%	(16)
Female	91.5	(173)
<u>Aqe</u>		
Under 24	57.7%	(109)
24, and over	41.8	(79)
No response	0.5	(1)
Family Size		
No children	53.4%	
Children	42.8	(81)
No response	3.8	(5)
Education		
No college	23.3%	(44)
Some college	37.6	(71)
College graduate	38.1	(72)
No response	1.1	(2)
Respondent's Occupation		
Housewife	42.8%	(81)
Work only	31.2	(59)
Student only	15.3	(29)
Work and student	9.5	(18)
Father's Occupation		
Professional	29.1%	(55)
Non-professional	69.3	(131)
No reply	1.1	(2)
Length of Residence in Spartan Village		
Under two months	42.8%	(81)
Two to twelve months	25.4	(48)
Twelve months, and over	31.7	(60)

TABLE 4.1 (continued)

Characteristic	Per Cent	(n)
Previous_Residence		
Lansing area	4.2%	(8)
Michigan, not Lansing	37.0	(70)
Out of state	57 .1	(108)
No reply	1.6	(3)
Life Cycle Index		
Under 24, without children	39.7%	(75)
Under 24, with children	15.3	(29)
Twenty-four and over, without children	13.8	(26)
Twenty-four and over, with children	28.0	(53)
Socio-Economic Level		
Professional, college graduate	13.2%	(25)
Professional, some college	12.6	(23)
Professional, no college	2.6	(5)
Non-professional, college graduate	23.8	(45)
Non-professional, some college	23.8	(45)
Non-professional, no college	20.1	(38)
Average Weekly Expenditure in Super Markets		
Under \$10	3.2%	(6)
\$10-\$15	42.8	(80)
\$16 - \$20	33.7	(63)
\$21 - \$25	11.8	(22)
\$26 or more	8.6	(16)
Opinion Leader*		
Opinion leader	26.6	(45)
Non-opinion leader	73.4	(124)
Gregariousness*		
High gregariousness	43.2	(73)
Low gregariousness	56.8	(96)

^{*}The computation of the category required information from both waves; thus the \underline{n} of 169 rather than 189.

SHOPPING PATTERNS

The purpose of this section is to provide a systematic description of the actions of the panel relative to their super market shopping behavior.

Sex of Decision-Maker. It has already been noted that the wife is the decision-maker in the family, with the proportion found in Spartan Village validated by comparison with other survey results. It was found during the pilot study, however, that the question was a delicate one. of the wives seemed reluctant to admit they made this decision, particularly if the husband was present. In the main study the opportunity was given to the decision-maker to reveal herself or himself through screening questions (Who did the food-buying last week?). The trend of the cultural norms surrounding this important family decision appears, however, to give the right to the wife to assert her prerogatives relative to food shopping. As Table 4.2 shows, only 5 per cent of the wives give the credit to the husband (and corroborated by the husband) while another 15 per cent state it is a mutual decision. The message target for super markets is clearly the woman.

TABLE 4.2

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY SEX OF SUPER

MARKET DECISION-MAKER

(n = 189)

Decision-Maker	Per Cent of Total
Female Respondents	
Self	71.4%
Husband	5.3
Decide together	14.8
Male Respondents	
Self	5.8
Wife	0.5
Decide together	1.6
Other	0.5

Food Shopping a Family Activity. The act of food shopping is often a family activity, with nearly half the respondents indicating an adult member of the family participating, usually wife and husband. Only 6 per cent shop for food in company with someone outside the family.

TABLE 4.3

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS SHOPPING ALONE AND WITH OTHERS

(n = 189)

Shopping Companion	Per Cent of Total
Shop alone	47.1%
With member of family	46.6
With someone outside family	6.3

Prior Patronage a Powerful Influence. How does the new resident in the community choose a store? Table 4.4 shows the powerful influence to be predisposition. When the decision-maker finds a super market available from the same chain she had patronized in her previous place of residence, she tends to maintain the habit if her prior experience had been satisfactory.

The strong influence of prior loyalty, or habit, is shown in the table below:

TABLE 4.4

INFLUENCE OF PRIOR LOYALTY ON SUPER MARKET CHOICE FOR CUSTOMERS OF THE MAJOR SUPER MARKETS

(October, 1960, n = 189)

First Choice	Preferred Chain Prior to Moving to Spartan Village							
October, 1960	A & P	Wrigley	Kroger	National	Other			
A & P (n=55)	24 <u>60%</u>	<u>6</u>	3	3	25			
Wrigley (n=39)	6	10 <u>91%</u>	3	1	19			
Kroger (n=40	3	1	16 <u>649</u>	<u>~</u>	20			
National (n=30)	5		3	2 22%	20			
Other (n=25)	2			3	20			
Total <u>189</u>	40	11	25	9	104			

Percentage of panel remaining loyal to same chain = 62%

It can be seen that 62 per cent of the 85 respondents reporting patronage of one of the major super markets prior to moving to East Lansing have remained loyal. Prior patronage for all except one respondent was for a branch of the chain now patronized which was located outside the East Lansing shopping area. While the ratio was comparable for the A & P and Kroger, there does appear to be a considerable difference in loyalty for the National and Wrigley stores, possibly due to the small n.

The conclusion can be drawn that predisposition arising from prior store patronage is a powerful influence in the selection of a new store for new families moving into an area where a chain has a branch. A further inference might follow that the more stores a chain has the greater the chance for attracting and holding customers as they move from one location to another. About half the movers will remain loyal to the chain previously patronized.

Influence of Other Activities. The super market shopper may make her decision to patronize a particular store because the activity can be combined conveniently with other activities she may desire to undertake at the same time. While 20 per cent of Spartan Villagers usually combined their food shopping with other activities, the proportion was smaller than might be expected. Two-thirds of

this group said they combined with other shopping; about 20 per cent did their grocery shopping while doing laundry at a laundromat. Table 4.5 shows the frequency with which respondents combined super market shopping with other activities. There was no difference in proportions between store groupings, despite three of the stores being in a shopping center while the A & P was located some distance from any other establishment.

TABLE 4.5

FREQUENCY WITH WHICH RESPONDENTS COMBINE SUPER MARKET SHOPPING WITH OTHER ACTIVITIES

October, 1960, n=189)

Frequency	Per Cent of Total
Rarely	63.3
Sometimes	13.8
Usually	20.8
No response	2.1

Cross-patronage. While nearly all the respondents indicated a preference for a particular super market, approximately 70 per cent indicated they often or sometimes purchased all or a portion of their groceries at another store. Table 4.6 shows the proportion of "own" store customers who had bought all or most of their groceries at another store "last week." The proportions give an indication of the extent to

which cross-patronage takes place. About one of five respondents make their major purchase in another store. The fact that two stores gained customers at the expense of the other two stores is explained in part in the section on direct mail.

TABLE 4.6

PROPORTION OF CUSTOMERS OF THE FOUR MAJOR SUPER MARKETS
SHOPPING AT A SUPER MARKET OTHER THAN PREFERRED
CHOICE LAST WEEK

Des Courses	Super Market Shopped "Last Week"*						
Preferred Store	A & P %	Kroger %	Wrigley %	National %			
A & P (55)	<u>85.4</u>	9.1	1.8	3.6	100.0		
Kroger (40)	10.0	85.0	0.0	5.0	100.0		
Wrigley (38)	12.8	12.8	74.2	0.0	100.0		
National (30)	13.3	3.3	0.0	83.3	100.0		

(October, 1960, n=162)

Patronage Analysis. New residents quickly survey the super markets available to them in the community, visiting an average of three super markets within the first week or two after establishing residence. The oldest residents, as might be expected, have investigated more stores. After the first explorations, the housewife seemingly makes her choice and thereafter investigates alternative choices at a slow pace. Table 4.7 shows the pattern clearly. The reinterview showed

^{*}Net gain - A & P, 5; Kroger, 5; net loss - Wrigley, 10; National, 1.

only that the new residents had approximated the number of stores visited as the residents in the two to twelve month category at the time of the October interview.

The inference can be made that the super market advertiser would have his best opportunity for attracting new residents within the first month or two after their arrival.

TABLE 4.7

PERCENTAGES OF RESPONDENTS VISITING ONE OR MORE SUPER MARKETS, ACCORDING TO LENGTH OF RESIDENCE IN SPARTAN VILLAGE

(October, 1960)

	By Length of Residence							
Stores Visited	Entire Panel (n=189)	Under Two Months (n=81)	Two to Twelve Months (n=47)	Thirteen Months and Over (n=61)				
One	7.4	12.3	6.4	0.0				
Two	17.4	27.1	8.5	9.8				
Three	27.5	33.3	27.7	19.7				
Four	22.2	16.0	27.7	27.9				
Five	12.2	9.9	14.9	13.1				
Six	10.5	1.2	10.6	22.9				
Seven	3.2	0.0	4.2	6.6				

Tables 4.8 and 4.9 reveal the distribution of super market preferences for the first and second waves. On both waves, the major super markets attracted approximately 90 per cent of Spartan Villagers. A consistent proportion preferred the two minor super markets (both locally owned and operated). About one-third of the population had not visited each of the

major stores, three-fourths had not visited the minor stores.

The only significant change that occurred in preferences

between the two waves was the shift upward in the number

preferring Kroger, from 21 per cent to 27 per cent, which will

be discussed in detail in later pages.

TABLE 4.8

PERCENTAGE OF SUBJECTS ACCORDING TO DISTRIBUTION OF STATED SUPER MARKET PREFERENCES IN OCTOBER, 1960

(n=189)

			Store Ran	king in	October,	1960	
Store		irst oice	Second Choice	Third Choice	Visited, not Ranked	Not Visited	Total
A & P	29.1	(55)	20.1	11.1	7.9	31.8	100.0
Kroger	21.2	(40)	18.0	16.9	16.9	27.0	100.0
Wrigley	20.6	(39)	20.1	15.9	9.5	33.9	100.0
National	15.9	(30)	15.3	11.6	18.5	38.7	100.0
Prince Br.	4.8	(9)	10.0	4.8	12.2	68.2	100.0
Schmidt's	4.8	(9)	4.2	4.2	8.5	78.3	100.0
Other	3.7	(7)	3.7	5.8	12.7	74.1	100.0
Total	100.0	(189)					

TABLE 4.9

PERCENTAGE OF SUBJECTS ACCORDING TO DISTRIBUTION OF STATED SUPER MARKET PREFERENCES IN JANUARY, 1961

(n=169)

		s	tore Rank	ing in	January,	1961	
Store	Fin Choi		Second Choice	Third Choice	Visited, not Ranked*	Not Visited*	Total
Kroger	27.2	(46)	17.7	15.3	11.8	27.8	100.0
A & P	26.6	(45)	21.3	8.3	8.3	35.5	100.0
Wrigley	18.3	(31)	17.2	13.6	11.2	29.6	100.0
National	16.0	(27)	17.7	11.2	14.2	40.1	100.0
Prince Br.	5.3	(9)	5.3	8.3	9.5	71.5	100.0
Schmidt's	5.3	(9)	3.0	2.4	8.3	81.1	100.0
Other	1.2	(2)	1.8	1.8	9.5	85.8	100.0
Total	100.0	(169)					

^{*}Visited during previous three months.

Table 4.10 analyzes the panel by length of residence according to store patronage for both waves. A reshuffling of choices may be seen for all categories, but in a pattern which is quite similar.

TABLE 4.10

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF STATED SUPER MARKET PREFERENCES
IN OCTOBER AND JANUARY ACCORDING TO LENGTH
OF RESIDENCE IN SPARTAN VILLAGE

	P	ercentage	Ranking		Markets	
Length of	First	Second	Third	Visited	Not	
Residence	Choice		Choice	not	Visited*	Total
				Ranked*		
October (n	=188)					
Less Than	Two Mont	<u>hs</u> : (n=80))			
A & P	25.0	20.0	7.5	3.7	43.8	100.0
Wrigley	15.0	17.5	13.5	7.5	46.3	100.0
Kroger	25.0	16.2	16.2	6.2	36.4	100.0
National	22.5	10.0	8.7	8.7	50.1	100.0
Two to Twe						
A & P	27.7	21.3	14.9	6.4	29.7	100.0
Wrigley 	27.7	19.1	12.8	6.4	34.0	100.0
Kroger	23.4	19.1	17.1	17.1	23.3	100.0
National	8.5	17.1	12.8	21.3	40.3	100.0
Mind and a second		. Manaa /m.	-(1)			
Thirteen MA & P			=61)	12 1	21 2	100 0
	36.1	18.0	11.5 22.9	13.1	21.3 16.5	100.0
Wrigley	22.9	22.9		14.8		100.0
Kroger National	14.8 13.1	21.3 19.7	18.0 14.8	31.1 27.9	14.8 24.5	100.0
National	13.1	19.7	14.0	27.9	24.5	100.0
January (n	=169)					
_						
Less Than						
A & P	20.5	19.2	9.0	14.1	37.2	100.0
Wrigley	20.5	20.5	12.8	12.8	33.4	100.0
Kroger	28.2	19.2	15.4	12.8	24.4	100.0
National	19.2	16.7	12.8	16.7	34.6	100.0
m m	1	1 - (
Two to Twe				2.4	20. 6	100.0
A & P	23.8	30.9	14.3	2.4	28.6	100.0
Wrigley	19.0	9.5	7.1	9.5	54.9	100.0
Kroger	35.7	7.1	23.8	9.5	23.8	100.0
National	11.9	23.8	14.3	11.9	38.1	100.0
Thirteen M	onthe or	More (n	=49)			
A & P	38.8	16.3	2.0	4.1	38.8	100.0
Wrigley	14.3	18.4	20.4	10.2	36.7	100.0
Kroger	18.4	24.5	8.2	12.2	36.7	100.0
<u>National</u>	14.3	14.3	6.1	12.2	53.1	100.0
			<u> </u>		<u>~~</u>	

^{*}Visited "last three months" at time of reinterview.

When these proportions are categorized by demographic variables, contributing factors can be seen. Table 4.11 shows the distribution of the panel by preferred stores tabulated across the various socio-demographic variables in which significant differences appeared beyond .05 level (χ^2) .

TABLE 4.11

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF CUSTOMERS OF THE FOUR MAJOR SUPER MARKETS IN OCTOBER, 1960, ACCORDING TO VARIOUS CHARACTERISTICS

Characteristic	A & P (n=55)	Wrigley (n=39)	_	National (n=30)
Age				
Under 24 24 and over	47.3 52.7	59.0 41.0	65.0 35.0	70.0 30.0
Children				
None One Two or more	45.4 20.0 32.7	48.7 28.2 23.1	60.0 15.0 22.5	70.0 13.3 16.7
Father's Occupation				
Professional/managerial Other	32.7 65.4	25.6 17.8	15.0 85.0	43. 3 56.7
Length of Residence in Spartan Village				
Under two months Two to twelve months Thirteen months or more	36.4 25.4 34.5	30.8 33.3 25.6	50.0 27.5 22.5	60.0 13.3 26.7

Place of previous residence (Michigan - non-Michigan) showed no differences in preference, distributing almost equally among the major stores. The amount of money spent weekly for groceries had no effect on which store was preferred. Whether or not the shopper carried on other activities (going to bank, launderette, other shopping) made no difference, despite the fact that three of the four major stores were located in a shopping center complex. The fact the shopper did or did not shop with other people—husband or friends—made no difference. Whether the wife worked or stayed home had no effect.

Age and children, one the function of the other, showed the shoppers under 24 with no children preferring Wrigley and National, while those older and with children preferred Kroger and A & P. High status people preferred National and the A & P, while low status residents constituted the bulk of Kroger patrons. Length of residence was a factor for both National and Kroger customers, who drew more heavily from among new residents. Wrigley drew the lowest proportion of new customers. This might have been due to the fact that Wrigley is a regional chain, not as well known to many new residents.

STATED REASONS FOR CHOICE

studies on super market shopping behavior typically report price, convenience, quality of merchandise, variety of merchandise, and service among the major reasons given by consumers for preferring a super market. One of the best known research firms in the super market industry, Burgoyne Index, Inc., has surveyed super market consumer buying habits for a number of years (1954-1960). The findings from one of their recent surveys on the question of "what factors do you consider important in selecting a super market?" are reported in Table 4.12, together with the responses from our panel to this question. It can be seen that results are nearly identical. The responses are tabulated so as to show first, second, and third choice rankings on each of the principal factors, as well as the unweighted total of the three rankings.

When these factors are analyzed across store customer groups, a different picture emerges. Table 4.13 reveals the unweighted total of first, second, and third choices among factors considered most important by each of the major store groups in October. No difference was shown on the January reinterview.

TABLE 4.12

FACTORS CONSIDERED MOST IMPORTANT IN MAKING CHOICE OF SUPER MARKET

(n=189)

Factors	First Choice %	Second Choice %	Third Choice %	Total 1,2,3	Burgoyne Index Total 1,2,3
Low price	34.9	13.8	10.6	19.9	18
Quality of meats	18.5	24.3	15.9	19.7	20
Quality of produce	8.5	18.0	18.0	14.9	13
Cleanliness	14.3	9.0	18.0	13.9	13
Location	10.6	15.9	12.2	13.0	15
Variety of Mdse.	7.9	13.2	12.2	11.2	8
Stamps	3.7	1.6	5.3	3.6	2
Parking	-	3.2	4.2	2.3	4
Friendliness	0.5	1.6	3.7	2.0	3
Other	1.0	-	-	-	3

^{*}Burgoyne Index, Inc., 7th Annual Continuing Report, 1960, p. 14 (Indianapolis).

TABLE 4.13

FACTORS CONSIDERED MOST IMPORTANT IN MAKING CHOICE OF SUPER MARKET BY STORE GROUPS IN OCTOBER, 1960 (TOTAL OF 1ST, 2ND, 3RD CHOICES)

(n = 189)

Factor	A & P %	Wrigley %	Kroger %	National %
Low price	30.3	16.2	16.7	14.4
Quality of meats	20.6	18.8	19.2	<u>15.5</u>
Quality of produce	13.9	17.9	12.5	14.4
Cleanliness	11.5	12.8	14.2	13.3
Location	12.2	12.8	16.7	12.2
Variety of merchandise	9.7	11.1	12.5	14.4
Stamps*	0.0	6.0	4.2	1.1

^{*}Not offered by the A & P.

TABLE 4.14

FACTORS CONSIDERED MOST IMPORTANT IN MAKING CHOICE OF SUPER MARKET BY STORE GROUPS (FIRST CHOICE ONLY)

Factor	A & P %	Wrigley %	Kroger %	National %
October, 1960	(n=55)	(n=39)	(n=40)	(n=30)
Low price Quality of meats Quality of produce Cleanliness Location Variety Stamps	58.2 18.2 5.4 9.1 5.4 3.6 0.0	35.9 10.2 17.9 10.2 7.7 10.2 7.7	25.0 27.5 2.5 17.5 27.5 5.0 0.0	23.3 10.0 10.0 16.7 10.0 20.0 10.0
January, 1961	(n=45)	(n=31)	(n=46)	(n=27)
Low price Quality of meats Quality of produce Cleanliness Location Variety Stamps	55.6 15.6 6.7 4.4 4.4 13.3 0.0	16.1 22.6 16.1 9.7 22.6 12.9 0.0	17.4 23.9 13.0 8.7 17.4 6.6 6.6	14.8 11.1 11.1 37.0 11.1 11.1

both the October and January interviews. Each store customer group gave a significantly different pattern of first choices among the factors. A & P customers clearly are price-oriented on both waves. In the first wave, Wrigley and National customers also indicated price as the paramount consideration, yet at the end of three months both groups named different factors to support their chosen store. As will be discussed

in the image chapter, the ambivalence of the respondents in giving different factor rankings suggests such rankings may result from patronage and are not primarily causes for selection. Stamps, rated very low, seemed to be underrated, as evidenced by the fact that customers of stores offering stamps named Wednesday (double stamp day) more frequently than any other day of the week for doing their shopping.

EVALUATION OF STORE ATTRIBUTES BY EXPERTS

The findings relative to store attributes revealed the panel to be quite similar to other populations in the "reasons" given for choosing a super market. It will be recalled, however, that the study was designed to hold as many situational variables constant as possible. In the case of store attributes, the six super markets accounting for most of the patronage (all but two of the respondents in the second wave) were considered to have little actual differentiation. In order to obtain an objective comparison of the six super markets, a group of twenty super market executives enrolled in the Food Marketing Management curriculum at Michigan State University made a thorough comparison.

Each of the various factors was compared. As an example of the method, the price comparison study is related in detail. The judgments relative to the remaining factors will be summarized only.

The price study for all stores was made on the same day. The items selected for comparison included 140 commonly purchased products, including produce, meat, grocery, bakery, and specialty items. All were chosen in accordance with the best judgment of the group as to what normally would constitute a typical purchase by the housewife on her weekly excursion to the super market.

The evaluation was limited by two major factors: special promotions offered by individual stores and inability to cross-check prices for private label products (the A & P has many, National Tea has few). To control the effect of special sales inducements such as off-label, coupons, extra inducements, stamps and non-regular price leaders offered at the time of the price check, prices were recalculated where possible and the regular price of item listed. Overall, prices of most private label products were felt to largely balance—out between stores. The experts felt that the largest proportion of items on the check had been controlled. The bias from private label items was more difficult to control as they are normally lower priced than comparable national brands.

The A & P, as the only non-stamp store, had a factor added to compensate which was equivalent to the actual cost of stamps normally incurred by chains.

parison study. The maximum difference that a consumer could save on a \$25.00 purchase was 91 cents, or 3.7 per cent, using the lowest figure as the base. The A & P, Wrigley's and Kroger had almost identical sums. Investigation revealed that National had a change in price policy for their Lansing area stores just prior to the survey. In an earlier price comparison study, Schmidt's was lowest and National highest, with less than a 2 per cent differential overall. The panel of experts noted that the small differences between stores could easily fluctuate over a few week's time due to sensitivity to each other's pricing and to normal promotional events.

TABLE 4.15

RESULTS OF PRICE COMPARISON STUDY AMONG FIVE SUPER
MARKETS ADJUSTED TO A \$25.00 PURCHASE

Store	Adjusted Cost
National	\$24.37
Schmidt's	24.99
Kroger	25.22
A & P	25.27*
Wrigley	25.28

^{*}Includes 40¢ added to compensate for stamps given by others.

It seems apparent that the average consumer cannot readily judge which super market was "cheapest" where experts were unable to do so. Here strongly-held knowledge (verified

belief) seems to confirm the generalization that the strength of beliefs does not necessarily correspond with objective fact (Krech and Crutchfield, p. 174); therefore, the advertiser needs to ascertain what causes the discrepancies and how to change them. For example, one woman stated, "I have shopped around and know the A & P is 25 per cent cheaper." As the image chapter will show, each customer group "sees" her chosen store as having the lowest prices, with the exception of a strong price stereotype the A & P has been successful in establishing. While the A & P has many private brands which are very competitively priced, the experts concluded any advantage over competitive stores would be for items making up a small proportion of a week's purchases.

The A & P price image must be accounted for by other factors, for example, adherence to policies which would cultivate the image--cash price differential instead of stamps, conservative store appearance, and in the "feeling" conveyed by the copy and layout used in their advertisements.

The experts also evaluated each store for location, quality of meats and produce, variety of merchandise, physical attributes of building and fixtures, parking space, cleanliness and service. One store, Prince Bros., was not comparable, being a small store with limited facilities with a "quality" image, ". . . the place to buy meat when you are having company."

A major difference was location. The three located in the shopping center were approximately two miles from Spartan Village, the A & P three miles, and Schmidt's four miles (see map in appendix). Size of the stores varied from 13-16,000 sq. ft. for all but Wrigley, with 19,000 sq. ft. Schmidt's was considered the most attractive, incorporating ultra-modern architectural ideas, a factor which was found to give them the image of being progressive and high-priced. All stores were housed in relatively new buildings, had modern fixtures, and well-operated. Little difference was found in variety and quality of merchandise.

The consensus of the experts was that there was little actual difference among the stores other than the factor of distance.

PATTERNS OF MASS MEDIA AND INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

about the super market in her area? Of the three communication categories incorporated into the model of the communication process, intrapersonal or predispositional communication effect, as shown in the shopping patterns, accounts for more than half the choices made by residents. The remaining categories, interpersonal and media advertising, will be discussed in this section.

Looking first at advertising, the four subcategories--newspapers, radio, television, and direct
mail--are described in terms of exposure on the part of
the Spartan Villagers and the differential character of
the media themselves. No attempt was made in the study
to analyze the content of the messages beyond a few
general observations.

Newspaper readership will be given greater attention due to its preeminence as a super market advertising medium.

Newspaper Readership of Super Market Advertising.

Since its inception, the super market industry has consistently committed the bulk of its advertising expenditures, amounting to an estimated half-billion dollars annually, for space in newspapers. Little is known concerning the campaign effects of such advertising. The usual test applied is of the observation type--watching a respondent's behavior in terms of coupons clipped from advertisements, by direct inquiry such as asking customers if they read a particular ad, and by sales comparison methods. Two methods were used in the study: direct inquiry and a penetration test.

The various penetration tests in use adopt as their index of effectiveness the number of prospects who

are reached at various levels of penetration. The principal types of penetration tests are recognition tests, such as developed by Daniel Starch and Staff, and recall tests, represented by Gallup and Robinson. Both are widely accepted techniques (Advertising Research Foundation, 1956).

The Starch method was selected for testing the readership of advertising appearing in the Lansing State

Journal, the only newspaper other than the student newspaper published in the area, and which carried the advertising for all the super markets. Readership data were obtained that answered the following questions:

- 1. To what extent are super market advertisements read?
- Which advertisements receive the highest readership?
- 3. What days of the week do readers look for food advertisements?
- 4. Is readership related to the various sample characteristics?

The recognition method utilized four degrees of readership. Copies of the previous week's editions of the State Journal were opened, page by page, and the respondent asked to what extent he or she read each ad:

- 1. <u>Noted</u> the per cent of readers who remembemered that they had seen the advertisement in the particular issue.
- 2. <u>Seen-Associated</u> the per cent of readers who had seen or read any part of an ad which clearly indicated the principal portion of the message and the super market.

- 3. Read Most the per cent of readers who read 50 per cent or more of the copy in the ad.
- 4. <u>Coop Read</u> the per cent of the readers who read the "slide-rule" copy, usually at bottom of an ad, inserted by the super market to fulfill cooperative advertising contracts with suppliers.

The last category was included to obtain data which might give an indication to a long controversy over the effectiveness of such advertising. Many critics feel that such advertising is so ineffective that the custom should be discontinued.

Tables 4.16 to 4.22 summarize the data obtained.

All tables concerning readership are based on the readers of the <u>State Journal</u> only, as shown in Table 4.16. Reported first are the results of the direct inquiry questions, which gave results which, while crude, generally bore out the more precise findings of the penetration test.

The differential nature of the population studied is apparent when comparing with newspaper readership in more representative communities. Compared with the usual family coverage of 90-95 per cent nationally, about 80 per cent of the Villagers read newspapers regularly. For this reason, the advertising readership figures for readers and non-readers were cross tabulated against the demographic characteristics. Significant differences were found for two categories; new

residents and older families with children showed greater readership of the <u>State Journal</u>.

TABLE 4.16

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF NEWSPAPER READERSHIP

AMONG RESPONDENTS

Newspaper	October (n=189)	January (n=169)
Michigan State News only Lansing State Journal only Both Neither	25.9 25.9 25.9 22.3	33.8 26.0 25.4 14.8
	100.0	100.0

Analyzing the 52 per cent of the decision makers who read the <u>State Journal</u> reveals further evidence that the super market advertiser has difficulty in obtaining exposure in Spartan Village. Tables 4.17, 4.18, and 4.19 show the proportions of readers stating days they look for ads, the degree of attention paid to the ads appearing, and readership within individual ads. About 50 per cent look for ads on specific days. About 60 per cent read more than half the ads appearing on a given day, with the same percentage reading more than half within each ad read.

The readership recognition study roughly verified the data obtained by direct questioning but much more information becomes available.

TABLE 4.17

DISTRIBUTION OF DAYS ON WHICH READERS OF THE LANSING STATE

JOURNAL LOOK FOR SUPER MARKET ADVERTISING

(n=98)

Day	Percentage of Readers
No particular day	31.6
Thursday only	17.3
Wednesday and Thursday	16.3
Wednesday only	10.2
Everyday	7.1
Monday-Wednesday-Thursday	4.1
Monday and Thursday	3.1
Other combinations	10.2

TABLE 4.18

DEGREE OF STATED SUPER MARKET AD READERSHIP AMONG READERS

OF THE STATE JOURNAL

(n-98)

Degree of Readership	Percentage of Readers
Never look at food ads	8.1
Skim a few of the ads	31.3
Read about half of the ads	16.2
Read most of the ads	43.4

Each interviewer was provided with the four editions of the <u>State Journal</u> carrying super market advertising for the week prior to the interview. The decision-maker was asked to state whether she had noted any ads as the interviewer turned

each page of each edition carrying super market advertising.
When an ad had been noted, the interviewer then asked the respondent to indicate the extent of readership.

TABLE 4.19

DEGREE OF STATED READERSHIP OF INDIVIDUAL SUPER
MARKET ADVERTISEMENTS AMONG READERS
OF THE LANSING STATE JOURNAL

Degree of Readership (n=98)	Percentage of Readers
Scan the ad	32.3
Read less than half of the ad	4.0
Read about half of the ad	17.2
Read most of ad	46.5

The four editions carried sixteen ads. Those pertinent to the stores involved are shown in the appendix. It was found that the ads for stores outside the shopping area were noted by 10 to 20 per cent of the readers, although only six respondents reported shopping at any of the stores. These proved to be essentially the same readers who "read most" of the ads for super markets in the area.

Table 4.20 indicates the number of editions looked into by the readers of the <u>State Journal</u>. A suprisingly small 21 per cent had noted super market advertising in the four editions which carried super market advertising, emphasizing the selective exposure of this type of advertising.

TABLE 4.20

READERSHIP OF FOOD STORE ADVERTISING IN FOUR EDITIONS OF
THE LANSING STATE JOURNAL "LAST WEEK" USING
STARCH METHOD

(n=98)

Number of Editions "Last Week" in Which Food Advertisements Were Noted*	Per Cent	Cumulative Percentage
Four	21.4	21.4
Three	27.6	49.0
Two	22.4	71.4
One	10.2	81.6
None	13.3	• • • •
Don't remember	$\frac{5.1}{100.0}$	

^{*}Advertisements for super markets appeared on Monday through Thursday only (16 ads).

Over two-thirds of the readers had not read any coop advertising, one third had not "read most" in any ad, and 13 per cent had not noted any ads. At the other end, "read most" drops after four ads, with only 10 per cent of the readers doing so. About half the readers noted more than four ads.

Only about 10 per cent "read most" of more than four ads.

Table 4.22 shows the degree of readership for each of the advertisements inserted "last week" by the six super markets in the Spartan Village shopping area. Both the A & P and Prince ran more than one ad. As shown in the Appendix, Prince advertises under the name "Shoprite," the

TABLE 4.21

READERSHIP OF THE LANSING STATE JOURNAL ACCORDING TO TOTAL NUMBER OF SUPER MARKET ADS READ

"LAST WEEK"

(n=98)

Number of Ads	Relative Amounts of Each Ad Read by Percentage of Readers			
Read "Last Week" (Sixteen Ads)	"Noted	"Seen- Associated"	Read Most	"Coop Read"*
No entry	13.3	16.3	32.6	68.3
One	9.2	16.3	19.3	17.3
Two	8.2	9.2	10.2	5.1
Three	9.2	14.3	13.3	6.1
Four	7.1	11.2	13.3	3.1
Five	11.2	11.2	4.1	
Six	5.1	4.1	2.0	
Seven	9.2	6.1	2.0	
Eight	8.2	5.1	2.0	
Nine or more	19.3	6.1	1.0	
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

^{*}Only four "cooperative insertions" surveyed.

TABLE 4.22

READERSHIP OF THE LANSING STATE JOURNAL ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF ADS READ "LAST WEEK" FOR EACH SUPER MARKET

(n=98)

Super Market	-		ership for In		
Advertised	Did Not	"Noted"	"Seen-	Read	"Coop
	See Ad	Ad	Associated"	Most	Read"
A & P (Mon.)	54.1	43.9	31.6	22.4	*
A & P (Wed.)	50.0	50.0	40.7	29.5	12.2
Wrigley (Wed.)	57.1	42.9	32.7	21.4	10.2
Kroger (Wed.)	41.8	58.2	<u>53.1</u>	38.8	11.2
National (Wed.)	59.2	40.8	29.5	12.2	7.1
Prince (Mon.)	65.3	34.7	18.3	11.2	*
Prince (Tues.)	63.3	36.7	21.4	10.2	*
Prince (Thurs.)	54.1	45.9	26.5	17.3	*
Schmidt (Thurs.)	54.9	45.1	40.8	19.4	*

^{*}Not questioned on coop ads.

name used by several independent stores belonging to a voluntary wholesale association, who pool their merchandising efforts to offset the advantage of the big chain stores (many Spartan Villagers were unable to identify "Shoprite" with Prince, indicating the danger of such a split identity).

As expected, the stores attracting the largest patronage also obtain the highest readership ratings. This selectivity, however, was not as well-defined as expected between the major stores and the two smaller stores, with only about 10 per cent more readers "seeing" major store ads. This is due in part to those readers who appear to make a practice of reading super market advertising (less than 10 per cent of the readers accounted for over half of all the "read most" category - one respondent "read most" of every ad in every issue of the State Journal).

Noteworthy is the fact that the Kroger ad received the highest readership overall. All four major stores ran ads on Wednesday, yet the ad run by A & P on Monday, a supposedly poor day for food advertising, received almost as much readership. By looking into Table 4.23, showing readership of the ads by the store customers groups, it can be seen that the Monday A & P ad was "read most" by more customers of Kroger and National than the Wednesday ad.

every store except National, it is the store's customers who do the most reading. A rough ratio for "own" store customers by degree of reading is about 5:4:3:2. The pattern for "other" customers is erratic, in part due to the "pull" of copy and layout of the ads. For example, the Kroger ad consistently outpulls any other ad by all customer groups, and is able to hold interest at a very high rate throughout the ad, except for coop items. The results on "coop" readership again show the influence of the "compulsive" readers of super market ads in the group who could not be positively identified on any particular group characteristic.

The number of readers by store groups varies from 64 per cent of Wrigley customers to only 37 per cent for National (see footnote, Table 4.23).

Radio and Television. Traditionally, radio and television have been accorded a minor role in the advertising done by super markets nationally. Individual companies vary in usage, most allocating from 5-30 per cent of their advertising budget to the broadcast media. Yet these media are potentially important because of their very considerable audiences.

A check on the local broadcasting stations showed only Kroger and Wrigley to have used radio "last week," and Wrigley to have used television. Thus, for recall questions

TABLE 4.23

ANALYSIS OF READERSHIP OF INDIVIDUAL ADS BY CUSTOMERS OF THE FOUR MAJOR SUPER MARKETS

Super Market Customers and	Perd	centage	of Custome	ers Readi	ing Ads*
Relative Amounts of	A 8	k P	Wrigley	Kroger	National
Each Ad Read	(Mon)	(Wed)	(Wed)	(Wed)	(Wed)
Noted					
A & P Customers	55.2	70.0	48.0	65.5	51.7
Wrigley "	32.0	52.0	52.0	56.0	32.0
Kroger "	57.9	63.2	47.4	84.2	47.4
National "	45.4	9.1	27.3	27.3	45.5
Seen-Associated					
A & P Customers	44.8	65.5	37.9	62.1	37.9
Wrigley "	28.0	36.0	48.0	56.0	24.0
Kroger "	42.1	57.9	26.3	<u>73.7</u>	36.8
National "	27.3	0.0	18.2	18.2	27.3
Read Most		•			
A & P Customers	37.9	58.6	20.7	41.4	13.8
Wrigley "	12.0	24.0	32.0	48.0	12.0
Kroger "	31.6	26.3	26.3	57.9	15.8
National "	9.1	0.0	9.1	0.0	<u>9.1</u>
Coop Read**					
A & P Customers		20.1	3.4	10.3	6.7
Wrigley "		12.0	<u>24.0</u>	12.0	12.0
Kroger "		15.8	10.5	26.3	5.3
National "		0.0	9.1	0.0	9.1

^{**}Coop read evaluated for Wednesday ads only.

concerning content of TV commercials heard "last week," only Wrigley was tabulated.

Table 4.24 reveals that the radio and television audiences available to the advertiser were nearly as large as the newspaper audience. The Villagers were divided on radio station loyalty. Of the 79 per cent who listened to radio about 39 per cent listened to each of the two most popular stations. The two groups were significantly different on both their socio-economic and life-cycle characteristics, showing influence of radio programming policy. For television, one station was preferred by 66 per cent of the viewers, with the remainder scattered among the other local television station and stations in other cities.

TABLE 4.24

PERCENTAGE OF SPARTAN VILLAGERS ACCORDING
TO RADIO-TV EXPOSURE

(n=189)

Medium	Exposed	Unexposed
Radio	78.8	21.2
Television	70.9	29.1

The hours spent by the Villagers listening to radio were approximately the same as the national average of two hours a day (Nielsen, 1960). Television viewing was considerably less than the national average of six hours a day,

amounting to a little less than three hours for the Village. The pattern of viewing was otherwise similar to national patterns, with the evening hours attracting the largest audience. Overall, the opportunity to reach this student wife population is considerable. Table 4.25 shows the hours of listening and viewing.

TABLE 4.25

PERCENTAGE OF TELEVISION VIEWING AND RADIO LISTENING
BY HOURS PER DAY BY SET OWNERS

(n=189)

	Radio		Television		
Number of Hours	Before 6 p.m.	After 6 p.m.	Before 6 p.m.	After 6 p.m.	
One hour or less One to two hours	57.1 18.4	70.8 14.2	63.0 13.0	23.8 27.8	
More than two hours	33.8	15.0	15.0	39.4	

Recall of the radio commercials for Wrigley, where
the respondent had to indicate a portion of what she heard,
was about the same as "read most" by newspaper readers--27
per cent of listeners recalling a portion of the previous
week's commercials. Eighteen per cent of the television viewers
could recall the content of a Wrigley commercial, broadcast
once each weekday morning. Three of the eight people who had
changed to Wrigley between October and January stated they did

so because of the television commercials.

Direct Mail. Direct mailings had been made by Kroger and the A & P during the week prior to Wave I. All super markets sent mailed promotion to the Village in varying amounts during the three months between waves. Tables 4.26 and 4.27 show the number of respondents according to frequency and intensity of readership "last week" for Wave I. The results revealed direct mail to be an effective method for reaching this audience. Not only did 91 per cent of the panel receive direct mail, but only 3 per cent stated they did not read it. The 9 per cent stating they did not receive any direct mail was mainly due to deficiencies in mailing lists used by the super markets. Another factor hurting distribution was the use of an extra-large mailer which could not be inserted in the mail boxes in the apartment blocks. The mailman put them in a corner where many were never picked up.

TABLE 4.26

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF DIRECT MAIL READERSHIP
AMONG RESPONDENTS IN OCTOBER, 1960

(n=189)

Frequency of Readership	Total in Per Cent
Usually read	67.5
Sometimes read	20.2
Never read	3.2
Do not receive direct mail ads	9.0

TABLE 4.27

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENT RECALL OF DIRECT MAIL SUPER MARKET ADVERTISING IN OCTOBER, 1960

(n=189)

Recall of	Super	Market Dis	tributing	Direct Ma	il Ads
Ad Message	A & P	Wrigley	Kroger	National	Other
Content recalled	62.4	2.6	27.5	6.3	5.3
recalled No response	27.0 10.6	7.4 89.4	5.3 66.7	7.4 85.7	6.9 87.3

An indication of the effectiveness of direct mail was revealed in the patronage patterns "last week" on Wave I.

Both the A & P and Kroger had sent out direct mail pieces during that week. Approximately 10 per cent more Villagers made their major purchases in each of these stores "last week" than had indicated them as "first choice." Conversely, about 10 per cent fewer Villagers who had indicated Wrigley and National as their "first choice" made their major purchases there, switching instead to A & P and Kroger. All stores had used newspaper advertising that week. Wrigley was the largest user of the broadcast media. The inference is therefore plausible that it was the direct mail pieces which were responsible for the patronage shifts.

Summarizing direct mail, it must be concluded that it is potentially the most powerful mass medium in terms of

audience reached. It was also the most effective, at least on a short-term basis. The high percentage of readers indicates excellent acceptance. Direct mail is read, despite the opinions of some writers who refer to it as "junk mail." Certainly it proved an excellent device for reaching the newcomer, a very important criterion inasmuch as the decision—maker tends to cast his decision early when arriving in a new community.

Interpersonal Communications Patterns. As related in the theoretical background, face-to-face communication has been found to be an important influence. In Spartan Village, more than 80 per cent of the respondents stated they talked about super markets. Tables 4.28 to 4.30 reveal the number of people who talked to others, who they talked with, and the stores talked about primarily. Of the 16 per cent stating they did not talk to anyone about super markets, two-thirds were new arrivals at the time of the interview.

TABLE 4.28

PERCENTAGE OF PANEL TALKING "LAST WEEK" TO OTHERS
ABOUT SUPER MARKETS (OCTOBER)

Frequency	Per Cent
Never	16.4
Sometimes	62.4
Often	21.2

TABLE 4.29

PERSONS WITH WHOM RESPONDENTS TALKED "LAST WEEK" ABOUT SUPER MARKETS (OCTOBER)

Category	Most Frequently	Next Most Frequently	
Neighbor, same floor	52 .4 %	23.8%	
Neighbor, other	13.2	9.5	
Friend, school or job	9.0	4.7	
Relative	4.7	5.8	
Other	2.6	0.5	
None	18.0	55.0	

TABLE 4.30

SUPER MARKETS DISCUSSED "MOST" BY PANEL
"LAST WEEK" (OCTOBER)

Store	Per Cent	
A & P Kroger National Wrigley Other None Don't remember	20.6 12.7 11.1 10.1 15.8 18.0 11.7	Note: When categorized by store customers, roughly one-half of the percentages shown for each store were composed of customers of that store.

Summarizing the other questions concerning faceto-face communication patterns, it was found that 48 per cent
of the panel had talked to someone prior to making a decision
to patronize their preferred store. Twenty per cent of the
panel stated it was the most important influence in making
their decision. Of those talked to, neighbors accounted for
over half of this influence.

Further analyses will be made of the interpersonal patterns in Chapter VI.

ANALYSIS OF CHANGES IN STORE PREFERENCE

within the sample between October and January relative to store patronage. Of the original 189 members of the panel, twenty moved away, while forty-four shifted their preference to another store. The distribution of the 26 per cent who shifted allegiance shows the A & P the major loser with four-teen customers going elsewhere, or nearly 25 per cent of those preferring in October, while gaining only seven new Villagers (or 12 per cent). In two previous surveys, the A & P had maintained a constant percentage, therefore the decrease is meaningful in terms of the attitudinal profiles shown in Chapter V.

Kroger was the significant winner during the interim, losing six customers and gaining sixteen, up 25 per cent. There was little difference in the gains and losses of the remaining stores. The pattern of shifts is note-worthy, the A & P shifters scattering to all other stores, with National tending to be the largest gainer. National shifters resembled the A & P group. Wrigley shifters nearly all changed to Kroger. Kroger shifters were divided between the A & P and Wrigley. As will be seen in Chapter V, the

image analysis predicted that this would be the probable pattern of the changers.

There was no significant difference between old and new residents in the proportion of changers. Of the seventy-eight new residents, 23 per cent changed, while 27 per cent of the ninety-one older residents changed. Of the forty-four changers, 42 per cent were new residents and 50 per cent were old residents. No difference was found between the changers and non-changers on any of demographic or socio-economic variables.

TABLE 4.31

CHANGES IN STORE PREFERENCE OCCURRING IN PANEL BETWEEN OCTOBER, 1960 (n=189) AND JANUARY, 1961 (n=169)

		Direction	of Shift	
Chama				
Store	Moved	Lost to Other	Gained from	Net Gain
	Away	Stores	Other Stores	or Loss
A & P	4	14	7	-11
Wrigley	6	8	8	- 6
Kroger	5	6	16	+ 4
National	3	9	6	- 6
Prince Bros.	1	3	3	- 1
Schmidt's	0	2	3	+ 1
Other	1	2	1	- 2
Total	20	44	44	-20

TABLE 4.32

DISTRIBUTION OF CHANGERS IN PANEL, JANUARY, 1961

(n=44)

			First	Choice	in Jar	nuary 1	961	
First Choice in October 1960	A & P	Wrigley	Kroger	National	Prince	Schmidt	Other	Total
A & P		2	3	5	1	2	1	14
Wrigley	1		6	1				8
Kroger	3	3						6
National	2	2	3		1	1		9
Prince Bros.	1	1	1					3
Schmidt's			1		1			2
Other			2					2
Total	7	8	16	6	3	3	1	44

Analytical Framework for Analyzing "Changers." It was assumed that an unknown portion of the panel would change their first choice super market during the interval between the first and second waves. Chapters V and VI will describe the findings relative to attitudinal changes occurring in the panel, including the "changers." Findings from the pilot study, however, indicated that certain additional information would be helpful in order to provide a minimum account of a change in store patronage. Accordingly, the reinterview

questionnaire contained several questions (see Wave II

Questionnaire, Appendix, pp. 7.8) which provided data relative to three elements felt to be essential:

- 1. The "changer" must be given the opportunity to answer in terms of the new choice. In addition, such factors as satisfaction-dissatisfaction with old store are relevant, though they would not account for the direction of the new choice.
- 2. Questions for assessing each of the communications influences, together with specific information questions for categorizing reasons, if any, why the communications were effective. The channel and message are neither mutually exclusive nor both necessary for a complete response. however, answers which can provide information concerning message content as well as channel pressure assure a complete response. Probe-type questions were used on the assumption that respondents would tend to feel reasons for changing were self-evident and would tend to give superficial answers, e.g., "I felt Kroger did not charge as much."
- 3. The type of change had to be derived in order to find out if the respondent had learned new facts about the store she now preferred, or whether her attitudes had changed so that the new preference fitted them better.

These elements are shown graphically in the diagram below:

Old Choice (change due to dissatisfaction or greater interest in New)

New Choice (What attributes did store have that changer felt to be desirable?)

<u>Communications Channel</u> (Where did changer learn about considerations leading to change?)

Revaluation of choices (What caused the change?)

After an interviewer had determined that a respondent had shifted her store preference, he asked the question, "When you were interviewed in October, you stated that (former super market) was your first choice. Why did you stop going to (former choice)?" Interviewers were instructed to probe to find out if a specific incident might have triggered the switch, such as a refusal to cash a check. It was already known from the pilot study and Wave I that respondents would tend to answer in terms of store attributes (low price, quality of meats, quality of produce, etc.) to such a general question. The question also served to stimulate conversation about the change, encouraging better recall for the later questions. In eliciting information about other influences playing a part in the switch, experience had warned us not to suggest in any way that the "reasons" given by a respondent were not valid so as not to incur her displeasure. Rightly or wrongly, the respondents seemed to firmly believe her choice had the "best" prices, meats, etc., a phenomenon which might be referred to as "super market rationalization."

Following the probe question, a more directed question was asked to assess the role of satisfaction-dissatisfaction in the change process. It was hypothesized that two types of changers would emerge: those who were "pushed" away from old store because of unfavorable experience, and those who changed

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for other reasons although satisfied with old store, or "pulled" away from old store. The question was asked, "Would you say, in general, that you were satisfied or dissatisfied with the (old store) at the time you decided to change?" The respondent was asked to check a seven-step scale ranging from "very satisfied" to "very dissatisfied."

To find out if any specific "pull" occurred relating to the new choice, a probe-type question was asked, "How did you happen to decide to patronize new store?"

Actual channel influence questions were then given, the first dealing with family influence ("Did anyone in your family say anything about (new store) before you changed?"), and repeated for the other face-to-face and the various advertising channels. Finally, the respondent was queried as to the relative importance of the channel influences so as to distinguish between those which were contributory and those which were effective: "Summing up, now, what was the most important source of information which helped you to decide upon the (new store)?"

In review, the changer questions attempted to (1) get an indication of the role of satisfaction-dissatisfaction;

(2) find out if a store-related incident might have occurred to "cause" change; (3) find out if respondent was exposed to face-to-face and mass communications influences; (4) assess

which influence was felt by the respondent to be a decisive factor.

The result of the exposure and assessment questions enabled an impact rating to be made for the group which could be construed to be a one measure of effectiveness for the message influences.

Findings. Table 4.33 reveals a completely unexpected finding. Only 25 per cent of the changers stated they were dissatisfied with their former preference while 42 per cent actually expressed a high degree of satisfaction. The suggestion is that the majority of changers do so because of "pull" to the new store rather than a "push" away from their former choice.

TABLE 4.33

SATISFACTION INDEX OF CHANGERS WITH "OLD" STORE
AT TIME OF CHANGE

(n=44)

Index of Satisfaction	Percentage
Very satisfied	11.6
Quite satisfied	30.2
Slightly satisfied	16.3
No feeling	16.3
Slightly dissatisfied	4.6
Quite dissatisfied	9.3
Very dissatisfied	4.6
No response	7.0

Table 4.34 shows the reasons given by the changers, for changing stores, classified into ten categories from the responses to the open-end question. The reasons given for leaving the store formerly preferred are almost the same as the responses given by the entire panel relative to the factors considered most important in selecting a super market (see Table 4.12). However, when they discussed the reasons they preferred the new store, an entirely new pattern emerges. Price is no longer seen as being of paramount importance. The mention of quality of meats and produce also drops dramatically. Convenience remains the same. Instead of store attributes, the changers now indicate the effects of communications influences on their decision, face-to-face influence being the most important followed by advertising. While it can be argued that the communications influences concerned store factors, it must be remembered that the major stores were nearly equivalent choices in fact, and that the changers were generally satisfied before switching preferences. seems reasonable, therefore, to conjecture that the communication influences themselves influenced attitudes precipitaing change among many of the changers.

TABLE 4.34

PERCENTAGE OF CHANGERS ACCORDING TO STATED REASONS FOR CHANGING PREFERENCE

(n=44)

Factor	Reason for Leaving Old Store	Reason for Preferring New Store
Price	18.6	9.3
Quality of meats/produce	18.6	7.0
Convenience	14.0	14.0
Face-to-face talk	14.0	23.2
Stamps	11.6	16.3
Advertising	7.0	14.0
Specific incident	7.0	
Other reasons	6.9	6.9
Cleanliness/attractiveness	2.3	0.0
Formerly patronized store		9.3

One event occurred during the interim between the two waves which may have contributed to the emergence of the Kroger store as the principal winner in the competition for customers. The A & P began advertising in the State News, the campus daily, shortly after Wave I had been completed.

The ads were usually about forty column inches in size and appeared once each week. In November, the Kroger Company began a series of full page ads, also on a once-a-week basis. Samples of the advertisements by the two stores are included in the Appendix. In the judgment of members of the Department of Advertising, MSU, the Kroger advertisements were clearly superior to the A & P advertisements. (The A & P ads were prepared by the local store manager, the Kroger ads

were prepared by the advertising manager in the Kroger divisional office.)

News prior to the readership study on Wave I, no readership results were obtained. Therefore, approximately 10 per cent of the panel were contacted during the last week of November and shown copies of advertisements by the two stores. The Kroger advertisements were selected as "best" by all but one person. The implication is that the A & P may have actually suffered by their very act of advertising in the State News.

Table 4.35 indicates the percentage of changers who could remember seeing specific advertisements for their new store choice prior to changing their preference. Of the 25 per cent of changers who "saw" ads in the <u>State News</u>, almost four-fifths were respondents who changed to Kroger.

Table 4.36 shows the relative importance accorded to the various media by the changers. Here, direct mail is revealed as the second most important medium, but newspaper advertising leads by a wide margin.

Table 4.37 shows the pattern of interpersonal influence. The influence of neighbors is not as strong as expected, the changers showing no significant differences between the four types. Interpersonal influence acting as a source of social pressure and support, as well as acting

TABLE 4.35

PERCENTAGE OF CHANGERS WHO SAW NEWSPAPER ADS FOR CURRENT FIRST CHOICE SUPER MARKET BEFORE PATRONIZING IT

(n=44)

Newspaper	Percentage		
Saw no ads	37.2		
Lansing State Journal	30.2		
Michigan State News	13.9		
Saw ads in both papers	11.6		
No response	<u>7.0</u>		
	100.0		

TABLE 4.36

CHANGERS' RATINGS OF MASS MEDIA WHICH ADVERTISED CURRENT FIRST CHOICE SUPER MARKET BEFORE CHANGER PATRONIZED IT (n=44)

Rating of	Source of Information				
Media	Newspaper	Radio	TV	Direct Mail	
Important					
Recalled specific ac	39.5	4.7	7. °C	18.6	
Didn't recall ad	13.9	4.7	4.7	27.9	
Not Important					
Recalled specific ac	4.7	9.3	7.0	20.9	
Didn't recall ad	34.9	74.4	74.4	25.6	
No response	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.0	
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	

TABLE 4.37

CHANGERS' RATINGS OF TYPES OF FACE-TO-FACE SOURCES

(n=44)

	Source of Information					
Rating of Source	Neighbor, Same Floor	Neighbor, Other	Friend, Not Neighbor	Other (Relatives, etc.)		
Important						
Talked	18.6	13.9	11.6	18.6		
Didn't talk	16.3	11.6	16.3	30.3		
Not Important						
Talked	11.6	9.3	7.0	0.0		
Didn't talk	46.5	58.1	58.1	44.2		
No Response	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.0		
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		

as a channel, can be seen in the responses of those rating other people as "important," but had not talked to anyone. Even without direct conversation interpersonal influence is apparent. The tendency to follow others can be seen, for example, in the 30 per cent who considered relatives important but did not talk ("mother used to shop there.")

Table 4.38 reveals the relative rankings accorded three message types: in first place is predisposition; second is face-to-face; and third is advertising. All were shown to be important factors in the decision process.

TABLE 4.38

PERCENTAGE RANKING OF INFORMATION SOURCES STATED BY
CHANGERS AS INFLUENCING THEM TO PATRONIZE
CURRENT FIRST CHOICE SUPER MARKET

(n=44)

	Source	of Information	n
Ranking	Looking for Self	Face-to-face	Advertising
Most important	37.2	32.6	23.3
Second Third	39.5 14.0	23.3 25.6	18.6 3 4. 9
No response	9.3	18.6	23.3
	100.0	100.0	100.0

Group Influence. Face-to-face communication has been revealed as an important factor in super market choice. However, as Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955, Part I) point out, the influence one person may exert on another not only depends upon the relationship between the two, but also upon their relationship to the primary groups to which they belong. Primary groups can be classified as (1) the informal groupings, such as the family, neighbors, and other friends, and (2) more formal groups, such as club and church organizations. "Membership" implies internalization to some degree of the group norms and values by the individual.

While this study was not designed to investigate the influence of reference groups in a systematic manner, it

was felt that the residents living on the same floor of an apartment block would tend to form friendships with one another. The informal groups thus formed would then develop norms and expectations concerning food store choice, a topic of common interest.

The importance of group influence as a variable intervening between the mass media and the masses to modify message effect has been "rediscovered" only recently (<u>Lazarsfeld</u>, et al. (1948) Katz and Lazarsfeld, 1955; Rogers and Beal, 1958; Festinger, et al., 1950).

There have been few studies in the marketing-advertising area which have attempted to assess group influence.

Whyte (1954) found that home air conditioners were clustered rather than randomly distributed in homogeneous neighborhoods, although he found no evidence that the influence extended to the brand purchased. Glock (1955) found significant clusterings of smokers and non-smokers within work and friendship groups, evidencing social pressures. Fisk (1956) found reference groups in food buying are based on kinship more often than propinguity.

The major methodological problem was how to take account of interpersonal relations and still preserve the economy and representativeness of the random, cross-sectional sample. By defining the reference group to be studied as those residents living on the same floor of an apartment

dwelling, the panel was designed to include fifty-five floors of the 236 floors comprising Spartan Village complex. Every new and every other old resident was interviewed on each floor. By comparing store patronage patterns by floors at the beginning and the end of the study period, some evidence of group influence might be obtained. Assuming new residents to be more likely to be influenced by such pressure, there would be a bias in favor of a positive finding due to the fact that nearly half of the panel were newly-arrived.

Analysis of Group Influence on Changers. Due to the complex probabilities involved in comparing the two waves, a second check on group influence was designed, using enumeration statistics, to account for the forty-three changers found in Wave II.

Each family in the panel was assigned an arbitrary weight, based on position in an "agreement pattern." The highest weight was accorded to patterns which had the lowest probability of occurring, e.g., there were eight floors on which four families were interviewed and where three of the four families chose the same store. In Table 4.39, this is shown as a "3-1" agreement pattern. The eight floors included thirty-two families, twenty-four of which are shown as being "with majority" and eight as "not with majority."

TABLE 4.39

POSITION OF FAMILIES IN AGREEMENT PATTERNS, OCTOBER, 1960

(n - 188)

Agreement Patterns Family Position				
With Majority	Not with Majority	Number of Floors	With Majority	Not with Majority
3	1	8	24	8
3	1-1	1	3	2
2	0	5	10	
2	1	5	10	5
2-2	0	2	8	
2-2	1	2	<u>8</u> 63	2
	2-1-1	9		36
	2-1-1-1	2		10
	1-1	2		4
	1-1-1	14		42
•	1-1-1	4		16
				125

The question was asked: is the passage of time or the influence of floor groups effective in raising or lowering the proportion of residents patronizing the same stores on their respective floors?

Inasmuch as the changers completely describe the movement between the "with" and "not with" categories between waves, the following contingency table could be constructed:

(Note: Only 43 of the 44 families who changed their store preference are shown, one family was omitted.)

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Ja	n	u	a	r١	7

October	With Majority	Not with Majority	Total
With Majority	3	5	8
Not with Majori	ty <u>10</u>	<u>25</u>	<u>35</u>
Total	13	30	43

Because the proportions are not independent, the null hypothesis that the difference between the two proportions was zero was tested by using the test for correlated proportions. The increase in the proportion patronizing the same stores was significant at the .05 level. The hypothesis that this particular type of a reference group would influence changes in super market preference was therefore accepted.

The conclusion follows that, for Spartan Villagers, group influence arising from contiguous dwellings within apartment blocks is positively related to changes in super market preferences.

While this arbitrarily defined reference group was thus shown to be a factor in patronage changes, its importance was not clearly established in view of the small number of respondents involved; the net gain of five in the "with majority" category barely met the level of significance. It suggests, however, that had we accounted for other reference groups, group influence would have been shown to have played an even greater role in influencing

super market patronage during the three-month period. As shown in Table 4.37, many changers reported that other neighbors, friends, work associates, etc., were important sources of information about super markets. This study, however, was not designed to investigate these relationships in a systematic manner.

The finding relative to floor influence thus agrees with the considerable evidence supporting the existence of group influence. Neighborhood groupings may give rise to "group norms" about super markets which will influence the patronage of some of its members.

SUMMARY

The objective of this chapter was to set forth a description of the population studied in terms of their socio-demographic characteristics, communications and store behavior patterns. Validation by further research into a more extended environment is needed. Yet many of the above findings suggest profitable application by the practitioner.

The analysis reveals that the consumer tends to respond in accordance with a standard pattern of "acceptable" responses when asked to give reasons for choosing a particular store. As will be seen in the next chapter, these reasons seem to reflect social norms and values which are selectively perceived in the store people prefer among

alternative stores which are objectively comparable. In the aggregate, factors stated as most important in selecting a super market resembled those reported by similar studies: price, quality of meats and produce, cleanliness, location, and variety of merchandise. However, analysis of these factors by store customer groups over time indicated such rankings may result from patronage and are not primarily causes for selection.

Factors for store choice should not be limited to the immediate situational factors surrounding an economic object such as a super market, but extended to other social and functional influences which operate in shaping and preserving the beliefs and attitudes people have toward the object.

Reviewing the findings concerning patterns of shopping behavior patterns, the members of the panel tended to:

- (1) shop alone or with members of the family not with others.
- (2) choose a super market previously patronized when moving to a new area.
- (3) shop once a week for food needs, do all their shopping in one store.
- (4) make super market shopping a principal activity which is seldom done in connection with other shopping activities.
- (5) investigate alternative super markets within a short time after arriving in the community.
- (6) establish patterns for preference that remained stable for the majority of the residents.

- (7) select among super markets according to socioeconomic status.
- (8) select among super markets according to age categories.
- (9) in 91.6 per cent of the families, the wife decided which super market to patronize.
- (10) patronize own store each week; only one in five spend more at another store.

From the findings on communication patterns:

- (1) new residents tended to read newspapers more than old.
- (2) respondents in the older age categories and who had children tended to read newspapers more than those who were in younger age categories without children.
- (3) less than half of the <u>State Journal</u> readers saw super market advertising in more than two of the four editions carry advertising "last week."
- (4) of the sixteen super market ads appearing "last week," 13 per cent of those reading the newspaper had not noted any ads, one-third had not "read most" of any ad, and two-thirds had not read the "coop" portion of any ad.
- (5) the same small group (about 10 per cent) of readers appeared to account for a large proportion of "read most" and "coop" readership.
- (6) neither the position of an ad in a newspaper nor the day of the week it appeared seemed to affect the readership scores.
- (7) respondents tended to read the ads for their chosen store more than ads of other stores. Readership scores by Starch categories for "own" store ad revealed a 50:40:30 per cent pattern, but varied widely for ads of alternative stores.
- (8) Kroger had the highest readership of any ads, judged to be a function of their superior treatment.
- (9) direct mail was revealed as an effective mass per cent medium, at least on a short term basis, by the 10 per cent net gain in patronage "last week" by two stores using it.
- (10) most respondents talk about their chosen super market, usually to friends and neighbors.

- (11) face-to-face communication patterns revealed that each major super market was talked about "last week" by 10-20 per cent of the panel.
- (12) overall, each of the four major media and the face-to-face channel had nearly the same number of people in their respective audiences, about 80 per cent of the panel, "last week."

Relative to "changers," the findings indicated:

- (1) about 25 per cent of the panel changed preference in a three-month period.
- (2) there was no difference between changers and non-changers according to demographic and socio-economic characteristics, or length or residence in the community.
- (3) changers tended to be satisfied with previously preferred super market at time of change, and "pulled" to a new choice.
- (4) the reasons stated for leaving a store resembled "conventional" reasons usually given for selecting a super market.
- (5) interpersonal influence was rated as important by 30 per cent of the panel even when verbal contact was not reported.
- (6) 37 per cent of the changers rated "self" as most important source of information, 33 per cent said "face-to-face sources, and 23 per cent stated advertising was most important.
- (7) 53 per cent of the changers rated newspapers an important source of information concerning super markets, 19 per cent stated direct mail was important, while radio and television were rated as important by less than 10 per cent.
- (8) the influence of reference groups, defined as the families living on the same floor of an apartment dwelling, was positively related to changes in super market preference.

CHAPTER V

SUPER MARKET IMAGES

The data from the semantic differential provided an opportunity to investigate two attributes of the measuring instrument: (1) its ability to provide graphic images which reveal both the quality and intensity of the feelings consumers hold toward an economic object such as a super market, and (2) the use of this data for clustering the underlying images (profiles of stores) into a small number of representative variables, or types. The pilot study revealed both could generate valuable insights for guiding management in taking reinforcing or remedial action.

The central concept is that of "image," which was discussed in Chapter II. The first section will detail the methodology and findings on the graphic images. In the second section, the typologies resulting from applying linkage analysis will be presented. The methodology and findings are discussed relative to their theoretical and practical implications in the summary.

GRAPHIC IMAGES

In this section, two ways of graphically describing the quality and intensity of the attitudes held by the panel toward the super markets are investigated: (1) in profile form, and (2) in three-dimensional form.

The data for constructing the graphic images were obtained from the semantic differential described in Chapter III. From a theoretical viewpoint, it was assumed that the connotative images of the super markets are constantly being modified over time due to the impact of communications about them on the consumer: (1) face-to-face contact with others, (2) communication from the mass media (primarily advertising), and (3) self-messages arising from predispositions, direct experience, or personality changes.

Several systems of comparison will be shown:

A. <u>Profiles</u>

- 1. Comparisons of the various store images by the entire panel at a given time and between points in time.
- Comparisons by panel sub-groups of the various store images held by the groups at a given time and between points in time.

B. Three-dimensional Analysis

- 1. Comparisons of the various store images held by customer groups, using three scales, at a given time.
- 2. Comparisons of the various store images held by customer groups, using three scales, at different points in time.

The graphic images shown in Figs. 5.1 - 5.23 fall into two categories. Shown first (5.1 - 5.15) are the store images in the form of profiles. Second, the data is presented in three-dimensional form.

Procedure for Constructing Profiles. The nine scales on which each store concept was evaluated were equalinterval ordinal scales. Each of the seven intervals was weighted by assigning a weight of one to seven. Individual responses were entered onto IBM cards. These in turn were converted into individual and group mean scores for each scale by computing the cumulative total of frequencies times interval weights divided by the total number of responses.

The group means were than plotted in graphic form to yield profiles of each store concept.

For the various profiles, when <u>n's</u> and sizes of variance are taken into consideration, means which are .5 or more of an interval from the neutral (4) position at the center of the scale can be considered significantly greater than 4 at the .05 level for most scales. Standard errors of the means ranged from about .2 to .4 or an interval. By this criterion it can be said the concepts touch off connotative mediating responses indicating strong evaluative meanings, or attitudes (McNelly, 1961, p. 29).

Single Item Evaluation. Differences between means for store couplets along the adjectival scale can also be analyzed. For example, in Fig. 5.1, the difference between the means on the clean/dirty scale for the A & P and Wrigley are significant at the .05 level (t = 1.85 > 5.05 = 1.66, df

CONSERVATIVE UNFRIENDLY EXPENSIVE BAD UNFAIR DIRTY LOW CLASS UNPLEASANT DISTANT Fig. 5.1 -- Profiles of ratings by random sample of 125 respondents from the January, 1960 pilot study. 12,000 min NATIONAL SCHNIDT PRINCE KEY IDEAL STORE KROCER -WRIGLEY PROGRESSIVE INEXPENSIVE HIGH CLASS PLEASANT FRIENDLY CLEAN CLOSE GOOD FAIR

CONSERVATIVE LOW CLASS UNFRIENDLY EXPENSIVE DIRTY DISTANT. BAD UNFAIR UNPLEASANT SCHNIDT NATIONAL PRINCE KEY IDEAL STORE WRIGLEY KROGER PROGRESSIVE INEXPENSIVE HIGH CLASS FRIENDLY PLEASANT CLOSE CLEAN FAIR

Fig. 5.2 -- Profiles of ratings by entire panel on Wave I, October, 1960.

155 UNFRIENDLY EXPENSIVE CONSERVATIVE LOW CLASS DIRTY BAD UNFAIR UNPLEASANT NATIONAL PRINCE SCHNIDT KEY Fig. 5.3 -- Profiles of ratings by entire panel on Wave II, January, 1961. IDEAL STORE WRIGLEY A & P KROGER PROGRESSIVE INEXPENSIVE HIGH CLASS FRIENDLY PLEASANT CLOSE CLEAN GOOD FAIR

= 95). On the other hand, Kroger and National show no significant difference on the inexpensive / expensive scale (t = .59 < t .05 = 1.66, df = 95).

Why did the Wrigley store depart significantly on the clean / dirty scale as compared to the other stores on the pilot study? Several respondents said it was a "messy" store. Professional super market people reported the checkout counters were poorly arranged and that stocking of shelves during busy hours caused cluttered aisles. Dark walls and a low ceiling contributed to a feeling of "dirty" in the sense of not being "clean-bright-white." More definitive reasons could conceivably have been obtained through depth interviews. In the case of Wrigley, it happened that the store was remodeled following the pilot study, eliminating most of the objectionable physical features noted above. It is interesting to note that the Wrigley profile for January (Fig. 5.2) shows a nonsignificant variation from the means of the other stores. The Wrigley mean was 3.8 in the pretest, and 3.0 in the January 1961, wave.

The Kroger super market, ranked third in overall preference in the pilot study, rose to first place among the stores at the time of the January, 1961, wave. The profile data show the evolution of its increasing popularity (Figs. 5.1, 5.2, and 5.3). It is noteworthy that the price

scale remained almost exactly the same throughout, while
there was an increase in favorability toward "fair,"

"pleasant," and "friendly." Theme of Kroger advertising
messages stressed "let's go Krogering--the happy way to shop!"

In Wave II, Kroger clearly stands out on these scales, suggesting that customers were moved in the desired direction
by non-price appeals.

<u>Control Concept</u>. To provide a realistic basis for evaluating direction and intensity of attitudes other than by inter-store comparisons, ratings were obtained on a seventh concept, "My Ideal Store."

The profiles for the control concept show the consumer to have decided expectations of her super market. While more extreme than the competitive store concepts on the clearly evaluative scales, as might be expected, it was not merely a matter of the respondent checking the extremes on the scales. The nine pairs of polar adjectives selected following the pilot study included four pairs from the classic list of fifty word pairs factor-analyzed by Osgood (1957, Chap. 2) having heavy factor loadings on the evaluative dimension. The remaining five pairs (expensive / inexpensive, friendly / unfriendly, progressive / conservative, close / distant, high class / low class) were included because they were felt to be meaningful in the context of

super markets and thus more appropriate to the problem.

For example, the reaction to progressive / conservative was not in the anticipated direction. assumed that the often-observed tendency of Americans to prefer the "new and different," referred to by the economist as "innovistic competition" (Barnet, 1956) and by the sociologist as a major value-orientation (Williams, 1956), would be strong in the case of super markets. The profiles indicate that this generalization should be interpreted with caution as a factor in the selection of super markets. Schmidt's judged by an independent jury of super market executives to be the most "modern" of the stores, was also seen by the panel as the most progressive. However, this factor was a deterrent for many potential customers among the respondents, a frequent comment being that Schmidt's was expensive (the store was actually among the lowest in prices).

Further evidence of the utility of the control concept can be seen by inspecting the profiles on the clean / dirty scale. This scale consistently received the highest rating from the respondents, showing cleanliness to be of prime importance. The only exception can be seen in Fig. 5.10, where the customers of the A & P (the store suffering the greatest customer loss during the study period) tended to place less stress upon this factor. It will be recalled that the

customers of the National store (Table 4.14) chose cleanliness as the most important factor for patronizing this
store. The attitudinal profiles for the National customers
also revealed this group to have the highest mean scores on
the clean / dirty dimension for both the ideal and own store
concepts. National, the newest of the stores, apparently
was doing the best job in meeting the criteria many women
set forth under "cleanliness." (For the panel as a whole,
women with children tended to select "cleanliness" as an
important factor in store choice to a much greater degree
than women without children. One might speculate that there
is a keener awareness of the need for cleanliness among young
mothers arising from the current norms surrounding baby
care.)

The findings on shopper preference for cleanliness in super markets supports findings by the Jewel Food Stores in Chicago, who now actively promote their stores as "clean and white" (Martineau, 1957, p. 179).

Using Fig. 5.2 (mean scores for entire panel of 189 respondents on Wave I) as a basis for describing the "Ideal" profile, five of the adjectival scales (good / bad, fair/ unfair, pleasant / unpleasant, clean/ dirty, friendly / unfriendly) have means ranging from 1.4 to 2.0. Price (expensive / inexpensive), 2.6, and location convenience (close / distant),

at 2.4 were not as strong as anticipated.

Variability about the means showed the greatest dispersion for expensive / inexpensive, somewhat less for progressive / conservative, and low class / high class. The remainder of the scales showed very little variability.

Profile findings for Panel. Figures 5.1 - 5.3 are the profiles obtained for the six super markets on three separate occasions. Fig. 5.1 reveals the profiles of mean scores for the sample used in the pilot study in January, 1960. They are included inasmuch as the data were obtained from a completely different sample and at an earlier time, thus giving a richer basis for evaluating the semantic differential against the usual criteria for measuring instruments: objectivity, reliability, validity, sensitivity, comparability, and utility.

The profiles present a readily discernible patterning of attitudes. The reliability of the instrument can be noted in the very similar profiles in Figs. 5.1 - 5.3, despite the time difference for all three and the different sets of respondents studied (Fig. 5.1 versus 5.2 - 5.3).

The validity of the instrument is evidenced by close / distant scale. The shopping center stores were located approximately two miles from Spartan Village, the A & P was three miles, while Schmidt's was four miles distant. The

means for the shopping center stores are almost identical, the A & P and Schmidt means deviate almost in proportion (2:3:4) to the actual physical distance. The difference in the mean scores for the "Ideal" concept in Fig. 5.1 as compared with the Wave I and II profiles in Figs. 5.2--5.3 can be accounted for by the fact that the pilot study included respondents living in another married housing development located a half-mile closer to the shopping center, they tended to regard location convenience as more desirable in their "ideal" scores. Likewise, the mean scores for A & P and Schmidt's show a greater dispersion in the pilot study profiles, but are proportionally similar to the panel profiles.

Profiles of Changers and Non-changers. Figs. 5.4

through 5.7 reveal the profiles for changers and non-changers

on Waves I and II. The profiles for Wave I were obtained

by taking the changers and non-changers, as ascertained in

Wave II, and extracting their IBM data cards from Wave I

for analysis. The profiles for the non-changers remain

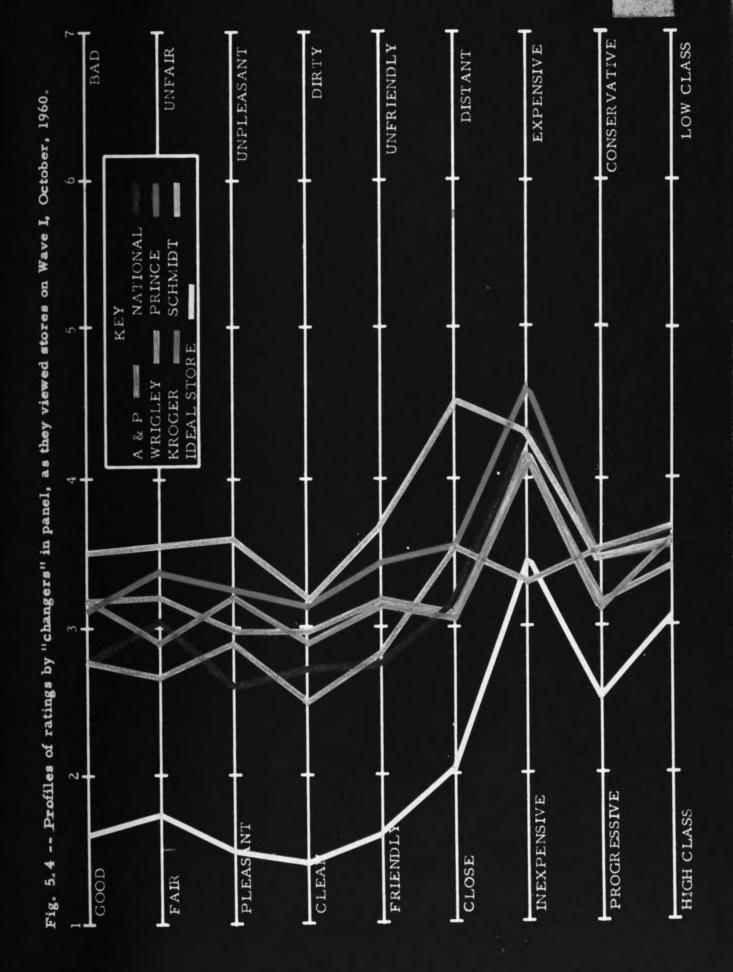
relatively stable, the only significant change being in the

unfavorable shift on the expensive / inexpensive scale

for the A & P. The changers show decided shifts on many

items. Noteworthy are the significant shifts in favor
ability toward "fair," "pleasant," "clean," and "friendly"

for the Kroger store on Wave II. Kroger, it will be remembered,



CONSERVATIVE DIRTY UNFRIENDLY EXPENSIVE LOW CLASS UNFAIR UNPLEASANT DISTANT Fig. 5.5 -- Profiles of ratings by "changers" in the panel, as they viewed stores on Wave II, January, 1961. PRINCE KROGER PROGRESSIVE INEXPENSIVE HIGH CLASS ANT FRIENDLY CLOSE PLEA CLEA FAIR

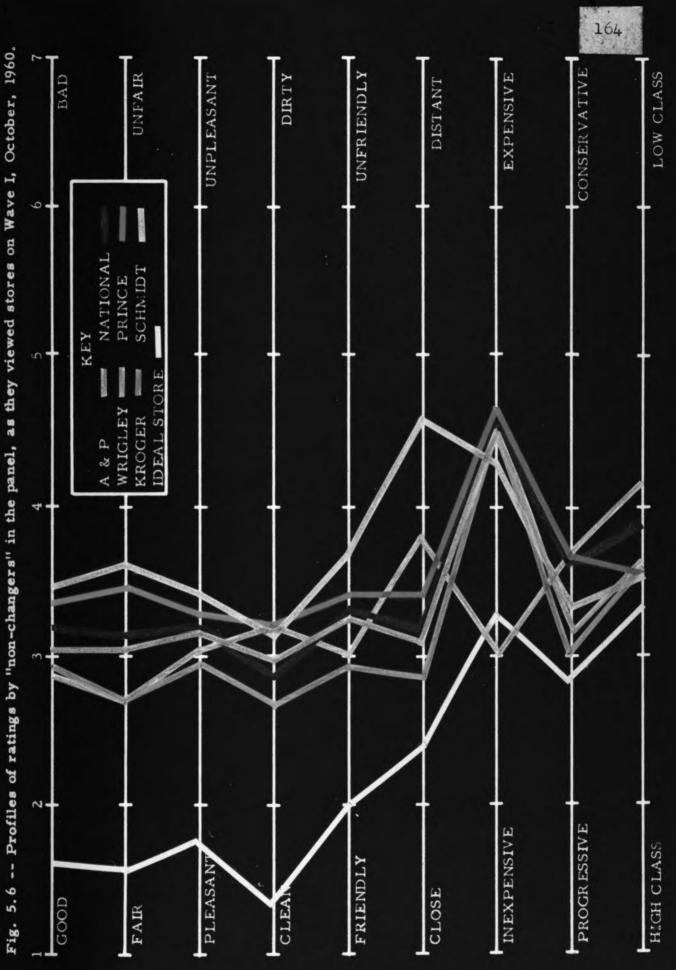


Fig. 5.7 -- Profiles of ratings by "non-changers" in the panel, as they viewed stores on Wave IL, January, 1961. CONSERVATIVE LOW CLASS EXPENSIVE UNFRIENDLY UNFAIR BAD UNPLEASANT NATIONAL SCHNIDT PRINCE KEY WRIGLEY KROGER === IDEAL STORE PROGRESSIVE INEXPENSIVE HIGH CLASS FRIENDLY PLEASANT CLOSE CLEAN FALK

had the largest gain in patronage during the study period. The A & P, which lost the greatest number of customers, shows a very significant shift on the clean / dirty scale in an unfavorable direction, suggesting that the "cleanliness" factor may have been a major reason for the patronage loss.

Profiles of Customer Groups. Figs. 5.8 - 5.15 show the profiles of each of the major customer groups toward the major super markets on Waves I and II. Minor stores were excluded due to the small \underline{n} 's.

A brief inspection of this group of charts reveals clearly that each group sees its chosen store as being closest to the "ideal" image, significantly so on those adjectives with high evaluative factor loadings. On those which tended to be more denotative than connotative (price and distance) there is still a marked tendency to "see" one's own store as closer and less expensive than the consensus of other groups. For example, the A & P, physically about 50 per cent more distant than the other major stores and so rated by the entire panel, is significantly closer to its customers.

The major exception to the "own store-ideal" phenomenon was the universal agreement among the panel that the A & P was the most inexpensive among the stores. It

Fig. 5.8 -- Profiles of ratings by A & P customers in October, 1960.

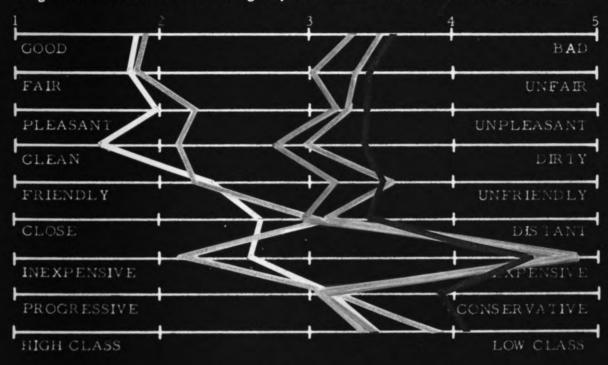


Fig. 5.9 -- Profiles of ratings by Wrigley customers in October, 1960.

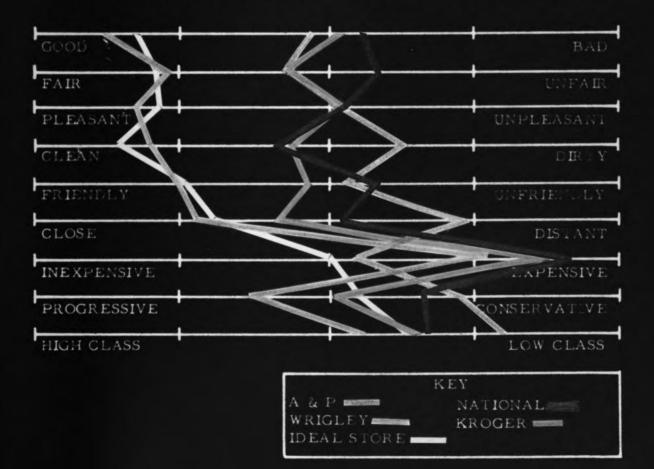


Fig. 5.10 -- Profiles of ratings by A & P customers in January, 1961.

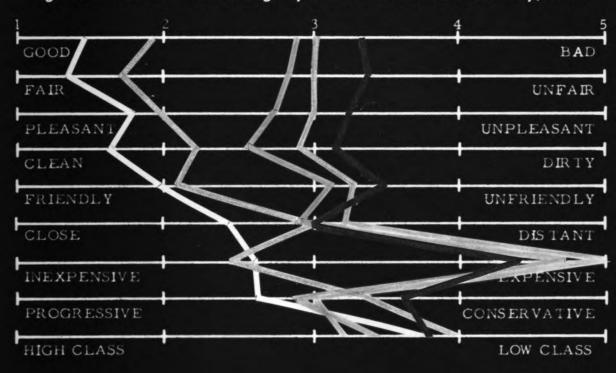
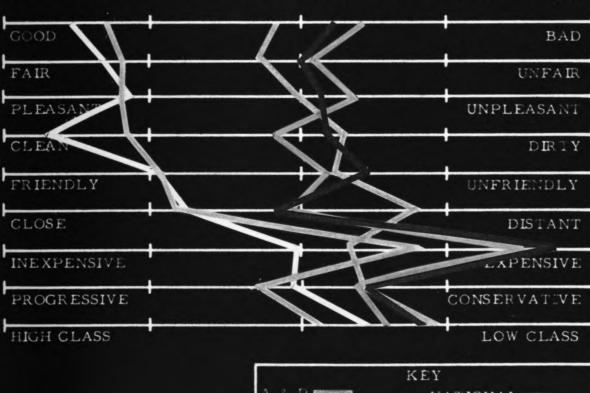


Fig. 5.11 -- Profiles of ratings by Wrigley customers in January, 1961.



KEY
A & P NATIONAL
WRIGLEY KROGER
IDEAL STORE

Fig. 5.12 -- Profiles of ratings by Kroger customers in October, 1960.

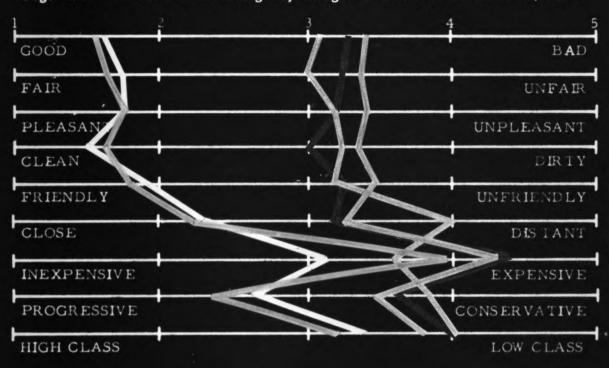


Fig. 5.13 -- Profiles of ratings by National customers in October, 1960.

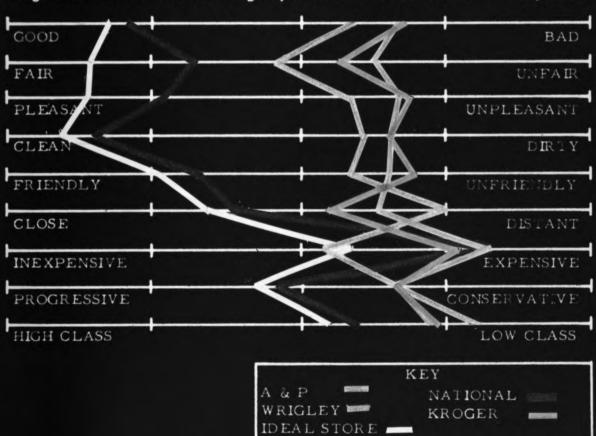


Fig. 5.14 -- Profiles of ratings by Kroger customers in January, 1961.

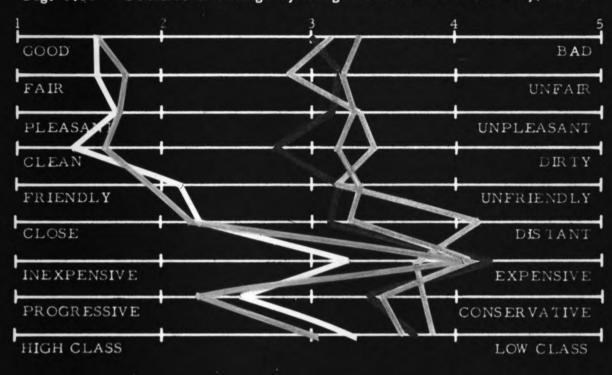
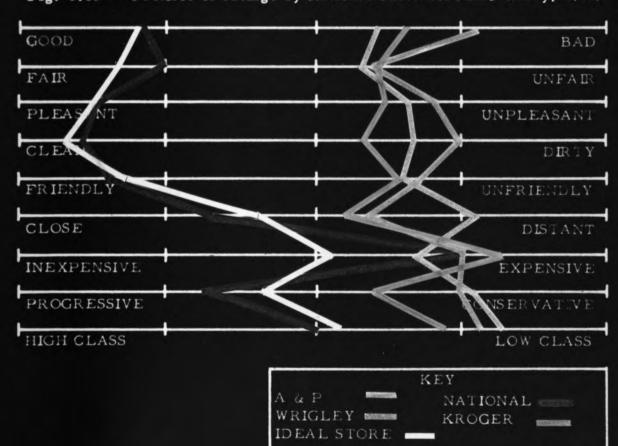


Fig. 5.15 -- Profiles of ratings by National customers in January, 1961.



will be remembered that the experts found A & P prices to be virtually indistinguishable from those of the other super markets. The profiles are a testimonial to the A & P's successful projection of a "price image" as described in Chapter IV.

For the clearly evaluative adjectival pairs, in every case the means of the store groups favored the chosen store. Customers tend to think of their preferred store as being the most "fair," the most "good," etc., in harmony with valued norms. In Fig. 5.1, where the total sample mean for Wrigley on the clean / dirty scale shows an extreme shift toward "dirty," customers of that store rated it as the cleanest. In almost all cases the null hypothesis that the four major store groups were random samples of the same population was rejected.

Variances were smaller for customers rating their own own store, suggesting a greater consistency of attitudes. The smaller variance is also due in part to the fact that such intense scores are limited by scale extremes in the measuring instrument.

The profiles reveal each store group to have generally stable attitudinal patterns. There are, however, distinguishable shifts which can be seen by comparing the profiles of each store for the two waves. The A & P tended to lose the

favorable position it held relative to the customers of the other stores, being replaced by the Kroger store. This is clearly evident in the National profiles. On the other hand, Wrigley customers rated the A & P about the same on both waves, but show significant changes in a favorable direction toward Kroger and National. The stores with the most favorable profiles after "own" store suggest the direction in which changers may shift.

Only a few of the inferences which are suggested by profile analysis have been discussed. It would seem that the semantic differential data is a useful method for quantifying the abstract "image" held by people toward economic objects such as super markets. There are, of course, numerous modifications that could be introduced into the instrument. Mindak (1961, pp. 28-33) suggests the use of phrases and nouns in place of the adjectives on the scales, the construction of scales "tailor-made" for specific problems through content analysis of the advertiser's own and competitive advertising, and word association tests with consumers.

Three-dimensional Analysis

As an example of still another method for evaluating semantic differential data, Figs. 5.16 - 5.23, using

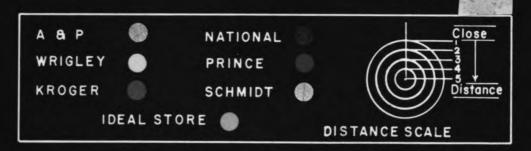


Fig. 5.18 -- Three-dimensional image by Kroger customers, October, 1960.

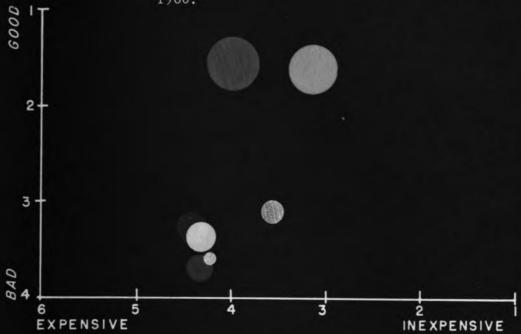
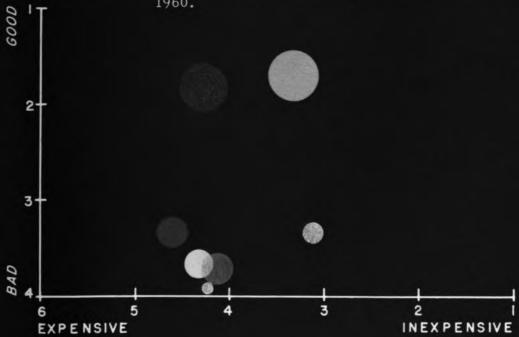


Fig. 5.19 -- Three-dimensional image by National customers, October, 1960.



three of the nine scales, show relationships in threedimensional form.

The three adjectival scales were selected as being the most logically representative of the nine adjectival pairs used in determining customer attitudes. While we have already seen that there is considerable inter-relationship among scales, it was assumed that price and location might be indicators of more "rational" denotatively oriented dimensions, while "good-bad" could represent the connotative or evaluative dimension.

A three-dimensional image is shown for each store group for Waves I & II. The dimensions can be readily noted by inspection of the figures. The higher and further to the right a store-concept appears the more favorably it is viewed for the respective scales. The "close-distant" scale is indicated by the size of the circle representing a concept. The larger the circle, the "closer" the concept is rated by the group.

Again, it is apparent that each store group sees its own store as most nearly resembling the "ideal" store.

More importantly, the figures show the alternative store most likely to benefit from any changes in patronage or to be favored for secondary shopping. For example, the A & P customers reveal no pronounced preferences for other stores

in October. National and Schmidt's have a slight price advantage, although Schmidt's has distance disadvantage. Kroger is seen as most "good" and as closer. Inspection of the January "changers" from A & P show that five went to National, three to Kroger, two to Schmidt's, and two to Wrigley. The Wrigley group (Fig. 5.17) favors Kroger and A & P, but the A & P has a disadvantage in distance. The January "changers" from Wrigley revealed five of seven transferring to the Kroger store. Kroger customers indicate that National and Wrigley were about equal on all dimensions in October. The six "changers" split between these stores. National customers preferred the A & P in October, although Kroger and Wrigley are seen as closer. The "changers" split two to the A & P, two to Wrigley, three to Kroger, and two to minor stores.

The charts for Wave II show small but distinct shifts in the attitudinal structures of the store groups.

Aggregate tendencies have changed slightly from October.

The A & P and National customers now clearly prefer Kroger as second choice. Kroger customers lean to National, while Wrigley customers tend to favor the A & P.

Overall, perhaps the most noteworthy aspect of the structures is their basic stability. While the attitudes of some individuals changed considerably within the short period of time, attitudes of the panel were quite consistent,

although revealing dynamic tendencies in the slowly shifting patterns. The fact that store attributes changed very
little during the study period, according to the experts,
suggests that external communications were a powerful factor
in accounting for the shifts that took place.

For example, the three-dimensional images for October would suggest that the A & P would benefit the most from changes in patronage despite its location disadvantage. As will be noted in the next section, actual patronage shifts did not bear out the assumption that this strong price belief would favor the A & P. One reason will be seen in the findings from the linkage analysis. A second factor was a shift in attitudes toward the A & P, possibly as a result of communication pressures, such as the use of advertising by the Kroger store in the State News following Wave I. As can be seen in Figs. 5.22 and 5.23, the customers of National and Kroger no longer viewed the A & P as favorably in January as they did in October. Especially noticeable is the significant shift toward "expensive" on the inexpensive / expensive scale.

LINKAGE ANALYSIS OF THE SUPER MARKET IMAGES

The purpose of the next section of this chapter is to investigate a technique for clustering the multitudinous

variables the researcher inevitably encounters when studying consumer behavior into a comparatively small number of representative variables.

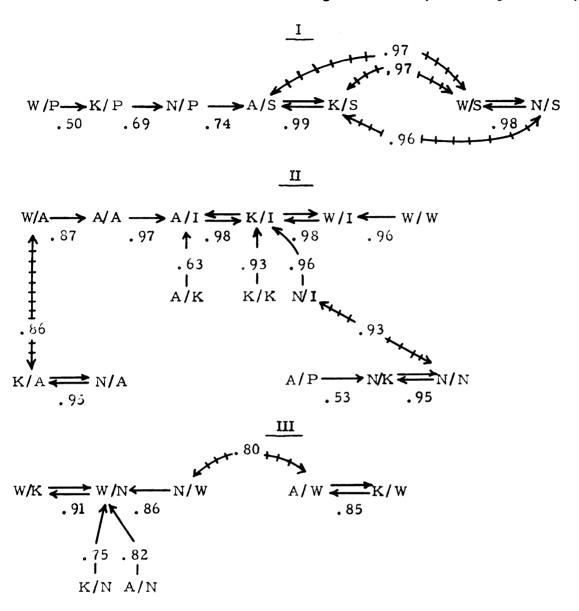
It was reasonable to conjecture that the number of underlying images (profiles of stores) might be fewer in number than our measurements would indicate. Accordingly, the profiles for each of the seven concepts obtained from the four major customer groups were correlated with each other. The 28 x 28 matrix of intercorrelations was computed after first collapsing the adjectival scales.

The method used to determine how the various profiles clustered together was McQuitty's "linkage analysis," described in Table 3.1, Chapter III.

Figure 5.24 reveals the three clusters of "families" found in the pilot study. Type I shows the customers of the major super markets tended to look upon the minor super markets in much the same way. This phenomenon could be labeled the "other store" image, in that the two stores involved were characterized by very low patronage from the study group.

Type II shows that all customer groups were in high agreement on what constitutes an "ideal" store; closely linked to the ideal image were their own chosen store images. Still attached to this cluster was a secondary cluster consisting of the images of the A & P held by the customers of the other

Fig. 5. 24--Clusters derived by linkage analysis of the images held by the customers of the "Big 4," January, 1960, pilot study.



Key: First letter indicates customer group making the rating; second letter indicates the concept being rated. For example, A/A indicates A & P customers rating the A & P.

A - A & P*

W - Wrigley*

K - Kroger*

N - National *

P - Prince

S - Schmidt

I - Ideal Super Market

| 'brother/sister'' relationship

"first cousins''

"first cousins''

"'closest friends''

* "Big 4" supermarkets

three major stores and the image of Kroger held by the A & P customers. This cluster could be labeled as the "preferred store" image. Type III indicates that the groups saw Wrigley and National similarly, but in a less favorable light. This cluster was labeled the "problem store" image.

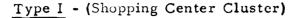
Fig. 5.25 reveals the clusters found by analyzing the data obtained on Wave I. The three generic types appeared as in the pilot study; however, there appears to be a reshuffling of the super markets within the categories. The first type derived has become a "shopping center" cluster, indicating the panel looked with greater favorability upon the three super markets located in the shopping center. The panel still agrees on an "ideal" image, although the shopping center stores are no longer linked to the group. On the basis of the typal relevancies, it was predicted that Kroger and Wrigley would be the main beneficiaries of any changes that took place. The findings from Wave II generally supported the hunch, although Kroger gained a greater share than anticipated from the typal structure:

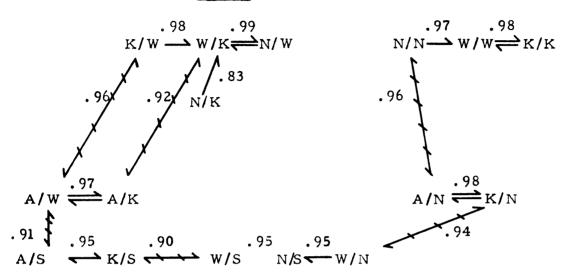
Changers

to

	<u>A</u>	& P	Kroger	Wrigley	National	Other
E						
From	A & P	_	3	2	5	4
	Kroger	3	_	3	none	none
	Wrigley	1	5	_	1	none
	National	2	<u>3</u>	<u>2</u>	_	<u>2</u>
		6	11	7	6	6

Fig. 5.25--Types derived from matrix of intercorrelations between profiles of each store by customer groups of the major super markets, Wave I, October, 1960.





Type 3 (Ideal Cluster)

$$N/I \stackrel{.98}{\rightleftharpoons} K/I \stackrel{.96}{\longleftarrow} W/I \stackrel{.94}{\longleftarrow} A/I \stackrel{.93}{\longleftarrow} A/A \stackrel{.94}{\rightleftharpoons} W/A \stackrel{.93}{\longleftarrow} K/A$$

$$1.94$$

$$N/A$$

KEY: The first letter indicates customer group making the rating.

The second letter indicates the concept being rated, e.g., the symbol "A/A" indicates the rating of the A & P by A & P customers.

A - A & P

W - Wrigley

K - Kroger

N - National

P - Prince

S - Schmidt

I - "Ideal"

"first cousin"

"closest friend"

The Schmidt store has left the "other" category and now appears to be a more suitable alternative choice. In other words, this super market has achieved a more comparable degree of favorability with the "shopping center" stores. By looking at the profiles, Figs. 5.1 to 5.3, it can be seen that Schmidt's had overcome an unfavorable price image, although the distance factor was still a barrier. The earlier image had apparently been due to a belief that the ultra-modern building housing this store meant higher prices (Schmidt's was relatively new at the time of the first study).

An attempt was made to find out how serious the distance factor was in preventing more Villagers from patronizing Schmidt's following Wave I. One revelation was the fact that many respondents who had visited the store and had favorable attitudes had taken a route that was much further than the route taken by regular patrons. In short, if this super market would provide a simple map in their advertisements showing "short" routes, it is conceivable they could increase their share of the market among the Villagers.

The strong A & P image that was found in the pilot study clusters shows signs of weakening in the October (Wave I) clusters. It suggested that the A & P was losing its favored status, giving a hint of the patronage loss that was to occur between October and January.

SUMMARY

The findings reveal the semantic differential scales used in the study to have a unique ability to isolate factors important in store selection. The instrument can provide graphic images, showing both direction and intensity of feelings toward competitive stores. The profiles also serve as useful indicators for more intensive investigation in problem-areas. They seem particularly useful in comparing consumer preferences among classes of consumer products, as well as for products within the classes (as in this study).

The profile data can also be used in different forms, such as the three dimensional graphs, which can further define factors. It is assumed, of course, that such investigations will take place over time to provide maximum information for management decision-making.

For larger studies, the use of linkage analysis appears to be a very feasible procedure for developing scales and concepts for specific problems. It also provides a convenient method for extracting clusters showing underlying images. The principal advantage of linkage analysis as a method is its ability to cluster variables into types rapidly and objectively, whether consumers, products, or items.

The differential used included only nine pairs of adjectives. No doubt there are many others relevant to the images

of stores. There appears no reason which would prevent the use of symbols other than adjectives to derive additional meaning. Yet, as used in this study, the instrument as constructed provided much valuable information for the problem investigated. Researchers in applied areas could eventually catalogue customer and product types. This could be a very valuable aid in explaining and predicting a number of marketing problems. Studies using the methodology described would be inexpensive and readily adaptable to local as well as national studies.

The findings revealed that the attitudinal patterns of the panel were quite stable, although discernible trends could be noted. The most striking feature of the profiles is the fact that store customer groups clearly "see" their own store as having qualities which the "ideal" stereotype incorporates. In other words, when choosing among relatively identical products, the housewife may make a choice as a result of predispositions and verbal appeals from faceto-face and mass media sources; then, if her experience is congruent with her expectations, she attaches the set of desirable attributes to her choice. When she makes a change to a competitive product, the entire cluster of attitudes shifts.

The verbal appeals must correspond to her experience, however, as can be seen in the Wrigley profile changes on the clean / dirty scale. The respondents reacted swiftly to differences in attributes when clearly recognizable.

The concept of "image" as developed in this chapter, and the methodology for defining it, appears to generate valuable data for guiding management in taking more effective reinforcing or remedial action, such as a shift in advertising strategy.

CHAPTER VI

TWO-STAGE ATTITUDE CHANGE

The intent of this portion of the investigation was to assess the effects, if any, of mass and face-to-face communication concerning a socio-economic object, such as a super market, upon consumer attitudes and behavior.

The first section of the chapter sets forth the theoretical formulation underlying the concept of "two-stage attitude change" which hypothesizes that the position of a consumer on an attitude continuum as well as actual patronage behavior will change as a function of the combination of messages and predisposition. The second section explicates the methodology used. The findings are discussed in the last section of the chapter.

THEORETICAL FORMULATION

From the paradigm of the buying act described in Chapter II, buying behavior is seen as in expression of specific attitudes reflecting the varied influences of the consumer's personality and the situation in which she has her being. Singled out as primary influences in the situational field were the consumer's group, the communications received through the mass media and face-to-face channels, and attributes of the super markets.

One of the problems encountered, that there is not a one-to-one correlation between consumer beliefs and objective facts about a super market, was described in the last chapter. Despite her every-day familiarity with super markets available to her, there may be a wide discrepancy between her beliefs and the objective facts about the stores. This factor will not be considered separately in the present analysis; instead it is lumped into the more general concept of predisposition. The primary focus will be upon the influence of the two primary communication channels, face-to-face and mass media, as screened through the "self" messages emanating from the individual's predispositions.

The difficult problem of designing this portion of the study was aided by the excellent pathfinding done by Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) who suggest the predisposition-group variables are more effective than the mass media, and that of Deutschmann and Pinner (1960), who found that political influence is dependent upon mass media for arousal, and conclude that attitude change may result from personal influence, but only when it is added to the messages first received through the mass media which initiates the change process.

The basic approach followed that suggested by Lazars-feld, et al. (1948, p. 151) in their "two-step flow of communication" hypothesis; therefore, indices were needed for:

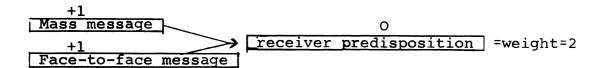
- 1. Exposure by respondents to advertising messages in the local media.
- 2. Exposure by respondents to face-to-face communication about any of the super markets, and whether favorable or unfavorable.
- 3. Predispositions of the respondents toward the available super markets, in the form of attitudes as measured by the semantic differential instrument and in the form of stated store preference and patronage.

Deutschmann and Pinner (1960) point out two reasons which might explain the anomaly resulting from the fact that most field studies have not supported laboratory experiments which show mass media messages can change attitudes: (1) lack of sensitivity in the instruments used for measuring attitudinal changes in the field, and (2) memory loss occurring due to the delay between receipt of the messages and the measurement of effect. The present design thus included a sensitive measure of store attitudes in order to account for the small, but real, changes that may take place, in a natural situation. The second factor, memory loss due to measurement delay, was partially met by conducting the field operations on Wave I within a short time after the new residents in the sample were first exposed to advertising and had just begun to investigate super markets in the area.

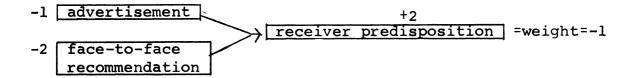
A modified version of Deutschmann's (1960) model of the two-stage attitude-change process was used, involving the following assumptions:

- 1. Any message will have an effect in its intended direction.
- 2. Any face-to-face message will be as powerful as any message transmitted by the mass media.
- 3. Any predisposition will operate in a manner similar to a message; in effect, this implies the individual "sends himself" a message, with the same power as a face-to-face message.
- 4. The combination of predispositions, mass, and face-to-face messages are additive.

While these assumptions enable the researcher to specify the probable effects of two-stage flow communications situations, given a set of messages relating to some social object, the focus herein specifically is upon super markets. A diagram utilizing arbitrary weights illustrates the model:



It was hypothesized that the position of the consumerreceiver on an attitude continuum concerning a given super market
will move as a function of the combination of messages and predispositions. Take, for example, a new resident who patronized
an A & P supermarket prior to her arrival in Spartan Village
(predisposition is plus). She reads an advertisement in the
newspaper for Kroger, and talks to a neighbor who strongly recommends Kroger (messages are both minus).



Her attitude toward A & P will shift to a less favorable position.

This action schema, while elementary, has the merit of being operational with reference to the factors under investigation. In particular, the complex of variables associated with the concept of predispositions can be accommodated. The event, store selection, is one that can be considered crucial to the respondent, yet relatively uncontaminated by the process of rationalization where the respondent says one thing and behaves differently - the distinction between "real" and "ideal" behavior that plagues the survey response.

The next section will describe the construction of the several indices used in analyzing the observations relevant to communications effect. Insofar as possible, the requirements for making an index of high quality were observed: (1) the variables measured are clearly defined, (2) the data is relevant to the issue, and (3) the index formula itself was thoroughly tested and revised so as to minimize self-induced distortions in analysis of the data.

METHODOLOGY

In order to test the entire complex of hypotheses surrounding the attitude-change process, six indices were computed. Five of the indices were measures of message pressures, the sixth was a measure of the dependent variable, attitude change. Correlation methods were used for testing.

1. Index of Predisposition "A" - Two distinct measures of predisposition toward chosen super markets were used. Predisposition Index "A" was an objective measure, obtained in Wave I by arbitrarily weighting answers to questions concerning: (1) super markets patronized by respondent prior to moving into Spartan Village: (2) the super markets patronized by respondent "last week;" and (3) those super markets rated by the respondent in order of preference in the East Lansing Shopping area.

The weighting scheme is shown below:

Prior patronage of same chain	10	
Ranked as first choice	8	
Ranked as second choice	6	
Ranked as third choice	4	
Visited but not ranked	2	
Shopped last week, major purchase	4	
Shopped last week, minor purchase	2	
Maximum score possible	22	(any one store)
Minimum score possible	0	11 11 11

These weights, while arbitrary, were derived on the basis of earlier findings in the January, 1960, pilot study. They have face validity to the extent that the distinctions they provide correspond with judgments made by other observers rating the importance of the various components of consumer loyalty, as well as the "common sense" evaluation made during the earlier study.

As was shown in Table 4.4, Chapter IV, some 60 per cent of the panel preferred the same chain locally as previously patronized in their former place of residence.

The other two categories, respondent's rating of stores and "shopped last week," were assigned weights after a careful analysis of several factors included in the October questionnaire. These were designed to evaluate the several influences surrounding store choice. (See Appendix C, Wave I Questionnaire, 1.1-7.1 and corresponding descriptive data in Chapter IV). For example, two-thirds of the decision-makers shopped "last week" only at the super market rated as preferred. Overall, 90 per cent either purchased all or most of their groceries at their first choice store, and about 10 per cent made their purchases at a store other than first choice store. While some women will rate a store as "first choice," they often indulge in "looking around" or find it expedient to do shopping in another store. About one-third

of the panel regularly shopped in two or more stores. Visiting any store was considered comparable to receiving a favorable message, while visiting plus a ranking, produced a higher predisposition score.

To obtain a measure of the relative strength of the consumer's predisposition toward her preferred store, a predisposition score was constructed for each major super market. Only customers of the four major super markets were evaluated, reducing the effective <u>n</u> for this portion of the study to 145 respondents. Of the original 189 persons on the panel, twenty moved away, while the remaining fourteen preferred a non-major store on one or both waves.

Predisposition "A" was obtained by using as the base the super market which each customer stated was her preferred store in October. The predisposition score for each of the other three stores was subtracted from the preferred store score and the remainders summed. The total became Predisposition "A." As an example, the computations for a respondent who preferred the Kroger super market in October are shown below:

Predisposition Weights

	<u>A & P</u>	Wrigley	Kroger	<u>National</u>
Prior patronage Ranking Shopped "last week"	0 6 0	0 0 0 0	0 8 <u>4</u> 12	0 4 0 4
Difference	12-6 =	6 12-0	= 12	12-4 = 8
Predisposition	" A" =	6 + 12 + 8	3 = <u>26</u>	

The resulting weights ranged from a minimum of zero to a maximum of sixty-six. Only one respondent had a score as low as zero. Three respondents attained the maximum score, indicating they had previously patronized the store, selected it as first choice, did all their shopping there "last week," and had neither ranked nor visited any other store since moving to the Village.

PERCENTAGE OF SUBJECTS ACCORDING TO OCTOBER PREDISPOSITION
"A" TOWARD THE FOUR MAJOR SUPER MARKETS

(n=145)

Index of Predisposition (Weak/Low to Strong/High)	Per Cent
0 - 9	5.5 (8)
10 - 19	13.1 (19)
20 - 29	34.5 (50)
30 - 39	16.6 (24)
40 - 49	2.1 (3)
50 - 59	16.6 (24)
60 – 66	<u>11.7</u> (17)
	100.0
(customers of other stores: 24)	

- 2. <u>Index of Predisposition "B"</u> The second measure of predisposition was based on respondent attitudes, operationalized as the scores received by each store concept on the semantic differential instrument. The index was computed as follows:
 - a. The mean score for each respondent's preferred store was obtained by summing across the nine scales and dividing by nine. Each scale was weighted from one to seven, with the most favorable score being one, the least favorable, seven.
 - b. The scores received across all scales for each of the three other major stores was summed and divided by 27.
 - c. The mean for the preferred store was subtracted from the standardized mean for the other stores. The score thus obtained was termed the "attitude difference score."
 - d. The "preference" scores were arrayed and assigned an arbitrary index number, as shown in Table 5.2.

For example, one respondent received the following scores:

By definition, a favorable preference score would have a minus sign. These were reversed in the final indices.

It can be noted in Table 6.2 that the difference scores are normally distributed. Support for the validity of these preference scores is provided by the fact that 92 per cent of subjects had a differential favorable to their stated preference. The mean preference was 1.1 scale points.

TABLE 6.2

PERCENTAGE OF SUBJECTS ACCORDING TO OCTOBER PREDISPOSITION

"B" (ATTITUDE PREFERENCE SCORES FOR CHOSEN

STORE VERSUS OTHERS)

(n=145)

Attitude Preference Score	Per Cent
-1.00 to .00	7.6 (11)
0.01 to .50	18.6 (27)
0.51 to 1.00	1 7.9 (26)
1.01 to 1.50	27.6 (40)
1.51 to 2.00	20.0 (29)
2.01 to 2.50	6.2 (9)
2.51 to 3.00	<u>2.1</u> (3)
	100.0

3. <u>Index-of Face-to-Face Pressure</u> - Questions 4.1 and 4.2 (see Appendix, Wave II Questionnaire) were included in the reinterview questionnaire to assess the impact of face-to-face influence toward the "Big Four" stores.

The lesser supermarkets were not included due to the small number of customers. It will be noted that the

three months. For each store the respondent could show direction of conversations as favorable, mixed, or unfavorable.

Arbitrary weights were then assigned each store, as follows:

	Direction of Conversation		
Talk	favorable last week	Weight plus	_
	favorable past three months ele/Mixed - either time	plus	2
	ele/No Talk - either time Table/Mixed - either time	minu s	2
	able/No Talk - either time able/Unfavorable - both times	minus	4
All oth	er combinations		0

To obtain a measure of relative pressure from faceto-face conversations between the stores, it was necessary to
construct a method of evaluating all four "Big Four" stores.

This was done by using the super market stated by each respondent as her preferred choice in October as a base, as follows:

	<u>A & P</u>	Wrigley	<u>Kroger</u> (Preferred)	<u>National</u>	
Face-to-face score	-2	. 2	2	0	
Difference	2-(-2)=4	2-2=0		2-0=2 Total	l = plus 6

This enabled both favorable and unfavorable differences to be taken into consideration. The value of plus 6 indicates face-to-face pressure in favor of the preferred store.

For the total sample, the scores were as follows:

TABLE 6.3

PERCENTAGE OF SUBJECTS ACCORDING TO FACE-TO-FACE PRESSURE SCORES TOWARD OCTOBER PREFERENCE STORE ON JANUARY REINTERVIEW

(n	=	1	4	5)
•			_	-	_	,

Pressure Weight*	Per Cent
Plus 10 and over	15.9 (23)
Plus 6 to plus 8	19.3 (28)
Plus 2 to plus 4	15.2 (22)
No pressure (or balanced)	26.9 (39)
Minus 2 to minus 4	15. 9 (23)
Minus 6 to minus 8	4. 8 (7)
Minus 10 and less	2.1 (3)
	100.0

^{*}Plus scores indicate pressure favorable toward preferred store (using October preference), minus scores indicate pressure received against preferred store. Of the total sample of 169 on second wave, eighteen respondents were not customers of major super markets and are not shown.

Briefly summarizing the findings from the face-toface index, the following is noteworthy:

- (1) the majority of respondents received messages supporting their preferred store.
- (2) only about one in five engaged in conversations which were against the preferred store.

While these findings are in agreement with small group research findings indicating that conversation occurs among like-minded persons (Festinger, et al., 1950; Newcomb, 1943, 1953), the low percentage in (2) suggests selective recall on the part of the respondents (Krech and Crutchfield, p. 107).

4. Index of Advertising Pressure - Each of the "Big Four" super markets was analyzed separately by each of the four major media (newspaper, radio, TV, mail) to which the respondents had been exposed. As with the face-to-face questions, the respondents were asked to recall any exposure to each of the four types of advertising "last week," and "past three months." (See questions 5.1 thru 8.2 of the Wave II questionnaire.)

The questions were scored as follows for each of the "Big Four!"

Newspapers: Last week - Saw no ads
Read less than half
Read more than half
Past Months - Saw no ads
Saw once a month
Read less than half
Read more than half
Saw once a week
Read less than half
Read more than half
Read more than half
Read more than half
Read more than half

Range of possible scores: 0 - 5

Radio, Television, and Mail

Last	week	(heard	or	read)	-	Yes No	1 0
Past	three	months	5			Ye s No	1

Total possible score, any one medium 2

Grand Total possible, per store 11

weight than the other three media. This was to reflect its much greater usage by these supermarkets providing opportunity for more exposure. No assertion is made that newspaper advertising is more effective. An example of the effectiveness of a particular medium was provided during Wave I. Two of the major supermarkets had sent out mail pieces the week previous. Patronage figures showed both stores had an approximate ten per cent increase in business, drawn from customers from the stores not sending mail advertising although all stores had used the same amount of newspaper advertising.

Following the scoring of each medium, it was necessary to total across the media to derive a total media score for each respondent for each store. The range of scores could thus vary from 0 - 11 for any store.

The advertising pressure score was then computed.

The objective was to obtain some index of relative pressure

in the direction of chosen store that the advertising might be exerting upon a respondent. Since all advertising messages were, by definition, "favorable" each ad was given a plus value. But since the respondent might be exposed to the advertising of several stores, the weighting scheme was designed to express the differences in exposure as is shown in this example:

For a respondent who was a Kroger customer in October:

Total Difference:

plus 13

	<u>A & P</u>	Wrigley	Kroger	<u>National</u>	Difference
Newspaper score Difference	2 (4-2)	0 (4-0)	4	2 (4-2)	plus 8
Radio Difference	0 (1-0)	0 (1-0)	1	0 (1-0)	plus 3
TV Difference	0 (0-0)	2 (0-2)	0	0 (0-0)	minus 2
Mail Difference	2 (1-2)	0 (1-0)	1	0 (1-0)	plus l

The distribution of advertising weights is shown in Table 6.4.

It will be noted that two-thirds of the panel received an advertising pressure score favorable to their "own" store. Only one of five was found to have a net "other" store pressure. The finding is in general agreement with studies on selective perception (for review of studies, see Klapper, 1957), and closely parallels the finding for face-to-face recall.

TABLE 6.4

PERCENTAGE OF SUBJECTS ACCORDING TO ADVERTISING PRESSURE SCORES TOWARD PREFERRED STORE IN OCTOBER WHEN REINTERVIEWED IN JANUARY (n-145)

Pressure Weight*	Per	Cent
Plus 16 and over	4.8	(7)
Plus 11 to plus 15		(19)
Plus 6 to plus 10	17.9	(26)
Plus 1 to plus 5	31.7	(46)
No pressure (or balanced)	12.4	(18)
Minus 1 to minus 5	15.2	(22)
Minus 6 to minus 10	3.3	(5)
Minus 11 and less	1.3	(2)
	100.0	

^{*} Plus scores indicate advertising pressure favorable toward store preferred in Oct., minus scores indicate unfavorable.

5. Index of Gross Change Pressure - To obtain an overall index of communication pressures the arbitrary weights computed for each respondent for Predisposition "A," Face-to-Face, and Advertising were summed and formed into a frequency distribution containing six class intervals. The groupings were found to approximate a normal distribution, as shown in Table 6.5. The six classes were assigned index numbers from 1 (most favorable to preferred store in Wave I) to 7 (most unfavorable to preferred store in Wave I).

TABLE 6.5

PERCENTAGE OF SUBJECTS ACCORDING TO GROSS CHANGE WEIGHTS TOWARD PREFERRED STORE IN OCTOBER WHEN REINTERVIEWED IN JANUARY (n=145)

oss Change Score unfavorable tow preferred	ard October	Per Cent
(Favorable)	3 - 7	11.2 (16)
	8 - 9	15.4 (22)
	10 - 11	22.3 (32)
	12 - 13	25 . 9 (3 8)
	14 - 1 5	16.8 (25)
(Unfavorable)	16 - 21	$\frac{8.4}{100.0}$ (12)

6. Attitude Shift Index - The attitude preference scores (Predisposition "B") computed from the semantic differential scores in October were used as the base for computing the Attitude Shift Index. A store preference score was computed for each individual from the January data and subtracted from the base preference score. The computation of the January preference score was identical with that outlined for Predisposition "B." The difference between the October and January preference scores showed the changes in attitudes occuring during the three-month interim. For example:

Subject No. 23 October preference score = 2.63

January preference score = -.67

Net Change -3.30

Table 6.6 shows the distribution of the January preference scores. When compared with Table 6.2, it can be seen that a definite shift in the direction of less favorable attitudes toward the preferred store had taken place between October and January. Table 6.7 shows the distribution of the net differences in attitude preference scores between the two waves, the "Attitude Shift" index.

JANUARY, 1961, ATTITUDE PREFERENCE SCORE: OWN VERSUS
THE OTHER MAJOR SUPER MARKETS

(n=145)

Score (low to high toward store preferred in October)	Per Cent		
-1.00 to 0.00 .01 to .50 .51 to 1.00 1.01 to 1.50 1.51 to 2.00 2.01 to 2.50 2.51 to 3.00	14.5 (21) 17.9 (26) 26.9 (39) 19.3 (28) 17.2 (25) 3.4 (5)		
2.51 to 3.00	$\frac{0.7}{100.0}$ (1)		

For the sample as a whole, the mean shift in the attitude preference scores was -.267. The standard error of the mean was .056, showing the downward shift to be highly significant. This was at first thought to be a function of the changers in the sample who were now patronizing a different store, thus an unfavorable shift toward their October

TABLE 6.7

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN OCTOBER, 1960 AND JANUARY, 1961 ATTITUDE PREFERENCE SCORES FOR OWN VERSUS THE OTHER

(n=145)

MAJOR SUPER MARKETS

Difference Score (low to high toward store preferred in October)	Per Cent		
-1.50 and lower	4.1 (6)		
-1.00 to -1.49	12.4 (18)		
50 to99	17.2 (25)		
0.00 to49	36.5 (53)		
.01 to .50	17.9 (26)		
.51 to 1.00	8.3 (12)		
1.01 to 4.00	_3.4 (5)		
	100.0		

Mean shift = -.27 Standard deviation = .674 $\sigma \bar{X}$ = .056

preference could be expected. The mean shift downward in the changer's scores on the Attitude Shift Index proved to be -.49, highly significant. When the non-changers were assessed separately, the mean shift was -.20 of a scale, also beyond the .05 level of significance. Between changers and non-changers, however, the shift downward for the changers proved to be significantly greater than could be expected by chance.

The shift downward for the non-changers was not unexpected inasmuch as the attitude shift computations did not take into account that respondents already at a maximum position relative to the store preferred in October had no space into which to move following favorable communications. This "ceiling effect" has been noted by Deutschmann and Pinner (1960) in their study of voting intentions. It is conceivable, therefore, that if those who had maintained their positions of extreme favorability (a most desirable effect from the standpoint of the advertiser) had been given an added weight, the mean shift downward for the non-changers would have been smaller.

To ascertain if the shift was due to learning on the part of the new residents, a chi-square was computed for new and old residents. No difference was found. This suggested that it might be a function of the stores themselves. A chi-square for the four major store groupings was computed and found not significant, with all groups showing less favorable means. However, when the A & P group was tested against the other three, a significant difference was found. This suggested that the customers of A & P were less satisfied with their choice overall.

Summary of Indices - In order to provide a brief review of the indices and their purposes, they are summarized as follows:

- A. Independent Variables.
 - 1. Predisposition "A" provides an objective rating-type measure of each respondent's attitudes toward the super markets in the area.

Predisposition "A" is used to obtain a measure of the influence of "self-messages," and is one of the three message components in the "Gross Change Weight" formula for evaluating total communications influence.

- 2. <u>Face-to-face Pressure</u> provides a measure of the influence of interpersonal messages received by each respondent relative to the super markets.
- 3. Advertising Pressure provides a measure of the influence of the advertising messages projected by the super markets in the various media during the interim period between waves.
- 4. Gross Change Weight provides a summation of the three message components above and is used to observe their influence on both attitudes and actual patronage.
- B. Dependent Variables.
 - 1. Attitude Shift provides a measure of the change in attitudes held by each respondent and was obtained by subtracting the differential attitude between the preferred store and the other super markets in Wave II from the base differential attitude (Predisposition "B") found on Wave I, as computed from the semantic differential data.
 - 2. Actual Patronage Behavior provides an all-ornothing index of behavior by ascertaining the
 actual changes in super market patronage which
 occurred during the interim between the two waves
 and constitutes an "acid test" of the predictive
 powers of the indices computed.
- C. Combined Variable <u>Predisposition "B"</u> provides the base differential attitude for "attitude preference" score, for computing the "Attitude Shift," thus is used as an independent variable. It is a dependent variable in the sense that it could also be used on the first wave to measure the attitudinal effect of the message pressure computed from the first wave, although not intended to show the dynamics of change.

INTERACTION OF VARIABLES - FINDINGS

A chi-square analysis of the panel across pertinent classifications and indices was executed. Wherever possible, the variables were dichotomized. Eleven primary variables were cross tabulated against each other and various other selected classifications and indices. Table 6.13 summarizes the pattern of differences (chi-square significant beyond the .05 level). The numerical symbols below are used in the table.

<u>Symbol</u> <u>Primary Variables</u>

- O Changers v. non-changers
- New residents v. old residents
- 2 Life-cycle by four categories
- 3 Socio-economic by six categories
- 4 Newspaper readers v. non-newspaper readers
- 5 Opinion leaders v. non-opinion leaders
- 6 Gregarious respondents v. non-gregarious
- 7 Predisposition "A": high scores v. low scores
- 8 Predisposition "B": high scores v. low scores
- 9 Face-to-face pressure: high scores v. low scores
- 10 Advertising pressure: high scores v. low scores
- ll January attitude difference: high scores v. low scores
- 12 Attitude shift: high scores v. low scores
- 13 Gross change weight: high scores v. low scores

Other Variables

- 14 Four major super market customer groups
- 15 A & P v. Kroger, Wrigley, and National customers
- 16 Kroger v. A & P, Wrigley, and National customers
- 17 Wrigley v. A & P, Kroger, and National customers
- National v. A & P, Kroger, and Wrigley customers
- 19 Store selection factors: 1st choice attributes
- 20 Ranking of "self," face-to-face, and advertising according to stated importance as sources of information about super markets
- 21 Ranking of the four mass media according to stated importance as sources of information about stores

- 22 Ranking of face-to-face influences according to stated importance as sources of information about stores.
- 23 Shopped at one store "last week" v. more than one store.

The differences are discussed below in the same order in which they appear in Table 6.13:

- 0. <u>Changers v. non-changers</u>. The changers in the panel differed significantly from non-changers as follows:
 - a. Changers tended to be opinion leaders.
 - b. Changers had lower predispositions ("A") toward super markets preferred in October.
 - c. Changers had lower attitudinal difference scores toward preferred store in October, as computed from semantic differential given in October (Predisposition "B").
 - d. Changers showed greater exposure to face-to-face influence unfavorable to store preferred in October.
 - e. Changers showed greater exposure to advertising for stores other than store preferred in October.
 - f. Changers had larger mean difference scores in unfavorable direction for preferred store in October on semantic differential given in January.
 - g. Changers showed a greater change in an unfavorable direction on the Attitude Shift Index (subtracting January difference score from October difference score).
 - h. Changers had higher Gross Change Weight scores, indicating greater exposure to unfavorable communications toward preferred store in October.
 - i. Changers tended to leave the A & P more than other stores.
 - j. Changers tended to be attracted to Kroger.

TABLE 6.8

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE DERIVED FROM CROSS TABULATION OF VARIABLES

23 22 21 20 19 * 18 17 * * 16 * * 15 * * 14 13 T * * * 12 * * 10 * * * σ * ω * * ~ 9 S 4 ന ~ 0 10 11 12 13 9 $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ σ 0 Н ~ ന 4 \mathbf{c} /

- New residents v. old residents. As expected, new residents tended to be younger and have fewer children than older residents.
- 2. <u>Life-cycle categories</u>. No differences found other than on the old resident--new resident dimension.
- 3. Socio-economic categories. The respondents who had completed college tended to have lower predispositions ("A") toward their preferred store than those with some or no college education. The college graduates tended to prefer National and A & P. Higher status respondents also preferred National, but not A & P. The lower-status, lower-income, and less-educated respondents preferred Wrigley and Kroger.
- 4. Newspaper readers v. non-newspaper readers. It will be recalled that the sample included only 52 per cent who read the newspaper carrying the bulk of the advertising by super markets. This fact in itself was a biasing factor in that advertising pressure scores would be at a disadvantage when compared with face-to-face pressures to which nearly all the respondents were exposed. The persons with advertising pressure scores unfavorable to their October choice were predominant in the newspaper readership group. Newspaper readers also tended to rate advertising as more important source of information about super markets than "self" or face-to-face. Among the media, the newspaper readers rated newspapers and direct

mail as the more important sources. They also were the ones
composing most of the group who shopped at more than one store
"last week."

- Opinion leaders v. non-opinion leaders. As noted, 5. there were more opinion leaders among the changers. was a significant difference in patronage patterns among the major super markets. The A & P and Wrigley attracted a larger number of opinion leaders than did Kroger and National on both waves. Curiously, while it was Kroger who gained the most customers during the interim, five of the seven opinion leaders (there were 36 opinion leaders in sample) who patronized Kroger in October went to A & P and Wrigley. Only two opinion leaders switched to Kroger. A & P, which lost fourteen customers, had a net gain of one in the opinion leader category. Relative to store attributes, opinion leaders were less interested in location convenience, more interested in cleanliness and variety of merchandise. There was no difference on "price."
- 6. <u>Greqariousness</u>. Only one difference was found when the gregarious group was cross tabulated against the nongregarious group. Those who were gregarious had advertising pressure scores unfavorable to the super market preferred in October. Gregariousness was not associated with opinion leadership or with face-to-face influence, contrary to expectations.

- 7. Predisposition "A." The customers of the A & P had significantly higher predisposition scores than did the customers of the other major super markets. The customers of National had much lower predispositions. This is largely a result of the fact that 60 per cent of the A & P customers had patronized it prior to moving to Spartan Village, as compared with only 12 per cent of National customers. The respondents with weak predispositions toward their preferred store in October had significantly higher Gross Change Weight scores. As previously noted, a greater number of those with weak predispositions were among those who changed their store preference during the study.
- 8. Predisposition "B." The respondents who had low attitude preference scores toward their preferred store in October tended to have face-to-face communications unfavorable to that store. They also had higher Gross Change Weights; that is, the overall communication pressure was unfavorable. As noted, these people also tended to change their store preferences.
- 9. <u>Face-to-face Pressure</u>. Respondents with face-to-face scores which were unfavorable or only slightly favorable toward their preferred store in October tended to be among the changers, to have weak attitudes toward that store, and to have unfavorable Gross Change Weights.

- 10. Advertising Pressure. Those with unfavorable advertising pressure scores toward their preferred store in October tended to be among the changers, to be newspaper readers, to be gregarious, and to have unfavorable Gross Change Weights. In addition, they felt that "self" was much more important as a source of information concerning super markets than did the respondents with favorable advertising pressure scores toward their preferred store. The latter rated the media as a more important source of super market information.
- 11. January Attitude Preference. Two significant differences in addition to (0) above were: (1) the fact that

 A & P customers tended to have larger mean difference scores
 in an unfavorable direction than did the customers of the other
 three stores and (2) those with the lowest preference scores
 had larger unfavorable attitudinal shifts.
- 12. Attitude Shift. The respondents with the largest shifts in attitude in an unfavorable direction tended to be changers. Other than (11) above, no other differences were found.
- 13. <u>Gross Change Weight</u>. The five significant differences found have been discussed above.

CORRELATIONAL FINDINGS

The several hypotheses concerning the effect of communications upon attitudes and behavior assumed there would be a positive correlation among these variables.

Statistical Procedure. The weights assigned to each individual on each scale were grouped into frequency distributions for the panel and index numbers assigned to the categories, as shown in Table 6.12. The primary reason for indexing was to simplify coding for machine analysis. The ordinality of the measures is apparent. The simplification obtained by grouping the panel and the reduction of the computational procedure was felt to out-weigh the disadvantage of some information loss.

The indices computed were considered to have face validity; e.g., each plainly indicates that it was measuring the underlying variable.

Both the coefficient of correlation \underline{r} and multiple correlation \underline{R} were used to measure the relationship between the variables.

The use of correlations is acknowledged as not being in accordance with strict statistical requirements in that equal intervals are assumed for the ordinal scales. The assumption that the variables were normally distributed seemed reasonable, however; therefore, the risk of getting answers

that may not quite correspond to reality was considered preferable to the loss of information entailed by restricting the analysis to statistics appropriate to ordinal scales.

The calculations were made possible by the use of the integral computer at Michigan State University (MISTIC).

Linear Correlations. The linear correlations computed for the communications influences and the dependent variable, Attitude Shift, are shown in Table 6.9.

TABLE 6.9

LINEAR CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ATTITUDE SHIFT
AND THE COMMUNICATIONS VARIABLES

	r	
Gross Change Weight	.10	
Face-to-face influence	.19*	
Advertising influence	.11	
Predisposition "A"	04	
Predisposition "B"	26*	

^{*}Significant at the .05 level.

Only face-to-face influence, among the three communication pressures, showed a significant positive correlation. Predisposition "B" (not included in computing the Gross Change Weight) showed a significantly negative correlation. The Face-to-face <u>r</u> mildly confirms the findings by Katz and Lazarsfeld (1957) which suggested that personal

influence is the dominant communications influence.

Correlations between the Communications Variables.

Correlations were also computed between the communications variables, as shown in Table 6.10.

TABLE 6.10

LINEAR CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE COMMUNICATIONS VARIABLES

	<u>r</u>						
	GCW	F-F	ADV	"A"	"B"		
Gross Change Weight							
Face-to-face influence	.56*						
Advertising influence	.53*	.10					
Predisposition "A"	.58*	.08	.12				
Predisposition "B"	.24*	.23*	.10	.10			

^{*}Significant beyond the .05 level.

The fact that the Gross Change Weight was computed by adding the scores received on Face-to-face, Advertising, and Predisposition "A" was expected to result in the strong correlations obtained between these scores and the GCW. The nearly equal <u>r's</u> indicate similar contributions to the GCW, suggesting that advertising has a greater effect upon actual patronage than the "two-step flow" hypothesis implies. Face-to-face influence is significant when related to attitude formation, as seen by the correlation of .23 with Predisposition "B." The fact that the individual communications components show no significant correlations among themselves indicates that they operate independently of each other.

Correlational Analysis of Sub-groupings. To further examine the data, correlations were computed for two important sub-groups: changers and non-changers, and the major store groups.

For purposes of analysis, the store groupings as they were constituted in October were used. The "non-changers" are those who still preferred the same store when interviewed in January, while the "changers" were the October customers who had changed their preference to another store.

Tables 6.10 and 6.11 show only the correlations found to be significant beyond the .05 level. In Table 6.10, the same patterns of correlation exist for the store and change categories as for the panel as a whole. However, the significant r obtained between the Face-to-face and Attitude Shift indices (Table 6.8) can now be seen to be the contribution of A & P customers. It is not significant for either the changer or non-changer groups. The negative correlation found between Predisposition "A" and Attitude Shift may be attributed to the Kroger and National customer groups. These were also the stores who lost the fewest customers during the interim period. The implication is that attitudes can be changed regardless of the intensity with which they are held, at least for super markets. It is also noteworthy that the impact of advertising on the changers is greater than either face-to-face or

TABLE 6.11

SIGNIFICANT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN STORE CUSTOMER GROUPS AND BETWEEN CHANGERS AND NON-CHANGERS

	Change	Change Categories		Store Groups	roups	
	Changers	Non-changers	A&P	Wrigley	Kroger	National
	ASh GCW F-F	ASh GCW F-F ASh GCW F-F ASh GCW F-F	ASh GCW F-F	ASh GCW F-F	ASh GCW F-F ASh GCW F-F ASh GCW F-F	ASh GCW F-F
Attitude Shift						
Gross Change Weight						
Face-to-face	.48	.50	.37 .63	.43	.68	.48
Advertising	09.	.42	.36	.61	. 54	.70
Predisposition "A"	.56	. 56	. 56	. 68	.63	.45
Predisposition "B"	33	36 .25 .20		.38 .4137		.3236

TABLE 6.12

SIGNIFICANT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN STORE CUSTOMER GROUPS CATEGORIZED BY CHANGERS AND NON-CHANGERS

	A	A&P	Wrigley	Kroger	fer	National	nal	
	Changers	Non-changers	Non-changers	Changers	Non-changers	Changers	Non-c	Non-changers
	ASh GCW F-F	ASh GCW F-F ASh GCW F-F	ASh GCW F-F	ASh GCW F-F	ASh GCW F-F ASh GCW F-F	ASh GCW F-F ASh GCW F-F	ASh	GCW F-F
ASh								
GCW								
F-F	.64 .79	.55	.39		.38 .64			.43
Adv			.52		.43	.78		.49
"A"	.70	.47	.72	. 89	.65			.50
"B"			56 .49 .38			.78	.7845	

predispositions, and lowest of the three types for the nonchangers. This suggests that advertising may be the "trigger" which will cause the change in behavior.

When each store group is analyzed by change categories, as shown in Table 6.11, the non-changers within each group show consistent patterns. The changers, however, reveal marked differences. For the A & P and Kroger customers, the influence of predisposition has weakened. These were the two stores that had benefited the most from the tendency on the part of many respondents to remain loyal to stores patronized before moving to Spartan Village. Results for National customers show that the changers tended to leave National primarily because of the advertising influence of its competitors.

Because of the small <u>n</u> for the store change groupings, extremely high correlations were necessary before significance could be established. Future researchers would be well-advised to use a large enough sample so as to obtain sufficient frequencies for such sub-categories. They appear to provide fruitful insights for the explanation of both attitude formation and patronage behavior.

Beta Coefficients - The relative importance of the individual independent variables in a multiple correlation in determining the dependent variable may be determined through the use of the beta coefficient.

The coefficients of the multiple correlation regression indicate the increase in the dependent variable resulting from a unit increase in the indicated independent variable.

The multiple correlations found for the Attitude Shift Index and the Gross Change Weight were .23 and .99, respectively.

However, the independent variables, being expressed in different units, made a direct comparison impossible. The coefficients of multiple regression may be made comparable by dividing each variable by its own standard deviation. The beta coefficients thus are comparable measures and indicate the increase in the dependent variable from an increase in one standard deviation in each independent variable.

For the Gross Change Weight, the following were obtained:

R = .9874

Betas: Predisposition "A" = .58 Face-to-face = .49 Advertising = .49

The results are essentially the same as those given by \underline{r} , all variables are of about equal importance. Predisposition is the largest contributor of the three by a slight margin.

For the Attitude Shift Index, the following was obtained:

R = .2281

Betas: Predisposition "A" = -.04
Face-to-face = .20
Advertising = .10

Again the results are similar to those given by \underline{r} . Face-to-face pressure is the only independent variable showing a significant relationship.

In summary, the findings established that the shift in attitudes had little relationship with communications indices as constructed, with the exception of a mild correlation with personal influence. Many factors could account for the lack of relationship, e.g., the use of parametric statistics for evaluating the ordinal communications pressure indices. The attitude difference scores may have been a reason, although similar results were obtained when only the mean evaluative scores for "own" store were compared on each wave, instead of taking the other super markets into consideration. The arbitrary weighting scheme, both within the various indices and between the indices, could be improved. Yet, it seemed more realistic to look for other causes to account for the strange behavior of the attitude index.

Actual Patronage Behavior. First, it is instructive to see how well the indices compared with actual patronage behavior. Inasmuch as the respondents who had changed preference between waves could be accurately ascertained, it provided

a valid method for checking the predictive powers of the indices.

Not only did the panel design provide observations relative to the change in verbal attitudes as determined on the semantic differential, but also the actual changes in patronage which took place over the three-month period. It is the latter behavior which constitutes the acid test as far as the advertiser is concerned, as well as being a <u>de facto</u> demonstration of attitude. Therefore, the changers and non-changers were tested against the null hypothesis that the sets of obtained frequencies in each index differ no more from a set of expected frequencies than would be expected by chance alone. If the communication indices could predict these respondents actually changing stores, it would constitute evidence of effect.

Significant chi-squares were found for all indices except Predisposition "B." As hypothesized, the changers had weaker predispositions, unfavorable face-to-face pressure, and unfavorable advertising pressure toward the super market they had previously preferred.

The cumulative communications index, Gross Change
Weight, was found significant beyond the .001 level. The
Attitude Shift Index also was found significant beyond the
.001 level. In a sense, the fact that both indices were
significant despite their failure to correlate with each other

is paradoxical. Statistically, it is possible to obtain significant chi-squares while showing little correlation linearly. The reason could also be due to the fact that two indices are pointing to two different kinds of changers, as will be seen in the deviate analysis which follows shortly.

Table 6.13 summarizes the distribution of scores for the changers and non-changers on each of the change variables. Only for Predisposition "B" was there no difference between the groups.

Deviate Analysis - The failure of the Gross Change Weight to yield a significant correlation with the dependent variable, Attitude Shift, despite the fact that both were significantly correlated with actual changes in store patronage, suggested a difference in the respondents themselves. From a scatter diagram of the entire \underline{n} (X axis = Gross Change Weight, Y axis = Attitude Shift Index) the forty-seven respondents who deviated the most from the regression line were separated from the rest of the sample. (Deviates were those with unfavorable attitude shifts but favorable Gross Change Weight scores, or favorable attitude shifts and unfavorable Gross Change Weight scores.) The two groups were tested against the null hypothesis of no difference across all classifications and indices (see Table 6.8), using the chi-square statistic (significant beyond .05 level).

TABLE 6.13

PERCENTAGE OF CHANGERS AND NON-CHANGERS FOR MAJOR STORES
ACCORDING TO SCORES RECEIVED ON THE CHANGE INDICES

Index and Scores [High Low (7) toward October		Changers (n=35)	Non-changers (n=110)	Total (n=145)
Attitude Shift Index:*	1	2.8	3.6	3.4
	2	5.7	9.1	8.3
	3	5.7	21.8	17.9
	4	28.6	39.1	36.5
	5	14.3	18.2	17.2
	6	28.6	7.3	12.4
	7	14.3	.9	4.1
Gross Change Weight:*	1	0.0	14.6	11.2
gross change weight.	2	8.6	17.9	15.4
	3	8.6	26.9	22.3
	4	25.7	26.0	25.9
	5	28.6	13.0	16.8
	6	28.6	1.9	8.4
Predisposition "A":*	1	5.7	13.6	11.7
riedisposition A :"	2	11.4	17.3	16.6
	3	0.0	2.7	2.1
	4	14.3	16.4	16.6
	5	28.6	36.4	34.5
	6	25.7	9.1	13.1
	7	14.3	2.7	5.5
Tace-to-face Pressure:*		11.4	17.3	15.9
Face-to-face Pressure: *	2	5.7	23.6	19.3
	3	11.4	16.4	15.2
	4	20.0	29.1	26.9
	5	28.6	11.8	15.9
	6	17.1	0.9	4.8
	7	5 . 7	0.9	2.1
Advertising Pressure:*	1	0.0	6.4	4.8
	2	5.7	15.5	13.1
	3	14.3	19.1	17.9
	4	28.6	32.7	31.7
	5	11.4	12.7	12.4
	6	22.9	12.7	15.2
	7	17.1	0.9	4.7

Index and Scores [High (1) Low (7) toward October Chos		Changers (n=35)	Non-changers (n=110)	Total (n=145)
Predisposition "B":	1	5.7	0.9	2.1
Fredisposition b.	2	0.0	8.2	6.2
	3	14.3	21.8	20.0
	4	22.9	29.1	27.6
	5	22.9	16.4	17.9
	6	22.9	17.3	18.6
	7	11.4	6.4	7.6

TABLE 6.13. (Continued)

Significant differences were found as follows:

Between major store customer groups - Kroger contained the fewest, A & P the greatest number of deviates, on both waves.

Store attributes - the deviates were significantly more price oriented.

Stated importance of advertising, face-toface, and "self" influence - the deviates rated face-to-face very low, advertising moderately low, and "self" very hign.

Media importance - the deviates tended to rate newspapers very low in importance and the other media much higher than the non-deviates.

Among changers: <u>all</u> deviates were satisfied with store they had been patronizing at time of change, compared to 60 cer cent of the non-deviates.

No significant difference was found on any other cross tabulation. The pattern of the significances suggests the deviates tend to make decisions more on what Katz (1960, p. 177)

^{*}Chi-square between changers and non-changers significant at .05 level (six degrees of freedom for all indices except GCW, where df = 5).

terms "utilitarian" attitudes: "Utilitarian needs are reinforced by experience and not verbal appeals." The attitude shifts of the non-deviates show a high relationship with communication influences, suggesting different motivational bases. Their attitudes may be more the result of cognitive needs.

It also suggests that the deviates are less persuasible.

The deviate group itself divided into two nearly equal subgroups which were compared: HI-LO (highly favorable attitude shift toward preferred store in October but very unfavorable communication pressures, as shown by Gross Change Weight index) and LO-HI (unfavorable attitude shift but very favorable communication pressures toward preferred store in October). The <u>n</u> for HI-LO group was 22; the <u>n</u> for the LO-HI group was 20.

Significant differences were found as follows:

- <u>Changers v. non-changers</u> all nine changers in the deviate group were in the HI-LO subgroup.
- <u>Predisposition "B"</u> the HI-LO deviates had higher attitude preference scores toward chosen store in October.
- Media importance the HI-LO group rated the broadcast media as the most important source of information about super markets among the mass media. The LO-HI group rated newspapers and direct mail as more important. (There was little opportunity to receive broadcast messages as the bulk of super market advertising appeared in the print media.)

Predisposition "A," face-to-face pressure, and advertising pressure - the HI-LO group had significantly lower scores on each of the communication indices which composed the Gross Change Weight, as well as a significantly higher score on the Attitude Shift index.

It would appear that the HI-LO group simply are not print-media oriented relative to perceiving super market advertising. Inspection of the <u>advertising pressure</u> scores (see Table 6.4) revealed most of this category had neutral or slightly unfavorable scores, indicating little or no interest in the super market ads appearing in the newspapers. The fact that one-half of the HI-LO group was composed of changers suggests that these people shift preferences for utilitarian reasons. As one of these stated, "I still like the A & P, but go to Kroger because I'm saving stamps."

It would seem that the deviates in the LO-HI category were still selectively perceiving advertising and face-to-face messages for their preferred store, for which strong predispositions were previously held. The unfavorable shift in attitudes indicates dissatisfaction, but not enough to overcome habit.

No differences were found on any other classification or index. In view of the slim evidence from this analysis, judgment as to causal factors should be withheld. The studies by Hovland, Janis, et al. (1959), on personality and

persuasibility suggest that personality traits should be investigated. For example, persons who have low self-esteem or are of the female sex tend to be more persuasible.

CHAPTER VII

DISCUSSION

This study was designed to investigate the relationship of certain communication factors to super market choice
in a natural situation. Instruments were developed to describe
the characteristics, super market shopping and communication
patterns, and attitudes of the representative panel of consumers; to measure changes in their attitudes and behavior
concerning alternative super markets available to them; and
to measure the communication influences to which the panel was
exposed. Specific hypotheses were tested.

Two sets of implications will be discussed. Theoretical implications will be examined in the first section. The findings relative to each of the hypotheses will form the basis of the discussion. In the second section, practical implications will be discussed: (1) the findings relative to super market shopping and communication patterns; (2) the findings relative to image; and (3) the findings relative to the two-stage attitude change hypothesis. The chapter concludes with suggestion for future research in this area.

THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

The study of advertising effect on consumer behavior was seen to relate to the larger question of communication effect

on human behavior. The study of attitude formation and attitude change was held to be basic to an understanding of the process whereby advertising campaigns achieve their objective of influencing consumer behavior. Advertising appearing in the mass media was viewed as one of three principal message types. The other two, face-to-face and "self" messages, used interpersonal and intrapersonal channels. All three were seen to act in combination in achieving effect in the form of reinforcing or changing attitudes concerning the related message-object, or in changing consumer behavior toward the object. The messages, in turn, are mediated by the consumer's social environment and personality.

The situation chosen, which met the conditions set forth as necessary for investigating the salient variables, was the everyday process in which the consumer must decide upon and patronize a super market at periodic intervals.

The patronage act was viewed as part of a process in which the relevant attitudes were generated which determined the patronage act.

The consumer's image of a super market was regarded as the evaluative, or attitudinal dimension of her meaning for the store. Her attitude toward the store was defined in terms of her score on the semantic differential.

It was suggested that the consumer's position on an attitude continuum concerning a super market would move in direction and intensity over time as a function of the combination of advertising, face-to-face, and predispositional messages related to the store.

The technique for assessing the influence of the communication variables was developed especially for this study. Evaluation against the usual criteria for measuring instruments suggests that it has promise relative to its objectivity, comparability, and utility. It had face validity in that results obtained corresponded with results which obtained corresponded with results which common sense would suggest. Its principal limitations are apparent relative to reliability and sensitivity, particularly in the measurement of face-to-face communication.

The instrument for measuring attitudes and assessing attitudinal changes was an adaptation of Osgood's semantic differential. Evidence was cited supporting the use of the instrument as one that met the criteria for measuring instruments, and for the use of the evaluative scales to provide an operational definition of attitude.

Communication effects were viewed as changes in the meaning of the super market concepts along one dimension only: changes in the location of the concepts in the evaluative dimension provided by the semantic differential.

The specific hypotheses tested were derived from four general propositions. Each of the hypotheses will be discussed in turn:

Hypothesis 1. A change in super market patronage is a function of the combined weights of communication unfavorable to a preferred super market, as measured by indices of "predisposition A," face-to-face, and advertising messages perceived by the consumer.

Hypothesis 2. The position of a consumer on an attitude continuum concerning super market X, as measured by the semantic differential, will move in direction and intensity as a function of the combination of messages and predispositions related to the super market, as indexed by the "gross change weight" scale.

Hypothesis 3. A change in super market patronage is a function of the intensity of the preferential attitudinal shift in an unfavorable direction between a preferred super market and alternative super markets, as measured by the semantic differential.

Hypothesis 4. Face-to-face messages will have a greater effect upon attitudinal shifts on a continuum concerning a preferred store than will advertising messages in the mass media.

Hypothesis 5. The positions of a consumer on an attitude continuum concerning each of several alternative super markets and her "ideal" super market will reveal that the positions for the "ideal" and the super market preferred will be the most closely related.

Hypothesis 6. The positions of a consumer on an attitude continuum concerning each of several alternative super markets, as measured by the semantic differential, will show greater changes in direction and intensity following a change in behavior, defined as a shift in patronage, than will the positions of a consumer who has not shifted her patronage.

Hypothesis 7. The proportion of residents residing on the same floor of an apartment dwelling patronizing the same store will tend to increase over time.

Hypothesis 1 was supported. The findings clearly showed the summation of the advertising, face-to-face, and predispositional message scores, as indicated by the Gross Change Weight Index, to be more unfavorable to the store previously preferred for those respondents who had changed super market preference. In addition, each of the separate message indices was shown to be more unfavorable for changers.

The second hypothesis, stating that attitudes would shift as a function of the combination of messages and predisposition, was not supported. The failure of the Gross Change Weight Index to yield a significant correlation with attitudinal shifts, despite the fact both were significantly correlated with actual changes in store behavior suggested imperfections in methodology or the existence of influences operating independently of the communication variables.

It was reasonable to assume that changes in patronage constituted <u>de facto</u> demonstrations of attitude change.

The lack of sensitivity of the indices and the analytical design may have been a factor in the low correlations observed between the attitudinal shifts and the communication indices. Yet, it seemed more realistic to look for other causes to account for the behavior of the attitude index.

We had known from our study of shopping patterns that past experience was a powerful factor in the selection

of a super market. The predispositional index, however, showed no correlation with attitude shifts. Advertising was not related. Only face-to-face communication was revealed to have a barely significant relationship (mildly confirming findings from other studies supporting the notion that interpersonal message influence is more effective than the mass media).

Because each of these indices, singly and in combination, was strongly related to changes in super market patronage, a reappraisal of the data was made to see if any other factors could be isolated which might explain why the indices did not correlate with attitudinal shifts.

The ultimate practical test of the validity of an attitudinal measuring instrument lies in the usefulness of the measurements for the understanding and prediction of the consumer's behavior. If a consumer's attitudes toward several competitive stores are correctly assayed, it should be possible to make accurate predictions about how she will behave toward them. The findings on images generally suggested that we were at least partially successful in meeting this test.

While the correlations found in the analysis of the indices used in testing the two-stage attitude change

hypothesis proved to be lower than desired, it might be noted that this has been the general case in studies of attitude change (Katz, 1960, p.200). The overall organization of attitudes and values in the personality is highly differentiated. In addition, the generalization of attitude change is limited by the lack of systematic forces in the situation necessary to implement the change. For example, the woman who prefers a more distant super market but does not have an automobile, so walks to a closer store, may still retain favorable attitudes toward the preferred store.

The pattern of findings when deviates were compared with non-deviates pointed to the existence of a consumer type who is "more rational than others." The deviates were more price-oriented; they preferred the A & P (which had the low price image) over other super markets; they rated "self" as the most important source of information about super markets and face-to-face communication very low; they paid less attention to the print media, where the bulk of super market advertising appeared, than did the non-deviates.

All deviates among the changers had expressed satisfaction with their previous choice at the time of change.

One factor which the study did not investigate was change in knowledge resulting from exposure to messages in

the three major channels. Attitudes include both the affective dimension of liking or disliking, and also the cognitive, or belief, elements which describe the objects of the attitude. Specific attitudes are also organized into hierarchical structures, or value systems. Thus a generalized attitude toward a super market includes specific beliefs and feelings about the store's prices, quality of merchandise, etc.

The semantic differential dealt primarily with the affective component; thus we were not making any allowance for changes in beliefs or the degree in differentiation between beliefs. The consumer is capable of acting intelligently, and her decisions may or may not be related to predispositions and incoming communication. The assumption, for example, that exposure to an ad of a competitive store would be an unfavorable message did not allow for the fact that it might be perceived by the consumer so as to reinforce her beliefs about her own store. Findings by Festinger (1957, p. 176) indicate people may do so to avoid cognitive dissonance.

Knowledge, as verified belief, will usually change when the object is perceived as changing; relevant attitudes will also change as a result. For the "rational" consumer, it could be surmised that each patronage experience required

verification and reevaluation of the super market in line with her beliefs. She either changed her attitudes toward the super market or reinforced them as a result.

It was suggested that the deviates might tend to make their decisions on the basis of "utilitarian" attitudes, which is compatible with the concept of rationality. The non-deviates, on the other hand, showed a definite relationship between communication influences and attitudinal shifts. Thus their attitudes might have different motivational bases, particularly those serving their need for a cognitive structure.

The nine changers among the deviates were all in the HI-LO subcategory; that is, they had favorable shifts in attitudes toward the store they had previously preferred and an unfavorable communication change weight. This attachment to the former store suggested that the change in patronage was temporary.

The LO-HI deviates, on the other hand, had no changers in their group. They were perhaps experiencing dissatisfaction with their preferred store for one reason or another, but still selectively exposing themselves to messages about that store for purposes of information or to avoid further dissonance. It is plausible to think of these people of changing patronage, at which time they will begin exposing themselves to communications about that store. Selective

exposure was clearly operant in the case of face-to-face messages, where four out of five respondents reported exposure to messages favorable to their preferred store.

in the breakdown by store customer subgroups across factors stated as important in super market selection. For the majority, it seemed that the choice was made on the basis of normative expectations. When the store was seen as not living up to these expectations, the respondent did not change her knowledge about the store, but rather the relative importance of her prior expectations so that they would coincide with what her experience verified. This was seen in the changes occurring in Table 4.14. Factors perceived as important in a store in October had shifted significantly for all super markets except the A & P.

The deviates and non-deviates could also be thought of as non-persuasible and persuasible. There appears to be a general personality characteristic of persuasibility which has been found to be related to personality traits, such as low-esteem. Katz (1960, p. 204) suggests that such susceptibility to influence may help account for attitude change, but that it probably is not important.

The finding that the changers were generally satisfied with their previously preferred stores lends support to Katona (1960, p. 121), who contends that highly motivated behavior may arise without dissatisfaction, and that economic behavior does not support the deprivation theory of motivation.

The third hypothesis, stating that a change in super market patronage is a function of the intensity of the preferential attitudinal shift in an unfavorable direction relative to the preferred store, was confirmed. The mean attitudinal shift of the changers was greater than for non-changers.

Hypothesis Four was a corollary of the second hypothesis, and therefore subject to the implications discussed. The finding supported the hypothesis. Face-to-face communications were revealed to be the only message component which was related to attitudinal shifts. The correlation was barely significant, but it does provide a mild confirmation of the studies supporting interpersonal influence as more effective in changing attitudes than the mass media. It is pointed out, however, that the analysis by customer groups showed the correlation to be a function of the A & P group. Among changers, only those leaving the A & P had changes in attitude which were related to face-to-face influence. Therefore, the finding that face-to-face communication is more influential than advertising as

it relates to store choice was considered by the author to need further investigation.

Hypothesis Five and Six concerned the images people hold about an economic object. The findings supported both hypotheses: (1) a consumer's image of her preferred super market was closer to her image of an "ideal" super market than were her images of alternative stores; and (2) the consumer who did not shift her patronage during the study period tended to show a more stable relationship in the images she held of alternative stores than did the consumer who changed preference.

The findings revealed the attitudinal patterns of the panel were quite stable over time although discernible trends could be noted. The most striking finding from the profile analysis was the fact that store customers had such a strong favorable attitude differential for their preferred stores on the clearly evaluative scales. Even in the case of the close/distant scale, the customers of the A & P "saw" the A & P as being as close as the shopping center stores, despite the fact the A & P was a mile further away.

In other words, when choosing among relatively identical products, the consumer may make her choice as a result of her predispositions and exposure to face-to-face and advertising messages; then, if her experience with that

store is congruent to her expectations, she attaches the set of desirable attributes to her choice. When she makes a change to a competitive product, the entire cluster of attitudes will tend to shift so as to conform with the decision.

The phenomenon suggests that, in the case of super markets, behavior may be easier to change than attitudes, thus lending support to the findings by Festinger (1957) and Kelman (1953). In other words, where the decision concerning an economic object is one that is sufficiently deliberative, it may be easier to take advantage of existing attitudes to produce a behavior which, in turn, will produce changes in attitudes. We saw in this study that changers invariably attached the entire cluster of favorable attitudes to their new choices. Yet the reasons for changing were not due to unfavorable experiences at the store formerly preferred, but rather a "pull" toward the new store. With Kroger, for example, whose advertisements had been judged to project friendliness and cleanliness (and the only ones other than the A & P's to appear in the campus newspaper) every one of the other major store groups saw Kroger as closest to their own store on these scales. In October, only the A & P store customers had done so.

It could be surmised that their advertising was an important factor in the Kroger success in attracting the greatest share of changers. The situation is not unlike what Mayer (1958) calls "added value." Given comparable products, if a benefit is promised concerning a product which is salient to the consumer's expectations, and the benefit is believed, the consumer will attach other desirable features to the product as well, changing her attitude structure concerning the product.

would tend to choose the same stores, was supported in the study. The findings relative to store influence agree with the considerable evidence supporting the existence of group influence, and suggest that neighborhood groupings may give rise to "group norms" which will affect the super market preferences of some members.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

Retail advertisers might be said to have three major "blind spots" overall: (1) concentration of short-term objectives at the expense of attaining long-range goals, (2) over-emphasis on price appeals, only one of many patronage factors, and (3) lack of adequate research (other than measuring advertising effectiveness in terms of immediate sales).

The principal task of this study was to provide a theoretical rationale for and a description of consumer attitudes and behavior in a careful and reliable manner.

It is management's task to apply the results. Several of the findings appear to have value for merchandising and promotional application.

The findings from the study did indicate advertising to be a powerful determinant in consumer choice of super markets. The results indicated the value of establishing long-range advertising objectives. It takes time to develop favorable attitudes among potential customers.

Favorable attitudes of present customers should be reinforced over time. Price was shown to be only one of several attribute variables influencing choice among equivalent alternatives (in this study the A & P should reinforce its low price image, the other stores might emphasize convenience, friendliness, or cleanliness in their copy platforms).

Shopping and Communication Patterns. While the chapter on characteristics, communication and shopping patterns was primarily for the purpose of providing a description of the ongoing process of super market patronage in a natural setting, the findings did yield insights which could be helpful in management decision-making. The methodology also proved to have utility in developing data concerning consumer behavior.

The findings relative to the major store attributes which the panel stated were important in choosing a super market closely resembled those found in other studies.

However, the reliance that management often places upon such generalized lists of store factors, usually rank-ordered in importance when reported by poll-type surveys, must be questioned.

When the factors were analyzed by store customer groups, the pattern of responses was found to vary considerably over time. Each store group tended to develop a rank-ordering of specific factors which reflected different motivational bases. Changers proved to be generally satisfied with previously preferred stores. Their shifts in behavior appeared to be due to other influences. The factors rated as important seemed to reflect social norms and values which the consumer selectively perceives in the store she prefers, especially when the alternative stores are objectively similar. This is not to suggest that the consumer is not keenly interested in store attributes; she is cognizant of obvious differences, for example, between the major stores and minor stores in this study.

Our analysis suggested that the majority of the panel tended to change the rank order of attribute importance to correspond with the attributes they believed their

chosen store had or did not have relative to alternative stores. The finding thus can be restated as a hypothesis: super market attributes perceived by the consumer as important result from patronage and are not a primary cause of store preference when alternative stores are objectively similar.

In both the stated factors and on the polar scales, other store attributes were found to be more influential than price, at least when the price differential between stores was objectively similar.

The finding that new residents in a community tend to investigate only two or three super markets within a short time after arriving before developing preferences which then tend to remain relatively stable suggests that the advertiser must seek ways to communicate quickly and specifically to them. For example, such media as direct mail, store signs, and the "Welcome Wagon," might be used to supplement newspaper advertising so as to achieve more effective exposure for this important group.

For the majority, super market shopping was a principal activity; one that was seldom done in conjunction with other shopping activities. This finding was supported by the fact the A & P was not located near any other stores, yet had little difficulty in attracting patronage. This

suggests that super markets locating in shopping centers may not benefit very much from the availability of other stores.

As expected, consumers tended to selectively perceive communication favorable to their preferred store, as evidenced by the face-to-face and advertising pressure indices. Yet in the pattern findings, face-to-face conversations were reported to be favorable in four out of five instances, while the readership scores indicated competitive advertising to have almost equal exposure. The readership of a given ad depended largely upon the quality of the copy and layout, not on the day it appeared nor the position within a paper. The use of "long copy" ads is questionable in view of the low "coop read" scores.

While the ratio of reading "own" store ads seemed to be consistently in a ratio of 5:4:3 across the Starch-type readership scores, the scores for readership of ads of other stores varied widely. This again was apparently a function of the attention and interest factors of the ads. It also suggests that a store's customers read the ads for informational purposes, without need for appealing to factors they already "know" the store has. Therefore, appeals should be selected to attract the interests of a competitor's customers. The advertising approach used

by Kroger proved to be effective, judging from the higher Kroger readership scores and patronage shifts to Kroger.

It is the ability of the advertising to attract permanent new customers which will create the most profitable results in the long-run.

The analysis of the communication patterns revealed the gross audience (those that were exposed to a channel in a given time period) was about equal for each of the major mass media channels. The message audience (those who remembered seeing or hearing an ad in that period) varied considerably between and within channels. A factor making channel comparisons difficult was the scant use of broadcast media by the super markets. Based on the scant data obtained concerning the effect of the two stores using direct mail and the one store using the broadcast media consistently, it would appear greater use should be made of these media, assuming similar costs. With only a small proportion of the panel "reading most" of the newspaper ads, other channels should be utilized to reach them.

Image. The image findings were perhaps the most impressive insofar as implications for the marketer is concerned. The concept of image, as developed in the study, appears to have the potential of generating valuable data for guiding management in taking more effective remedial

and reinforcing action in their communication and merchandising mix. The graphic portrayal of image data proved to be a very feasible method for analysis as well as a simple, effective way for presenting complex qualitative data for interpretation by management. Attitudinal trends can be discerned from the profiles. In advertising, for example, the advertising by Kroger seemed to have been at least in part responsible for the shift on the pleasant and friendly scales. That verbal appeals should correspond to a consumer's experience was seen in the shift in the Wrigley profiles on the clean/dirty scales before and after remodeling the store interior and correcting the problem.

The stability of attitudes suggested the need for long-term goals in advertising. Attitudinal trends were discernible which could be imputed to advertising in the case of the Kroger store (friendly and clean). That verbal appeals must correspond to a consumer's experience, however, could be seen in the shift in the Wrigley profiles on the clean/dirty scale, before and after the store corrected their problem. The attitudinal profiles have the ability to locate a specific problem-area, suggest what should be done, and report when problem has been remedied.

The semantic differential instrument, overall, was revealed to have considerable value for consumer research. It proved to have many advantages in obtaining attitudinal data, among them ease in application, reliability, sensitivity, flexibility, ability to delineate among the complex of factors studied, and face validity. The profiles were shown capable of locating specific problem-areas, suggest what needed to be done, and show when the problem had been met.

Through the use of factor analytical or similar techniques, tailored scales and concepts could be developed to fit the advertiser, product and market. Extraction of clusters showing underlying images appears to have utility. Researchers in applied areas can catalogue customer and product types which should be valuable in explaining and predicting consumer behavior. The methodology described is relatively inexpensive and readily adaptable to national as well as local studies.

Concepts used in the study were the store names.

Components of stores could easily be added; e.g., manager,

meats, produce, etc., to more effectively define consumer

attitudinal positions.

Two-Stage Attitude Change. The findings on the
"two-stage attitude change" can be summed up in Himmelstrand's

(1960) comment: "anyone making a survey of the correlation of verbal attitude measurement with behavior will arrive at the disheartening conclusion that these correlations are in most cases considerably lower than we desire."

A preconception of the study was that behavior would be a function of the intensity and direction of a consumer's attitudes. The findings did not fully support the hypothesis. Yet the exploration into reasons for the low correlation provided valuable insights. On the one hand, it appeared that those in the HI-LO (favorable shift in attitudes despite unfavorable communication) deviate category, some 15 per cent of the panel, were those tending to "think for themselves" and whose rationality may have been a function of considered judgment as a result of experience with a store. For example, Martineau reports findings from one grocery study indicating only about ten percent of women are intensely price-minded. It could also have been a function of their "persuasibility" dimension-a personality trait which needs further definition.

In addition, the phenomenon was observed repeatedly in the image and pattern analyses where attitudes seemed to follow behavior.

Four factors thought to have effect on consumer patronage behavior were evaluated in the study: opinion

leadership, gregariousness, life-cycle position and socioeconomic status. There was a slight indication that lifecycle and social status influenced choice of stores, but not on attitude change or patronage change. Opinion leadership was found to be important, but in an unexpected direction. Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) saw the opinion leader as a person who influenced the choice of a product. The author found that, for super market selection, the opinion leader was the person most likely to change patronage, and also to change to stores different from those to which the non-opinion leaders tended to change. In other words, the importance of the opinion leader in influencing consumer choice would appear to need further validation. (Our method for detecting opinion leaders was patterned closely after that developed by Katz and Lazarsfeld.)

We found no relationship between gregariousness and attitudes or behavior. Neither was this variable related to opinion leadership. The use of this trait as indexed in this study, seems to have little utility.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The findings of this study, in a sense, could be recast as hypotheses for further testing. The relation-ships between communication, attitudes, and consumer

behavior show considerable promise in explaining and predicting consumer behavior.

More information is needed in relating attitudes to behavior, and in defining factors influencing attitudinal change. The panel method provides an appropriate device for developing attitudinal indices over time which can be related to situational events. The semantic differential and factor analytical methods make the task of exploring attitudes feasible.

Possible lines of future investigation in the area of communication and consumer behavior include the following:

- 1. The relationship between attitudinal shifts and behavior is perplexing. The relationship of other learning variables, particularly knowledge and skills, with attitudes should help explain the behavior of consumer over time. The testing of the notion that attitudes follow behavior should be fruitful.
- 2. The study of personality traits may be a source of explanation in accounting for behavior. The persuasible—non-persuasible dimension appears to be a factor in determining advertising effect. Some consumers appear easier to influence than others regardless of the appeals used to change attitudes.

- The semantic differential might be modified in 3. order to obtain more sensitive measurements of competitive products. Including the potency and activity dimensions of meaning might be help-Nouns, symbols, phrases could be evaluated for their ability to provide different shades of meaning than elicited by the bipolar adjectives used in this study. Such tailored scales could be useful in providing greater flexibility and suitability for the particular problems under investigation. The use of control concepts, such as the one used in this study, could be further explored. Major concepts could be broken into components for more refined analyses of attitudes (Kroger manager, Kroger check-cashing, etc.). This would also help delineate the problem-areas better, thus aid management in taking more appropriate remedial action.
- 4. The use of factor analytic methods for clustering variables and obtaining typologies of products, consumers, and messages would be helpful in marketing problem-solution. For example, our findings on the "shopping center" and "other store" clusters gave an indication of the direction of

patronage shifts. The "ideal" store cluster provided clues as to the relative importance of various store attributes.

Mid-point judgments on the semantic differential were perplexing. Did they mean the consumer had lack of meaning or was it the result of some other factor? For example, it appeared many respondents were reluctant to use the unfavorable positions on the clearly evaluative scales, but readily marked them for scales such as high class/low class.

Inclusion of knowledge questions could clear up the relationship with concept familiarity. Expanding the scales by including the activity and potency dimensions of meaning would also be helpful.

5. Relative to messages, the use of more objective techniques for obtaining exposure measurement (such as the Starch recognition method) need to be devised for interpersonal and broadcast media measurement. The indices used in the study were crude. In addition, the application of message measures should be done oftener, e.g., "last week," during the study period.

- 6. Content analysis of the media messages could profitably be used to see how they affect attitudes and behavior. The Kroger success in this study was felt to have been a function of the structure and content of their advertisements. Split-run techniques could have been used with the assistance of the advertisers to test effects relative to direct mail advertising.
- 7. Investigation of reference group influence appears to be quite feasible in the natural situation as it relates to the buying act. The study design should include a provision for observing the behavior of all respondents in whatever groups are evaluated. For example, in the present study, had we extended our panel to include every person in the apartment buildings by the simple expedient of asking them their preferred stores on each wave, much more information would have been available.
- 8. At least two findings resulted from chance occurrences: the advertising by the A & P and Kroger appearing in the college newspaper, and the remodeling by Wrigley. By noting the positions of the consumer panel following the

first interviews and introducing purposeful changes in the situation through advertiser cooperation, several variables could be manipulated. Examples of these could be the use of different media, different content, remodeling of a store, special sales, "planted" influentials, etc.

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of advertising on consumer attitudes and behavior toward an economic object. Advertising was seen as one of three major communication variables which function in combination with each other and whose effects are mediated by situational and personality factors concerning the message-object. The situation chosen was one where the variables operated in a natural setting and could be observed: the everyday process in which the consumer makes her decision to select, patronize, and change among the super markets available to her.

Background. Empirical evidence accumulated to date relative to communication effect on attitudes and behavior point to the need for a better theoretical foundation to account for the anomalous and sometimes contradictory findings. From the existing literature, there is agreement that attitudes are predispositions to action and that a change in attitudes must be preceded by the reception and acceptance of a message suggesting a change.

Advertising, as a form of mass communication, is known to cause attitudinal change, usually in combination with interpersonal communication. How attitudes are learned is not clearly understood, nor is their relation to overt behavior.

Theory. In the present study, the author envisioned that knowledge of the intensity and direction of the affective component of a consumer's attitude toward an object such as a super market would enable him to predict the patronage act.

The specific act of patronage was viewed as part of an evolutionary process in which relevant attitudes are generated which precede the act of buying. The two theoretical positions underlying the study, images and two-stage attitude change, utilized attitude as the central concept for analyzing communication effects. Operationally, attitudes were defined as the scores received on an adaptation of the Semantic Differential developed by Osgood and his associates, using only bipolar adjectival scales tested to elicit judgments corresponding to the evaluative dimension of the meaning consumers had for the super market concepts associated with the scales. This dimension accounts for the largest share of the variance in the meaning people have for concepts.

The semantic differential thus provided data for describing store images as well as to test the hypotheses concerning the effect of the communication and other variables salient to the study relative to changes in attitudes.

Method. A representative sample of families was selected from the population of Spartan Village, a Michigan State University married housing development. The sample was interviewed twice, in October, 1960, and again in January, 1961, thus becoming a panel. The data were collected by means of a questionnaire administered by trained interviewers. Testing materials included the semantic differential and newspapers carrying all the super market advertising for measuring readership "last week."

Results. The results were as hypothesized for six of the seven hypotheses:

- Hypothesis 1. Exposure to advertising and faceto-face messages, and predispositions were related to changes in store patronage.
- Hypothesis 3. Face-to-face messages tended to be more related to attitudinal shifts than were advertising messages.
- Hypothesis 4. The attitudinal profiles for the consumer's preferred super market and her

"ideal" super market were more closely related than those of alternative super markets.

Hypothesis 5. The consumers changing store preference showed greater attitudinal shifts for the several stores than did the non-changers.

Hypothesis 6. Changes in super market patronage were related to the intensity of a consumer's attitudinal shift in an unfavorable direction.

Hypothesis 7. The proportion of residents residing on the same floor of an apartment dwelling and patronizing the same store did increase over time.

The one instance where the findings did not support the hypotheses was:

Hypothesis 2. Attitudinal shifts were not related to the combination of messages and predispositions concerning preferred super markets.

The failure of the attitudinal shifts to relate with the combined communication weights was explored and several implications drawn concerning the role of other factors.

<u>Conclusions</u>. Theoretical and practical implications of the findings were discussed. Suggestions were made concerning further research.

The following conclusions are stated as courses of action that might be taken by researcher and practition- er, based on the author's interpretation of the findings of the study:

A. Theoretical Findings

- The findings revealed that changes in attitudes were related to changes in patronage behavior. Therefore, by studying attitudes directly as representing predispositions to action, it appears possible to obtain clues for the explanation and prediction of consumer behavior.
- 2. The major communication variables studied-advertising, face-to-face, and predispositional or "self" messages--were found to be related, both singly and in combination, to patronage changes.
- 3. The combined influence of the communication variables was not related to the attitudinal shifts. Face-to-face messages, while the only communication variable related (slight-ly--mostly a function of the A & P customers) to attitudinal shifts, tended to have less

- influence overall on patronage changes than did advertising.
- The evidence from the deviate analysis 4. suggested that part of the reason for the failure of the attitudinal index to shift in the direction of the communication indices was due to personality factors. Some respondents tended to be more easily persuaded than others. We also found those who tended to be more price-oriented and tended to rate the importance of advertising and advice from friends very low and their self-experience high in evaluating stores. Further research on the general personality characteristic of persuasibility would be desirable. specificity and generality dimension of the belief component of attitude needs further definition. We saw that attitudes seemed to follow behavior in some cases, indicating the possibility of changing attitudes as suggested in Festinger's (1957) theory of cognitive dissonance.

- attitudes toward their preferred stores. The attitudinal profiles for the preferred stores closely resemble the profiles of the "ideal" store. For the aggregate, the attitudinal profiles remained quite stable over time, corroborating the finding that most consumers tended to select a unit of a chain store previously patronized when moving to a new community. The attitudinal profile changes did reflect the occurrence of events, however, such as the remodeling of a store (Wrigley) and an advertising campaign (Kroger).
- 6. There was little indication that demographic or socio-economic variables were related to super market patronage shifts. Contrary to the findings of Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955), there was little indication that the "opinion leader" influenced super market choice.
- 7. The influence of the one type of reference group analyzed was positively related to patronage shifts.

B. Methodology

- approach for the study of the processes of advertising and face-to-face effect and the direction of effect, in conjunction with consumer predispositions. By observing consumer behavior in a natural setting, the researcher can look for the specific act of patronage and assess the roles of the several influences which produced it.
- 2. The concept of "image" and the methodology for defining it, as developed in this study, appears to have generated valuable information for guiding management in taking more effective reinforcing and remedial action, such as a shift in advertising strategy. The semantic differential revealed its ability to quantify the reactions of consumers to a super market. The attitudinal profiles indicated trends in the panel's reactions and relationships between situational events and consumer attitudes. The profiles also pointed out areas of strength and weakness of individual

stores. The graphic method seems an appropriate method for transmitting such complex information to management in simplified form. The typologies obtained through linkage analysis revealed its ability to cluster variables into types rapidly and objectively, whether for consumers, products, or items. Researchers in applied areas could eventually catalog customer and product types. Such a catalog would be a valuable aid in planning strategy.

C. Substantive Findings

1. The concentration of retailers upon expediency and price appeals in their advertising was shown to be questionable.
Attitudes precipitating behavior changed very slowly over time. The findings concerning the influence of price, long considered by super market operators as the principal factor in obtaining increased sales, suggested that it was not an important patronage determinant for stores other than the A & P. Thus it could be

concluded that the other stores had two principal alternatives available where effective action could be taken to increase sales: (1) the use of advertising and promotion designed to change or reinforce consumer attitudes and beliefs concerning favored attributes other than price; and (2) by changing unfavorable attributes of the store or by innovation to take advantage of current consumer values. On the one hand, we saw that the A & P had by far the most favorable price image although its prices were judged by a panel of experts to be slightly higher than some competitors; Kroger's success in building "pleasant-friendly" attitudes may have contributed to its patronage increase. On the other hand, the reaction of the panel on the clean/dirty scale to an actual event, a change in the interior of the Wrigley store, demonstrated the effect of non-verbal communication on attitudes and beliefs relative to the product itself.

- The notion of "image" promises to become 2. increasingly significant for the advertiser as products and services become increasingly alike and objectively comparable with one another. Even in the case of a complex product such as a super market, the principal stores in many communities can be considered to be essentially equivalent choices. The store which is most successful in developing a favorable image may obtain a competitive advantage by the careful nurturing of image components by changing related store attributes or by advertising and promotional campaigns designed to change the consumer's attitudes and beliefs toward the store, or by combining these approaches.
- 3. The patterns of communication and shopping behavior revealed that such information can be of value in management decision-making concerning marketing strategy and tactics.

 For example, the generalized lists of favored store attributes obtained from poll-type surveys should probably be interpreted with caution. In the aggregate, the principal

factors stated as most important in selecting a super market resembled those reported by other studies and in approximately the same rank-order: price, quality of merchandise, location, etc. While knowledge of the relative importance of these factors may have utility when applied to a product class, e.g., super markets, they do not discriminate between equivalent super markets. Favored attributes seemed to influence choice only when obvious differences existed between stores. When the alternative stores are objectively similar, the consumer selectively perceives favored attributes in the store she prefers. The findings were restated as an hypothesis: attribute rankings result from patronage and are not a primary cause for store selection when alternative stores are objectively similar. Another finding of interest was that, for the majority, super market shopping was a principal activity; one that was seldom done in conjunction with other shopping activities. This finding was supported by the fact that the A & P was not located near any

other stores, yet had little difficulty in attracting patronage. This suggests that super markets locating in shopping centers may not benefit very much from the availability of other stores.

4. Advertising was positively related to changes in consumer behavior. The amount of readership of newspaper advertisements appeared to be related to the content and presentation of advertisements. The use of other media to supplement the newspaper was indicated. The finding that new residents in a community tend to investigate only two or three super markets within a short time after arriving before developing preferences which then tend to remain relatively stable suggests that the advertiser must seek ways to communicate quickly and specifically to them. For example, such media as direct mail, store signs, and the "Welcome Wagon," might be used to supplement newspaper advertising so as to achieve more effective exposure for this important group.

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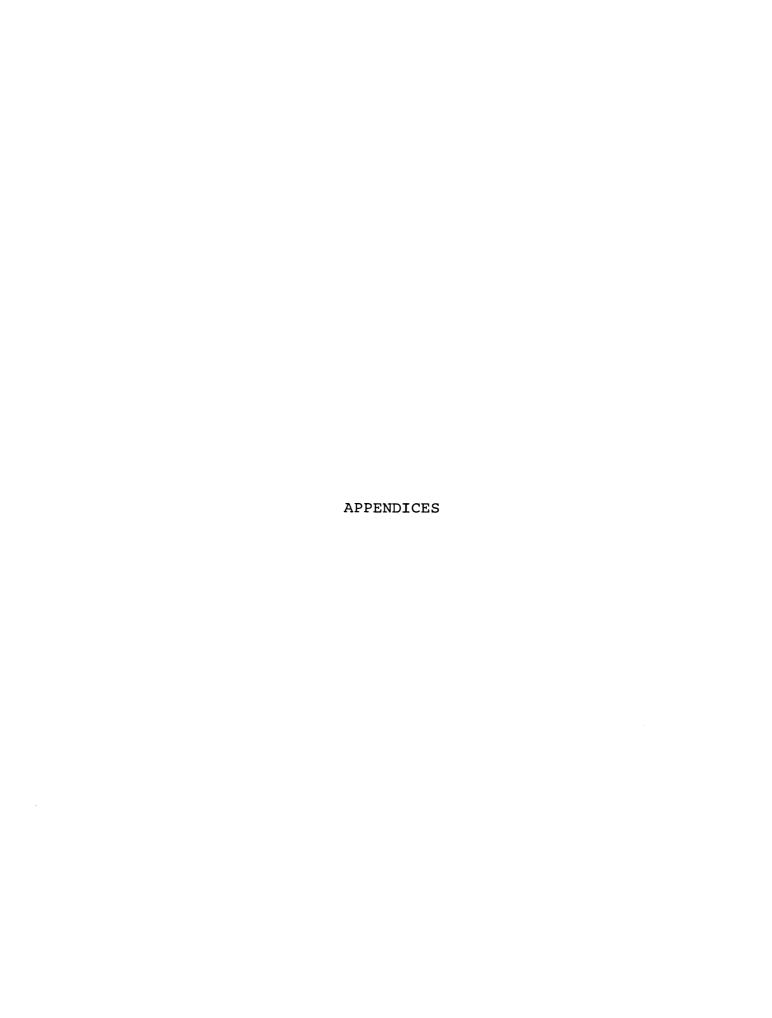
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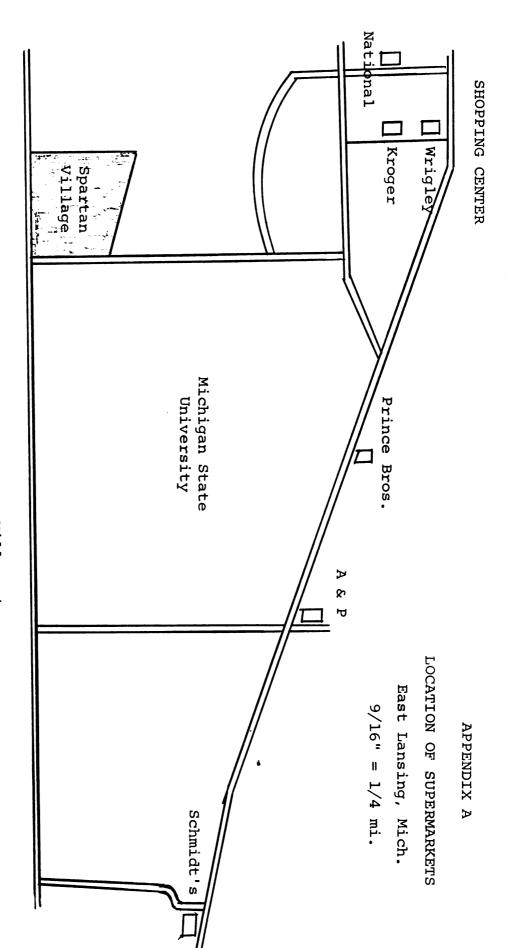
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Distance from Spartan Village to:

Shopping Center . . 2 1/4 miles Prince Brothers . . 2 1/4 miles

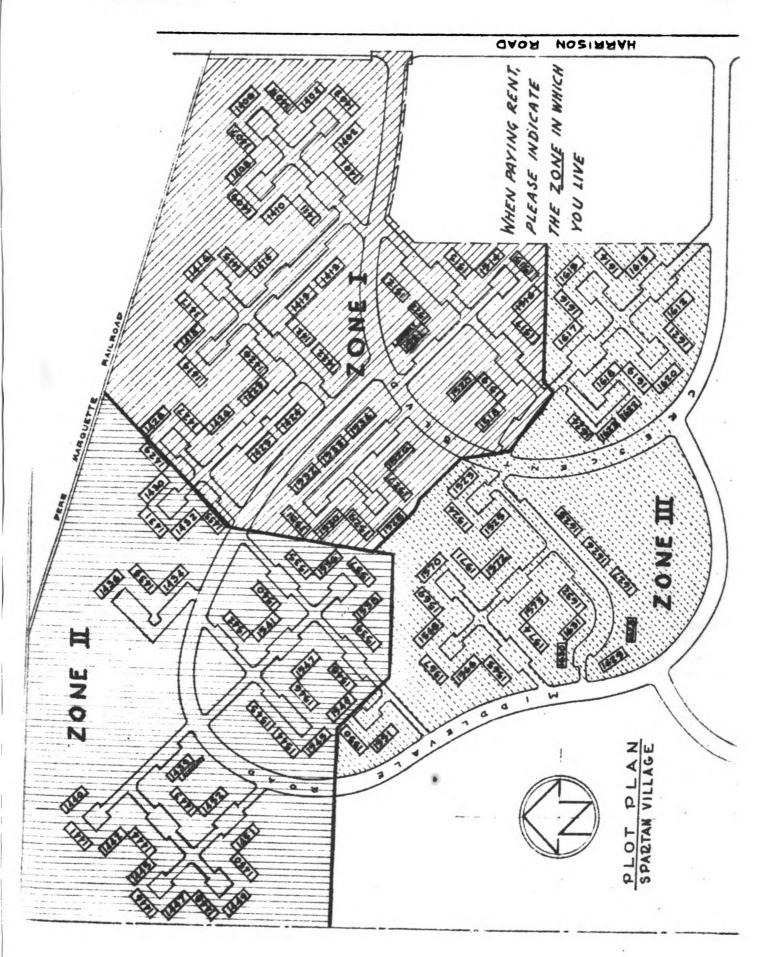
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IBM	Code	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(8-10	blank)

SPARTAN VILLAGE SUPER MARKET STUDY

Communications Research Center and Department of Advertising Michigan State University

Residence of	
Apartment:	Interview Date: Oct
Interview with	(person responsible for food store choice)

SECTION I TO BE FILLED OUT BY INTERVIEWER (questions & ad readership)

SECTION II TO BE FILLED OUT BY RESPONDENT (semantic differential)

- Note: 1. Interviewer instructions are capitalized, follow closely.
 - 2. Complete all questions unless otherwise indicated. Where respondent cannot answer, put reason where it can be readily seen by coders. For example, in 2.3, if respondent talked to someone and can't remember name, put "can't remember." If answer is declined, put NR (no reply). Wherever possible, obtain information that will be helpful, e.g., can't remember name, probe to see if neighbor, friend who is not neighbor, etc.
 - 3. Use back of pages to complete answers where room in insufficient in space provided. Be sure to identify with question number, place "see back" in question space.
 - 4. National supermarket when "National" appears, this is the <u>Frandor</u> store. In a few cases, the Grand River store is patronized, be sure to identify by writing "GR" after store name (National <u>GR</u>).
 - 5. You can expect the unexpected: when in doubt, use your best judgment or call ED 2-1511, Ext. 2043, where Mr. Atkin will be available to provide assistance.
 - 6. All information is to be held in confidence.

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	PART I	Page 1
1.1	What was the name of your favorite super mark to Spartan Village? (WRITE NAME & CITY)	et before moving
	Why did you like it? (PROBE BRIEFLY - "MOTHE	ER SHOPPED THERE,")
1 .2	What super markets have you visited since mov Village? (PLACE "X" IN BLANK BEFORE EACH STO	
	A & P National (F) Other Wrigley Prince Bros. (WRITE-IN) Kroger Schmidt's	
2.1	Please rank 1, 2, 3, the super markets in whi do your shopping in this area. (FOR FIRST CHUIT IN BLANK IN FRONT OF STORE: SECOND CHOICE	HOUCE STOLD, MARK
	A & P National (F) Other Wrigley Prince " Kroger Schmidt "	
2.2	Who or what led you to patronize state is your first choice? (INSURT 1ST (PROBE IN DEPTH)	, which you
2.3	Did you hear someone talk about the store be	fore going unerer
	(MARK A, B, C, D AFTER "WHO?")	Name
	"A" - neighbor "B" - friend, not a neighbor	Name
	"C" - relative "D" - other (explain)	Name
2.4	Did you see any of their ads in a newspaper	before going there?
2.5		
	Did you hear their radio commercials before yesno	going there?
	•	going there?

blank		
28	2.8	Did you go out looking around for a store? 1-yes 2-no (CIRCLE)
29	2.9	If yes, what made you stop at that store? (PROBE)
30	2.10	Summing up now, what was the most important of these in causing you to go to that store? (PROBE)
31	3.1	How often do you usually buy groceries? (CIRCLE O.E.)
		1-Once a week 2-Twice a week 4-Other (specify)
32,	4.1	On what days do you usually do your food shopping? (CIRCLE ONE)
		1-Monday 4-Thursday 7-Wednesday & Friday 2-Tuesday 5-Friday 8-Wednesday & Saturday 3-Wednesday 6-Saturday 9-Other (specify)
33	5.1	Where did you do your food shopping last week? (CIRCLE STORE OR WRITE IN IF UNLISTED. IF PERSON SHOPPED IN MORE THAN ONE STORE, CIRCLE EACH ONE AND PLACE APPROXIMATE AMOUNT OF MONEY THEY SPENT IN EACH TO SHOW RELATIVE IMPORTANCE).
		1-A & P 3-Kroger 5-Prince Other
		2-Wrigley 4-National (F) 6-Schmidt
35	5.2	If shopped in more than one store, Why? (PROBE)

(e.g. like meats at second store, pick up milk and bread,

because it is convenient, etc.)

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Page 2 (286)

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	6.1	•	important in	choosing a	N "Which factor do super market? Next RANK BLANK.
36		Most important (1s	st.)	1-low price	
37		Next important (2r	nd.)	3-variety	convenience of merchandise
38		Next important (3)	:d.)	5-quality	
39		Next important (4)	:h.)	6-cleanlin 7-friendli	ness
40		Next important (5t	:h.)	8-parking 9-stamps	facilities
	7.1	(SHOW PERSON LIST "Where do you get to buy groceries? important sources. OF IMPORTANCE.)	most of your Please rank	information 1, 2, 3, th	concerning where ethree about
41		Most important (1s	st.)	1-look for	
42		Next important (2	nd.)	3-friends,	not maigheors
43		Least important (Brd.)	_	on
44	8.1	What newspapers do	you read reg	ularly? (Cl	RCLE)
		1-State Journal Of 2-State News ONLY		er	
		IF THE PERSON DOES 8.2, 8.3, and 8.4		STATE JOUR	RNAL, OMIT QUESTIONS
45	8.2	2 If read the <u>State Journal</u> , how much of the super market advertising do you read? (CIRCLE)			
		1-never look at for 2-skim a few of the			
46	8.3	Is there any parts	icular day tha	t you look	for food ads? (CIRCLE)
			5-Mon., & Thu		7-No particular day 8-Other

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7'		1-Scan 3-read about half 2-read less than half 4-read most of ad
48	9.1	Which radio stations do you listen to regularly? (CIRCLE)
		1-WJIM only 2-WILS only 4-Prefer WJIM, but also listen to WILS 4-Prefer WILS, but also listen to WJIM 5-Listen to other stations mostly 6-Do not listen to radio
		OMIT QUESTIONS 9.2-9.5 IF PERSON IS A NON-LISTENER OF RADIO
49	9.2	About how many hours do you listen to radio each day? (INTERVIEWER CIRCLE NUMBER OF HOURS BELOW)
		Hours before 6 P.M. (about) 0 1 2 3 or more Hours after 6 P.M. (about) 0 1 2 3 or more
50	9.3	Do you remember hearing any super market commercials on your radio this past week? 1-yes 2 -no (CIRCLE)
51		(IF NO, OMIT QUESTIONS 9.4 AND 9.5)
		If yes, for what stores? 1-A & P 2-Wrigley 3-Kroger 4-National 5-Prince Bros. 6-Schmidt's 7-Other 8-Don't remember store
52	9.4	What do you remember hearing? (e.g., GOLD BELL STAMP JINGLE FOR WRIGLEY)
53	10.1	Which television stations do you watch regularly; WJIM-TV-Channel 6 or WILX & WMSB-Channel 10? Which station do you prefer? (CIRCLE)
		1-WJIM-TV only 2-WILX-TV only 3-WMSB only 4-Prefer WJIM-TV but also watch WJIM-TV 5-Prefer WILX-TV but also watch WJIM-TV 6-Other only 7-Don't have television
		(IF THE PERSON DOES NOT WATCH TELEVISION, OMIT QUESTIONS 10.2 - 10.6)

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54	10.2	How many hours do you watch television each day? (INTERVIEWER: CIRCLE NUMBER OF HOURS BELOW)
		Hours before 6 P.M. (about) 0 1 2 3 or more hours Hours after 6 P.M. (about) 0 1 2 3 or more hours
55	10.3	Do you remember seeing any super market commercials last week?yesno
		(IF NO, OMIT QUESTIONS 10.4 AND 10.5)
56	10.4	If yes, for what stores? (CIRCLE)
57		1-A & P 2-Wrigley 6-Schmidt's 3-Kroger 7-Other 4-National 8-Don't remember store(s) Do you remember what you saw? Please describe.
58	11.1	Do you ever talk to anyone about where to buy food? (CIRCLE) 1-never 2-sometimes 3-often
59 <u> </u>	11.2	(IF TALKS ABOUT FOOD STORES) Would you mind describing the persons with whom you have discussed food stores? (INTERVIEWER: GET NAMES, IF POSSIBLE, BUT BE SURE TO FIND OUT IF THEY ARE NEIGHBORS, WORK ASCOCIAGES, RELATIVES, MEMBERS OF CHURCH GROUP, OR CLUB, ETC. IF NEIGHBOR, FIND OUT WHERE THE PERSON(S) LIVE, E.G., SAME FLOOR, NEXT APARTMENT BLOCK, ETC. PROBE TO SEE WHICH ONE GAVE ADVICE ON WHERE TO SHOP.)
		Talked to
		Talked to
		Talked to

IBM COL.		
61 62 2 63 2 64 2 65 2 66-79 80 1	11.4	Do you remember talking about a food store with anyone last week? What store(s)? (PLACE AN "X" IN THE SPACE TO THE LEFT OF EACH STORE SHE TALKED ABOUT).
CARD 2 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8-10 BLANK	11.5	What was said? (PPOBF)
11	12.1	Do you receive any spectry advertising in the mill. No you read it? (CLRCLI) 1-do not receive any 3-yes, read it some form to a 2-yes, read it usually 4-yes, never near it.
12 13 14	12.2	Did you receive any lost wook? From whom? The AN "A" IN THE SPACE TO THE LEFT OF EACH STORE IN THE FRONT SHE RECEIVED MAIL ATVERTILING). A & P Kroger Other Wrigley National
15	12.3	What did it say? (PROBE)
17	13.1	Age. 1-under 24, 2-over 24 (CIRCLE)
18	13.2	Number of children. 1-None, 2-one, 3-two or more (CIRCLE)
19	13.3	Last grade in school completed. (CIRCLE) 1- No college 2- some college 3- college graduate
20	13.4	Do you hold a job or go to school? (CIRCLE) 1-housewife 3-work only 2-student only 4-work and go to school

IBM COL.					
21	13.5	What is your father's	occupation	? (WRITE	: IN)
22	13.6	Where are you from? (not Lansing 3-Out-of	•	-Lansing	area 2-Michigan,
23	13.7	How long have you live	d in Spart	an Villag	ge?months
24	13.8	How much do you spend (CIRCLE) 1-Under \$10, 2-\$10-\$1			
25	14-1	Do you do your grocery another activity? (CI		at the sa	me time wou do
		1-rarely, 2-sometime	es, 3-o	ften,	4 = msm (1) y
26	14.2	What other activities?	Describe	(PROBE)	AND THE RESIDENCE OF THE PERSON NAMED TO SEE
					ner strak i rik i karaksa alka alkananaka ka alkana
27	14.3	Do you usually go groculf yes, with whom? (Co		ng with a	mpone else?
		1-No 2-Yes, with 3-Yes, with another per			
28	14.4	Who decides the store?			
	15.1	Have you recently been	asked for	your adv	vice on:
29 30 31		a community problem? a personal problem? a grocery problem?	1-yes	2-no	
	15.2	To whom have you given	your advi	ce?	
			(name and	address)
	15.3	Compared with other pe friends, are you more asked for your advice	or less li		
32 33 34		a community problem? a personal problem? a grocery problem?	1-less 1-less 1-less	2-more 2-more 2-more	* *

IBM CARD 2 COLUMN						
35	15.4	Do you like to	meet peo	ple, go to social g	atherings?	
		(CIRCLE)	1do	2do not		
36	16.1	it comes to ge (DESCRIBE RELA	tting adv	e judgment you woul ice on super market - FRIEND IN CHURCH, Y "WHY", AND IF THE	s? NEIGHBOR, MC	
37	17.1	How many peopl to fairly ofte		re with whom you ar	e friendly ar	nd talk
		Netghbors: at	oout (numb	er) Other fr	iends:	
38	17.2	How many clubs	s and organ	nizations do you be	long to? (NUM	(BER)
		Groups in Span Other Campus g Off-campus gro	groups	ge		
	18.1	JOURNAL ONLY) I have here cowere super maneach issue with EACH EDITION,	opies of larket adver th me and STARTING	RKET NEWSPAPER ADS ast week's State Jo tisements. Would y tell me which ads y WITH MONDAY. CHECK ET DESCRIBES HOW.)	urnal in whice ou please located to the contract of the contra	ch there ok at AF THRU
:_	Day	Ads	Noted	Seen-Associated	Read Most	Соор
39	Mon.	Shopti te A & P				(Wed. only)
40	Tues.	Shoprite				
41	Wed.	National				
42		A & P Kroger				
		Wrigley			-	
43	Thur.	Quality				
44		Bob's Mkt.				
45		Beeman's		-		
T-7		Shoprite Universal				
		Junedale				
		Shaheen's		-		
		Schmidt's				

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PART II

The last part of this questionnaire is designed to measure the meaning of different words by the use of the "rating scale" shown below. Study the example to see how the rating is done.
Advertising healthy: : X: : sick
By placing an "x" in one of the spaces you can show the direction and the intensity of your association with the word "advertising." For example, suppose you feel that "advertising" is neither "healthy" nor "sick". You would indicate your feeling by placing the "x" in the middle space as shown above.
However, should you feel that "advertising" is $\underline{\text{very}}$ "healthy" you would mark the scale like this:
Advertising healthy: X: :_:: :_: sick
If your feeling is that "advertising" is <u>quite</u> "sick" you would mark the scale as follows:
Advertising healthy ::::::_sick
However, if you feel that "advertising" is only <u>slightly</u> one way then you should check like this:
Advertising healthy ::::::_sick
Now, would you mind checking your rating for "My Ideal Supermarket."
MY IDEAL STORE good : : : bad fair : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :
NOW - TURN TO NEXT PAGE AND DO THE SAME FOR THE SUPER MARKETS LISTED.
WORK AS QUICKLY AS YOU CAN. MOST PERSONS FINISH THIS ENTIRE PAGE IN LESS THAN FIVE MINUTES.
PLEASE CHECK EVERY ITEM. (IF YOU ARE UNFAMILIAR WITH THE STORE, CHECK

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KROGER	good	::_:_:_:_:_:	bad
A & P	fair		unfair
SCHMIDT'S	pleasant		
NATIONAL	clean		unpleasant
			dirty
WRIGLEY	friendly	::::	unfriendly
PRINCE BROS	close	::::	distant
A & P	expensive	::::	inexpensive
SCHMIDT'S	progressive	::::	conservative
NATIONAL	high class	::::_:	low class
WRIGLEY	good		bad
PRINCE BROS	fair		unfair
KROGER	pleasant		unpleasant
	· ·	``````	
SCHMIDT'S	clean	:::::_	dirty
NATIONAL	friendly		unfriendly
WRIGLEY	close		
			distant
PRINCE BROS	expensive	·:::	inexpensive
KROGER	progressive	::::	conservative
A & P	high class	·::::	low class
NATIONAL	good	::::	bad
WRIGLEY	fair		unfair
PRINCE BROS	pleasant		unpleasant
KROGER	clean		dirty
A & P	friendly		unfriendly
SCHMIDT'S	close		distant
OCIMILDI O	CIOGC	···	
WRIGLEY	ovnonaivo		1
	expensive		inexpensive
PRINCE BROS	progressive	·:::	conservative
KROGER	high class	:::::	low class
A & P	good	:::::	bad
SCHMIDT'S	fair	::::	unfair
NATIONAL	pleasant	::::	unpleasant
PRINCE BROS	clean	::::	dirty
KROGER	friendly		
A & P	close		distant
SCHMIDT'S	expensive		inexpensive
NATIONAL	progressive	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	conservative
WRIGLEY	high class		low class
WICLOUDI	might class	···	104 61888
KROGER	fair		unfair
A & P			
	pleasant	·:::	unpleasant
SCHMIDT'S	friendly	···	unfriendly
NATIONAL	close	····	distant
WRIGLEY	progressive	::::	conservative
PRINCE BROS	high class	:::::	low class
A & P	clean	·:::	dirty
SCHMIDT'S	good		bad
NATIONAL	expensive		inexpensive
WRIGLEY	pleasant		unpleasant
PRINCE BROS	good		bad
KROGER	close		distant
		The state of the s	
SCHMIDT'S	high class	·::::	low class
NATIONAL	fair		unfair
WRIGLEY	clean		dirty
PRINCE BROS	friendly		unfriendly
KROGER A & P	expensive progressive		inexpensive
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IBM Code

SPARTAN VILLAGE SUPER MARKET STUDY

Communications Research Center and Department of Advertising Michigan State University

Residence of	
Apartment: Intérview Date:	
Interview with	

SECTION I TO BE FILLED OUT BY INTERVIEWER (questions & ad readership)

SECTION II TO BE FILLED OUT BY RESPONDENT (semantic differential)

- Note: 1. Interviewer instructions are capitalized, follow closely.
 - 2. Complete all questions unless otherwise indicated. Where respondent cannot answer, put reason where it can be readily seen by coders. For example, in 2.3, if respondent talked to someone and can't remember name, put "can't remember." If answer is declined, put NR (no reply). Wherever possible, obtain information that will be helpful, e.g., can't remember name, probe to see if neighbor, friend who is not neighbor, etc.
 - 3. Use back of pages to complete answers where room in insufficient in space provided. Be sure to identify with question number, place "see back" in question space.
 - 4. National supermarket when "National" appears, this is the <u>Frandor</u> store. In a few cases, the Grand River store is patronized, be sure to identify by writing "GR" after store name (National <u>GR</u>).
 - 5. You can expect the unexpected: when in doubt, use your best judgment or call ED 2-1511, Ext. 2043, where Mr. Atkin will be available to provide assistance.
 - 6. All information is to be held in confidence.

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(Leave		PART I
blank)	1.1	What super markets have you visited since the beginning of the fall term? (PLACE "X" IN BLANK FOR EACH STORE VISITED)
12		A & P Kroger Prince BrosShoprite Wrigley's National Schmidt's
14		Other (WRITE IN)
15	1.2	Which of these super markets do you prefer as your first choice? Second choice? Third choice?
16		First choiceSecond choiceThird Choice
17	1.3	Where did you do your shopping last week? (IF PERSON SHOPPED MORE THAN ONE STORE, FIND OUT WHICH WAS FIRST, SECOND, ETC., RELATIVE TO AMOUNT OF MONEY SPENT AND WRITE 1, 2, ETC. IN_)
19		A & P Kroger Prince Brothers
		Wrigley's National Schmidt's
		Other
	1.4	Which factor do you consider the most important in selecting a super market? Which do you think is the next most important? (TO 5TH RANKSHOW LIST BELOW TO RESPONDENT)
20 21 22 23 24		Most important Second Third First 1-low price 2-location convenience 3-variety of merchandise 4-quality of produce 5-quality of meats 6-cleanliness 7-friendliness 8-parking facilities 9-stamps
•	2.1	Have you recently been asked for your advice concerning super markets? Yes No
25	2.2	Compared with other persons belonging to your circle of friends, are you more or less likely than they to be asked for your advice on a grocery problem?
26		MoreLess
	2.3	How many people are there with whom you are quite friendly and talk to fairly often? (ESTIMATE, NOT EXACT)
,		Neighbors Other friends
**	2.4	How many clubs, organizations, formal groups do you actively participate in?

About ___

27	3.1	Listed below are three major sources of which you can learn about super market sources do you feel are the most helps a decision as to which super market to	ts. Which ful to you	of the in making	
28		A - Media (newspaper, radio, tv, mai)	l) Most i	mportant	_
29		B - Talking to other peopleC - Looking around for myself	Second	most "	_
30			Third	most "	-
	3.2	Among the various media, which have you most helpful in deciding where to buy			
31		A - Newspapers First B - Radio Second C - Television Third D - Mail advertising	- - -		
32	3.3	Among the various people you talk to, talk with most about super markets?	which are	the ones you	
		B - friends, not neighbors	First Second Third		
	4.1	Do you remember talking to anyone about ONE AT A TIME) last week? Please try said was favorable, unfavorable, or "bounds of the said was favorable, and the said was favorable was favorable.	y and recal		
		A & P? Yes No (IF YES)		(CIRCLE)	Mixed
3		Wrigley? Yes No	favorable	Unfavorable	Mixed
14		Kroger? Yes No	Favorable	Unfavorable	Mixed
35		National? Yes No	Favorable	Unfavorable	Mixed
6	4.2	Now, thinking over the past three mont to anyone about (SPECIFY EACH STORE)? cussion about (EACH STORE) was, in ger or mixed?	Would you	say the dis-	
		A & P? Yes No (IF YES)	Favorable	Unfavorable	Mixed
		Wrigley? Yes No	Favorable	Unfavorable	Mixed
		Kroger? Yes No	Favorable	Unfavorable	Mixed
		National? Yes No	Favorahl <i>e</i>	Unfavorable	Mixed

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37	5.1	What newspapers do you read usually?
<i></i>		State JournalState News Neither
		(IF READS EITHER OR BOTH NEWSPAPERS)
		Do you remember seeing any newspaper advertisements for the A & P last week?
38		Yes No (IF YES) read more than half read less than half
39		Do you remember seeing advertisements for Wrigley's last week?
41		Yes No (IF YES) read more than half read less than half
		Do you remember seeing advertisements for Kroger last week?
		Yes No (IF YES) read more than half read less than half
		Do you remember seeing advertisements for National last week?
		Yes No (IF YES) read more than half read less than half
	5.2	Now, thinking back over the <u>past three months</u> , can you recall reading any newspaper advertisements for (EACH STORE)?
		A & P?
		Yes No (IF YES) How often? about once a week about once a month
		How much usually read? less than half more than half
		Wrigley?
		Yes No (IF YES) How often? about once a week about once a month
		How much usually read? less than half more than half
		Kroger?
		Yes No (IF YES) How often? about once a week about once a month
	٠	How much usually read? less than half more than half
		National?
		YesNo (IF YES) How often? about once a week about once a month

How much usually read? ___ less than half

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	6.1	Do you have a radio? Yes No	
		(IF YES)	
	6.2	Do you remember hearing any radio commercial ASK SPECIFICALLY, ONE AT A TIME) <u>last week</u> ?	s for (FOR EACH STORE,
43		A & P store?YesNo Kroger?	YesNo
+ 4		Wrigley's Yes No National?	YesNo
+-7	6.3	Now, thinking back over the past three month hearing any commercials for (SPECIFY EACH ST	
		A & P store? Yes NO Kroger?	YesNo
		Wrigley's? Yes No National?	YesNo
	7.1	Do you have a television set? Yes	lo
		(IF YES)	
46	7.2	Programmer Do you remember seeing any television comments EACH STORE) <u>last week</u> ?	ccials for (SPECIFY
47 48		A & P? Yes No Kroger?	YesNo
49		Wrigley's? Yes No National?	_YesNo
* 7	7.3	Now, thinking back over the past three month seeing any commercials for (SPECIFY EACH STO	
		A & P? Yes No Kroger? Wrigley? Yes No National?	
50 51	8.1	Did you receive any super market advertising EACH STORE) in the mail <u>last week</u> ?	g from (SPECIFY
52		A & P? Yes No Kroger?	_YesNo
3		Wrigley? Yes NO National?	Yes No
, <u>, </u>	8.2	Now, thinking back over the past three month reading any mail advertising from (SPECIFY E	•
		A & P? Yes No Kroger?	Yes No
		Wrigley? Yes No National?	Yes No

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		OCTOBER INTERVIEW: SUPER MARKET STATED FIRST CHOICE
		INTERVIEWER: IMPORTANT: THE STORE SHOWN ABOVE IS THE STORE RESPONDENT SAID WAS HER FIRST CHOICE STORE LAST OCTOBER. CHECK TO SEE WHAT STORE IS STATED AS FIRST CHOICE NOW (page 2 question 1.2).
		IF SAME STORE - GO ON TO PART II
		IF <u>DIFFERENT</u> STORE - ASK QUESTIONS BELOW.
		When we interviewed you in October, you stated that (see above) was your first choice. Now you state that (new first choice) is your first choice.
1	1.1	Why did you stop going to (OLD STORE)? (DID SOMETHING SPECIFIC HAPPENSTORE REFUSED TO CASH CHECK, ETC.)
2	1.2	Would you say, in general, that you were satisfied or dissatisfied with the (OLD STORE) at the time you decided to change? (CHECK ONE)
		very satisfied no particular feeling slightly dissatisfied quite dissatisfied very dissatisfied
3	2.1	How did you happen to decide to patronize (NEW STORE)?
4		Before you made the change, what was there about (NEW STORE) that attracted you?
	2.2	Did anyone in your family say anything about (NEW STORE) before you changed?
5		YesNo
		Do you remember what?
	2.3	Did you talk with someone other than a relative about the (NEW STORE) before you changed?
5		Yes No
		What did the person(s) say about the (NEW STORE)?
		Would you describe the person(s)? (FIND OUT IF NEIGHBOR ON SAME FLOOR, OTHER NEIGHBOR; FRIEND, NOT NEIGHBOR: TEACHER: ETC.)

17___

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	2.4	Did you see any of their ads in a newspaper before going there.
18		Yes No
		(IF YES) In which newspaper? State News
		State Journal
		Can you recall if there was a particular ad which helped you decide to go to (NEW STORE)?
19		Yes No (IF YES) What did the ad say?
	2.5	Did you hear their radio commercials before going to (NEW STORE)?
20		Yes No (IF YES) What did you hear?
	2.6	Did you see their commercials on television before going to (NEW STORE)?
21		Yes No (IF YES) What did you see?
	2.7	Did you receive any mail advertising from (NEW STORE) before going there?
22		Yes No (IF YES) What did it say?
	3.1	Summing up, now, what was the most important source of information which helped you to decide upon the (NEW STORE), among the information sources listed below? (RANK FIRST, SECOND, THIRD, PUT "O" IF RESPONDENT SAYS DID NOT SEE ADV. OR DID NOT TALK)
23		Advertising (in newspaper, radio, tv, or mail)
24		Conversations with relatives, neighbors, or friends
25		Looking for myself
		Please rate the following sources of information. (PUT CORRESPOND-ING NUMBER IN BLANK IN FRONT OF EACH SOURCE)
_		1 - very important newspaper ads
26		2 - quite important radio commercials
27		3 - slightly important tv commercials 4 - not important direct mail
-		spouse
28		mother
		neighbor, same floor neighbor, other
		friend, not neighbor
		looking for myself

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PART II

The last part of this questionnaire is designed to measure the meaning of different words by the use of the "rating scale" shown below. Study the example to see how the rating is done.
Advertising healthy: X: Sick
By placing an "x" in one of the spaces you can show the direction and the intensity of your association with the word "advertising." For example, suppose you feel that "advertising" is neither "healthy" nor "sick". You would indicate your feeling by placing the "x" in the middle space as shown above.
However, should you feel that "advertising" is very "healthy" you would mark the scale like this:
Advertising healthy: X: :::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::
If your feeling is that "advertising" is quite "sick" you would mark the scale as follows:
Advertising healthy: ::: X:: sick
However, if you feel that "advertising" is only <u>slightly</u> one way then you should check like this:
Advertising healthy: X: : sick
NOW, WOULD YOU MIND CHECKING YOUR RATING FOR "MY IDEAL SUPERMARKET."
MT IDEAL STORE good
NOW - TURN TO NEXT PAGE AND DO THE SAME FOR THE SUPER MARKETS LISTED.
WORK AS QUICKLY AS YOU CAN. MOST PERSONS FINISH THE ENTIRE PAGE IN LESS THAN FIVE MINUTES.

---PLEASE CHECK EVERY ITEM. (IF YOU HAVE NO OPINION ABOUT A PARTICULAR SUPER MARKET LISTED, CHECK CENTER SPACE).

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				(303)
25	KROGER	gond	::::	bad
27	A & P	fair	:::::	unfair
28	SCHMIDT'S	pleasant	····	unpleas ant
29	NATIONAL	clean	::_:_:_:_:	dirty
30	WRIGLEY	friendly	·::::	unfriendly
31	PRINCE BROS	close	·'''''	distant
32	▲ & P	expensive		inexpensive
33	SCHMIDT'S	progressive	·	conservative
34	NATIONAL	high class	····································	low class
35	WRIGLEY	good	'''''	bad
36	PRINCE BROS	fair	···	unfair
37	KROGER	pleasant	``````	unpleasant
		•	·	•
38	SCHMIDT'S	clean	·:::	dirty
39	NATIONAL	friendly		unfriendly
40	WRIGLEY	close	::::	distant
41	PRINCE BROS	expensive	·:::	inexpensive
42	KROGER	progressive	:::::	conservative
43	A & P	high class	::::	low class
44	NATIONAL			bad
45	WRIGLEY	good fair		unfair
46	PRINCE BROS	pleasant	·	unpleasant
47	KROGER	clean	·	dirty
48	A & P	friendly	·	unfriendly
49	SCHMIDT'S	close	·:::::	distant
			"	
50	WRIGLEY	expensive		inexpensive
51	PRINCE BROS	progressive		conservative
52	KROGER	high class		low class
53	A & P	good	::_:_:_:_:_:	bad
54	SCHMIDT'S	fair	:::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::	unfair
55	NATIONAL	pleasant		unpleasant
E (DRINGE BROG	-1		11
56 <u> </u>	PRINCE BROS	clean		dirty
58	KROGER	friendly		unfriendly
56 <u></u>	A & P SCHMIDT'S	close		distant inexpensive
60	NATIONAL	expensive progressive		conservative
61	WRIGLEY	high class		low class
VI	WRIGHEI	nigh Class	·	IOW CIASS
62	KROGER	fair	: : : : : : :	unfair
63	A & P	pleasant		unpleasant
64	SCHMIDT'S	friendly		unfriendly
65	NATIONAL	close	::_::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::	distant
66	WRIGLEY	progressive	::::	conservative
67	PRINCE BROS	high class	:_:_:_:_:	low class
60	A 6 D	_ 1 -)	11.etar
68	A & P	clean		dirty
69 70	SCHMIDT'S	boog		bad inexpensive
70	NATIONAL	expensive		inexperience
72	WRIGLEY PRINCE BROS	pleasant good		unpleasant bad
73	KROGER	close	;;;;;;;;;;;;;	distant
	·	22000	" annum " annum " orono " orono " annum " annum " annum " annum " annum "	
74	SCHMIDT'S	high class	···	low class
75	NATIONAL	fair	:_:_:_:_:_:	unfair
76	WRIGLEY	clean	:::::	dirty
77	PRINCE BROS	friendly	:::::	unfriendly
78	KROGER	expensive		inexpensive
79	A & P	progressive	<u> </u>	conservative

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APPENDIX D

Reproduction of the Advertisements and Readership Scores from the Readership Penetration Test*

State Journal

Prince Brothers (Shop Rite)
A & P
Prince Brothers (Shop Rite)
National
A & P
Kroger
Wrigley
Prince Brothers (Shop Rite)
Schmidt's

State News

A & P Kroger

*The nine ads appearing in the <u>State Journal</u> were used in the readership test for ads read "last week." The two ads from the <u>State News</u> are included to provide examples of the weekly ads carried in the college daily during the study period.



34.7%

VALUE MUTRITION PLAYOR LEAN, BOSTON BUTT

- 29 Farmer Post's

18.3%

V-8-Z

EVERY WEBNESDAY!



WALUE MUTRITION PLAYOR **TENDER - TASTY - SLICED**

11.2%

PORK .

OR SHURFINE



Choc., White, Yellow, Devil's Food

AND THIS COUPON

ed thru Wednesday, Sept. 20th

SPARTAN BEEF. CHICKEN OR TURKEY



6' Off Label - NESTLE'S

STAR KIST



20° Off LIPTON'S



DINTY MOORE GIANT 24 OZ. CAN

MICHIGAN FINGER CARROTS

2 - 19

PURINA DOG CHOV





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4006 N. East St.

@2016 N. East St. 000 000,00 000 0 4 6 70 0 4 6 000 0 5 6 70 0 70 6





more people can enjoy LD CHARTE ENTUCKY'S FINEST BOURBON SEVEN YEARS OLD

NOTHING HAS CHANGED ...

OLD

EXCEPT THE PRICE!

←Still 7 years gentled →Still a mellow 86 proof —Still Kentuc'y's Finest Hourbon



Delay Denied In Merger Case

BIGGER DISCOUNTS! TODAY and ALWAYS!

AT "LEGNARD WHOLESALE" DISTRIBUTORS

WOLLENSAK Automatic

go, Revers, Ko- Manefield, Brum	tok, Bell & Hywell, barger, G-E, Wester	Polaroid, Voltlands 1. Acture, plus man	y others.	
TABLE RADIO \$1190	Someonite Card Tables \$899	Typewriter Including Con-	Blasell Shampes Master \$200	2-9 Cup Electric Percelate \$792
Lie \$14.75 Flint, Ekso 7-ps. Eitsben Tool Set \$249	BYI Elect. Can Opener	Electria Blanket Westington DOUBLE BED \$1 196	Welch Baby Folding Stroller	Lady Sunbase Elect. Share SQ82







YOUR MONEY'S WORTH

Social Security Change Sure to Affect Many

SEE THEM THURSDAY, FRIDAY, SATURDAY

1961 PLYMOUTH "King of the Road"

1961 VALIANT King of Compacts

DAN O'SHAUGHNESSEY

Which One Would a Pharmacist Use?

By Roland C. Brown of the Rouser Drug Co.

SUPER RIGHT BEEF

SMOKED LEAN-MEATY 2-3 LB. AVG.

SPARE RIBS

39:

Cherry Pie

Constitution on engine

Peaches MEDOCLAND. 3 29-02.	79c 🗒
Tea Bags OUR OWN 100 BAGS	85c #
Grapefruit Sections AP 2 CANS	39c 🗒
Loundry Bleach HOOM SAR GAL	47c #
Ketchup New PACK 2 14-02.	37¢ 🖁
Neodles ANN PAGE, 148.	25c m
Soda Crackers ARISTOCEAT BOX	23c H
Peanut Butter ANN PAGE AM	55c #
Mayonnaise SPECIAL OFFER OF	49¢ 🖁
Potato Chips TWIN PACK TOX	59c H

La cos cos cos cos cos cos cos

Grapefruit Juice

HANT AMERICA'S GREAT MUSICALS

DELUNE CARE 15c

"SHOWBOAT" 1.69

OMET \$1.69 IL

Swiftning Shortening 3 th 77c

701 37c

25 4 11.89

Quik

Jello Gelatin 1 +OL PROS. 3 1-OL 28c Starkist Tuna MEAT 2 CAME 67c

dexola Oil

PURPOSE OF 590

All Prigss in This Ad Effective thru Tuesday, Sept 37, 1995 In Williamston Store and All Five Lansing A & P Super

AP Super Markets

1900 E. MICHIGAN AVE. Menday thre Friday S A. M. to S P. M. Saturday S A. M. to S P. M. 425 SORTH WASHINGTON AVE. 102 EAST MT. HOPE AVE. Mom. Tum. & Sat. 9 A. M. to S P. M. Wed., Thus. & Fri. 9 A. M. to S P. M. 5128 SOUTH CEDAR AT JOLLY RD. 1401 E. GRAND RIVER. E. LANSING



NECK BONES

ALL SALE PRICES IN THIS

WHOLE HOG SALE

FRESH HAMS

EVERY FOOD PURCHASE!



PORK

FELT 22 ---

@2416 N. East St. STREET, STREET, E RIGHT TO LIMIT QUANTITIES



THE STATE JOERSAL Wednesday, Sept. 28, 1960 13

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THORESHIE Divorce

Suit Off

He Still Takes His

of disputes, were don't not married of La-for in 1801, reased on them had their differ of ended on separated g under the same roof solery has ended from the 'tell taken his it in the hark porch." I review said.

MORE SPIRITED THAN EVER 61

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OCT. 6



Banquet Frazen Food Sale!					
Meet Pies	5	8-0E.	1.00		
Meet Dinners		",	≝ 45c		
Fruit Pies	3	20 OE PHOS.	1.00		

U.S. NO. 1, MICHIGAN

POTATOES

ONIONS 10±39°

Hood Let	luce	CALIF SIZE 24	2	ron	39 c	
Yems	LOU	NO 1, SIANA	2	185.	25c	
Medated	App	S MICH	DAN	-	39 c	

CRANBERRY HAR	VEST FE	STIVA	L
resh Cranberries	OCEAN SPRAY	1.LE BAG	29c
CRANBERRY HAR fresh Cranberries Canned Cranberries	DCEAN 2	14-OZ CANS	390

CAN 290

Cranberry Juice

bells Soups WARENES 7 Card 1.00 nd Peaches HOMESTINE 3 CANS 790

Grapefruit Juice 3 mm 79°

2 14-02 29c (100 23c) 3 40t 29c

100 Mc Fish Portions 3 "OL 11.00 Fresh Smelt .. 23c

Blended Syrup 14-OL 49c Pure Egg Nood

Ed Sullivan - Land Walter - SHOWBOAT

7.69

14-OL 55c

Weman's Day



Spry 3 cm 78c

Sok & Spen no 31c

Cheer 10. 33c

23-OZ. 67c Ivery Liquid

Oxydol от 79с

> Ivory Snow от. 79c

HENT O'CLOCK COSTER C \$1.45

im 6le 18.57 | im 65e 18.59

Super Markets

5128 S. CEDAR_1401 E. CRAND RIVER

1908 E. MICHIGAN

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425 R. WASHINGTON 102 E. MT. I

Seen-Associated Most Read Noted PACKER'S FINE OU Barhroom Brush Set -n - 1 roung Board Cover ubber Gloves 3 -- 11

58.2% Lon Plastic Baby Pants 6 -- 11 Hello Door Mar Double Bucket

> TV Snack Bowls Mixing Bowl Set

28 THE NEATE ANGRALIE Walesche.

60 Sweet Peas

Green Beans 8 ...1

BANQUET FROZEN

Catsup

Encyclopedia of Cooking by the management of the

CKER'S PINE QUALITY ORANGE

<u>ار</u> ا

FESSEN DEPARTMENT Re-B-0 RIBS

DOLE SLAW

B ++ 1

Ches she P

4 Hm 91

Polish Dills

Waxed Paper

Pork & Beans

Bar-B-Qued Short Ribs 09"

I we set

GO KROGERing for Price . Bustin' Bargains During our

10000 A

3rd Annual

2-29 Bread ARLY BIRD FRESH BUTTE

Kroger Bread 2 20 to 419 69 Swiss Cheese Brown-N Serve Rolls 142 257 Connamon Rolls 142 297



Ground Beef . 49

. 79, . 49,

Rib Roast

OAST

MOGER-CUT TENDERAY CHUCK

See On TV
Tembrine Count 3
Tembrine
Tem

Oct Entry Munic of Effery Munic of Effects

14 14 39¢

Braunschweiger to the tested Cod Steaks

169

Pork Sausage Links

Roasted Sausage

11.2%

Rinso Detergent Liquid Wisk Landy Andy

25 Extra Stamps Old Feshion Cake

25 Extra Stam. Embessy Syrup

v 697 Breeze Delergent Surf Detergent Silver Dust

. 35<u>x</u> · 79/

Denverse All and 47/ List Load Bu 93/ Condensed All as a 12.29 Venns Sausapa 2 to an 49/ 16 to 18 HEAT, AIL

Lux Flakes

Del Monte Round · Up \$ Days

T. II

38.8%

53.1%

THE STATE AND DAY WASHING, Say 33 190 30

Fruit Cocktail 4 ... 1

5

3 5

Evap. Milk

300 -- 5



13 ⁻ . 1

Gelatins

S ===

N 11

Grapefruit

CHOCKR SECTIONS OF

- 10 Com 10 Com

Mandarin Oranges Freestone Peaches North Bay Tuna Dog Food

Cut Wax Bean Pet un P S 1 A 14 mm Pl

Mich. Potatoe: 10 . . 49¢ Apples 4 m 39% , 25, Mark Bern and prices is the ad gased by your formity Washers Michael Coope alone from Elevates. Contains 1, 1912. We make the cipts in just quantities.

KROGER-CUT TENDERAY ROUND OR SWISS

2-29/

Brussels Sprouts

2 to se 25/

Jonathan Apples 4 h by 59%

1.19 Steak Steak

Roast-Rite Turkeys . 49¢ Cottage Butts

LET'S GO

.. 45

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Mc Call's Magazine
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between a micros from Technics

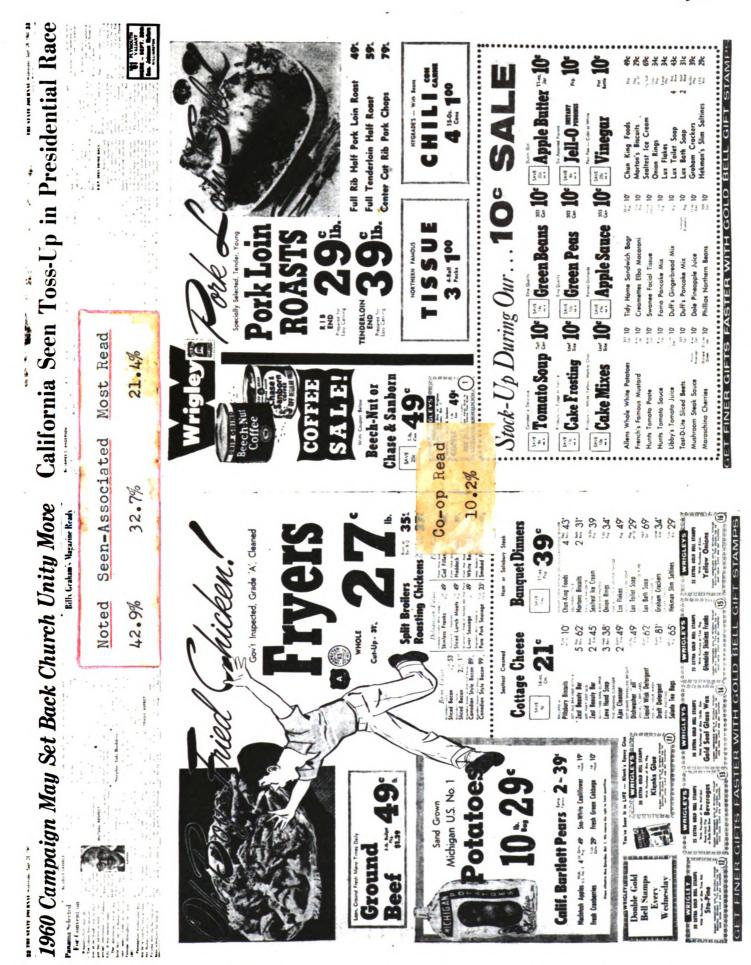
Lipton Tee Bags in a man, 11.03

-

Cream Style Com

12 *** "I

4 24 des P





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CHMIDT

SUPER

FOOD MARKETS

Noted Seen-Associated Most Read

40.8% 54.1%

19.4%

Morton

Frozen **Dinners**

• CHICKEN ABFEF · HAM

VELVETA) VELVEETA Morton

Crisp Iceberg

MICHIGAN

5 Lbs.

DOLLY MADISON PICKLES

PONY DILLS
DILL STICKS
CUCUMBER SLICES

3 Hat. \$1.00

Makes delicious main dishes 2-lb. Pkg.

A Bargain in Nutrition

Pancake Syrup 24 OZ. 39∘

CAULIFLOWER SWEET CIDER

CACKLE

Fresh SPARE

Small Size

31/2 to 5 Lb.

Average



Sealtest COTTAGE CHEESE



BREADED SHRIMP

79°

FRENCH FRIES

. 49°



Pkgs. 89

Freshly Gr

IDLEWILD

CORNISH GAME HENS 79∘

SCHMIDT'S PURE PORK ROLL SAUSAGE

39°

HERRUD'S HONEY LOAF ROAST BEEF BAKED LOAF BAR-B-Q LOAF FARMER PEET'S Lh. Only 39' 1/2 La 49

Smoked Polish Sausage n. 59¢

Lb. VEAL

CHEERIOS WHEATIES STARLAC 75 RAISINS 19" OLEO 2 .. 53'

French's Black Pepper

39°

GREEN BEANS **10**c **10**° LIMA BEANS **10**° **PORK & BEANS** BEAN SPROUTS **10**c TOMATO SOUP **10**c

BREAST O'CHICKEN TUNA FISH 4 cans \$1.00

PURINA DOG FOOD 25 lbs. 32.69

NATIONALLY FAMOUS BRAND FOODS AT LOWER PRICES plus KING

2121 S. CEDAR OPEN BAILY 9 to 6 Thurs. & Fri. Till 9 P. M.

OKEMOS (EXCEPT SUNDAYS) OPEN DAILY 9 to 9 (EXCEPT SUNDAYS)

EDGEMONT (EXCEPT SUNDAYS) 910 W. ST. JOSEPH Thurs. & Fri. Till 9 P. M.

Catholics Seek Protest of Films

- U. S. Eves - Russian's

Planes May Be Safer

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OPEN EVERY EVENING

AT NO EXTRA CHARGE ...

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Moms, Tots Going Home





LOS ANGELES 185, 10 SAN FRANCISCO 186,52 SEATTLE S-1.12 DENVER SELTO SAN ANTONIO SELOS



ICHN LEE MAHIN-MARTIN RACKIN-CLAUDE BINYON



Foreign Doctors Have Troubles

Students imen or upmeni, Couples, Familier, Groups on Your. STAY AT THE YMCA HOTEL



Smoked Picnics 29°,

All good I Ib pkg 43c Super Right I lb pkg 49c . Ranch Style 2 lb pkg 97e

CARROTS

29

59°

HEAD LETTUCE

SNOW-APPLES

RED POTATOES

GRAPEFRUIT

69

17 oz Gream Style Gorn 16 ez Tomatoe

16 oz Peas

151/2 oz Cut Green Boans 161/2 oz Cut Wax Boses

Fig Bars

2 lb. plg 39c

Duff's Pancake Mix

8 oz. pkg 10c

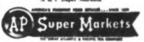
PINEAPPLE PIE a inch 39 Frosted Donut Balls Ptg. 25°

BLACKBERRY PIE s inch 49c

BUTTERMILK BREAD

Market, Corner of Hagadorn and East Grand River

Angel Food Cake Ring 39"



Look! Lowest Price In Years!

LOVIN - CARED FOR WHOLE

CUT-UP TRAY-PACKED . 29/





SALAD LETTUCE CUCUMBERS

RADISHES

MEDI CRACCIN' - CRISP HEAD

ettuce

SANGLET PROZEN

Pot Pies Toler

Applesauce 7 22 1

MILD CHEESE

ARMOUR TREET 2 -- 89/

MEDIUM CHEESE

MANOR HOUSE COFFEE . 75/

100 EXTRA | | 50 EXTRA |



VALUABLE COUPON

Margarine 2 Lbs. 25.

Your Frandor Kroger Store ls a Wide Wonderful Wonderland of Food!

Open 9 'til 9 Monday thru Friday en 9 'til 7 Saturday!

Tomato Juice

Sweet Peas

PACKER'S FINE QUALITY

Golden Corn 8 ... - 1

Sandwich Cookies 3 -- 1

ALL NEW CUSTOM INJECTOR

Schick Blades 69 Let's go



Clark Rouse



