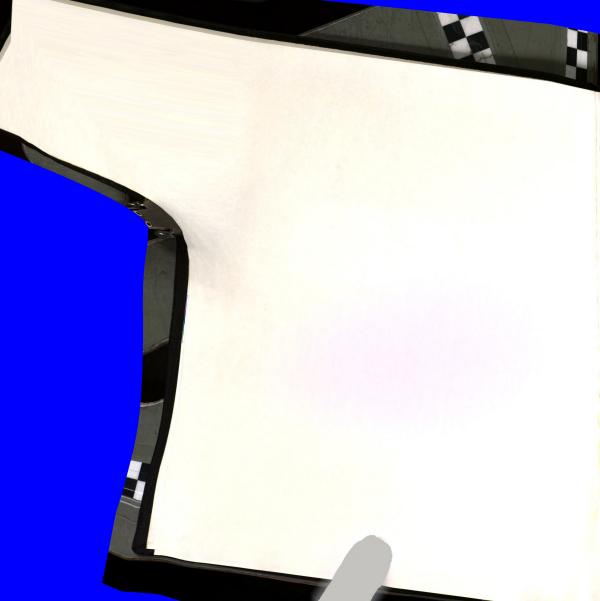


RETURNING MATERIALS:
Place in book drop to
remove this checkout from
your record. FINES will
be charged if book is
returned after the date
stamped below.

7 11 3 2



CONSUMER DISPOSITION BEHAVIOR:

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VALUE ORIENTATIONS AND THE TENDENCY TO CHOOSE DISPOSITION OPTIONS

Ву

Diane Martin Neeb

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Marketing and Transportation

1986



ABSTRACT

CONSUMER DISPOSITION BEHAVIOR: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VALUE ORIENTATIONS AND THE TENDENCY TO CHOOSE DISPOSITION OPTIONS

Bv

Diane Martin Neeb

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between consumers' Value Orientations and their usage of responsible versus irresponsible methods of disposition.

Value Orientations (on a Time Dimension and a Relational Dimension) were investigated in relation to consumers' tendencies to use six disposition options (Keeping, Throwing-Away, Selling, Deducting, Donating, and Passing). Two models were proposed, one suggesting that High Involvement Disposers plan disposition, based in part on Value Orientations that are also logically linked to the Rationales for the chosen behavior. A second model (Low Involvement Disposition) suggested that Value Orientations were less relevant to disposition choice. Data was reported, therefore, only for High Involvement Disposers.

The research design involved a mail survey sent to persons in the Dayton, Ohio area. Consumers' names were drawn systematically from the Dayton telephone directory. They were first contacted by phone, then solicited to participate in a study concerning the manner in which consumers get rid of products they no longer use.

Items on the mailed questionnaire included questions on Value Orientations, Rationales for selecting disposition options, usage of different disposition options, Disposition Attitudes, Disposition Style, Demographics, and Residence variables.

The data obtained from the mail survey was analyzed by means of correlational analysis to determine associations between cognitive, affective, and behavioral variables; and One-Way Analysis of Variance was conducted to determine differences in usage of options between categories of Demographic and Residence variables.

Each disposition option was then "profiled" by Value Orientations, Rationales, Disposition Attitudes, Demographics, and Residence variables. Some preliminary understanding of the composite of relevant factors in disposition choice was provided by this procedure. Predictions concerning correlations between specific Value Orientations and specific Disposition Tendencies were supported for five of twelve hypotheses.

Interrelationships (significantly different from zero at $p \leq 0.05$) between Value Orientations, Rationales, and Disposition Tendencies were depicted to illustrate how the general model of High Involvement Disposition could, in fact, be applied to each specific disposition option.

Finally, conclusions were presented concerning a number of contributions to theory in both Marketing Channels and Environmental Responsibility, as well as implications for tax policy and charitable organization strategy.

To my children
Courtney and John

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express appreciation to those who helped across the many stages of developing and completing this dissertation. While serving as chairman of the dissertation committee, Dr. Gilbert D. Harrell was able to strike a remarkable balance between thoughtful, intelligent guidance and the willingness to let me be independent and creative in my research.

Additionally, I would like to thank Dr. F. Samuel Carter and Dr. M. Bixby Cooper for their numerous insights and sound advice as committee members.

Three persons deserve special credit for making a lonely endeavor feel more like a team effort. First, Michele Speh, my typist, was always there when I needed her, often adjusting her personal schedule to help me meet deadlines. Second, Dr. Jack Lesser's painstaking editing of the first three chapters during the proposal stage provided me with a memorable education in scholarly writing style. Third, Pushp Kamal, my computer consultant, spared me the horrors of dealing with an unfamiliar computer system and reduced dramatically the time it would have taken for me to run the analyses if left to my own devices.

Next, credit is due to the young women who contacted the research participants by phone. Their determination resulted in twice as many agreed participants per hour of phone work as I had expected, thereby greatly reducing my expenses. Thanks for this job go to Laurie Keller.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW	1
Purpose of the Study Importance of the Research Area Scope of the Investigation Alternative Models Overview of the Methodology Implications	1 2 6 10 12 13
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	15
The Theory of Value Orientations Social and Environmental Responsibility Disposition Choice Theoretical Differences Between Disposition Options Discard Behavior as a Socio-Cultural Phenomenon Chapter Summary	15 23 33 40 51 53
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY	55
Overview Questionnaire Development Sampling and Data Collection Procedures Coding and Analysis Preliminary Guidelines for Interpreting Data Analysis	55 56 64 68 70
CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS	73
Preliminary Information Associations Between Value Orientations and	73
Disposition Tendencies Profiles of the Six Disposition Tendencies General Discussion of the Models of Disposition Behavior Chapter Summary	77 81 95 104

TABLE OF CONTENTS (CONT'D.)

		Page
CHAPTER FIVE:		
CONCLUSIONS		107
Implications o	f the Findings	107
Limitations	•	113
Future Researc	h in Disposition	116
Summary of the	Research Design and Findings	117
APPENDICES	•	
Appendix I	First Version of Questionnaire:	
	Lansing Mail Survey	120
Appendix II	Second Version of Questionnaire:	
	Oxford Store-Front Intercept	125
Appendix III	Final Version of Questionnaire	128
Appendix IV	Demographic and Residence	
	Characteristics of the Sample and	
	the Two Sub-Samples	135
Appendix V	Rationales by Value Orientation	
	Adherences: Correlation Coefficients	137
Appendix VI	Rationales by Disposition Tendencies:	
	Correlation Coefficients	138
Appendix VII	Mean Usage Percentages of Each	
	Disposition Option for High Involvement	100
	Disposers	139
Appendix VIII	Keeping Behavior and Relevant Variables	140
Appendix IX	Throwing-Away Behavior and Relevant	1/1
A 1! V	Variables	141
Appendix X	Selling Behavior and Relevant Variables	142
Appendix XI	Deducting Behavior and Relevant Variables	143
Appendix XII	Donating Behavior and Relevant Variables	144 145
Appendix XIII Appendix XIV	Passing Behavior and Relevant Variables	143
whhengry via	Disposition Attitudes by Disposition Tendencies: Correlation Coefficients	146
BIBLIOGRAPHY		147

LIST OF TABLES

			Page
Table 1.		ability Coefficients for the Six Value ntation Indices	76
Table 2.		e Orientation Adherences by Disposition encies: Correlation Coefficients	78
Appendix	IV	Demographic and Residence Characteristics of the Sample and the Two Sub-Samples	135
Appendix	V	Rationales by Value Orientation Adherences: Correlation Coefficients	137
Appendix	VI	Rationales by Disposition Tendencies: Correlation Coefficients	138
Appendix	VII	Mean Usage Percentages of Each Disposition Option for High Involvement Disposers	139
Appendix	AIIÏ	Keeping Behavior and Relevant Variables	140
Appendix	IX	Throwing-Away Behavior and Relevant Variables	141
Appendix	X	Selling Behavior and Relevant Variables	142
Appendix	XI	Deducting Behavior and Relevant Variables	143
Appendix	XII	Donating Behavior and Relevant Variables	144
Appendix	XIII	Passing Behavior and Relevant Variables	145
Appendix	XIV	Disposition Attitudes by Disposition Tendencies: Correlation Coefficients	146

LIST OF FIGURES

		Page
Figure 1.	Channels of Disposition	3
Figure 2.	Disposition Options in the Extended Channel and Their Environmental Impact	8
Figure 3.	High Involvement Model of Disposition	11
Figure 4.	Low Involvement Model of Disposition	11
Figure 5.	The Five Value Orientations and the Range of Variations Postulated on Each	19
Figure 6.	A Taxonomy for Describing Consumer Disposition Behavior	34
Figure 7.	Four Types of Giving Behavior	43
Figure 8.	Process Model for Contributing Behavior	49
Figure 9.	Relational Dimension Modifications for the Present Study	57
Figure 10.	Items and Stimulus Topics Used to Create Value Orientations Scales	61
Figure 11.	Summary of the Influence of Specific Value Orientations, Disposition Attitudes, and Rationales on Disposition Tendency	93
Figure 12.	Model of Keeping Behavior	96
Figure 13.	Model of Throwing-Away Behavior	97
Figure 14.	Model of Selling Behavior	99
Figure 15.	Model of Deducting Behavior	102
Figure 16.	Model of Donating Behavior	103
Figure 17.	Model of Passing Behavior	105

CHAPTER ONE:

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Purpose of the Study

Every year most consumer households dispose of a number of durable and semi-durable products held in personal inventory. Factors which might trigger the removal of no-longer-wanted items include the need for space, redecorating, maturation, an imminent move, and changes in lifestyle or household structure. The methods used for removal are referred to as "disposition" options (Jacoby, Berning and Dietvorst, 1977) and generally include selling, swapping, passing along, donating, and trashing.

Product category and condition, as well as the particular situational pressures, may influence the specific disposition option chosen. However, given the same products and the same situation, consumers often show a diversity of behaviors as to the manner in which they dispose. Personal characteristics of the disposer are then likely to be the influential factor.

Value Orientations theory may offer some insight as to why consumers dispose differently when product and situation factors are controlled. Value Orientations theory proposes that specific behavioral choices are related to beliefs about "what works best." In other words, the individual acts in accord with his/her world outlook or philosophy of life (Kluckhohn, 1959.) This overall philosophy of life consists of five dimensions, each having a different degree of influence on any particular behavioral sphere (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961).

It is the purpose of the present research to examine how two of the dimensions of the Value Orientations Set, the Relational Dimension and the Time Dimension, are related to the tendency to use each of the specific disposition options. These relationships will be discussed within the context of socially responsible consumer behavior.

This introductory section will be divided into the following sub-sections: 1) Importance of the Research Area, 2) Scope of the Investigation, 3) Alternative Models, 4) Overview of the Methodology, and 5) Implications.

Importance of the Research Area

The research presented here offers contributions in both theoretical and pragnatic arenas. First, the concept of disposition expands on the domain of consumer behavior and extends channels theory. Secondly, the study adds to the body of Social Responsibility literature in the area of Environmentally Responsible Behavior. Third, the findings may aid in policy decisions concerning the tax system. Finally, the results are relevant to understanding the macroeconomic impact of disposition as part of an underground economy. The following paragraphs will briefly present these areas of contribution.

Expanding Theory of the Consumer's Role in the Channel of

Distribution. Most of the research in consumer behavior has

investigated how consumers acquire goods; however, consumer behavior

actually entails acquisition, usage, and disposition of goods (Jacoby,

1976; Nicosia and Mayer, 1976). Only a small stream of research has

addressed the issue of the consumer as a disposer. This neglect of

disposition may be due to the manner in which marketing depicts the

consumer, that is, as the end-point in a channel of distribution. In reality, however, the consumer is often not the final user of the good. He/she takes on the role of <u>supplier</u> in a "channel of disposition." Goods may be moved up the Backward Channel via recycling, trade-ins, returns, and exchanges (Zikmund and Stanton, 1971). Conversely, goods may be moved down the Extended Channel when they are sold, passed along, or donated to other individuals or organizations. Figure 1 depicts the possible movements in a channel of disposition.



BACKWARD CHANNEL FLOWS

EXTENDED CHANNEL FLOWS

Figure 1. Channels of Disposition

The present investigation thus contributes to the small body of literature that views the consumer as a pivot-point rather than an end-point in the movement of resources. In the long run, every physical good a consumer acquires must be disposed of in some manner. Even so-called "consumables" like soaps are not truly "used up"; they are disposed of, after use, through the sewerage system. Items kept till death are disposed of by legacy. In the words of the noted Environmentalist, "Everything has to go somewhere" (Commoner, 1971).

Adding to the Body of Social Responsibility Literature. When the consumer selects a disposition option, the behavior can be deemed as either socially responsible or irresponsible. Two of the basic

concerns of Environmentalists are pollution and the waste of natural resources. When a still-usable product is thrown away, it contributes to both of these problems. First, the resources which might have been used by another person have been wasted. Second, the product is noved to a dump site or landfill where it will deteriorate. There are several concerns related to landfill accumulation. Decomposing products introduce toxins into the water table and are particularly dangerous if the materials are synthetics that do not break down to natural elements (Commoner, 1971). Fumes from deteriorating products may cause not only air pollution but also spontaneous combustion (White, 1983). Finally, landfills and dump sites scar the landside and create a form of aesthetic pollution.

Socially responsible disposition may be defined as any behavior that moves a good along for extended use of its resources and delays its becoming part of a landfill or dump site. An understanding of the responsible disposer will enable agencies to reinforce these desirable behaviors.

Relevance to Tax Policy. There are important implications for policy makers who are concerned with "redistribution of wealth" to lower-income households. Any method of disposition that allows second-hand merchandise to be moved down an extended channel maintains a source of supply to those households which may purchase items at very low prices or receive them as charity. Proposed changes in the deductibility of donations might act as deterrents to the donating process. When low-priced merchandise is made available, the "real income" of the needy household is increased; when the incentives to supply such merchandise are reduced, that availability will dwindle.

The movement of goods down the Extended Channel thus represents a redistribution of "wealth" which is in the form of products rather than cash, and which is provided in a <u>voluntary</u> manner by the individual who is supplying this "wealth." Much has been written on donor behavior concerning blood, body parts, cash, and volunteer time; but no scholarly research has been conducted in reference to product donation. Given the long-standing operations of the Salvation Army, Goodwill Industries, and the Volunteers of America, there is clearly a function of redistribution for which these organizations exist to serve some sector of our society.

Macroeconomic Relevance. There is a market expansion taking place in the area of second-hand goods. On the one hand, this expansion represents a shift in consumer tastes and acceptance of used goods. Some merchandisers of second-hand garments even refer to them as "vintage" clothing. On the other hand, it represents some interesting macroeconomic phenomena. Most extended channel activity is not "reported." As a result, there is an underestimate of "income" for those who are ardent garage-salers and those who swap goods and services. When economic transactions are not reported, they are not taxed, thereby making them worth even more. In years when GNP is quite low growth-wise, there may be a vast underground economy in operation, so that measuring sales of first-hand merchandise may grossly underestimate the actual degree of economic activity taking place. Understanding the disposition choice process and the characteristics of those who engage in these "underground" transactions may shed some light on why these activities occur and who is most likely to engage in then.

Scope of the Investigation

The following paragraphs will briefly describe the manner in which the study has been narrowed down to a manageable yet meaningful set of variables.

Disposition Options. Figure 1 illustrates that the consumer may move unwanted goods backward up the conventional channel or downward through an Extended Channel. Because the Backward Channel options are limited by the policies of producers and middlemen, they are less voluntary. Moreover, the Backward Channel activities tend to be product-or-situation-dependent. (There are a limited number of product categories which can be traded-in. Returns and exchanges are usually limited to unwanted gifts or items about which the consumer wants to make a complaint. Recycling is primarily a container-related activity.) Therefore, this study will focus on the Extended Channel options from which the consumer may choose when deciding what to do with an item which is usuable-but-no-longer-used.

The list of Extended Channel options can be quite lengthy if each basic option is subdivided. For example, Selling could be subdivided into garage sale, classified ad, auction, consignment agreement with a second-hand merchant, and swap-meet bargaining. In spite of the possible differences between people who choose one of these sub-options and persons who choose another, such fine discrimination was not deemed necessary for the present study. All of the selling sub-options represent immediate economic gain and some degree of effort.

On the other hand, there should be a relevant difference in Value Orientations between those who donate for tax deduction purposes versus those who donate items without listing them on their tax returns.

These two options have been treated as different behaviors, referred to as Deducting and Donating. While Deducting produces a delayed economic return and requires some effort in listing and evaluating items,

Donating produces mainly psychological rewards for the donor but is relatively effortless.

Passing-Along could be subdivided by the type of recipient: relative, friend, neighbor, or servant/employee. While passing items to servants/employees (persons of lower status than oneself) may appear to be more like charitable donation than passing along to a relative, friend, or neighbor, the former is considered to be a relatively rare occurrence and not worthy of a separate category. Therefore, Passing activity has simply been treated as "passing along to an acquaintance."

The Throwing-Away option is sufficiently self-explanatory. The Keeping option has been included, although it is not truly a form of disposition in that the good does not nove out of personal inventory. It has been included primarily because it is traditionally included in disposition studies. Moreover, Keeping deals with the pack-rat phenomenon, which slows the movement of goods to those who could make better use of the idle resources they contain.

Because the context in which these variables have been considered is one of social responsibility, the disposition options have been tabled to show how they relate to the environmental consequences of their usage. (See Figure 2.)

Disposition Option	Resource Waste	Landfill <u>Pollutant</u>	Socially Responsible
Sell/Swap	No	No	Yes
Donate and Deduct	No	No	Yes
Donate w/o Deduct	No	No	Yes
Pass to Acquaintance	No	No	Yes
Throw Away	Yes	Yes	No
Keep	Maybe	. No	Maybe

Figure 2. Disposition Options in the Extended Channel and Their Environmental Impact

If socially responsible disposition is defined as "any method that prevents waste of resources and delays the time at which the product will add to the pollutions caused by landfill accumulation," then the first four behaviors may be considered to be responsible, Throwing-Away to be irresponsible, and Keeping to be questionnable.

Products Studied. The few existing studies on disposition behavior have identified specific products and asked consumers what they did when the product was no longer wanted. This approach may be adequate when one wants to learn about the disposition of a specific product or set of products; however, the purpose of the current study is to examine the tendency to use certain options across a variety of products. What the respondent says would be done with a toaster may not be representative of his/her general pattern of disposing. Results from exploratory work for this dissertation suggest that most consumers have something analogous to an evoked set of preferred disposition options. A few would claim to have a single option that they tend to use whenever possible. Therefore, if one is investigating behavioral

tendencies, it is not necessary to specify the stimulus set by products.

The stimulus set has been described essentially as "a number of moderate value items that have not been used in a while, that are in usable condition, and have no sentimental value." High and low value items were excluded because the former may be likely to be sold and the latter thrown away. Moderate value items should elicit more variance in disposition responses across consumers. Similarly, damaged condition is likely to rule out/dictate some options for some consumers. In addition, an effort was made to eliminate the effects of emotional attachment. In sum, the respondents to the survey should have been able to recall a set of common household items which they personally had held in inventory and about which disposition decisions had been made in the past.

Value Orientations Dimensions. Value Orientations theory proposes that every culture has a dominant set of orientations on each of five dimensions, but that subgroups show variations on the dominant philosophy (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961). Those with variant orientations are expected to behave differently. The five dimensions are: 1) Nature of Man, one's beliefs about human nature; 2) Man and Nature, one's beliefs about man's ability to control nature; 3) Relational, one's beliefs about responsibility to others; 4) Time, one's beliefs about looking to past, present, or future for guidelines; and 5) Activity, one's beliefs about the motives for conduct. All of these orientations will be fully explained in the literature review.

Value Orientations theory says that not every dimension will be equally influential in a given behavioral sphere; three of the Value

Orientation variables have not been considered to have adequate theoretical linkage to the behavior of disposition. Two dimensions were selected for the present study because of the relevance of similar constructs in related literature on socially responsible behavior. The Relational Dimension, concerned with man's responsibility to mankind, deals with whether an individual takes responsibility primarily for self versus looking out for others versus feeling dependent on others to solve society's problems. This dimension appears to be the essence of social responsibility.

Secondly, the characteristic of "traditional" vs. "liberal" is a recurring variable of interest in the social responsibility literature. Since traditionals look to the past, while liberals look more to future change, the Time Dimension from Value Orientations theory is appropriate for the current study.

Due to the need for lengthy scales to measure each dimension, it was deemed impractical to go on a "fishing expedition" with the other dimensions to find if they might bear some untheorized influence on socially responsible disposition.

Alternative Models

Since Value Orientations tend to be somewhat abstract, they are likely to be linked to a particular behavioral sphere by an intervening set of cognitions. This set of cognitions can be expressed as a set of expectations about the desired attributes or outcomes of the activity. These expectations, or justifications, will henceforth be referred to as the "rationales" for the behavioral tendency. Figure 3 depicts the linkage from Value Orientations to Rationales to Disposition Tendency.

This process can be described as one that reflects relatively high involvement.

Value Orientations ---> Rationales ---> Disposition Tendency
Figure 3. High Involvement Model of Disposition

The above model assumes that the behavioral sphere in question is perceived by the consumer to be important; the behavior's attributes are <u>linked</u> to some more fundamental, <u>central</u> value system (Rokeach, 1968), or ego (Sherif and Cantril, 1947). As a highly involving decision area, it would merit information search, alternative evaluation, and problem-solving effort.

On the other hand, some individuals may not dispose in accord with their Value Orientations because, for them, disposition choice is a behavioral sphere that is <u>not</u> cognitively linked to their personal philosophies. Disposition may be seen as a <u>peripheral</u> activity, deserving little forethought. These persons' disposition activities may be induced more spontaneously by situational influences than by Value Orientations. When asked about Rationales for the behavior, they may develop post hoc justifications that appear very similar to the Rationales used by High Involvement Disposers. These Rationales may well be logically consistent with the disposition options chosen, though inconsistent with Value Orientations. Figure 4 depicts Low Involvement Disposition.

Situational Influences ---> Disposition Tendency ---> Rationale Figure 4. Low Involvement Model of Disposition

Observation indicates that these two types of disposers do indeed exist. To ignore this classification would happer the validity of the study. In addition, analyzing the data for both types together would weaken the findings concerning the relationship between Value Orientations and socially responsible disposition behaviors. It was therefore important to allow respondents to self-classify as to the degree of involvement they feel for this behavioral sphere. Since those who are only minimally "involved" in an activity may simply answer the questions without much thought or may recall their behaviors inaccurately, their responses were excluded from the analysis.

Overview of the Methodology

A large sample survey was conducted by mail in the Dayton, Ohio area. Respondents were first contacted by phone, told very briefly about the nature of the study, and then solicited for participation. The research instrument consisted of questions concerning 1) Value Orientations on the Relational and Time dimensions, 2) Rationales for disposition choice, 3) Disposition Tendency, Attitudes, and Style (High versus Low Involvement), and 4) Demographic and Residence variables. Data analysis focused primarily on the strength and direction of correlations between Value Orientations and Disposition Tendency for those respondents who self-classified as more highly involved in their disposition decisions.

In addition, each Disposition Tendency was profiled by both psychological and denographic characteristics in order to develop interpretations and implications. Models of each specific disposition option were then constructed to depict the correlations between relevant Value Orientations, Rationales, and Disposition Tendencies.

Implications

Critics of marketing often cite "planned obsolescence" as a strategy which leads to the wastefulness of a throw-away society. They seem to imply that the consumer tires of a still-usable good and simply trashes it. Preliminary studies for this dissertation indicated that this is far from the case; in each of the small-sample studies conducted, only 13% of the usable products were reported to be likely to be trashed. In the aggregate, at least, these exploratory results would suggest that Americans tend to be a socially responsible nation of disposers. Value Orientations have been hypothesized to explain why some consumers behave more responsibly than others.

Implications for government agencies, charitable organizations, and environmental action groups can be drawn from the findings of studies such as the present one.

Charitable organizations might use these findings to target reinforcing messages to current donors and to develop tactics for appealing to potential donors.

Environmental action groups might learn which disposers are currently behaving irresponsibly and, by understanding such disposers, determine whether behavior modification is feasible.

Policy makers in the area of income tax should consider what might happen when deductibility for donations is decreased, i.e., to which option will those donors tend to switch when their incentive for donating is removed? Deducters may be likely to discontinue donating in favor of some other option which also fits with their Value Orientations and Rationales, thereby reducing the flow of low-priced or free goods to the truly needy.

Producers of new goods should be aware of the factors influencing consumers who tend to dispose by resale or passing along to acquaintances. Superior quality goods that tend to be outgrown-beforeworn-out or subject to style changes might be positioned as having good resale value or as durable enough to pass on to a friend. The tone of the advertising could be set by the Value Orientation that correlates with the respective Disposition Tendency, and copy points could be based on appropriate Rationales.

In conclusion, the manner in which consumers deal with usable-but-no-longer-used goods has implications for several sectors of society. Moreover, disposition is worthy of study as one of the most common, yet rarely researched, sociological phenomena. This research should enhance the theoretical elaboration of a relatively new area of investigation concerning one of man's oldest activities.

CHAPTER TWO:

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature related to the present study could indeed be considered interdisciplinary. References have been drawn from literature and theories in not only marketing and consumer behavior but also anthropology, sociology, small group psychology, economics, ecology, and urban planning. Due to this diversity of related areas, some topics are represented by only a few articles which seemed to be particularly useful in providing insights. Although some areas are not presented in depth, their relevance to this dissertation will be demonstrated.

This chapter will be divided into several sub-sections:

- 1. Value Orientations theory will be reviewed first in order to provide the theoretical framework for the study.
- 2. The literature on socially responsible behavior is covered, with specific focus on environmentally conscious consumption. While none of these studies specifically address responsible disposition choice, they add insight into the usefulness of investigating Value Orientations in relation to responsible behaviors. In addition, the recurring debate about the political orientations of socially responsible individuals highlights two of the Value Orientation dimensions as relevant and justifies their inclusion in the present study.
- 3. The literature on disposition choice per se will be presented.
- 4. Disposition options will be differentiated within a theoretical justification of the taxonomy of options.
- 5. Discard behavior will be discussed as a socio-cultural phenomenon.

The Theory of Value Orientations

Consumer behaviorists generally include the construct of values in comprehensive models of consumer decision making. Values have been

defined in many ways, but they are usually thought of as normative ideals. The theory of Value Orientations, however, goes a step beyond the concept of ideals by dealing with the more pragmatic conceptions that make up an individual's personal philosophy. This section of the literature review will present the major ideas developed in Value Orientations theory by Clyde Kluckhohn (1959) and Florence Kluckhohn with Fred Strodtbeck (1961).

The following quotation from Clyde Kluckhohn (1959) captures the essence of Value Orientations theory:

"Values go back to a conception of nature... Different cultures are tied to different conceptualizations.

"Values are constrained within the framework of what is taken as given by nature. If the nature of human nature is conceived as intrinsically evil, men are not enjoined to behave like gods; though if human nature is believed to be perfectible, they may be." (p. 392)

Kluckhohn's position is that what one thinks one "ought to do" is determined by culturally learned existential beliefs about "how things are." "How things are" is the conceptualization of reality, or, simply, one's world outlook. Behavior is said to follow logically from what one thinks is "possible."

In terms of the role values play, Kluckhohn states that a value is "a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences selection from suitable modes, means, and ends of action" (p. 395). Kluckhohn prefers the term "selection" over "choice" because choice implies conscious intention. Describing selection between behavioral options, he says that the individual will in some cases make a "conscious choice between alternatives for action; in others, an action will appear

inevitable and the actor will not be aware that any selection is being nade" (p. 402).

In addition, Kluckhohn posits that two individuals or cultures may have a common perception of a desirable goal, but employ different means or modes of action because they adhere to different Value Orientations. (Therefore, in terms of disposition selection, two individuals may both see non-waste as a desirable goal; but the mode of disposition chosen may be different for each because, for one person, the most pragmatic method is Selling, while the other believes that the most workable solution is Donating.)

As a conceptualization of reality is absorbed by the individual or the culture, it may take on a normative status. In time, there is an entanglement between "what is good" and "which things work" (p. 410). While Kluckhohn does not use the term "utilitarian," he appears to assume that people operate under the philosophy that "if it works, it's good."

Finally, then, Kluckhohn formally defines a Value Orientation as "a generalized and organized conception, influencing behavior, of nature, of man's place in it, of man's relation to man and of the desirable and nondesirable as they may relate to man-environment and interhuman relations" (p. 411).

Working from the above definition of Value Orientations, Florence Kluckhohn and Fred Strodtbeck (1961) developed a taxonomy of the dimensions of the Value Orientation set. They propose that there are five basic dimensions, each having three or four alternative outlooks as possible orientations. A given culture or individual is said to adhere more strongly to one alternative on each dimension than to the

other alternatives. In addition, a culture is proposed to adhere to a "dominant" set of orientations with which most of its members would agree. Within-culture variations on the dominant outlook are not considered to be "deviant" but rather "permitted, even required" (p. 3) in order to allow for diversity of occupations in society. For example, they point out that if all persons in a business-oriented society held the exact same orientations, there would be no artists. The orientation is thus said to affect selection between behavioral alternatives. Figure 5 depicts Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's taxonomy of Value Orientation dimensions.

The alternative outlooks which a person may hold are briefly described as follows:

- 1. The Human Nature Orientation deals with how one views the intrinsic morality of man. Man may be seen as basically good, basically evil, neutral, or some mixture of good and evil. These alternatives are further subdivided as to whether the nature of man is changeable or fixed.
- 2. The Man-Nature Orientation deals with whether man is able to master the forces of nature. The first outlook views man as a victim of the elements; the third outlook is one which indicates a philosophy that man can harness nature to serve him. In the middle is a philosophy of harmony, wherein man is seen as inseparable from the natural order of things, neither slave nor master.
- 3. The Time Orientation deals with the temporal focus of human life. The past-orientation is essentially a tradition-driven outlook, one in which the "old ways" are considered best. The present-orientation is a live-fortoday philosophy. The future-orientation is the belief that things will be better tomorrow than today; it places emphasis on the value of change.
- 4. The Activity Orientation deals with the modality of human activities. The being-orientation sees activities as spontaneous or non-purposive; things are done as the mood strikes. The being-in-becoming outlook focuses on the development of the inner self as an integrated whole; activities are geared to self-improvement and self-comprehension. The doing-orientation is the belief that

Orientation Postulated Range of Variations						
Human Nature	Evil	Neutral		Mixture of Good/Evil		Good
	nutable	nutable		innutable		nutable
	immutable					immutable
Man-Nature	Subjugation- to-Nature		Harmony-with- Nature		Mastery- over-Nature	
Time	Past	Pres		esent		Future
Activity	Being		Being-in-Becoming		Doing	
Relational	Lineality	Lineality		terality		Individualism

Figure 5. The Five Value Orientations and the Range of Variations Postulated on Each

Source: Adapted from Florence Kluckhohn and Fred L. Strodtbeck, Variations in Value Orientations (Evanston: Row,

Peterson, 1961), 12.

activities are best directed toward achieving recognition and rewards from others; there is an element of planning or structuring of activities to attain socially rewarded goals.

5. The Relational Orientation deals with man's responsibility to man. The lineal-orientation represents the viewpoint that there is a hierarchal structure that dictates which jobs or responsibilities are to be undertaken by which sectors of society. The collateral-orientation is one in which all men are seen as "siblings" to each other, i.e., it is a philosophy of interdependent brotherhood. The individualistic-orientation is the belief that society works best overall when each individual takes responsibility for himself and moves toward achieving his own goals.

A key concept presented by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck is that the individual may adhere somewhat to each alternative on a dimension, but that the individual will adhere more strongly to one than the other two outlooks on that dimension. This theoretical position leads these authors to conclude that an individual could rank-order agreement with the alternative outlooks on any given dimension (p. 10); i.e., adherences to alternative outlooks are not mutually exclusive.

Considering the role of these dimensions in influencing behavior, the authors stress that, in some patterns of behavior, one orientation may be of critical importance, whereas for other behaviors a different dimension may be the major influence (p. 19). They add that "seldom, if ever, is any pattern a pure expression of one and only one value orientation."

Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck developed a research instrument to study the differences in adherence to the alternative Value Orientations between five communities in the southwest United States. They examined the dominant philosophies of five farm communities (Zuni, Navajo, Mormon, Mexican-American, and Texas-Oklahoman) and looked for variations on the dominant set of orientations within those

"subcultures." The stimulus topics in the questionnaire dealt with issues such as the death of sheep (Man-Nature Dimension) and the building of a community well (Relational Dimension). As such, the specific data is of little interest for the present study. However, the format and structure of their instrument are useful as guidelines for those who would study Value Orientation adherence in other populations.

The questionnaire consists of a series of stimulus topics which are phrased as "life situations" or "common problems" being discussed by three individuals, each individual expressing a viewpoint which matches one of the possible alternative orientations on the dimension being studied in that question. The respondent is asked to rank-order agreement with the three viewpoints. The following item from their instrument was intended to determine adherence to the Man-Nature orientations; weather was used as the stimulus topic.

"Several people were talking about the things that control the weather. Here are three different views. Rank them in the order you agree with most.

- A. Man has never been able to control the weather and never will. It is a matter of taking the weather as it comes and doing the best you can afterward.
- B. Man cannot control the weather, but we can watch it carefully and take action ahead of time to prevent damage from storms.
- C. Man must learn to overcome and control the weather for our own use. Some day we will be able to change the weather to meet our wants."

Alternative A represents the subjugated-orientation; B represents the harmony-orientation; and C represents the mastery-orientation.

Several scenarios of this sort were used for each dimension. The Value Orientations of each community were then described in terms of

adherence rankings, e.g., a community might be more present than past than future-oriented, and so forth for each of the dimensions. The study was concerned with showing differences between the subcultures and variations within each subculture.

Unfortunately, Kluckhohn and Strodtbecks' study did not investigate how a person's Value Orientations are related to any specific behavioral choice. One consumer behavior study (Henry, 1976) did, however, investigate the relationship between a person's Value Orientations and behavior in a specific area, that of automobilecategory-ownership. Henry modified the Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck scale so that the stimulus topics were more appropriate to his population of interest but maintained the conceptual meaning of the dimensions. Henry found that certain orientations were correlated with ownership of a full-sized car (lineal and subjugated), while others were related to ownership of a sub-compact (collateral), and others to ownership of a sports car (harmony and becoming). The importance of Henry's study to this dissertation is the support it lends to the proposition that abstract values can be related to very specific behavioral choices. No subsequent research has been found in which the construct of Value Orientations is used as a relevant influence in consumer behavior.

In summary, Value Orientations are the conceptualizations one holds about the nature of reality. There are five basic dimensions of the Value Orientations Set, each having three or more alternative outlooks. The individual may adhere somewhat to all three alternatives on a dimension but will generally tend to prioritize agreement with the three outlooks. While a culture tends to manifest a dominant set of orientations, sub-groups of individuals may vary from the dominant

pattern. These variations in orientations are expected to be related to variations in behavioral choice tendencies in specific areas.

Certain dimensions will be more influential in one behavioral sphere, while other dimensions would be most relevant to other behaviors. Most behaviors are expected to be influenced by more than one dimension of the Value Orientations set.

Since not every dimension is likely to be influential in choice of disposition option, two were selected as having a logical linkage to this behavioral sphere. The following section of the literature review will report studies on socially responsible individuals in order to indicate why the Time Dimension and the Relational Dimension were chosen as the relevant Value Orientations for the study of Disposition Tendencies among consumers. Because consumers' disposition choices have environmental impact, responsibility is an appropriate concept to study. The next section of the literature review will discuss some of the studies conducted in the area of socially responsible behavior.

Social and Environmental Responsibility

Since the late 1960's, attention has been given to the concept of socially responsible behavior in several areas. Of interest to the present study are those pieces of research which have attempted to define environmentally responsible behavior and have assessed the characteristics of those persons who are categorized as responsible.

Researchers have examined attitudes, behaviors, and demographics and have presented conflicting results. Discrepancies may have been due, in part, to differences in the scales used to determine social responsibility. For example, one scale uses measures of community

involvement (Berkowitz and Lutterman, 1968), while others use measures of recycling behaviors (e.g., Webster, 1975).

Of particular interest is the unresolved issue of the political orientations and values of the environmentally responsible consumer. While some authors conclude that responsible individuals are traditionals (past-oriented) and opposed to more government intervention (individualistic-orientation), others conclude that the environmentally concerned are liberals seeking change-for-the-better in a Utopian sense (future-oriented) and more likely to support government regulation (non-individualistic). The parentheticals in the preceding sentence indicate an extrapolation to the terminology of Value Orientations theory, specifically the Time and Relational Orientations, based on judgment that these are, in fact, the philosophical issues in question. The literature on social responsibility will be reviewed in chronological order, with editorial comments on how these extrapolations may be derived.

The classic article on social responsibility by Berkowitz and Lutternan (1968) defined the responsible person as one who has a sense of involvement and participation in society and community but does not expect innediate personal rewards. The Berkowitz-Lutternan Social Responsibility Scale consisted of Agree-Disagree items which seem very similar to Value Orientation statements, e.g. "It is no use worrying about current events or public affairs; I can't do anything about them anyway." (This might be the philosophy of a person who does not feel responsible for himself or others.) Respondents who disagreed with such statements were deemed "responsible." Those who scored high on the responsibility scale tended to belong to a church with traditional

beliefs, have strong political convictions, leaning toward the Republican party and opposing government intervention. They expressed a preference for thinking for oneself and felt generally confortable that they were in control of their own destinies. The strongest demographic correlate was level of education. (In terms of Value Orientations, these socially responsible individuals could be described as past-oriented and individualistic.) It should be noted that Berkowitz and Lutterman's definition of social responsibility did not at any time deal specifically with environmental concerns. The areas of responsibility were more focused on "participating" by becoming informed on political issues, actively supporting campaigns for candidates, and voting.

The focus of responsibility was narrowed down to "Socially Responsible Consumption" by Herberger (1975). Herberger dealt with the voluntary consumption of socially safe products as his measure of responsibility. He investigated the relationship between the consumer's level of ecological knowledge and purchase of safe products. Reviewing the available literature he concluded that consumers' behaviors did not always follow from their stated attitudes on environmental issues; i.e., ecological concern may not be reflected in brand choice. (Extrapolating from this conclusion, it might be proposed that some consumers may express responsible values but not behave responsibly in the area of disposition. This conclusion would run counter to the assumptions of a high involvement decision model and thus justifies the development of an alternative model.)

The socially conscious consumer was defined by Webster (1975) as "one who takes into account the public consequences of his or her

private consumption." This definition views a person as responsible without requiring the active community participation prescribed by Berkowitz and Lutternan; i.e., it is enough that one's private behavior not result in harm to others. Moreover, Webster contended that a person who scored high on the Berkowitz-Lutterman scale might not score high on his own Socially Conscious Consumption scale. Webster's scale consisted of behavioral questions; e.g., the so-called "responsible" consumer used lead-free gas, low-phosphate detergent, and returnable bottles; he/she used a recycling service, had a pollution control device on the car, and reused grocery bags. This person also refused to buy goods involved in labor disputes. Given the nature of those descriptors of responsible consumption, it is not surprising that Webster found a different profile from the one described by Berkowitz and Lutterman. Webster concluded that, if the Socially Responsible Individual could be described as a traditional pillar of the community, the Socially Conscious Consumer could be described as belonging to an upper-middle-class "counterculture." (This conclusion would seem to indicate that the environmentally responsible consumer is the opposite of the traditional and would have Value Orientations that are other than "past-priented" and "individualistic.")

While Berkowitz and Lutterman examined individuals who were active participants in community issues and Webster investigated private responsible consumption, Cotgrove (1976) analyzed the active Environmentalist, one who belongs to formal groups concerned with protecting the environment. Cotgrove concluded that zealous Environmentalists had simply latched onto the Environment crusade as a means of attacking the capitalist system and creating preference for a

welfare state. He very specifically addressed the idea of differences in Value Orientations between the Utopian environmental activists and adherents of the capitalist culture. These Utopians were said to be generally of the opinion that the world would be better with change (future-oriented) and more in favor of government intervention to solve the problems of pollution (lineal-orientation). They were likely to be of liberal or even radical political persuasion, adhering to antitraditionalism and anti-individualism outlooks.

Mayer (1976) attempted to look at the previous studies and resolve the discrepant findings in order to develop a tighter concept of the socially conscious consumer. Mayer suggested that the term "counterculture," as used by Webster, may have been an exaggeration and that the socially conscious consumer was one who had given up on being able to effect changes in our society in other areas. This person was described as simply having redirected his "mainstream cultural values" toward the issue of ecology, where he/she might have a chance of being efficacious. Mayer thus seemed to contradict Webster and Cotgrove and leaned more toward Berkowitz and Lutterman in his depiction of traditional orientations of the "responsible" consumer.

Looking beyond educational level for further demographic characteristics of ecologically conscious consumers, Murphy, Kangun, and Locander (1978) examined the race variable when comparing upper and middle class female shoppers. The experiment involved three levels of exposure to ecological information concerning three product categories. After exposure to either a high level, moderate level, or zero level of information, the women were asked to choose a brand from each category. They were also asked to rate the importance of ecological attributes

for these products. There were no significant differences between black and white women on most of the attribute-importance ratings. However, when it came to brand choice, white women chose the acologically "correct" brand significantly more often than did black women. Because the effects of information level were not reported in depth, it is difficult to draw conclusions from this study. In addition, little insight was provided as to the liberal-versus-traditional-tendencies aspect of social responsibility.

Renewing his position on the liberal characteristics of Environmental Activists, Cotyrove investigated with Duff (1980) the differences in orientations of three groups: Environmental Activist group members, leading industrialists, and a sample of the general public. All three groups showed similar levels of awareness concerning ecological problems; therefore, the authors were able to discard the proposition that people join Environmental Activist groups because of a higher awareness of ecological problems. Cotgrove and Duff did find considerable variations on the orientations of the activists versus the other two groups. They concluded that the activists "hold a completely different world yiew, with different beliefs about the way society works. . . . Their world-view differs markedly from the dominant view." The authors examined the demographics of activists and found that they tended to be members of the "non-productive" sector (teachers, doctors, artists, and social workers). This occupational variable was interpreted to be indicative of the behavioral choice of those with anti-capitalist viewpoints. The same orientations that led these people to be in non-industry occupations were assumed to lead them to join Environmental Activist groups. The authors suggested that

Environmental Activists were anything but socially responsible, that they were, in fact, attacking industry about ecological issues as a means of destroying the capitalist status quo.

Investigating the role of locus-of-control in relation to the tendency to engage in environmentally responsible behaviors, Tucker (1980) had subjects select between returnable versus disposable soft drinks and high versus low phosphate detergents and then answer self-report behavioral questions. The locus-of-control variable was measured by having subjects choose which of two viewpoints was most like their own on 29 items. The two alternatives on each item represented an internal-control versus an external-control viewpoint. The findings indicated that persons who were categorized as performing environmentally responsible behaviors tended to perceive themselves as being more in control of their own lives than did the "irresponsible." (The forced-choice format of these scales is somewhat similar to the Kluckhoha-Strodtbeck scale, and the concept of being responsible for oneself is similar to the individualistic-orientation on the Relational Dimension in Value Orientations theory.)

Henion, Gregory, and Clee (1980) observed consumers as they selected detergent from the store shelf and categorized them as ECCs (Ecologically Concerned Consumers) or non-ECCs. The shoppers were then given a questionnaire concerning the utilities of three attributes: price, cleaning power, and phosphate content. ECCs ranked phosphate content over cleaning power over price, while non-ECCs ranked price over cleaning power over phosphate content. Concern for the environment was measured by attitude scales. The authors warned that the attitude-behavior consistency may have been an artifact of the

research method; i.e. the illusory consistency might be explained by self-perception theory. "According to that theory, some persons who bought low-phosphate detergents conceivably might have labeled themselves as ECCs and developed an attitude. ...consistent with such behavior." (This warning lends support to the proposed low involvement model in the present study.)

Crosby and Gill (1980) investigated, among several other variables, alienation and liberalism in reference to two criterion variables: voting preference on the Michigan Bottle Bill and usage of returnable cans prior to the bill. By developing a path analysis of the influence of the predictor variables, the authors concluded that alienation had a significant direct negative association with voting for the bottle bill, while liberalism had an indirect positive association. Associations of alienation and liberalism with prior usage of returnable cans were too weak to allow conclusions. Ecologically concerned consumers were deemed to be more liberal while conservatives were found to be less concerned. (The non-alienated orientation might be indicative of a collateral brotherhood-of-man orientation.)

A review article by Van Liere and Dunlap (1980) addressed five major issues concerning the relationships between demographic/social variables and environmental concern. First, age, in most cases, was found to be negatively associated with environmental concern. Second, social class was weakly associated with environmental concern when education, income, and occupation were used in conjunction; however, there was a moderately strong positive association between environmental concern and education alone. Third, sex had been

investigated too rarely to make any generalizations, but the existing evidence indicated little influence of sex on environmental concern. Fourth, residence in an urban community seemed to lead to more environmental concern than in a rural community; this relationship was particularly likely if the issues presented to the urban respondent dealt with his/her <u>local</u> community. Fifth, the political orientation findings are inconsistent and confusing, in that there appeared to be little difference in ecological concern between Republicans and Democrats, whereas there was substantial support for the hypothesis that liberals are more environmentally concerned than conservatives.

Finally, Van Liere and Dunlap (1981) addressed the issue of different conceptualizations of the construct of "environmental concern." The basic question was whether or not different measures of environmental concern were equivalent when some addressed concern about pollution while others addressed conservation of natural resouraces, wildlife, etc. Did concern for one issue reflect a broader environmental concern?

After reviewing many investigations, Van Liere and Dunlap concluded that "different theoretical conceptualizations of environmental concern are not highly intercorrelated." Therefore, the next conclusion was that "the relationship between environmental concern and some demographic characteristics may vary considerably depending on the manner in which concern is conceptualized." This issue points to the relevance of investigating demographics as they relate to Disposition Tendency, since previously found relationships between demographics and environment responsibility may not recur in the present area of study.

Examining the relationships between cognitions and attitudes, Van Liere and Dunlap found intercorrelations; but behavior tended to be inconsistent with such cognitive and affective expressions of concern for the environment. This finding suggests that the issue of attitude-behavior consistency should be addressed in other studies such as the present one.

Several comments concerning the literature on the socially/environmentally responsible individual are in order. First, the definitions which have been used across these studies have been quite diverse. Thus, one operationalization might be "purchase of environmentally safe products" (Herberger, 1975) while another is "voting behavior on a bottle bill" (Crosby and Gill, 1980) and yet another is "membership in an activist group" (Cotgrove, 1976).

Discrepancies in findings on relationships with other variables may be due to these different operationalizations. Similarly, the present study deals with a conceptually different form of responsible behavior than those mentioned in extant research.

Secondly, in spite of the differences in the studies, there is a recurring theme of interest in the political orientations of the "responsible" versus "irresponsible" individual. Two underlying dimensions appear to be reflected by the traditional-versus-liberal outlook and the individualistic-versus-brotherhood outlook. Therefore, it was determined that the Time Dimension and the Relational Dimension from Value Orientations theory should be studied in conjunction with disposition, a behavioral sphere which has social responsibility implications.

Thirdly, in more than one study it was suggested that overt behaviors might be inconsistent with expressed values/attitudes. Conversely, it was suggested that attitude-behavior consistency might be an illusion created by post hoc justification on the part of the respondent. Both of these issues support the present proposal of two alternative models, the one being a high involvement model, wherein behaviors should follow from Value Orientations, and the other being a low involvement model, wherein spontaneous behavior is justified after it occurs. For some persons, their more general Value Orientations concerning responsibility to others in society may, in fact, not be related to a particular behavioral sphere such as disposition, even though it has serious responsibility implications to the scholarly observer.

While researchers in the area of disposition have acknowledged the societal impact of our disposition choices, none have studied beliefs that individuals have concerning their responsibility to society. The next section of the literature review will cover the extant stream of research in disposition and discuss those variables which have been investigated.

Disposition Choice

Only a small number of studies have addressed the issue of disposition choice. Each study proceeds from a different angle, such that the literature has the disjointed appearance typical of a new body of knowledge.

While consumers have been disposing since the dawn of civilization, attention was only recently drawn to the process as a phenomenon worthy of scholarly investigation. Two articles published

in the same year pointed out that consumer behaviorists had tended to focus on acquisition of goods in spite of the fact that the domain of consumer behavior rightfully included acquisition, usage, and disposition (Jacoby, 1976; Nicosia and Mayer, 1976). While some work had been done in "usage" of products after purchase, nothing whatever had been done on disposition at that time.

The first study to address disposition choice (Jacoby, Berning, and Dietvorst, 1977) investigated which options consumers had used for six different products: stereo amplifier, watch, toothbrush, phonograph record, bicycle, and refrigerator. The authors proposed a taxonomy of choices or options available to the consumer. Figure 6 depicts their taxonomy.

Keep the product		Per	Permanently dispose		Temporarily	
1.	Continue to use for original purpose	1.	Throw away or abandon it	1.	Loan it	
2.	Convert for another use	2.	Give it away	2.	Rent it to someone else	
3.	Store it	3.	Sell it			
		4.	Trade it			

Figure 6. A Taxonomy for Describing Consumer Disposition Behavior

Source: Adapted from Jacob Jacoby, Carol K. Berning and Thomas F. Dietvorst, "What About Disposition?" <u>Journal of Marketing</u> 41 (1977): 22.

Respondents were asked which disposition options they had used in the past for these products and which options they would use when the currently owned product in that category would be no longer in use.

Additionally, they were asked which other option (other than their first choice) had been considered for each product. For eighty percent of the reported choices, the respondents claimed not to have contemplated any other alternative than the one chosen. The most popular response was "throw away," accounting for 40% of the decisions made. The temporary disposition options were rarely chosen. Certain products evidenced obvious disposition tendencies; for example, toothbrushes were never sold, and refrigerators were most likely to be sold. However, Jacoby, et al, proposed that product characteristics alone would not predict the disposition option that would be chosen. They suggested that personal characteristics of the individual and situational factors be investigated in future research.

Concerned with the issue of building more durability into major appliances, researchers investigated disposition for washing machines and refrigerators, hypothesizing that the first category was disposed of for functional reasons while the second category was more likely to be disposed of for fashion/feature/obsolescence reasons (DeBell and Dardis, 1978). All respondents were drawn from retailers' lists of recent purchasers of a new/replacement machine. The disposal questions focused on product age at time of disposal, reasons for disposal, condition at disposal, and method of disposal. There were no significant socioeconomic differences between purchasers of washing machines and purchasers of refrigerators to account for differences in disposal. The definition of "disposal" was chosen specifically to

include "keeping": i.e. disposition is "the action taken by the owner when he decides to replace an appliance, regardless of the notive. For example, if the household's primary refrigerator is replaced by a new refrigerator, the old refrigerator is considered as 'disposed' even though it may be retained in the basement." These authors considered the disposal decision as a disposal/replacement decision. (Their definition was quite restrictive in that the broader view of disposition does not usually depend upon replacement as a necessary condition.) As hypothesized, washing machines were more likely to be replaced due to mechanical problems (93%) than refrigerators (54%). Not surprisingly, very few replaced washers were kept in the home (4%), compared to replaced refrigerators (26%). Worthy of note is the finding that, while 93% of the washers had mechanical problems, about 25% were sold, given away, donated, etc., rather than being trashed or hauled away by the dealer. Product condition did not necessarily predict disposition option. DeBell and Dardis offered no explanation as to why some people sell, donate, or give away broken products while others used the seemingly more obvious option of trashing them.

The focus shifted from that of product characteristics to a description of the consumer's personal characteristics in relation to his/her disposition choices in a psychographic study (Burke, Conn, and Lutz, 1978). Slightly modifying the taxonomy of disposition choices developed by Jacoby, et al (1977), the authors investigated the demographic and psychographic profiles of different disposer types with respect to 12 small electrical appliances. The variables studied were not able to distinguish between disposer types until the disposer types were collapsed into two categories, Trashers and All Others. Age was

the only strong demographic discriminator in the two-group analysis, with the Trashers being somewhat younger than the All Others group. A more meaningful finding was that Trashers tended not to take care of their products or read owner's manuals, possibly indicating that, if they placed little value on products as possessions, they would not value them as reparable, recyclable resources. (While the authors did not use the concept of Value Orientations, their lifestyle statements which discriminate between the two groups suggest that Trashers had some different outlooks than All Others.)

Conn (in an undated monograph) used the data from the above study to suggest specific legislative policies and communications strategies that might be employed to encourage waste reduction concerning consumer goods. His suggestions leaned considerably more toward legislation than to understanding the behavior of the consumer. (Conn is in the field of urban planning; his limited understanding of consumer behavior is exemplified by his proposal to discourage the consumer's preferences for new acquisitions and new product features.)

Two dissertations in 1980 involved research in the area of disposition. Information processing time and effort were studied in conjunction with high and low involvement small electrical appliances (Razzouk, 1980). He found a tendency toward the use of lexicographic, short-cutting decision strategies in the evaluation of disposition methods and that certain rationales were strongly related to choice of a disposal option. The rationales included "economic" considerations such as financial benefit gained, effort involved, and cost involved. One must, however, view some of these findings cautiously, as they may be an artifact of Razzouk's methodology (using a student sample in a

role-playing situation in a laboratory setting). On the other hand, there is much intuitive appeal to the rationale factors he found; they will be used in the present study.

The second dissertation addressing the factors in disposition choice (Hanson, 1980) examined several variables in their relation to disposal of a high-value product (a refrigerator) and a low-value product (newspapers). Hanson found that respondents were influenced by situation, product, and personal variables when disposing of refrigerators. Of the personal variables, psychographics were found to be more relevant than demographics. For newspapers, psychographics and perceived convenience were most influential.

A paradigm developed in Hanson's dissertation was subsequently published (Hanson, 1980a). He proposed a "comprehensive model" for the consumer disposition process. Hanson's model was explicitly a problemsolving model. This model neglected the possibility that consumers may dispose quite spontaneously without feeling much involvement.

To summarize, few disposition-choice studies have been conducted. Taxonomies of disposition options have been very similar and usually include the "keep" option. Notably, none of the taxonomies have broken down "donate" into two different options, "donate for tax deduction purposes" versus "donate without declaring a tax deduction." It seems there should be an underlying difference in values behind these different behaviors.

In terms of products studied, there seems to have been a disproportionate interest in the disposal of small and large electrical appliances. The narrow range of products studied limits the generalizability of the existing conclusions. None of the researchers

in this area have used an unspecified set of products as the stimulus list for disposition choice. If persons have strong tendencies to sell, they should respond with high likelihood scores for the "sell" option even though the specific products are not stated. The intent of an unspecified stimulus set would be to increase the validity and generalizability of the Disposition Tendency measure.

Demographics have been generally found to be weak predictors of disposition choice, while psychographics and rationales based on costs and benefits of the disposition method have shown some relationship to behaviors.

The issue of problem-solving is unresolved. None of the researchers have investigated whether some consumers go through a planning process while others act spontaneously. Jacoby, et al (1977) found that most consumers never considered more than one option. This finding might indicate a lack of alternative-evaluation (or low involvement). On the other hand, Hanson (1980a) depicted the disposition choice in a traditional problem-solving model (high involvement). It is useful, therefore, to consider that there may be two models to allow for two types of disposers, one actively solving the disposition-choice problem, and the other reacting to situational influences without giving mugh forethought to such decisions.

While most of the researchers have discussed the importance of studying disposition behavior as a factor in the waste of resources, none have specifically investigated the consumer's outlook on social responsibility and its relation to disposition tendencies of consumers.

Overall, the research in disposition appears fragmented, as one might expect in any new area of investigation. In order to develop an

integrated and more comprehensive perspective, it is useful to consider how some of the specific disposition options could be explained in relation to other research topics, such as Gift Giving and Donor Behavior. The following section of this literature review will examine studies in each of these areas and explain how they provide insights to disposition—choice theory.

Theoretical Differences Between Disposition Options

Overview of Theoretical Differences. While all of the disposition studies to date have recognized that there are several options available for disposition, there seems to have been no theoretical justification provided for collapsing some options into one category while subdividing other options. This section of the literature review will provide clarification as to why the current taxonomy of options has been chosen. Although there are some similarities between some options, there are underlying differences which require treating them as distinctly different behaviors.

This section will briefly discuss Selling, Keeping, and
Throwing-Away, and then provide a more lengthy discussion of the three
options which were originally subsumed by Jacoby, et al (1977) in the
"Give Away" option, i.e., Passing Along, Donating for Tax Deduction
Purposes, and Donating Without Tax Deduction. (These Give-Away options
will be elaborated upon within the framework of an overall model of
giving behavior.)

1. The Selling/Swapping Option. Both selling and swapping are activities in which a "price" is agreed upon by both parties in the exchange. Whether that exchange takes place through a classified ad, garage sale, swap-

meet, or other means of conducting a transaction, there is an economic intent. "Buyers" may be either acquaintances or strangers.

- 2. The Keeping Option. Keepers are sometimes referred to as "pack-rats." While there is no substantive literature on pack-rat behavior, "hoarding" tendencies have been used as examples of obsessive-compulsive behaviors (Leitner, 1985). As such, keeping of no-longer-used items would seem to be affected more by personality traits than by Value Orientations. Correlations between keeping tendencies and Value Orientation adherences may therefore be somewhat weak.
- 3. The Throw-Away Option. The tendency to trash usable items may be viewed as irresponsible behavior. However, if the owner of the good does not perceive value in the item, he/she probably does not consider trashing it to be irresponsible (Burke, et al, 1978). The consumer who sees little value in the product is less likely to plan disposition in a highly involved manner.
- 4-6. The Give-Away Options: Passing Along, Donating for Tax

 Deduction Purposes, and Donating Without Tax Deduction.

 Jacoby, et al (1977) treated these behaviors as one category. Burke, et al (1978) treated donating and passing along to an acquaintance as two separate options but did not classify donating into two separate activities based on tax deduction versus non-deduction. There is substantial theoretical reasoning to justify treating these three behaviors as distinct.

The remainder of this section of the literature review will discuss these three giving options within a framework of giving behavior by developing a model derived from literature in "donor behvior" and "gift-giving behavior." Differences between gift-giving and donor behavior will be suggested. A model will then be illustrated. Finally, related research will be cited as justification for the model. The intent of the following passages is to clarify the underlying differences between the two types of donating and the passing along of no-longer-wanted goods.

<u>Differences Between Gift-Giving and Donating.</u> Two major differences between donating and gift-giving can be suggested:

- 1. An operational difference: donating to a charitable organization usually results in the money or good being received by an individual who is unknown to the donor, whereas the recipient of a gift is one with whom the giver has some form of interpersonal relationship.
- 2. A theoretical difference: donating behavior has been associated with philanthropy or altruism, whereas gift-giving has been associated with the norm of reciprocity.

It is important to the present study to analyze where Passing behavior fits into the total concept of giving behavior. While Passing behavior may appear on the surface to be altruistic (like Donating), it is proposed to have more in common with gift-giving. Value Orientations and Rationales associated with Donating should be different from those associated with Passing behavior.

Similarly, donating for tax deduction purposes is not the same as donating for purely altruistic reasons. These two types should also differ on Value Orientations and Rationales.

The following model (Figure 7) depicts the four types of giving behavior (gift-giving, passing, donating for tax deduction, and donating without tax deduction).

The diagonal line which cuts through the model divides the activities into those which move goods to a known recipient and those which move goods to an unknown recipient. The solid arrows represent theoretical linkages which have been presented in prior literature; the dashed arrows indicate the two possible influences on the unresearched activity of Passing behavior.

Expected reciprocity has been linked to gift-giving behavior (Sherry, 1983), and is posited here to have a similar influence on Passing behavior. Altruism has been attributed to philanthropic donations in varying degrees (Smith, 1979). Economic return operates

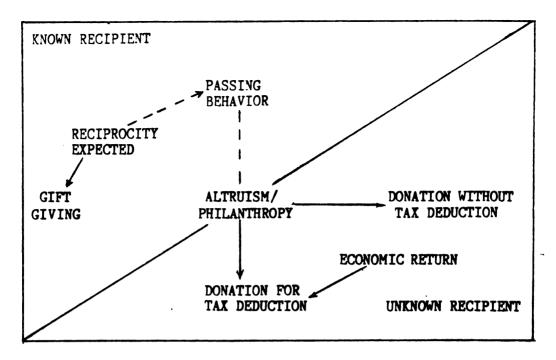


Figure 7. Four Types of Giving Behavior

in conjunction with philanthropy when tax deductions are derived from the donating process (Schwartz, 1970).

At first glance, it may seem that economic return and reciprocity are quite similar because both involve an exchange of some kind.

However, they are conceptually different in the specificity of the "return" and the source of the "return." When the individual donates for tax purposes, there is a specific, planned, and calculable return; and the source of the return is the Internal Revenue Service rather than the recipient of the good. Conversely, when a person passes along a good, the return may be more like a "credit" for future, unspecified favors from the actual recipient or the tacit payment of a "debt."

In terms of Value Orientations, the altruistic or philanthropic donation might be evidence of an outlook of responsibility to mankind. The economic return from tax deductible donating appears similar to the price charged by a seller, and such donating may thus be influenced by

similar orientations as those related to Selling. Passing-along may involve an outlook of interdependence between neighbors and friends. This outlook would be similar to the collateral-orientation.

More depth on these concepts will now be presented by considering selected literature, first on gift-giving and reciprocity, then on donor behavior and altruism.

Gift-Giving. A recent review of gift-giving (Sherry, 1983) put the process into an anthropological perspective as a cultural phenomenon, laden with the norms and expectations of tradition. The theoretical focus was on the norm of reciprocity as elaborated by Gouldner (1960). Sherry delineated a dynamic model of gift-giving wherein, after the "gestation" (decision as to what to give), and "prestation" (actual giving of the gift), a "reformulation" stage occurs for the recipient, who decides what to do with the gift, evaluates the giver, and realigns thoughts about what is owed to the giver, as they will now switch roles. While Sherry's article dealt with true gifts, many of the implications for passing of used items seen to be similar.

The concept of reciprocity is one of the core issues in social exchange theory. It is worthwhile to examine the propositions of Gouldner's theory (1960) in some depth.

While reciprocity has been typically defined as a "quid pro quo" phenomenon, Gouldner argued that there are degrees of reciprocity, ranging from a perfectly equal balance of exchange to a complete imbalance. Both of these extremes were deemed to be rare occurrences. The perfect balance was referred to as <a href="https://www.mee.nc.no.nc.nc.no.nc.nc.no.nc.no.nc.no.nc.no.nc.no.nc.nc.no.nc.no.nc.no.nc.no.nc.no.nc

(This balance might be more aptly called "quid pro quid.") More often, however, reciprocity is heteromorphic, with favors being not identical, but having similar value. Gouldner stressed that "equal value" is not meant in the economic sense of the term. The equity is deemed to exist if the exchange is "fair," given the respective needs and resources of the parties in the exchange. (For example, the passer of children's clothes may not expect her less fortunate neighbor to repay in kind, but would feel entitled to ask for a ride to the service station to pick up her car.)

Gouldner suggested another important aspect of reciprocity, the temporal element. Immediate or concurrent exchange of favors does not usually occur. A person may provide a favor as "repayment" for a favor received far in the past; or, the favor may be given with the expectation that some favor will be returned sometime in the future. Unlike swapping, Passing may involve a reciprocity that does not entail a clear "price" or an immediate transaction. The whole concept of exchange may be tacit, in fact. Although temporal lag is acceptable, if the relationship is not somehow maintained with equitable exchanges over time, it is likely to deteriorate.

While Gouldner generally dealt with two-party exchanges, Passing behavior could involve a reciprocity situation wherein there is a series of multi-party exchanges. While A gives to B, B gives to C, and C gives to A (Bagozzi, 1981). This form of reciprocity would suggest a close, interdependent social network, wherein the giver feels confident that "someone else" in the system will provide favors in return when he/she needs something.

At the heart of the norm of reciprocity is the concept of moral duty to repay debts, as well as a utilitarian understanding that a person cannot expect favors unless willing to provide equitable favors in return. Reciprocity therefore appears to suggest a collateral-orientation of interdependence. Insofar as Passing behavior is considered to be like gift-giving, and gift-giving involves reciprocity, it is proposed that Passing behavior should be associated with a collateral responsibility outlook, both responsible for and dependent on others.

Donor Behavior. Donating of time, money, blood, body parts, or products may initially appear to be an altruistic activity. True altruism can be considered to involve those behaviors reflective of an internalized concern for others, for which one does not expect any return. Figure 7 depicts the assumed influence of altruism on donating.

There are, however, two arguments which suggest that donor behavior is not always a case of altruism. The first argument is that there is an economic return involved in some donor activities, such as the tax benefits derived when one declares donations as a deduction. The second argument is that, while a truly altruistic behavior is value-based, many donations are not value-based, i.e., they are simply triggered by situational influences such as the "psychological tactics" used by the solicitor. The following discussion will elucidate why it is important to treat donating for tax deduction as different from donating without deduction. In addition, it will demonstrate another reason why respondents should be allowed to self-classify as either

High or Low Involvement Disposers, since spontaneous donating as a response to solicitation tactics is different from true altruism.

The influence of economic return was treated by an economist (Schwartz, 1970). Schwartz proposed that there were both economic and altruistic factors operating to influence the donor who declared tax deductions for donations. Schwartz' logic is as follows:

The act of donating is a "good" from which the donor receives utility. The price of donating is the difference between the amount of the cash value of the donation and the tax benefit it generates. Since no tax benefit can ever be equal to the amount of the donation, there must be some portion of the act of donating which could be considered philanthropic. A philanthropic transfer of wealth is defined as "A voluntarily generated, one-way flow of resources from a donor to a donee: the flow is one-way in the sense that it is based upon no donor expectation that an economic quid pro quo (in the usual sense of that term) will reward his act." The pay-back for the donor comes in the form of psychic utility. The donor's utility is felt as he/she perceives the less fortunate donee's utility to increase (due to the increased real income which the donee experiences as a result of the donation). Donating is proposed to be income-elastic if the donor's income increases while the income of others' stays constant; put simply, larger amounts will be donated as the rich get richer. However, a ceiling on tax deductibility will cause the eventual tapering off of this increase, since economic factors are also in operation.

Schwartz' model was applied to cash donation and the donation of assets which had "known" market value. His assumption that the tax

benefit could never equal the monetary value of the contribution may not hold true when used goods constitute the donation. For example, it is entirely possible for a used product to generate an economic return as a tax deduction equal to its market value in a garage sale. In such a case, theoretically, there is no "price" to donating, and therefore no reason to assume philanthropic utility. The economic incentive may be the only factor in such donating.

Altruism may also be absent when a donation is made which is not based on socially responsible values. A variety of influences may lead to "altruistic-appearing" behaviors. In a review of literature on charitable giving, Smith (1979) proposed a continuum of charitable behaviors, ranging from the truly altruistic to the situationally influenced. Figure 8 depicts Smith's conceptual continuum.

To interpret Smith's framework, it is helpful to imagine that any given donor could be placed somewhere along the Hedonic-Altruistic continuum. The truly altruistic person, at one extreme, adheres to a norm of social responsibility; and this adherence is integrated into the value system of that individual. At the other extreme, a donor may be simply responding to situational influences or the tactics of others who would solicit charitable donations. The two extremes of this continuum also served as further justification for the dichotomous self-classification of respondents into High Involvement (value-driven) Disposers and Low Involvement (situationally influenced) Disposers in the present study.

Support for the proposition that some donors are truly altruistic was provided in studies on the donation of body parts (Pessenier, Bennaor, and Hanssens, 1977) and blood (Smead and Burnett, 1979).

Range of Altruistic Behavior	Behavioral Situations	Stages in the Behavioral Process		
Hedonic Behavior	Temporary Psychological States Economic Motivations Reciprocity	Reactance to Situations and Actions of Others		
	Dependency of Others Interpersonal Attractiveness and Individual Behavior Models of Group Helping Behavior	Identification with Individual and Group Others		
Altruistic Behavior	Social Responsibility as a Norm Commitment	Internalization of Behavior into Value System		

Figure 8. Process Model for Contributing Behavior

Source: Adapted from Scott M. Smith, "Giving to Charitable Organizations: A Behavioral Review and a Framework for Increasing Commitment," in Advances in Consumer Research, Jerry C. Olson, ed., Vol. 7 (1979): 754.

Using general measures of "charitable feelings toward others" and "social involvement," respectively, these authors concluded that donors generally exhibited a responsible-for-others orientation beyond the specific donating situation studied.

On the other hand, support for the notion that donor behavior may be situationally or tactically influenced by solicitors is provided by the literature on compliance techniques. It appears that compliance techniques are often used when the desired behavior is one to which the individual is not committed. Therefore, donating may be seen as an "unsought good" rather than a "planned purchase." Temporary psychological states can be created by tactics such as foot-in-the-door technique (e.g., DeJong, 1979), door-in-the-face technique (e.g., Goldman, Seever, and Seever, 1982).

Giving behavior is thus considerably more complicated than simple altruism. These preceding pages have shown that the three forms of used-product giving are conceptually different, depending on the recipient of the good, the economic factors involved, and the giver's level of commitment to social responsibility.

The purpose of this lengthy elaboration has been to do what no other disposition researcher has done before: to justify through theory the disposition-options taxonomy as a set of conceptually different behaviors. As such, the tendencies to use these options should be related in different degrees to different Value Orientations.

The final section of the literature review will present a more global perspective on disposition by discussing some diverse writings on man's discard activities as a socio-cultural phenomenon.

Discard Behavior as a Socio-Cultural Phenomenon

While disposition has been shown to encompass far more than trash, trash itself has been the subject of considerable study in recent years. Quite serious questions have been addressed to the issues of who throws away what, where and in what condition items are discarded, what the ecological impact of trash is, why some items attain the status of trash, and how items find new life after the original users trash them. The current study investigates some of the personal characteristics of those who show trashing tendencies for still-usable items. The implications of trash study relate to consumer preferences, cultural patterns, and environmental survival. The following articles represent a sample of the diverse manners in which trash has been studied.

"Garbalogy," a new field of anthropology, is exemplified by the work of William Rathje at the University of Arizona. Rathje and his associates are indeed "digging through garbage" in order to study the purchasing patterns of different ethnic and socio-economic groups in the Southwest (White, 1983).

While Rathje's scholarly approach to garbage as a measure of consumer behavior is relatively new to academics, a practitioner study of garbage can be traced back to 1926. The Curtis Publishing Company collected the garbage of Philadelphians and examined the discarded wrappers and packaging as a means of cross-validating results from a consumer purchasing survey. The study became known popularly and historically as the "Ash and Trash" survey (Boorstin, 1973).

A more erudite term has been applied to the "study of human residues": ethnoarchaeology. The ethnoarchaeologist studies patterns

of discard behaviors by examining the location and condition of discarded objects. In some cultures there are centuries—old patterns which are still in existence. Exemplifying research in this area is a study of the discard traditions of Western Desert aborigines in Australia (Gould, 1978). Such studies place 'trashing' into a total framework of location—determined production, consumption, and disposition of artifacts.

Another view of rubbish was presented in a treatise on how certain items become outmoded, are treated as worthless trash, and are "rediscovered," then to be sought out as "art" or "antiques" (Thompson, 1979). The focus of Thompson's argument was on the process by which certain members of society trigger the rebirth of interest in certain products, fashions, or architectural styles and spread the sentiment to others. (Playing on a better known term, the consumer behaviorist might call this "diffusion of renovation.") Thompson's treatise lends some sociological insight to the vernacular adage that "One man's trash is another man's treasure."

Finally, the study of garbage and trash is the domain of certain urban planners and ecologists, who are less concerned with how or why trash came to be trash than with its impact on the environment. A landmark work in ecology was The Closing Circle (Commoner, 1971), in which the author painted a grim picture of the effects of deteriorating products, especially those made from synthetic materials. Much attention has been directed since that time toward developing purification and reclamation techniques for dealing with the hazards and wastes caused by landfill accumulation (White, 1983; Boraiko, 1985).

The focus, regarding hazardous waste, tends to be the development of curative measures rather than preventative measures, at least in reference to consumer waste. The present study should be able to provide insights into different Disposition Tendencies so as to aid strategists in developing campaigns to encourage responsible disposition and to prevent some of the trashing of products which contribute to toxic waste. By understanding which Value Orientations and Rationales tend to relate to which Disposition Tendencies, the strategist might create more effective preventative appeals.

Chapter Summary

The first objective of this chapter was to demonstrate how the theory of Value Orientations might add insight into the choices of consumers concerning their tendencies to use six specific disposition options. It was suggested that High Involvement Disposers would manifest more meaningful relationships between Value Orientations and Disposition Tendencies than would Low Involvement Disposers.

Additionally, certain disposition-specific Rationales were suggested to relate to Disposition Tendencies. These Rationales were also suggested to be related to the Value Orientation adherences of High Involvement Disposers. Findings are thus to be reported only for those respondents who self-classified as exhibiting a relatively high involvement in planning their disposition behaviors.

A major focus in reviewing social responsibility studies was to develop a theoretical justification for relating two specific dimensions (Time and Relational) of the Value Orientations Set to environmentally responsible disposition behavior.

The extant literature in disposition choice was reviewed in order to illustrate the types of variables which have been, and might yet be, researched in relation to disposition choice.

Finally, the taxonomy of disposition options was justified by means of explaining the underlying theoretical differences in the six behavioral choices for disposition.

The next chapter will explain the research design, which was founded on the information and insights provided by this literature review.

CHAPTER THREE:

METHODOLOGY

Overview

This section will describe the procedures used for investigating:

- (1) the relationships between Value Orientations, Rationales, Disposition Attitudes, and Disposition Tendencies, and
- (2) background variations across the Disposition Tendencies.

First, the development of the questionnaire will be explained. Since no existing scales were appropriate, several stages of pretesting were conducted to modify Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) Value Orientations scales and to create an original scale for measurement of Disposition Tendency.

Second, the sampling and data collection procedures will be described. The procedures provided for a systematically-drawn large sample of the Dayton, Ohio area. The methods were chosen in consideration of the nature of the questionnaire; the lengthy and rather personal nature of the questionnaire required the use of mail surveys rather than telephone or mall intercept surveys. Both response rate and completion rate were expected to be better than for most mail surveys due to the use of a pre-survey telephone solicitation.

Third, the coding and analysis procedures will be explained.

The final section of this chapter will provide preliminary guidelines for interpreting the data analysis. Specifically, initial hypotheses, which are based on extrapolations from the related findings presented in the literature review. will be offered.

Questionnaire Development

The first version of the questionnaire was created, critiqued by a small panel, and modified to improve the wording. The scales were then pretested for reliability in a small sample study. A variety of concerns relating to potential biases and the limitations imposed by the level of data led to the construction of a second version, which was, in turn, tested for reliability with a different small sample. The final version was developed by drawing out the most reliable items from the second version, whose lengthiness seemed to produce completion-rate problems. In addition, a self-classification item, a set of Rationale items, and a set of simple Attitude items were created for the final instrument. The following paragraphs will briefly delineate the development, modifications, and comparisons of the versions.

The First Preliminary Questionnaire: Lansing Mail Survey. The first version of the questionnaire (Appendix I) was designed to follow the rank-ordering format of the Kluckhohn-Strodtbeck (1961) scales. However, several modifications of their scales were required.

Specifically, there was a slight modification of the terms and concepts involved on the Relational Dimension. The modified terms are the variable labels used for this study. These modifications are shown in Figure 9.

Furthermore, the topics used as "stimuli" to elicit orientations had to be changed considerably since the subjects studied by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck lived in small, poorly developed rural communities in the Southwest. The topics they used, e.g., well-building and the death of livestock, would be inappropriate for urban respondents in the

Kluckhohn-Strodtbeck's Terms/Meanings

Individualistic-looking out for self

Collateral-brotherhood of peers helping each other, equal responsibility

Lineal-looking to a hierarchal system to take responsibility for decisions and protection, some have more responsibility

Modified Terms/Meanings

Self-looking out for self

Other-taking care of others, more responsibility taken on to make up for others who don't take responsibility

Dependent-looking for protection from institutions, government, etc., expecting others to solve social problems

Figure 9. Relational Dimension Modifications for the Present Study

industrial Midwest. The topics that were selected as stimuli were chosen for their relevance in contemporary society. These topics included marriage, parenting, religion, and consumer-satisfaction (Items 2, 4, 6, 8) on the Time Dimension and crime, job discrimination, litter, and hard economic times on the Relational Dimension (Items 1, 3, 4, 5). Respondents were asked to rank-order their agreement with the three orientation alternatives on each topical area. An adherence index was created for each orientation scale by summing the four items relevant to it.

To measure Disposition Tendency, respondents were asked to select, from a list of nine options, the most likely disposition option that they would use for each of ten specific products. The stimulus products were carefully selected to be of moderate price value and likely to be common items in any home. Some items were described as being slightly in need of repair or out of style. The frequency with

which an individual selected each option was his/her Disposition
Tendency score.

This questionnaire was administered by mail to a small sample who had been initially contacted by phone and who had agreed to cooperate. The sample was drawn by calling the last name on every fifth page of the Greater Lansing telephone directory. Almost 100% of those contacted agreed to receive and complete the mail survey, which was mailed within a few days after the phone contact. Of those mailed, 71.8% (28) were returned in usable condition. Respondents showed much heterogeneity in their disposition responses but demonstrated a distinct concentration on the Other and Present-Orientations. This homogeneity may have been an artifact of the questionnaire design, i.e., the wording of statements or the forced ranking may have led to social-acceptability bias. Alpha reliabilities (.54, .42, -.06, .55, .22, and .41) indicated the need for improvements in the six Value Orientation scales.

The Second Preliminary Questionnaire: Oxford Store-Front

Intercept Survey. Several problems were addressed by creating the second version of the questionnaire (Appendix II). In order to assess wording, a matched "synonymous" statement was created for each of the original 24 Value Orientation statements from the first version. These 48 statements were randomly ordered as independent items rather than grouped in threes as the alternative viewpoints for a stimulus topic. This new format prevented rank-ordering but was used to minimize the social-acceptability bias that may have been caused by juxtaposing the three alternative orientations. In addition, the use of ordinal data in the first version had precluded the use of many statistical

techniques. The new format allowed the use of interval level data on 7-point rating scales, anchored by Strongly Agree and Strongly Disagree.

The Disposition Tendency measures were narrowed from the nine original disposition options to six options. (Based on the findings in the first study, several of the Selling options were used too rarely to treat separately in the second version.) Also, on this version, the products to be decided on were not specified. Respondents were asked to divide 10 points across the six options according to likelihood of using each of the options if they found they had a "number of nolonger-used-but-usable, moderate-value items in the household." This unspecified stimulus list appeared appropriate since the focus of the research was on the respondent's <u>general</u> Disposition Tendencies, not on which option is used for any specific product category.

A store-front intercept at Kroger's in Oxford, Ohio was used to solicit on-the-spot participation. Completion rate was hindered by the lengthiness of the survey. A total of 64 respondents were recruited, with only 44 usable surveys completed.

Results from this second study indicated that respondents were able to understand the instructions and the unspecified product stimulus list. Most respondents tended to divide the 10 points across an evoked set of options, generally giving their probability estimates to a few options and assigning zero to the remaining options.

Variability in Disposition Tendencies across respondents was as acceptable in this version as it had been on the first version.

Improvements in the reliability coefficients for the six Value

Orientations scales appears to have been achieved by use of the rating

format, as opposed to the ranking format used in the first version. In order to shorten the instrument for completion-rate improvement, the most acceptable statement from each matched pair was retained for inclusion in the final questionnaire. From each pair the item retained was that which had the higher item-to-total correlation on its particular Value Orientation scale. The retained 24 statements included approximately equal numbers of statements from the first and second versions of the questionnaire.

The alpha coefficients were then calculated for the new, reduced Value Orientation scales. Usually, reducing the number of scale items by half would substantially reduce the reliability coefficient; however, the scale reductions in this situation resulted in little effect on the coefficients for four of the scales and actually improved two of the scale reliabilities. All six scale coefficients yielded reliabilities of at least .50, and one was as high as .73. These reliability coefficients met suggested minimum levels of internal consistency for preliminary research (Peter, 1979). Therefore, the Value Orientations scales appeared to be significantly improved and were deemed appropriate for further use.

The Final Questionnaire. The third and final version of the questionnaire (Appendix III) consists of a cover letter and four parts:

- 1) Value Orientations statements, 2) Rationale statements,
- 3) Disposition Attitude, Tendency and Type questions, and
- 4) Demographic/Residence questions. Each of these sections will be explained in detail.

<u>Value Orientations Scales (Part I).</u> There are six Value
Orientations scales, one for each of the three alternative orientations

on the two dimensions under investigation. Figure 10 shows which items represent each orientation and the stimulus topics used.

	Time	Dimension		Rela	tional Dimension
Past	#12 F #13 F	Marriage Religion Parenting Technology	Self	# 1 # 6 # 8 #16	Crime Environment Economy Discrimination
Present	# 5 R # 9 N #23 R	Religion Marriage Parenting Technology	Other	# 2 #19 #20	Economy Crime Discrimination Environment
Future	# 3 T # 4 N # 7 F	Cechnology Marriage Parenting Religion	Dependent		Discrimination Economy Crime Environment

Figure 10. Items and Stimulus Topics Used to Create Value Orientations Scales

Three different orientations were presented for each stimulus topic, e.g., there was a present-oriented statement about marriage, a past-oriented statement about marriage, and a future-oriented statement about marriage. Although these three alternatives were not in the rank-ordering format of the Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck scale (1960), the method did allow the respondent to rate each alternative orientation differently on the same stimulus topic.

Each statement was to be rated by the respondent on an Agree-Disagree scale. The scale consisted of seven points, anchored by Strongly Agree (7) and Strongly Disagree (1). Intermediate points were not labeled on the scale, so that the scale presented equal-appearing intervals.

Stimulus topics were chosen to represent contemporary concerns of the American population. Issues which were selected were frequently

discussed during the political campaigns of 1984. Pre-test internal consistency coefficients of .50 to .70 had suggested that, although dealing with very different issues, the four topics on each Value Orientation scale could indeed elicit compatible responses.

Rationale Items (Part II). The Rationale construct was proposed, in Chapter One, to intervene between Value Orientations and Disposition Tendencies for High Involvement Disposers. Rationales are those expectations of desired outcomes, or justifications, which the consumer might describe as the factors in selection of disposition options. Several factors were suggested by Razzouk (1980), e.g. the cost, effort, and monetary return that might be outcomes of the option chosen. An extensive preliminary list of such Rationale statements was generated and was reduced to the fifteen statements which appeared most relevant. These Rationale statements were rated by respondents on seven-point agree-disagree scales. (See Appendix III, Part II.)

<u>Disposition Behavior (Part III)</u>. Respondents were asked to report their tendencies to use (and attitudes toward) certain disposition options under a certain set of conditions and to classify themselves as either High or Low Involvement Disposers.

Behavioral tendency was measured by asking respondents to divide 100 points across the six disposition options in order to indicate how likely they were to use each of those options. The context offered for rating the options was as follows: the respondent was asked to assume that while searching for some misplaced item, he/she discovered several items which had not been used in so long a time as to be forgotten. The items thus found were described as being of moderate value, in

usable condition, but having no sentimental value. An example was provided in the instructions to facilitate application of this scale.

A set of unidimensional affect (Attitude) statements was included to determine how much respondents <u>liked</u> or <u>disliked</u> using each of the disposition options. The seven-point scales were anchored with Strongly Dislike (1) and Strongly Like (7), with no intervening labels. Two types of information were to be gained by including these attitudinal statements. First, it has been shown that environmental attitudes and behaviors are not always congruent (Van Liere and Dunlap, 1981); and thus this relationship deserved investigation. Second, relationships between disposition tendencies and dislike of the other options might provide insights as to which alternatives are unlikely "substitutes" for strategists to suggest.

The self-classification into High versus Low Involvement types was accomplished by means of a single forced-choice dichotomous question.

The respondent was asked to indicate which person he/she is most like:

Type A. This person has a fairly systematic, planned, way of deciding what to do with usable-but-no-longer-used items in the home.

Type B. This person pretty much responds to disposal situations as they come up and doesn't give much thought beforehand as to what to do with usable-but-no-longer-used items.

(Type A is the High Involvement Disposer, and Type B is the Low Involvement Disposer.)

Background Information (Part IV). The final section of the questionnaire consisted of several demographic and residence questions. Many of these characteristics have been related to other measures of environmental concern. They were investigated as well under this unique conceptualization of environmentally responsible behavior.

In summary, the final version of the Value Orientations scales and the Disposition Tendency measures were developed through a sequence of preliminary studies. The Rationale statements, Attitude statements, and self-classification measure were examined for face validity and wording by a small panel of experts. In addition, some of the Rationale concepts were previously found to be significantly related to disposition choice (Razzouk, 1980).

The questionnaire appeared to be adequately easy to read and the length was deemed suitable for a mail survey. Therefore, it was expected that satisfactory completion rates would be achieved and that the response rate would be adequate for making probability generalizations.

The following section will describe and justify the sampling and data collection methods.

Sampling and Data Collection Procedures

Population. The Dayton, Ohio area was chosen as the population of interest for the present study because it offers a diversity of occupational types. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) and Cotgrove and Duff (1980) have suggested that occupational differences are related to variations in Value Orientations. While Dayton is largely an industrial town, having over 800 manufacturing companies in the vicinity, it also encompasses a major U.S. Air Force Base, two large universities, and suburbs which have a rural atmosphere, since Dayton is surrounded by farm communities. Founded in 1796, it is likely to have many established families; but being industrial, it attracts many

who migrate there for jobs. This mixture was expected to provide a high level of variance on all of the variables of interest.

Sampling. The sampling frame used was the "Dayton and Vicinity" telephone directory residential pages. Listings in this directory included the metropolitan Dayton area and sixteen adjacent communities. There were approximately 400 pages of residential listings, and two names were drawn from each page. It was arbitrarily decided that the first listing on the second column and the first listing on the fourth column of each page would be dialed. In the event that these numbers were no-answer, busy, or no-longer-in-service, the first listing to follow the prescribed listing was used. The same procedure was used to find an alternate if the person contacted refused to cooperate. Callers proceeded down a column till successful in acquiring a participant, then moved on to the next prescribed column.

Calls were made during June and July at different times of day and on different days of the week (although predominantly on weekdays between 4:00 p.m. and 7:00 p.m.). Callers were six young women, recruited for their pleasant voices. A total of 84 manhours was needed to enlist 811 participants.

Solicitation. When the caller reached a listing, she spoke to the first adult who answered the phone. After introducing herself, the caller indicated that the call concerned a research project being conducted at Miami University. The listener was asked to give just five minutes to hear about the research and was assured that no questions would be asked on the phone. If the listener agreed, he/she was provided with a very brief description of the study and was then asked to participate in the mail survey. The listener was also assured

that the mail survey would be anonymous and that all postage would be paid by the researcher. If the listener agreed to participate, the name and mailing address were verified and recorded. The listener was informed that the mailing would arrive in a few days and was requested to return it as soon as possible so that the researcher might move on to the next stage of the research. Finally, the caller thanked the listener for agreeing to contribute time to the project.

Essentially a foot-in-the-door technique, the pre-survey telephone solicitation was intended to create a higher response rate than if mailings had been sent without gaining any prior verbal commitment. This pre-survey phone solicitation has been shown to be effective in enhancing mail survey response rate (Allen, Schewe, and Wijk, 1980). Based on the 70% response rate achieved when employing this technique in the Lansing pre-test for this study, a response rate between 50% and 70% was expected. Since the final instrument was somewhat lengthier than the pre-test instrument, 70% was considered to be on the optimistic side and 50% more realistic.

Mail Survey. The mail survey was considered to be necessary as the data collection method for several reasons. First, the Value Orientations statements may have been considered too personal by some respondents; thus, the anonymity of the mail survey was expected to enhance participation and truthfulness of responses. Second, the questionnaire was somewhat lengthy and required some serious thought. Telephone and mall-intercept surveys need more brevity and simplicity of questions than were feasible in the current study. Third, comprehension of the scales and instructions was expected to be

enhanced by visual inspection of the questionnaire and leisurely response at home.

A cover letter (Appendix III) was sent with the questionnaire to thank the recipient for having <u>already agreed</u> to participate in the study. Survey participants were also reminded in this letter that their responses were completely anonymous and were asked to help the researcher by returning the completed questionnaire as soon as possible.

The mailing envelope bore the official embossed Miami University return address for credibility, but each participant's name and address were hand-written to create a more personal feeling. The return envelope, typed and pre-addressed to the researcher at the university address, was postmarked with a business reply stamp rather than a postage stamp. While this choice of postage was chosen primarily for economic reasons, the business reply mark may have also added to the appearance of official importance.

After each day of phoning, mailing envelopes were addressed, stuffed, and posted within 48 hours.

Summary. The pre-survey phone solicitation was employed in order to augment response rate (percentage of mailings returned) and completion rate (percentage of returns that are usable). The use of the mail survey for data collection allowed the respondent to review instructions and understand scales correctly, to think carefully about responses, and to answer personal questions truthfully due to the anonymity of the returned questionnaire.

Coding and Analysis

This section of the research design will initially describe the procedures for coding of Value Orientations scores into six indices of adherence and assigning of respondents into High and Low Involvement sub-samples.

Second, statistical procedures of data analysis will be presented:

(1) Pearson's Product-Moment bivariate correlations and (2) One-Way

Analyses of Variance. Correlations were calculated to determine the

strength and direction of relationships of each of the Value

Orientation Adherence Index scores with each of the Disposition

Tendency scores, each of the Value Orientation Adherence Index scores

with each of the Rationale statements, and each of the Rationale

statements with each of the Disposition Tendency scores. Additionally,

Disposition Tendency measures were correlated with the Disposition

Attitude measures.

Analysis of Variance was used to investigate differences in the average (mean) tendency to use each of the disposition options by each category of certain Demographic and Residence variables. The data thus obtained was used for profiling the background characteristics of users of each option.

Value Orientations Adherence Indices. The four items which represent a particular Value Orientation scale were averaged in order to give the respondent an index of adherence to that orientation. Since there are six Value Orientation scales, each respondent had six indices of adherence. The index range is 1 to 7.

Rationale Statements and Attitude Statements. The actual responses on the questionnaires were used; no re-coding was necessary. The range was 1 to 7 on all of the Rationale and Attitude measures.

<u>Disposition Tendency.</u> Each of the six disposition options was treated as a separate variable. The possible range for any option was 0 to 100. Since the respondent's task was to divide 100 points across the six options, the sum of all the option usage scores had to be 100. All questionnaires were hand-checked prior to computer coding; those in which the respondent misunderstood the instructions (i.e., option usage scores do not add up to exactly 100) were eliminated.

Classification of Disposer Types. Respondents' scores on the self-classification question were coded as either 1 or 0. Those checking the High Involvement description were assigned a code of 1, and those checking the Low Involvement type were assigned a 0. Only those self-classifying as High Involvement Disposers will be discussed in the findings reported here.

Demographic and Residence Variables. All but four of the Demographic and Residence variables were coded as categorical data.

(Age, number of persons in household, number of years at residence, and number of residences in lifetime were interval level scores.)

Correlational Analyses. Pearson's Product-Moment correlations were calculated to determine the strength and direction of association between: (1) each of the Value Orientation Adherence Indices and each of the Disposition Tendencies, (2) each of the Value Orientation Adherence Indices and each of the Rationale statements, (3) each of the Rationale statements and each of the Disposition Tendencies, and 4) each Disposition Attitude statement and each Disposition Tendency.

One-Way Analysis of Variance. The literature on Environmentally Responsible Behavior has shown that some demographic variables are associated with responsibility (Van Liere and Dunlap, 1980). For example, particular recurring interest has been demonstrated as to the background variables of education, age, and political preference. One-Way Analysis of Variance was conducted on each of the disposition options across the categories of each Demographic and Residence variable where nominal level data was obtained. (Those Demographic/Residence variables which were measured in interval level data, e.g., age, were examined for association with Disposition Tendency scores by means of correlational analyses.)

The final section of the Methodology will present some initial hypotheses as to the anticipated relationships between specific Value Orientations and specific Disposition Tendencies of High Involvement Disposers.

Preliminary Guidelines for Interpreting Data Analysis

Although the present study is concerned with a relatively new area of inquiry, several guidelines for interpreting the findings could be suggested. These guidelines will be presented below in the form of initial hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1:

- a) The Past-Orientation will be positively associated with Selling at $p \le .05$. Selling is an entrepreneurial activity that appears consistent with a traditional capitalistic American philosophy. It also seems to fit with the waste-not-want-not philosophy of our forefathers.
- b) The Past-Orientation will be negatively associated with Throwing-Away at p \leq .05. The traditional waste-not-want-not philosophy would be inconsistent with the activity of trashing still-usable goods.

Hypothesis 2:

- a) The Present-Orientation will be positively associated with Throwing-Away at p≤.05. Throwing-Away would seem to indicate a live-for-today outlook, unconcerned about the future impact of one's actions.
- b) The Present-Orientation will be negatively associated with Selling at $p \le .05$. A live-for-today outlook would be inconsistent with a behavior that requires planning and effort.

Hypothesis 3:

- a) The Future-Orientation will be positively associated with Donating at $p \le .05$. Donating involves no expected return; donors may feel they can <u>afford</u> to donate without a return since their own lives will be better, not worse, in the future.
- b) The Future-Orientation will be negatively associated with Keeping at $p \le 0.05$. Keeping may be a hoarding behavior to protect against hard times in the future since Keepers may think the changes of the future will not improve their lives.

Hypothesis 4:

- a) The Self-Orientation will be positively associated with Selling at $p\leq 0.05$. Selling involves the explicit attempt to make a gain for oneself through one's own efforts.
- b) The Self-Orientation will be negatively associated with Donating at $p\leq 0.05$. Donating's altruistic element is inconsistent with an eachman-for-himself philosophy.

Hypothesis 5:

- a) The Other-Orientation will be positively associated with Donating at p \leq .05. Donating's altruistic element is the essence of looking-out-for-fellowman.
- b) The Other-Orientation will be negatively associated with Throwing-Away at p \leq .05. Throwing-Away shows a disregard for the welfare of others in that it wastes resources and adds to pollution.

Hypothesis 6:

- a) The Dependent-Orientation will be positively associated with Passing at $p\leq 05$. Passing has been theorized to be an interdependent, reciprocal activity in social networks.
- b) The Dependent-Orientation will be negatively associated with Donating at $p \le .05$. Donating is sometimes associated with the concept of <u>noblesse</u> <u>oblige</u>, which assumes that those who are fortunate must help the needy who virtually depend on them.

These six initial hypotheses appear to suggest that each Value Orientation is positively associated with only one behavior and negatively associated with only one behavior. The predictions were made based on those relationships that could be rationally justified. However, other significant relationships were deemed possible, since this new field of inquiry has many unexplored aspects.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS

Chapter Four is divided into four sections. First, preliminary information is presented concerning response rate, sample characteristics, and reliability of the Value Orientation Indices.

Second, the hypotheses are discussed as to the degree of support obtained by the data analysis. These hypotheses deal with specific predictions concerning Value Orientation-Disposition tendency relationships.

Third, each Disposition tendency has been "profiled" across all of the other variables in the study.

Finally, a general discussion of the variables associated with each disposition option will be presented and related to graphic models of those behaviors.

Preliminary Information

This section reports the response rate, sample characteristics, and reliability analysis performed on Value Orientation Indices.

Response Rate. Of the 811 questionnaires mailed, 473 (58.32%) were returned. Of these, 417 (51.4% of the mailings) were deemed to be usable for data analysis. Criteria for inclusion in the analysis included correct comprehension of the Disposition Tendency scale (such that scores assigned to the six options summed to 100), correct understanding of the Disposer Type question (such that the respondent could be clearly classified as either a High or Low Involvement Disposer), and completion of at least three of the four items on each Value Orientation Index scale. Missing values on all other items were

considered to be acceptable, as these omissions would not significantly hamper interpretation of the findings.

The response rate had been predicted to fall between 50% and 70% of the total mailings. The actual "usable" response rate (51.4%) did, in fact, fall into this range. The use of the pre-survey telephone solicitation appears to have aided in this successful return.

Additionally, many persons contacted mentioned on the phone that the research topic was very interesting to them. Therefore, there may have been some "interaction effect" (between the method and the content of the study) that contributed to what seems to be an unusually high rate of return for a mail survey.

Sample Characteristics. Appendix IV tables the characteristics of the sample as a whole and each of the two sub-samples (High and Low Involvement Disposers). Since only those 186 respondents who self-classified as High Involvement Disposers were included in the analysis, this section will report only their Demographic and Residence characteristics. The reader may refer to Appendix IV if visual comparison of the backgrounds of the two sub-samples is desired.

Age. High Involvement Disposers had an average age of 45 with a range of 15 to 80.

Sex. The High Involvement Disposer group consisted of 52 (28%) male and 134 (72%) female respondents.

Marital Status. Most of the High Involvement Disposers reported to be married (74.7%). Singles represented 11.3%, divorced 7.5%, separated 0.5%, and widowed 5.9%.

Race. The High Involvement sub-sample consisted of 90.9% Whites, 4.3% Blacks, 0.5% Hispanics, 1.6% Orientals, 1.1% "Other," and 1.6% no response.

Education Level. Those with only some high school represented 6.5% of the sub-sample; those with only a high school diploma were 28.5%, those who had some college 25.3%,

those with a college degree 12.4%, those with a college degree plus some additional education 12.4%; those with a graduate degree 13.4%, and those not responding 1.6%.

Religious Preference. The breakdown of the sub-sample by religion is as follows: Protestant 51.6%, Catholic 30.6%, Jewish 1.6%, "Other" 7%, no preference 8.6%, and no response 0.5%.

Political Preference. The High Involvement Disposers reported to be 28.5% Democrat, 43% Republican, 4.8% "Other," 21.5% no preference, and 2.2% no response.

Household Income. The four lowest income groups represented 9.7%, 8.6%, 8.1%, and 8.6% of the sub-sample. The two middle income groups represented 13.4% and 12.9%; and the three higher income groups represented 6.5%, 6.5%, and 23.7%. Non-response accounted for 2.2% of the sub-sample.

Ownership of Residence. Most (78%) of the sub-sample reported owning their current residence, while 21.5% did not; and 0.5% had no response.

Years at Residence. The mean number of years respondents had lived in the current residence was 11.371, with a range of 0 to 47.

Number of Persons in Household. The mean number of persons in the household was 2.918, with a range of 1 to 8.

Type of Residence. Single family dwellings accounted for 81.2% of the respondents' residences. Apartments accounted for 9.1%, duplexes 2.7%, condominiums 2.7%, shared rental houses for unrelated tenants 1.6%, "Other" 2.2%, and no response 0.5%.

Number of Residences in Lifetime. The mean number of different homes over lifetime was 8.517 with a range of 1 to 45.

While this sub-sample may not be perfectly representative of the Dayton area, it does present a great deal of variance across background characteristics. In addition, for most of these variables, the breakdowns are fairly similar to the breakdowns for the sample as a whole. (Further statistical tests would be needed to determine whether High Involvement Disposers are significantly different from Low Involvement Disposers on Demographic and Residence variables.)

Reliability of the Value Orientation Indices. Tests of reliability were performed on the six four-item scales representing Value Orientation adherences in order to determine the internal consistency of each. Table 1 depicts the Cronbach's alpha coefficients derived for each of these scales for the High Involvement sub-sample of the large sample as well as the reliability of each index determined from pre-test data.

Table 1. Reliability Coefficients for the Six Value Orientation Indices (Pre-Test and High Involvement Sub-Sample Alphas).

Value Orientation Index	Pre-Test Reliability n=44	High Involvement Sub-Sample n=186
Past	.6453	• 5886
Present	.5147	.3201
Future -	.4955	• 4545
Self	.6861	.4396
Other	.7274	•4634
Dependent	.5825	.6131

Nunnally (1978) suggests that a reliability of .80 or better is appropriate for most basic research (p. 245). While the pre-test reliabilities shown in Table 1 were considered adequate for that stage of the research, the scores derived from analysis of the large sample are rather weak, in that none approach .80. These less-than-satisfactory reliability coefficients may, in part, account for the rather low correlation coefficients found when investigating the relationships between Value Orientation adherences and other constructs in the study. Poor inter-item correlations on a given index may have

diluted the ability of that scale to demonstrate a stronger association with Disposition Tendencies or Rationales.

Associations Between Value Orientations and Disposition Tendencies

The initial hypotheses presented at the end of Chapter Three predicted that each of the six Value Orientation Adherence Indices would be significantly correlated with certain Disposition Tendency scores. Each index was expected to have a significant positive association with at least one disposition option and a significant negative relationship with another option at $p \le .05$.

Table 2 summarizes the correlation coefficients for relationships between Value Orientations and Disposition Tendency.

Hypothesis 1: It was predicted that the findings would show a) a positive association between the Past-Orientation and Selling and b) a negative association between the Past-Orientation and Throwing-Away. The hypothesized relationship between Selling and a Past-Orientation was supported (r=.1703, p=.010). The expected negative relationship between Past-Orientation and Throwing-Away was not supported at p < .05).

A significant negative relationship (r=-.1327, p=.035) did occur, however, between Deducting and Past-Orientation, although this had not been hypothesized.

Hypothesis 2: It was predicted that the findings would show a) a positive association between the Present-Orientation and Throwing-Away and b) a negative association between the Present-Orientation and Selling. The hypothesized relationship between Throwing-Away and Present-Orientation was not supported at $p \le 05$. The expected negative

Table 2. Value Orientation Adherences by Disposition Tendencies: Correlation Coefficients

DISPOSITION TENDENCIES

T7 A T T777			DISLOSII	ITON TENDEN	CIES	
VALUE ORIENTATIONS	Кеер	Throw	Sel1	Deduct	Donate	Pass
Past	.0053	.0133	.1703	1327	0698	.0333
	p=.471	ρ=.428	p=.010(c)	p=.035(b)	ρ=.172	p=.326
Present	0681	.0464	1760	.1277	.0951	0155
	p=.178	p=.264	p=.008(c)	p=.041(b)	p=.098(a)	p417
Future	0687	0264	.0209	.0800	.0509	0571
	p=.176	ρ=.360	ρ=.388	p=.139	p=.245	p=.220
Self	.0363	0079	.0580	1056	0490	.0644
	p=.311	p=.457	p=.216	p=.076(a)	p=.253	p=.191
Other	1537	1681	1765	.0613	.1921	.1648
	p=.018(b)	p=.01(b)	p=.008(c)	p=.203	p=.004(c)	p=.012(b)
Dependent	0055 p=.470		.2197 p=.001(d)	0626 p=.198	1619 p=.014(b)	0349 p=.318

⁽a = significant at .10, b = significant at .05, c = significant at .01, d = significant at .001)

relationship between Selling and Present-Orientation <u>was</u> supported (r= \cdot 1760, p= \cdot 008).

In addition, an unpredicted significant positive relationship was found between Deducting and Present-Orientation (r=.1277, p=.041).

Hypothesis 3: It was predicted that the findings would show a) a positive association between the Future-Orientation and Donating and b) a negative association between the Future-Orientation and Keeping. Neither part of this hypothesis was supported at $p \le 0.05$.

Hypothesis 4: It was predicted that the findings would show a) a positive association between the Self-Orientation and Selling and b) a negative association between the Self-Orientation and Donating. Neither part of this hypothesis was supported at $p \le .05$.

Hypothesis 5: It was predicted that the findings would show a) a positive association between the Other-Orientation and Donating and b) a negative association between the Other-Orientation and Throwing-Away. Both parts of this hypothesis were supported. Donating was positively correlated with the Other-Orientation (r=.1921, p=.004), and Throwing-Away was negatively correlated with it (r=-.1681, p=.011).

In addition, the Other-Orientation was significantly positively associated with Passing (r=.1648, p=.012) and negatively associated with Keeping (r=-.1537, p=.018) and Selling (r=-.1765, p=.008), although none of these last relationships had been predicted.

Hypothesis 6: It was predicted that the findings would show a) a positive association between the Dependent-Orientation and Passing and b) a negative association between the Dependent-Orientation and Donating. The expected relationship between Passing and the Dependent-Orientation was not supported at p<.05. However, the expected negative

relationship between Donating and Dependence <u>was</u> supported (r=-.1619, p=.014).

Two unpredicted significant correlations were also found; Dependence was positively associated with both Throwing-Away (r=.1240, p=.046) and Selling (r=.2197, p=.001).

<u>Discussion</u>. Six hypotheses, each having two parts, were generated to predict associations between Value Orientation Adherence Indices and Disposition Tendencies. Of the twelve predictions thus involved, five were supported at $\rho < .05$.

Correlation coefficients were not impressive in size. However, in spite of the conceptual distance between values and very specific behavioral choices, the finding of 12 (5 predicted, 7 not predicted) relationships significant at $p \le .05$ does lend some support to the model of High Involvement Disposition proposed in Chapter One. The lack of association between both the Future-Orientation and the Self-Orientation and any specific behavioral tendencies has not been deemed to discredit the model.

Viewing the data in Table 2, the reader readily notices the importance of the Other-Orientation. The degree to which the consumer feels responsible for fellowman affects usage of five of the six behaviors. Given the social responsibility focus of this study, it is appropriate that this Other-Orientation variable should be the most influential of the six orientations investigated.

More in-depth discussion of the role of Value Orientations will next be presented as each Disposition Tendency is profiled by these and other variables in the study.

Profiles of the Six Disposition Tendencies

Each of the six Disposition Tendencies are discussed in this section as to the relationships found with all other relevant variables in this study. The purpose of this section is to elaborate on the taxonomy of disposition options developed in Chapter Two, so that the behaviors might be seen as having descriptors or explanations. The profiles have been tabled in Appendices VIII-XIII. These profiles were drawn from data in Table 2 and Appendices VI, VII, and XIV. The profiles will be presented in the following order: 1) Keeping,

- 2) Throwing-Away, 3) Selling, 4) Deducting, 5) Donating, and
- 6) Passing. Strategic implications are suggested concerning each of the behaviors. (Relationships reported in these profiles were significant at $p \le .05$ in most cases.)

Keeping Behavior and Relevant Variables. The relationships between Keeping behavior and all other relevant variables have been summarized in table form in Appendix VIII.

High Involvement Disposers reported keeping, on average, 22.054% of their no-longer-used-but-still-usable household items. They exhibited low adherence to the Other-Orientation, which is negatively associated with Keeping (r=-.1537, p=.018), i.e., the more they tended to keep, the less concerned they were with looking out for others.

Keeping was strongly associated with liking to keep (r=.6120, p=.000) and negatively associated with liking to donate (r=-.3154, p=.000), liking to throw away (r=-.2198, p=.001), and liking to pass along to acquaintances (r=-.1168, p=.058). These Attitudes suggest that, if a strategist were to try to reduce Keeping behavior so that

unused resources could be moved on to others, it would be more successful to encourage Selling or Deducting than Donating or Passing.

Two Rationales associated with Keeping reinforce the above suggestion. Since Keeping was positively associated with "liking to get an economic return" (r=.1738, p.=009) and "liking to come out ahead of the game" (r=.1337, p=.035), it would appear that Selling and Deducting might appeal to these individuals. Donating and Passing would not be appropriate alternatives since Keeping was negatively associated with "liking to help someone" (r=-.1612, p=.014).

Value Orientations, Attitudes, and Rationales all consistently supported the strategic implication that one could not expect much success by appealing to a concern for the welfare of others in order to switch Keeping behavior to Donating or Passing behavior. If these unused items are to be moved down an Extended Channel, the strategist would be advised to encourage Selling or Deducting.

The tendency to keep was negatively related to age (r=-.1167, p=.057) and to number of residences over lifetime (r=-.1426, p=.030). The young and those who have not moved often are probably less concerned with the problems of accumulating and may find Keeping to be no annoyance.

Differences were found between the sexes (F probability= .0082) and education levels (F probability=.0018) as to their tendencies to keep. Women (\bar{x} =19.07) were less likely to keep than men (\bar{x} =29.73). Those with a "college degree+" (\bar{x} =42.39) were most likely to keep, while those with only some college education (\bar{x} =16.70) were least likely to keep.

Throwing-Away Behavior and Relevant Variables. The relationships between Throwing-Away behavior and all other relevant variables have been summarized in table form in Appendix IX.

High Involvement Disposers tended to throw away, on average, 8.28% of their no-longer-used-but-still-usable household items. The Other-Orientation was negatively associated with Throwing-Away (r=-.1681, p=.011), while the Dependent-Orientation was positively associated with Throwing-Away (r=.1240, p=.046). Quite logically, the more one throws away, the less concerned he/she is with looking out for the welfare of others. The positive association with Dependence might suggest that conservation of resources is not seen to be the individual's problem but, rather, the responsibility of government.

Throwing-Away was positively associated with liking to throw away (r=.4592, p=.000) and negatively associated with liking to pass along to acquaintances (r=-.1351, p=.034). The latter option would not, therefore, be considered a viable alternative to the trasher.

No Rationales were found to be positively associated with Throwing-Away. Negative associations with "liking to help others" (r=-.1633, p=.013) and "liking not to waste the product" (r=-.1537, p=.018) provide discouraging insights as to possibilities for more responsible disposition, since all of the other options do indeed either help others or at least prevent waste of resources.

The findings are "logical" in that Throwing-Away could be expected to be associated with a lack of concern for others. The Dependent-Orientation additionally suggests that this "irresponsible" behavior is one for which the individual feels no remorse, since it is probably

viewed as the job of government to help others and deal with waste/pollution problems.

Throwing-Away was found to be negatively associated with age (r=-.1653, p=.012) and number of residences in lifetime (r=-.1806, p=.009). Significant differences in throwing-away tendencies were found by marital status (F probability=.0345), education level (F probability=.0585), and ownership of the residence (F probability=.0502).

Younger people were more likely to engage in this "irresponsible" behavior as well as those who have not lived in many different residences. Perhaps, as consumers mature and move more often, they see the inherent value of products.

Singles (x=16.19) were most likely to throw away while widoweds $(\bar{x}=5.91)$ were least likely to do so. Those who had not even completed high school were most likely to throw away $(\bar{x}=15.42)$ while those with a "college degree+" $(\bar{x}=4.39)$ were least likely to do so. Those owning their residences $(\bar{x}=7.30)$ were less likely than non-owners $(\bar{x}=11.90)$ to throw away.

Selling Behavior and Relevant Variables. The relationships between Selling behavior and all other relevant variables have been summarized in table form in Appendix X.

High Involvement Disposers tended to sell, on average, 14.699% of their no-longer-used-but-still-usable household items. Selling was positively associated with the Dependent-Orientation (r=.2197, p=.001) and the Past-Orientation (r=.1703, p=.010). It is negatively associated with the Other-Orientation (r=-.1765, p=.008) and the Present-Orientation (r=-.1760, p=.008). While the conservative Past-

Orientation was expected to be related to Selling, it was not expected that Dependence would relate to Selling. (Actually, an <u>independent</u> Self-Orientation was predicted.) The negative association with the Other-Orientation is not surprising since Selling would seem to be notivated more by personal gain than by concern for the welfare of others. The negative association with the Present-Orientation was expected since Selling seems inconsistent with a live-for-today philosophy.

Selling was found to be positively associated with liking to sell (r=.4901, p=.000) and negatively associated with liking to donate (r=-.1877, p=.006). It appears that soliciting product contributions from chronic Sellers would be a lost cause, unless tax deductibility were stressed as a benefit.

Rationales associated with Selling support the above suggestion. Selling was positively associated with "liking an economic return" (r=.3356, p.000), "liking to come out ahead" (r=.1810, p=.007), "liking to get some social interaction in the process" (r=.1224, p=.049), and "liking to get an annoyance out of the way" (r=.1203, p=.052). In addition, it was positively associated with "liking to be seen as generous" (r=.2012, p=.003), "liking to think God will smile on the behavior" (r=.1602, p=.015), "liking to feel that one has earned the right to be on the receiving end" (r=.1402, p=.029), and "liking to feel that a debt has been paid" (r=.1159, p=.059). These Rationales night be satisfied by donating for tax deduction purposes, and the economic motives could be net as well by the Deducting option. It does not appear useful for the soliciting organization to stress donating as

a means of non-waste, since that Rationale is somewhat negatively associated with Selling tendency (r=-.1142, p=.060).

No Demographic or Residence variables were found to have any significant relationship with Selling. In other words, Selling behavior cannot be predicted by any of the characteristics that might have seemed intuitive or logical (e.g., income).

Deducting Behavior and Relevant Variables. The relationships between Deducting behavior and all other relevant variables have been summarized in table form in Appendix XI.

High Involvement Disposers tended to donate for tax deduction purposes, on average, 13.441% of their no-longer-used-but-still-usable household items. They exhibited an adherence to the Present-Orientation (r=.1277, p=.041). Deducting was negatively associated with a Past-Orientation (r=-.1327, p=.035). Deducting was thus not related to a conservative outlook, contrary to what might have been expected on this issue.

Deducting was found to be positively associated with liking to deduct (r=.5953, p=.000) and negatively associated with liking to donate (r=-.3079, p=.000), liking to pass (r=-.1846, p=.006), liking to keep (r=-.1389, p=.031), and liking to sell (r=-.1134, p=.064).

It is important to note that the more an individual tends to deduct, the less he/she likes donating without a tax deduction. This finding has serious implications for tax policy. If deductibility of donations is removed or reduced, the former Deducter does not seem likely to continue making such contributions. Additionally, the negative associations between Deducting and liking of the other responsible options lead to the conclusion that the Deducter might

switch to the only behavior for which there is a more neutral attitude: Throwing-Away.

Rationales associated with Deducting lend some support to the above conclusion. Deducting was positively associated with "getting an economic return" (r=.1432, p=.026), as might be expected. It was negatively associated with "liking to feel the product would be appreciated by the next owner" (r=-.1668, p=.011). Apparently, Deducters do not overly concern themselves with the welfare of others. Part of the justification for Deducting includes anonymity, since "not knowing the next user" was somewhat positively associated with Proactive Deducting (r=.1120, p=.065). This Rationale may explain why Deducters do not like to pass items on to acquaintances.

Demographic differences seem to play an important role in the tendency to deduct. Significant differences in tendency to deduct were found between groups on each of the following variables: education level (F probability=.0000), political preference (F probability=.0008), household income (F probability=.0000), and ownership of residence (F probability=.0005).

Those with graduate degrees were most likely to deduct $(\bar{x}=29.60)$, while those who had never completed high school $(\bar{x}=5.00)$ or finished high school with no college $(\bar{x}=5.17)$ are least likely to deduct. The mean of the highest education group was found to be significantly greater than the means of the lowest two groups at .05 when Scheffe tests compared these pairs of means.

Scheffe tests also determined that those with no political preference (x=3.38) were significantly less likely than both

Republicans (\bar{x} =16.75) and unspecified "other" political preferences (\bar{x} =31.22) to deduct

Household income above \$45,000 was significantly more likely at .05 to be characteristic of Deducting than were income levels of less than \$10,000 (\overline{x} =3.33), \$10,000 to \$14,999 (\overline{x} =2.44), and \$15,000 to \$19,999 (\overline{x} =1.73). This finding seems appropriate, since lower level income households probably have little need to find tax deductions.

Owners (\bar{x} =16.34) were significantly more likely to engage in Deducting than were non-owners (\bar{x} =3.00). Owners are probably more accustomed to recording other deductible expenses, since they usually file long-forms to declare mortgage interest.

Donating Behavior and Relevant Variables. The relationships between Donating behavior and all other relevant variables have been summarized in table form in Appendix XII.

High Involvement Disposers tended to donate without a tax deduction, on average, 17.586% of their no-longer-used-but-still-usable household items. They exhibited an adherence to an Other-Orientation (r=.1921, p=.004). Donating was negatively associated with a Dependent-Orientation (r=-.1619, p=.014). The generalized concern for the welfare of others thus seems to carry over into the behavioral sphere of disposition. The negative association with Dependence suggests that these individuals do not take the stance that it is up to government to take care of the needy; they take it upon themselves to help the less fortunate by a voluntary redistribution of "wealth" in the form of usable goods.

Donating was found to be positively associated with liking to donate (r=.5705, p=.000) and negatively associated with liking to

deduct (r=-.3725, p=.000), liking to keep (r=-.3540, p=.000), liking to sell (r=-.3293, p=.000), and liking to pass (r=-.1302, p=.040).

Interestingly, Donating was not negatively associated with liking to throw away. This latter option might be the one to which the donor would switch if Donating were not an available option.

Some insight into the preceding conclusion might be gained by examining the Rationales associated with Donating. Donating was found to be positively associated with "helping someone" (r=.2289, p=.001) and "feeling that the product will be appreciated by the next owner" (r=.1173, p=.055). However, the positive association with "not knowing the next user" (r=.1228, p=.048) suggests that donors may, in part, choose that option because they dislike knowing specifically who will be using their former possessions. This sense of anonymity cannot be obtained if one engages in Passing or Selling activities.

Since Donating was negatively associated with "getting an economic return" (r=-.4826, p=.000) and "coming out ahead of the game" (r=-.2520, p=.000), it is logical that Donors exhibited a negative attitude toward both Deducting and Selling. Dislike of other selfish motives was demonstrated by negative associations with "being seen as generous" (r=-.1977, p=.003), "earning the right to be on the receiving end in the future" (r=-.1719, p=.010), "earning God's smile" (r=-.1528, p=.019), "feeling a debt has been paid" (r=-.1209, p=.051), and "getting some social interaction in the process" (r=-.1076, p=.073).

The strategic implication here is that Donating is likely to continue as long as organizations are available as a channel for such behavior. Negative Attitudes (backed up by logical Rationales) toward other options may indicate that Donating may sometimes be chosen by

default. The question remains as to whether Donors would find

Throwing-Away the only alternative, since it does indeed prevent

personally knowing a subsequent user and does not generate a "selfish"

gain, both factors that were undesirable to Donors.

Of the Demographic characteristics, only three variables showed any significant association with Donating: 1) age was positively associated with the tendency to use this disposition option (r=.2297, p=.001); 2) number of persons in household was negatively associated with this tendency (r=-.1296, p=.040); and 3) an F probability of .0470 indicated that females (\bar{x} =19.70) were significantly more likely than nales (\bar{x} =12.13) to engage in Donating.

Passing Behavior and Relevant Variables. The relationships between Passing behavior and all other relevant variables have been summarized in table form in Appendix XIII.

High Involvement Disposers tended to pass along, on average, 23.941% of their no-longer-used-but-still-usable household items. They exhibited an adherence to an Other-Orientation (r=.1648, p=.012).

Passing was found to be positively associated with liking to pass (r=.5932, p=.000) and with liking to donate (r=.2247, p=.001). It was negatively associated with liking to keep (r=-.2234, p=.001) and liking to deduct (r=-.1180, p=.057). Passers being Other-Oriented, it seems appropriate that they would also like Donating.

Rationales help explain the likes and dislikes of Passers as to the other disposition options. Passing was positively associated with "feeling the product won't go to waste" (r=.1905, p=.005) and "helping someone" (r=.1808, p=.007). Passing was negatively associated with

"getting an economic return" (r=-.1188, p=.054), which might explain the lower acceptance of Deducting.

Strategically, if one were to try to increase the flow of goods to the less fortunate through charitable organizations, Passers appear to be a highly suitable target for Donating. A large percentage of their still-usable items are currently being passed to acquaintances. It might be possible to convince them that they would be giving nore help and helping nore to prevent waste (both important Rationales) if they donated to the truly needy rather than passing items to peers.

Initially, it had been proposed that Passing represented a reciprocal type of activity, "payment of debt" or "building credit" with one's acquaintances. None of the Rationales suggesting reciprocity were significantly associated with Passing. Had this model of Passing been supported, it might be futile to attempt to persuade Passers to donate instead. However, since the norm of reciprocity proposed as an explanation for Passing was not supported in the current study, it appears open to possibility that Passers might indeed be encouraged to switch to Donating.

Passing was found to be related to two Demographic/Residence characteristics. Number of residences in lifetime was positively associated with Passing (r=.2064, p=.003); and significant differences were found across education levels as to their tendency to pass items (F probability=.0009). Persons achieving an educational level of high school only $(\bar{x}=34.85)$ were most likely to pass, while persons having a "college degree+" $(\bar{x}=15.48)$ were least likely. These means were significantly different at .05, based on Scheffe tests.

Summary of the Influence of Specific Value Orientations,

Disposition Attitudes, and Rationales on Disposition Tendency. The

preceding pages have presented detailed and extensive information as to

the associations found between behavioral tendencies and other

variables in the study.

As a means of simplifying the conclusions, Figure 11 was developed to display the findings so that the reader might, at a glance, compare different correlates of each behavior. In order to reduce the number of entries on the tables, only those correlations significant at .05 have been presented.

A few brief observations are in order. Each Disposition Tendency was correlated with at least one Value Orientation at a probability of .05 or less. For each behavioral tendency there was a strong positive association with attitude-toward-the-option at .000 (See Appendix XIV). For each behavioral tendency there is also at least one Rationale correlated with it at .05 or less.

While some Disposition Tendencies share Value Orientations with others, they may differ on Rationales, e.g., see Figure 11 for Throwing-Away and Selling. Clearly something else must intervene between the Value Orientation and the Rationale.

Conversely, some Disposition Tendencies are distinctly different from each other in Rationales, Attitudes, and Value Orientations. The most dramatic differences (in fact, almost direct opposites) occur between Selling and Donating.

In conclusion, these profiles allow the reader to develop a preliminary picture of the cognitive and affective variables related to different Disposition Tendencies for High Involvement Disposers.

Summary of the Influence of Specific Value Orientations, Disposition Attitudes, and Rationales on Disposition Tendency. (All relationships tabled are significant at .05.) Figure 11.

	KEEP	THROW	SELL	DEDUCT	DONATE	PASS
VALUE +	None at .05	Dependent	Dependent Past	Present	Other	Other
OKIENIALIONS	Other	Other	Other Present	Past	Dependent	None at .05
+ DISPOSITION	Like to Keep	Like to Throw	Like to Sell	Like to Deduct	Like to Donate	Like to Pass Like to Donate
-	Like to Donate Like to Throw	Like to Keep	Like to Donate	Like to Donate Like to Pass Like to Keep	Like to Deduct Like to Keep Like to Sell Like to Pass	Like to Keep
+	Economic Return Come out Ahead	None at .05	Economic Return Seen generous Come out Ahead God's Smile Earned to Receive Social Interaction	Economic Return	Help Someone Not Know Next User	Not Waste Help Someone
Figure 11.	Help Someone	Help Someone Not Waste	None at .05	Product Appreciated	Economic Return Come out Ahead Seen Generous Earned to Receive God's Smile	None at .05

The next section will discuss the <u>interrelationships</u> of Value Orientations, Rationales, and Disposition Tendencies.

General Discussion of the Models of Disposition Behavior

This last section of the findings will briefly depict the High Involvement Model of Disposition Behavior for each disposition option. Whereas previous sections reported separately the relationships between 1) Value Orientations and Disposition Tendency and 2) Rationales and Disposition Tendency, this section will show the <u>interrelationships</u> of these three constructs simultaneously. Only relationships significant at .05 have been included. (See Appendices V and VI and Table 2.)

Figures 12-17 present Keeping, Throwing-Away, Selling, Deducting, Donating, and Passing, each in the context of a High Involvement Disposition Model.

Model of Keeping Behavior. Figure 12 presents the interrelationships between the Other-Orientation, relevant Rationales, and Keeping. Logically, the Other-Orientation is positively related to "helping someone," but this Rationale is negatively related to Keeping, which is also negatively associated with the Other-Orientation. Two of the Rationales that are positively associated with Keeping are not significantly associated with the Other-Orientation. This result is not unexpected since the two Rationales in question are "getting an economic return" and "coming out ahead of the game."

Model of Throwing-Away Behavior. Figure 13 presents the interrelationships between Dependent and Other-Orientations, relevant Rationales, and Throwing-Away. The Dependent-Orientation, which is positively associated with Throwing-Away, is not related to any of the

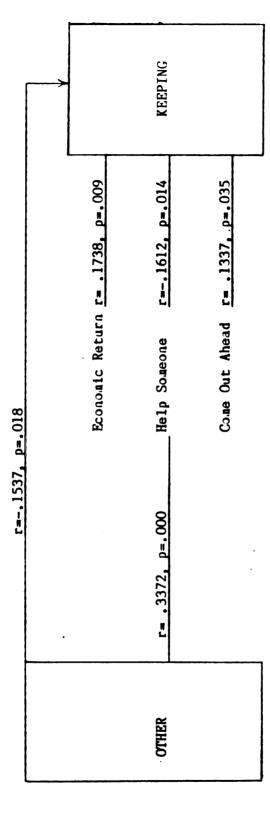


Figure 12. Model of Keeping Behavior (relevant correlations significant at .05).

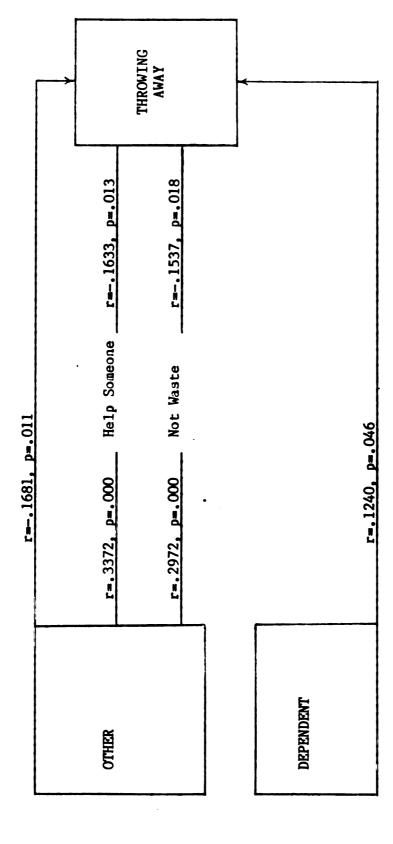


Figure 13. Model of Throwing-Away Behavior (relevant correlations significant at .05).

relevant Rationales. The Other-Orientation is negatively associated with Throwing-Away, as might be expected due to the "irresponsible" nature of the behavior. While an Other-Orientation is positively associated with "helping someone" and "not letting the product go to waste," these Rationales are negatively associated with Throwing-Away. The findings are thus quite understandable.

Model of Selling Behavior. Figure 14 depicts the complex of interrelationships between four of the Value Orientations (Past, Present, Other, and Dedependent), relevant Rationales, and Selling. The Present-Orientation is negatively associated with Selling but is not related to any of the relevant Rationales. Two of the six Rationales are not linked to any Value Orientation that is also significantly correlated with the behavior. These two Rationales are "getting an economic return" and "coming out ahead."

Past-Orientation and Dependent-Orientation are <u>both</u> positively related to Selling and to "being seen as generous," "earning God's smile," "earning the right to be on the receiving end in the future," and "getting some social interaction in the process." All four of these Rationales are positively related to Selling. It appears that Selling is believed to generate not only economic returns but also to provide a number of other self-serving results as well.

(There is some confusion in the Selling model in that the Other-Orientation is negatively related to Selling but positively related to two of the Rationales that are positively associated with Selling.

Further investigation would be necessary before drawing any conclusions about this discrepancy.)

Figure 14. Model of Selling Behavior (relevant correlations significant at .05).

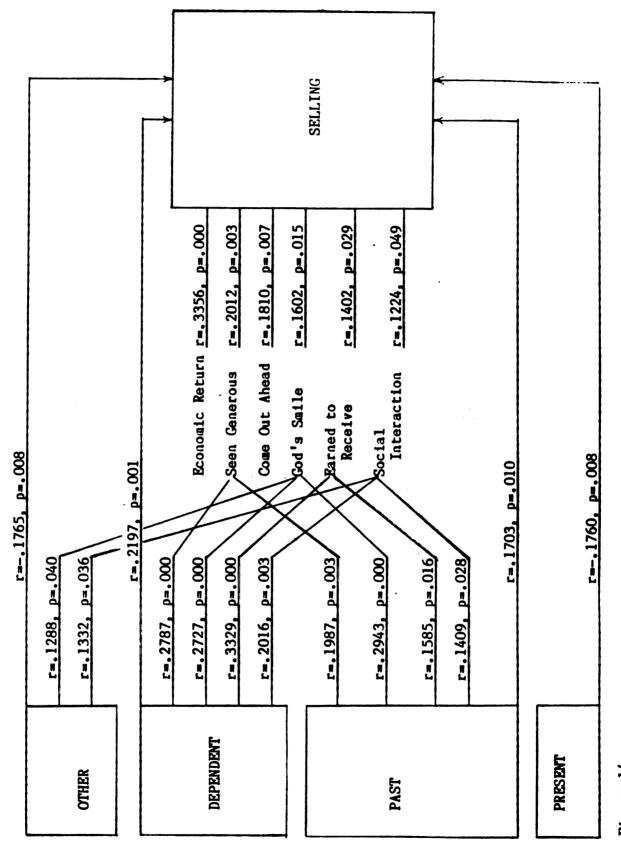


Figure 14.

Model of Deducting Behavior. Figure 15 presents the interrelationships between the Past and Present-Orientations, relevant Rationales, and Deducting. The Present-Orientation is positively related to Deducting but is not associated with any of the relevant Rationales. The Past-Orientation is negatively associated with Deducting. While Past-Orientation is positively associated with "feeling the product will be appreciated by the next owner," that Rationale is negatively related to Deducting, thus the logic is preserved. The "economic return" Rationale is appropriately (positively) related to Deducting but is not linked to either of the Value Orientations associated with Deducting.

Model of Donating Behavior. Figure 16 presents the complex of interrelationships between the Dependent and Other-Orientations, relevant Rationales, and Donating. Two of the Rationales ("economic return" and "coming out ahead") are not linked to either of the related Value Orientations. Of the five remaining Rationales, each is linked to either the Dependent or Other-Orientation. There is a positive association between the Other-Orientation and Donating and a negative association between the Dependent-Orientation and that behavior.

All three Rationales that are positively linked to Dependence are negatively associated with Donating, thus the logic is maintained. (These three Rationales are "being seen as generous," "earning the right to be on the receiving end later," and "earning God's smile.")

Of the three Rationales positively associated with the Other-Orientation, two are also positively associated with Donating ("helping someone" and "not knowing the next user").

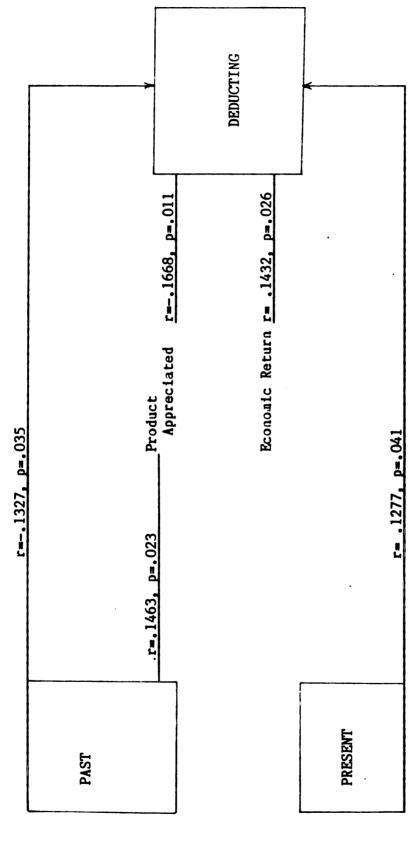


Figure 15. Model of Deducting Behavior (relevant correlations significant at .05).

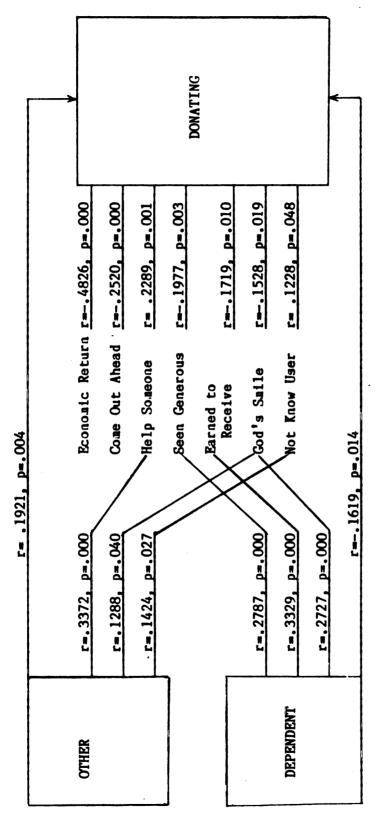


Figure 16. Model of Donating Behavior (relevant correlations significant at .05).

However, one set of linkages appears inexplicable; while the Other-Orientation is linked positively to "earning God's smile" and to Donating, "earning God's smile" is negatively associated with Donating.

Model of Passing Behavior. Figure 17 presents the interrelationships between the Other-Orientation, relevant Rationales, and Passing. The Other-Orientation is positively associated with Passing, and both of the Rationales positively associated with Passing ("helping someone" and "not letting the product go to waste") are also positively associated with the Other-Orientation.

Chapter Summary

All six of the specific disposition models presented indicate that there is some logically consistent set of interrelationships between Value Orientations, Rationales, and Disposition Tendencies. While the correlation coefficients between constructs are not impressive in size, they are relatively unlikely to have occured by chance, in that many of these associations are significant at .01 or less.

Clearly, disposition in its many forms is influenced by a large variety of factors. The small amount of variance explained in the preceding models suggests that these six disposition options should be researched in far greater depth in order to develop more comprehensive models of these behaviors.

It was the intention of the present research to examine a small set of personal, cognitive characteristics as possible explanations for differences in disposition choices among consumers. The results suggest that Value Orientations do provide some partial explanation for these behaviors. Logical connections between Value Orientations and

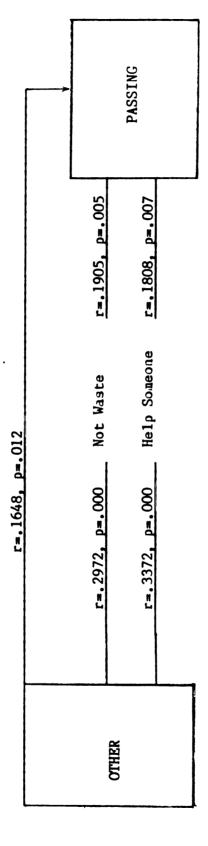


Figure 17. Model of Passing Behavior (relevant correlations significant at .05).

Rationales also tend to support the proposition of a high involvement model.

Attitudes, which were discussed only briefly and not depicted in the context of the models, provided additional insights as to why some options are used.

Demographic and Residence Variables were found to play a role, but their scattered influence across the options leads to the conclusion that they are situationally influential and that none seem to be major factors across all disposition options.

In summary, some degree of insight has been gained as to the cognitive factors surrounding a consumer's disposition choices. The final chapter will present societal and strategic implications of these findings, limitations inherent in the study, and directions for future investigations of disposition behavior.

CHAPTER FIVE:

CONCLUSIONS

Chapter Five consists of four basic sections: 1) implications of the findings, 2) limitations of the study, 3) suggestions for future research in the area of disposition, and 4) a brief summary of the study.

Implications of the Findings

Implications derived from the findings will be discussed in light of the areas of contribution proposed in Chapter One. The results have relevance for channels theory, environmental responsibility theory, tax policy, macroeconomics, and strategic solicitations by charitable organizations.

Implications for Channels Theory. As discussed in Chapter One, disposition of goods by consumers represents either forward or backward movement of resources. This study has concentrated on forward movement through the Extended Channel. Appendix VII presents the mean percentage usage of each of the six options from which respondents were asked to choose in describing their past behavior. The scenario was narrowed to occasions when they had discovered that they held in inventory a number of still-usable-but-no-longer-used items of moderate value, with no sentimental attachment involved.

Given the above conditions, High Involvement Disposers indicated that they were likely to keep 22.054%, throw away 8.280%, sell/swap 14.699%, donate for tax deduction purposes 13.441%, donate without declaring a deduction 17.586%, and pass along to acquaintances 23.941% of such items in their homes.

Since Keeping does not involve movement of goods, it can be said that 77.946% of such goods move down an Extended Channel. Throwing—Away represents only 8.280% of total choices and thus 10.623% of the Extended Channel (non-keeping) choices. Most of the actual movement was deemed to be "responsible" movement, since 89.377% of the disposed goods were reported to be channeled to other individuals or to organizations for redistribution. This movement represents a substantial amount of moderate—value merchandise passing beyond the original owner. High—value merchandise would probably be even less likely to be trashed. The supposition that the consumer is the end—point in a channel of distribution is thus an oversimplification of the actual movement of resources.

Understanding of the Extended Channel might allow producers to better position some products as resaleable or suitable for giving to others. For example, a well-known brand of baby clothes is promoted as being so durable that the child outgrows them before they wear out. Psychological value from Donating or Passing, or economic value from Selling (e.g., in a garage sale), might be promoted in the advertising strategy as additional reason to purchase that brand.

On both theoretical and pragmatic grounds, the concept of the Extended Channel is an important implication of studies that are concerned with disposition processes.

Implications for Environmental Responsibility Theory. In the past, most investigations of Environmental Responsibility examined the relationships between environmentally relevant behaviors and demographics. The present study thus contributes to that body of literature by examining the role of a relatively ignored cognitive

variable, that of Value Orientations. In addition, this study has expanded on the role of disposers' Rationales, as previously studied by Razzouk (1980).

Secondly, the specific domain of Environmentally Responsible

Behavior addressed in this study is different from the more typically

studied ecological issues of recycling and the purchase of "safe"

products. Consumer disposal of still-usable durables and semi-durables
is thus a unique issue in environmental responsibility.

Not only were the disposition options defined here in specific responsible-versus-irresponsible terms, but also these options were conceptualized as a taxonomy of distinctly different behaviors. While previous disposition studies were based on a priori classifications of disposition, the present study attempted to justify the taxonomy through theory. These theoretical elaborations were at least partially supported by the findings.

Implications for Tax Policy. Several specific findings in this study are relevant to decisions concerning the reduction of tax-deductibility for charitable donations. Insofar as donating of products may be considered a desirable "redistribution of wealth" to the needy, it is important to understand the factors that influence charitable donations. The average percentage of still-usable-but-no-longer-used-items that were donated (without tax deduction) by this sample was 17.586%. The average percentage donated for tax deduction purposes was 13.441%. In other words, 31.027% of such items move through charitable organizations for redistribution. Of this total, 43.320% were donated for tax deduction purposes.

What would happen if tax deductibility were removed, or made so inconvenient as to discourage donating? The results of this study show that the tendency to deduct was positively related to "getting an economic return." It was not related significantly to "helping someone" or "not letting the product 30 to waste." In other words, if the primary incentive is taken away, the Deducter might switch to another option. Given the interest in economic return, it might be assumed that the Deducter would switch to Selling. However, Deducting was negatively associated with "liking to sell," partially because the Deducter prefers not to know who is using his/her former personal possessions.

The only behavior with which Deducting was <u>not</u> negatively associated was Throwing-Away. The policy-maker should consider the possibility that the removal or reduction of tax deduction incentives <u>night</u> cause Deducters to become Trashers. If this were the case, Throwing-Away might increase from 8.28% to 21.721%, more than <u>doubling</u> the waste of resources and the growth of landfill accumulation (in regard to moderate-value products).

Implications for Macroeconomics. It was proposed in Chapter One that Extended Channel movement represents an "underground economy."

Selling, Donating, Deducting, and Passing all provide a flow of merchandise to second-hand users. To the degree that these acquisitions preclude purchases of new merchandise, there is an impact on GNP. It would seem that this reduction in purchases of new goods would be most likely during recessions. However, the effect might carry over into subsequent periods of general economic improvement, since consumer acceptance of used goods (which may have been necessary)

during difficult times) might evolve into fads such as the "vintage dressing" phenomenon.

While this phenomenon presents a threat to some merchants and producers, merchandisers of used goods have been able to capitalize on this opportunity.

Implications for Charitable Organizations. The tax policy implications previously presented have obvious impact on those organizations which solicit product donations for redistribution. Up to 43% of their "supply" might be cut off if tax incentives for donating are removed. As it is, many such organizations have already felt tightening supply due to the popularity of "vintage" clothing, since first-hand consumers may sell such used items through consignment stores rather than donating clothes for the needy.

These charitable organizations might learn some potential strategies by examining findings such as those in the present study. Which behaviors might be switched to Donating to compensate for the donations previously provided by Deducters, should Deducters cease to supply merchandise?

By examining the profiles of each disposition option, the Value-Orientations, Attitude, and Rationale correlates of behaviors could be used to determine likely and unlikely behavioral changes.

Keeping was negatively associated with the Other-Orientation,
liking to donate, and "helping someone." It was positively associated
with "economic return" and "coming out ahead." It is therefore
unlikely that Keeping could be switched to Donating.

Throwing-Away was negatively related to "helping someone" and "not wasting the product," liking to donate, and the Other-Orientation.

Again, it seems unlikely to change trashing behavior to Donating.

Selling was similar to Keeping on its relationships with Value Orientations, Attitudes, and Rationales; thus, it is unlikely to be switched to Donating. Finally, Deducting has been shown to be immutable to pure Donating.

The only disposition behavior which might be switched to Donating is Passing. Passing was positively associated with liking to donate. Passing was also positively associated with "helping someone," and "not letting the product go to waste." Since none of the hypothesized Rationales concerning Passing as a reciprocity-driven activity were supported, it might be possible to shift this generosity to giving to the needy rather than to acquaintances.

Passing represented 23.941% of the choices made. Thus, it would appear that charitable organizations should create strategies and messages to persuade Passers to donate instead. Since Passing is negatively associated with "getting an economic return," lack of tax deductibility would not be an objection. If this 24% (or even half of it) could be transferred to Donating, it could conceivably compensate for the supply of merchandise lost when (and if) tax deductibility were removed from contributions.

Summary of Implications. Both theoretical and pragmatic implications were discussed in this section as relevant contributions of the research. These contributions concern the expansion of channels theory, refinement of the disposition taxonomy, investigation of new variables to assess environmental responsibility, implications

regarding the reduction of tax-deductibility of donations, the possible impact of the Extended Channel on GNP, and some potential strategies for charitable organizations.

While the study contributes to the above areas by providing insights, it is limited by a number of factors. These limitations will be discussed in the next section.

Limitations

Several limitations on the generalizability of the study deserve comment.

Sample. The sample drawn was based on Dayton and Vicinity. This constitutes only one basic community in the MidWest. Regions where conservation and ecology have been more emphasized (e.g., the Pacific Northwest) might provide results of more "responsible" disposition and more "involved" thinking about disposition. Conversely, consumers in less ecologically concerned regions might behave less responsibly and be less involved than Dayton consumers.

Sampling Procedure. The Dayton and Vicinity telephone book residential pages were used as the sampling frame. The use of phone books as sampling frames tends to eliminate certain types of persons, specifically those with no phone and those with unlisted numbers. To the degree that those types of persons might have reported different disposition usages, the data is potentially missing some information.

Response and Completion Rate. Since only about 50% of the questionnaires were returned in usable condition, there may have been a non-response bias due to the failure to complete and return by persons who were "ashamed" of their disposition behavior. Additionally, the

questions or instructions may have been too complicated or tedious, thus causing some participants to fail to cooperate. (Several of the unusable returns were discarded due to only partial completion, and others were answered with "incorrect" responses in that instructions were not followed.)

Disposition Tendency Measure. The unspecified stimulus list and the constraints of the scenario posed to respondents limit the generalizability of the findings. The results cannot project what consumers would do with high or low value items, or those which have sentimental attachment, or those which could be used after major repair. Moreover, the meaning of "moderate-value" is subject to interpretation, as is that of "still-usable."

Additionally, respondents were asked to project what they would be likely to do with these items, based on <u>past behavior</u>. Recall measures are always subject to some degree of error. Moreover, an element of social acceptability bias may have entered as respondents split points across the options, i.e., Throwing-Away may have been underestimated.

Value Orientations Scales. Two issues of importance deserve mention as to the usefulness of the six Value Orientation Indices. First, the content validity of each scale may be questionable. The use of only four stimulus topics for each Value Orientation Dimension may be inadequate to cover comprehensively the scope of the dimension.

Second, some of the alpha reliability coefficients that were computed for the six scales were much weaker than had been expected. These weak measures of internal consistency may have led to the somewhat low correlations found between Value Orientations Adherence Indices and other variables in the study.

Moreover, the study limited the investigation of the role of Value Orientations in disposition choice to only two dimensions (the Time Dimension and the Relational Dimension). Although justifications were provided for this choice of dimensions, other dimensions might prove to be useful as well. In light of the fairly weak applicability of the Time Dimension, there may have been a better choice. The assumption that the Time Dimension was a surrogate for the liberal-versus-conservative construct may have been erroneous. In any case, it did not contribute any significant insight into the debate concerning the political leanings of environmentally responsible individuals.

Rationale Statements. The set of Rationales for choosing disposition options was drawn from a large pool of items. This pool had been developed through literature review and conversations with "known" keepers, donors, deducters, etc. However, since consumers often do not know or admit all of their motives, the list may be missing some more subtle reasons for the behavioral tendencies. Therefore, it must be noted that the content validity of this set of variables may be imperfect.

Summary of Limitations. As in any research into a new field, certain issues of scale validity and reliability must be addressed. Other limitations inherent in the methodology may have resulted in social acceptability and non-response biases. Generally, it must be noted that the findings from this one study cannot be projected onto the population at large; but hopefully, the investigation and its results have broken some new ground into the rarely studied behavioral sphere of disposition. The next section will present a few brief suggestions for future research in this area.

Future Research in Disposition

Examination of Table 2 and Appendix VI will lead the reader to note that while many of the correlations between Value Orientations and Disposition Tendency and between Rationales and Disposition Tendency were found to be significantly different from zero, these correlation coefficients are not very large. In other words, the r²s (variance explained) would contribute to only some small, partial understanding of the complex behavior of disposition.

In this light, it is suggested that more studies be conducted to develop a fuller set of explanatory variables in the framework of a more comprehensive model. Personality traits may offer some insight into the usage of each disposition option. Demographics have been investigated here, as well as in other studies, but do not seem to provide much insight. Other factors such as external economic or political conditions might be included in the model.

Rather than use a systematic sample of a general population, researchers in this new domain might find "known" Sellers, Trashers, or Donors, etc., and investigate two or more such groups in depth, and then find variables that discriminate between the groups. Of particular relevance would be a study investigating differences between Donors and Deducters.

Studies similar to the present one should be conducted across a number of regions considered to be more (or less) ecologically aware. Comparisons might be made to determine whether those states with tighter environmental protection laws on businesses also have more environmentally responsible disposition option usage by consumers.

Finally, some experimental programs should be developed for educating consumers about the impact of their disposition choices.

Pre-test and post-test data could be collected to analyze the effects of such educational programs, particularly if focused on the ability to raise the involvement level of disposers.

These suggestions are but a few ideas for further research in the area of disposition. Since this is such a new field of inquiry, countless research topics could be generated. It was the intention of the present study to examine only a small corner of the complex of relationships that may be relevant to the choices a consumer makes when deciding what to do with still-usable-but-no-longer-used items of moderate value.

The final section of this chapter will provide a brief summary of the research design and findings.

Summary of the Research Design and Findings

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between consumers' Value Orientations and their usage of responsible versus irresponsible methods of disposition.

Value Orientations (on a Time Dimension and a Relational Dimension) were investigated in relation to consumers' tendencies to use six disposition options (Keeping, Throwing-Away, Selling, Deducting, Donating, and Passing). Two models were proposed, one suggesting that High Involvement Disposers plan disposition, based in part on Value Orientations that are also logically linked to the Rationales for the chosen behavior. A second model (Low Involvement Disposition) suggested that Value Orientations were less relevant to

disposition choice. Data was reported, therefore, only for High Involvement Disposers.

The research design involved a mail survey sent to persons in the Dayton, Ohio area. Consumers' names were drawn systematically from the Dayton telephone directory. They were first contacted by phone, then solicited to participate in a study concerning the manner in which consumers get rid of products they no longer use.

Items on the mailed questionnaire included questions on Value Orientations, Rationales for selecting disposition options, usage of different disposition options, Disposition Attitudes, Disposition Style, Demographics, and Residence variables.

The data obtained from the mail survey was analyzed by means of correlational analysis to determine associations between cognitive, affective, and behavioral variables; and One-Way Analysis of Variance was conducted to determine differences in usage of options between categories of Demographic and Residence variables.

Each disposition option was then "profiled" by Value Orientations, Rationales, Disposition Attitudes, Demographics, and Residence variables. Some preliminary understanding of the composite of relevant factors in disposition choice was provided by this procedure. Predictions concerning correlations between specific Value Orientations and specific Disposition Tendencies were supported for five of twelve hypotheses.

Interrelationships (significantly different from zero at $p \leq 05$) between Value Orientations, Rationales, and Disposition

Tendencies were depicted to illustrate how the general model of High

Involvement Disposition could, in fact, be applied to each specific disposition option.

Finally, conclusions were presented concerning a number of contributions to theory in both Marketing Channels and Environmental Responsibility, as well as implications for tax policy and charitable organization strategy.

APPENDIX I FIRST VERSION OF QUESTIONNAIRE: LANSING MAIL SURVEY

December 10, 1983

Dear	,

Thank you again for agreeing to help in my research on how people get rid of things they no longer use. As I told you on the telephone, very little research has addressed this common consumer decision area. Your cooperation will allow us to uncover some important insights. I also think you will find the questions are interesting to answer.

Let me remind you that no one, including myself, will know your identity since I am not asking you to put your name, address or phone number anywhere on the survey. Feel free to answer the way you really think and also to write any comments on the survey.

Enclosed is a pre-stamped, pre-addressed return envelope for your convenience. I would appreciate it if you would find time to return the survey in the next couple of days so that I can tabulate results and move on to the next stage of the research.

The survey consists of three sections. Please complete all parts and follow the instructions. Do not consult with anyone else; answer the questions strictly from your own point-of-view.

Thank you again for giving up some of your time at this busy season. You are contributing to new and important research in consumer decision-making.

Have a Happy Holiday Season!

Sincerely,

Diane M. Neeb
Department of Marketing
and Transportation
Michigan State University

Diane M. neet

SECTION ONE: ISSUES IN EVERYDAY LIFE

Instructions: The following questions are concerned with some of the common issues that arise in our present society. Each issue is presented as though three people were discussing it. Their three alternative view-points are stated. Please put a 1 next to the statement that is most like your own point-of-view, a 2 next to your second choice and a 3 next to your last choice. Please order them 1, 2 and 3, even though you may feel that two of the choices look equally good (or equally bad) to you.

- 1. Three people were discussing crime in their neighborhoods.
 - A --- There would be a lot less opportunity for crime if each person took more responsibility for protecting himself.
 - B --- It's a person's civic duty to look out for his neighbors. You should get involved enough to call the neighbor or the police if you see anything suspicious.
 - C --- The only way a neighborhood can be safe is to have a police force you can count on. There's little an individual can do to protect himself.
- 2. Three people were discussing the institution of marriage.
 - A --- Marriages were a lot better before Women's Liberation. If we don't get back to the traditional marriage, things are going to get worse.
 - B --- Marriages are going to be a lot better in the future. The old ways are out-of-date, and present marriages are still struggling through the changes.
 - C --- Marriages today may have problems, but so did marriages in the past. And so will marriages in the future. The problems in the present marriage are probably no worse, just different.
- 3. Three people were discussing job discrimination.
 - A --- Without action groups to support them, women and minorities can't get better job opportunities.
 - B --- If a person takes charge of his own fate and works for what he wants, he can get ahead.
 - C --- Some of us have to take it upon ourselves as individuals to make it easier for those who are the victims of discrimination.
- 4. Three people were discussing changes in organized religion.
 - A --- It's a shame to see some of the traditions of organized religion disappear; it's time we restored some of those that have fallen by the wayside.
 - B --- Peoples' lifestyles today just don't fit with some of the old traditions. Churches are wise to keep up to date.
 - C --- Churches will be better in the future as more changes occur.

- 5. Three people were discussing litter.
 - A --- Sometimes we have to make up for others who are less responsible about litter. For example, when you're cleaning up your own picnic in the park, why not pick up some of the trash left behind by others and put it in the trash barrel?
 - B --- I do my part to be careful about litter, but I don't feel any need to pick up behind others.
 - C --- Anti-litter fines and laws are the best way to prevent the problem.
- 6. Three people were discussing the raising of children.
 - A --- Parents should emphasize dealing with the world we live in. Not all of the old ways are useful now.
 - B --- Dealing with today's world isn't enough. Parents should think seriously about preparing children for the kind of world in which they will grow up.
 - C --- Children today would be a lot better off if they were raised the way my generation was raised.
- 7. Three people were discussing the hard economic times.
 - A --- With times being so tough, it's all the more important to donate time or money to help the less fortunate.
 - B --- It's enough to take responsibility for yourself and your own family. Everyone has been affected by the state of the economy; but if each of us deals with his own situation, all of us will survive well enough.
 - C --- When things are bad, we need as much help from Government as possible in order to protect the less fortunate.
- 8. Three people were discussing the quality of products.
 - A --- It's exciting to think about the improvements there will be in products of the future. Life is going to be more interesting and a good bit easier as technology provides us with better products.
 - B --- Sure, some products may not be as well made as they used to be; but when you look at some of the amazing things available that were only dreams a few years ago, you have to admit that, overall, consumers today are better off than ever.
 - C --- There may be a lot of new-fangled products around; but when it comes to really important products, "they just don't make 'em like they used to."

SECTION TWO: WHAT DO YOU DO WITH PRODUCTS YOU NO LONGER USE?

Instructions: Please read the paragraph below that describes a common situation. Imagine that you are in that situation yourself. Then answer for each of the ten products what you would do with it. Simply write in the blank next to each product the letter of your most likely choice. Pick only one choice for each product, but you may use a choice of behavior for as many products as you want. You do not need to use all of the choices; you might even use the same choice for all ten products.

Example: __b 1. Coffee pot (if you're most likely to throw it away)

The Situation

You're looking all over your home for something you've misplaced. As you go through closets, cabinets and drawers, you find a number of things that you'd forgotten you own. You figure you haven't used any of these items in at least three years. No one else is around to pressure you about what to do with them. All of the products are in usable condition. You bought all of them yourself, so there's no sentimental attachment. What are you most likely to do with each of these products that haven't been used for a long time?

1.	Old record albums		keep the product
		•	morp that products
2.	Board game	b.	throw it away
3.	Paperback books	c.	pass it along to someone
4.	Lamp (style you don't like)		, cc
5.	Blanket (faded)	d.	donate as a tax deduction
6.	Shoes (out of style)	•.	donate without listing for tax deduction
7.	Extra iron (no features)	f.	swap for something else
8.	Raincoat (buttons missing)	g.	try to sell in garage sale
 9.	Curtains (don't fit any windows in your current home)	h.	try to sell in classified ad or trading paper
10.	Set of plastic dishes	i.	sell through secondhand dealer

SECTION THREE: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Please answer the that your name, add Your identity will	iress and phone n	umber are nowher	ousehold. Remember re on the survey.
Age:			
Sex: H F			4
Div Ser	ngle rried vorced parated dowed	Race: Black White Hispan Orien Other	nic
Se Ce Ce	ome High School Inished High School ome College Ollege Degree Ollege Degree + raduate Degree	01	
Religious		Political	
Preference: Protest Cathol: Jewish Other No Pres		Preference:	Republican Other None
	Less than 10,000 10,000 to 14,999 15,000 to 19,999 20,000 to 24,999 25,000 to 29,999 30,000 to 34,999 35,000 to 39,999 40,000 to 44,999 Over 45,000	a year a year a year a year a year	
Do you own your res	sidence? Yes	No	
How many years have	you lived there	?	
Number of persons	living in househo	ld	
Type of Residence:	Apartment Duplex Condominium Rental House for unrelated tenan Other		
How many different	residences used	And TIASG IN IN	Ande TTTEETME:

APPENDIX II SECOND VERSION OF QUESTIONNAIRE: OXFORD STORE-FRONT INTERCEPT

PUBLIC OPINION SURVEY - MIAMI UNIVERSITY

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this survey. Your answers will aid our research at Miami University to understand peoples' opinions on some important issues. Your opinions will be completely anonymous, so feel free to answer frankly. Please be sure to respond to all of the following statements.

<u>Instructions</u>: On statements 1 through 48, write in the blank the number that corresponds with your agreement level regarding that issue.

Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	There would be bility for prote		ertunity for cria	e if each pe	rson took sore	responsi-
2.			ofore Women's Lib		'we don't get b	ack to
3.	Without action opportunities.	groups to suppo	ort them, women a	nd minoritie	e can't get bet	ter job
4.			me traditions of that have falls			r, it's
5.	For example, who	en you're clear	for others who ar ling up your own and by others and	pionic in th	e park, why not	pick
6.	Parents should ours are useful	emphasise deali now, and who k	ing with the worl	d we live in ture will be	. Not all of t	be old
7.	With economic to or money to help	ines being so t p the less fort	cough, it's all tunate.	he more impo	rtant to donate	time
8.	It's exciting to future. Life in provides us with	s going to be a	the improvements nore interesting sta.	there will b and a good b	e in products o it easier as te	f the chaology
9.	It's a person's involved enough	civic duty to to call the ne	look out for his ighbor or police	neighbors.	You should get anything suspic	ious.
			ot better in the			ut-of-
u.	When people take get ahead in the	e charge of the	oir own lives and spations, regardl	work for wh	at they want, to creed, or sex.	hey can
			it with some of t rent lifestyles			•
13.	I do my part to behind others.	be careful abo	out litter, but I	don't feel	any need to pic	k up
14.	Parents should oppresent more opp	encourage their portunities for	children to thi	nk that the	changing world	will
	with our own si	tuations, all o	the state of the of us will survival your own famil	e well enoug	t if each of us h. It's enough	deals to take
16.	at some of the	ameing things	as well made as available, that il, consumers tod	ware only dr	mana a few wear	B 840.
17.	The only way a mon. There's li	neighborhood ce ttle an individ	in be safe is to build on do to pr	have a polic otest himsel	e force you can f.	count
	Marriages today marriages in the worse, just diff	o future. The	iens, but so did problems in the	marriages in present marr	the past. And lages are proba	so will bly no
19.	Some of us have those who are th	to take it upo se victims of j	a ourselves as in	ndividuals to	o maio it easie	r for

20.	Churches will be better in the future as they enact more changes.
21.	Anti-litter fines and laws are the best way to prevent litter. Most people would litter if there weren't rules imposed upon them.
22.	Children today would be a lot better off if they were raised the way my generation was raised.
23.	When economic times are bad, we need as much help from Government as possible in order to protect us.
24.	There may be a lot of new-fangled products around, but when it comes to really important products, "they just don't make 'em like they used to."
25.	The major reason that people are victims of crime is that they don't use judgement about protecting themselves.
26.	Marriage used to be a honored institution; it's sadly lost its status.
27.	Government regulation is the only way to prevent job discrimination.
28.	Religion would become a powerful influence again if churches would stick to the old beliefs and ways.
29.	A lot could be done about pollution if individuals gave more thought to the environmental impact of the products they use and dispose of.
	Young people today have probably been hurt by the lack of old-fashioned up-bringing.
٠:ر	There ought to be more controls on businesses so that consumers wouldn't have to endure poor quality and high prices.
32.	We have to look forward to a time when new technology will solve health and energy problems, that's our only hope.
3.	The major reason that people are victims of crime is that there is rarely enough police protection.
	Marriage is what you make of it on a day-to-day basis. Daydreaming about the way it used to be and hoping things will "get better" are downright foolish.
35.	Victims of job discrimination wouldn't exist if the individuals took responsibility for themselves instead of relying on laws and action groups.
	Religion is something we should experience positively in the here and now, in a practical everyday way.
	Government regulations are the only way to prevent the production and consumption of products that are harmful to the environment.
38.	The youth of today will be better adjusted adults than the adults we see today.
	We can protect ourselves in difficult economic times best by learning to purchase wisely.
40.	Technology has done more harm than good; life was <u>batter</u> before, even if it wasn't as easy.
41.	The best way to prevent crime is to have people feel responsible for the safety of their neighbors.
42.	All the marital crises that have occured must lead somehow to changing the institution so that it will be better for future generations.
43.	Those of us in a position of authority are obligated to aid potential victims of job discrimination.
44.	Religion will be the way to greater peace of mind once churches learn to adjust to changing times.
45.	Individuals must find ways to educate and persuade others to discontinue use of environmentally harmful products.
46.	Young people today are no worse or better adjusted than those of the past or future.
47.	Passing word-of-mouth about good and bad products is an obligation we have toward other consumers to help them, especially during difficult economic times.

48.	We should be philosophical about the trade-offs that come with technological advances, be grateful for the improvements we have now, and not expect future technology to solve problems that must be dealt with today.
49.	Assume you find in your home that you have a number of low to moderate value household items that are in <u>uaable condition but haven't been used for several years</u> . What would you probably do with them? Allocate 10 points across the options to indicate how likely you are to use those options. You may give all 10 to one option or divide the 10 across 2 or more options.
	a) Keep them
	b) Throw them away
	c) Try to sell or susp
	d) Donate to list as tax deduction
	e) Donate without tax deduction
	= 10 Page along to someone you know
50.	What factors are most important when deciding what to do with items you no longer use? Allocate 10 points across the factors that influence you. You may give all 10 to one factor or divide the 10 across 2 or more factors.
	a) Ease of the option
	b) Economic return (getting something for it)
	c) Feeling the item won't go to waste
	= 10 Pooling that you've helped others

APPENDIX III FINAL VERSION OF QUESTIONNAIRE



Department of Marketing School of Business Administration Oxford, Ohio 45056 513 529-3270

Dear Research Participant,

Thank you again for agreeing to help in my research on how people get rid of things they no longer use. As we told you on the telephone, very little research has addressed this common consumer decision area. Your cooperation will allow us to uncover some important insights. I also think you will find the questions are interesting to answer.

Let me remind you that no one, including myself, will know your identity since I am not asking you to put your name, address or phone number anywhere on the survey. Feel free to answer the way you really think.

Enclosed is a pre-stamped, pre-addressed return envelope for your convenience. I would appreciate it if you would find time to return the survey in the next couple of days so that I can tabulate results and move on to the next stage of the research.

The survey consists of four sections. Please complete all parts and follow the instructions. Do not consult with anyone else; answer the questions strictly from your own point-of-view.

Thank you again for giving up some of your valuable time. You are contributing to new and important research in consumer decision-making.

Sincerely,

Diane M. Neeb

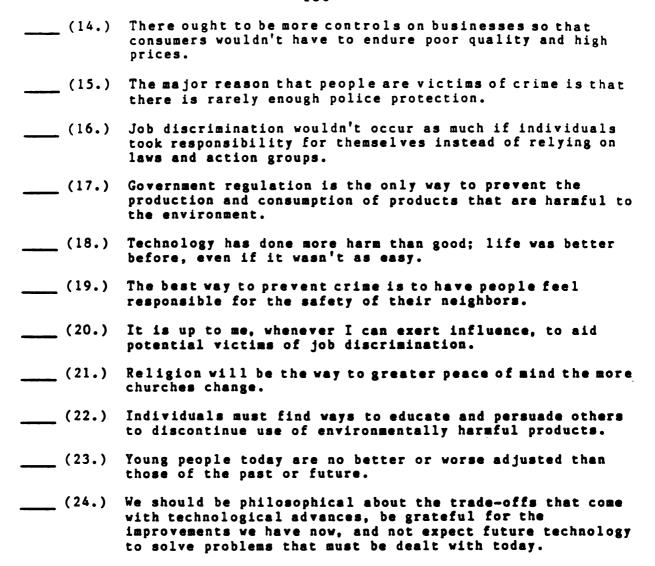
Diane M. Neeb Professor of Marketing Miami University

1809-1984 175 years of excellence

PART I: OPINIONS ON CURRENT ISSUES

Please indicate your agreement with each of the following statements by writing the number that is most appropriate in the blank space.

Strongly Disagree						Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(1.)				pportunity ility for p		
(2.)				ugh, it's a help the 1		re important nate.
(3.)	be in intere	products of	the futu good bit	it the impro re. Life i easier as	s going to	be more
(4.)	old wa		of-date,	and present		future. The are still
(5.)	religi		ons. Chu			ne old ith current
(6.)		y part to b ed to pick			er, but I	don't feel
(7.)	changi			heir childr t more oppo		nk that the for the
(8.)	each of surviv	f us deals v	vith our ough. It's	e state of wn situation enough to family.	ons, all d	fus will
(9.)	the par	st. And so	will mar	roblems, bu riages in t rriages are	he future	
(10.)		ge used to	be an hon	ored instit	ution, it	's sadly
(11.)		ment regula mination.	tion is t	he only way	to preve	at job
(12.)		on would re d beliefs a		uence if ch	urches wo	ald stick to
(13.)		people toda shioned unb		obably been	hurt by	the lack of



PLEASE GO ON TO PART II....

PART II: PACTORS AFFECTING WHAT YOU DO WITH PRODUCTS YOU NO LONGER USE

Please indicate your agreement with each of the following ideas concerning what factors are important to you when deciding what to do with products you no longer have a use for.

Strongly Disagree						Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(25.)	I like to	feel I	can get s	ome econom	ic return	for them.
(26.)	I like to	feel I'	ve helped	someone.		
(27.)	I like to	o feel th	at I've s	omehow com	e out shee	d of the
(28.)	I like to	feel th	at the pr	oduct won'	t go to wa	ste.
(29.)	I like to		at the pr	oduct will	be apprec	iated by
(30.)	I like to	feel th	at I've s	omehow pai	d a debt.	
(31.)				ed the rig the future		on the
(32.)	I like to			the easies	t solution	for
(33.)	I like to	o feel th	at I've g	otten an a	nnoyance o	out of my
(34.)	I like to	feel th	at God wi	11 smile o	n me.	
(35.)	I like to process.	o feel I	can have	some socia	l interact	tion in the
(36.)	I like to	feel th	at others	see me as	generous	•
(37.)	I like ti personal			wing who's	using my	former
(38.)	I like f	eeling in	control	of the sit	uation.	
(39.)	I like to			afford not	to waste	much time

PLEASE GO ON TO PART III....

PART III: WHAT YOU DO WITH PRODUCTS YOU NO LONGER USE

Please read the following scenario, which describes a common situation.

You are looking all over your home for something you've misplaced. As you go through closets, cabinets, drawers, etc., you find a number of things you hadn't used in so long that you'd forgotten you own them. What are you most likely to do with them? Assume the following:

--- they are all of moderate value --- they have no sentimental value --- they are all in usable/working condition

Based on your previous behavior in similar situations, indicate how likely you are to use each of the following options, under the stated circumstances. Simply divide 100 points across the six options.

Example: If you'd probably sell the items 60% of the time and throw them away 40% of the time, give 60 points to "sell" and 40 points to "throw away" and 0 to each of the other options. Be sure your points add up to 100.

	(40.)	Keep them.
	(41.)	Throw them away.
	(42.)	Try to sell them or swap for other goods/services.
	(43.)	Donate to use as a tax deduction.
	(44.)	Donate without declaring as a tax deduction.
	(45.)	Pass them along to an acquaintance.
100	Total	

When it comes to decisions about what to do with usable-but-no-longer-used products, how do you <u>feel</u> about using each of the different methods? Rate your liking or disliking of each method on this scale:

Strong Dislik	•						Strongly Like
1		2	3	4	5	6	7
(46.)	Keeping t	the produc	cts.			
(47.)	Throwing	the produ	icts away	•		
(48.)	Selling in return		ng the pr	oducts for	somethin	g else
(49.)	Donating	for tax	ieduction	purposes.		
(50.)	Donating	without o	ieclaring	a tax dedu	ction.	
(51.)	Passing t	he produc	ts along	to acquain	tances.	
(52.)					Check onl		e, which of
		way of d		hat to do	fairly sy with usab		planned, -longer-used
		situatio	ns as the	y come up	y much responded and doesn to with usa	't give m	uch thought

PLEASE GO ON TO PART IV....

PART IV: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Please answer the following questions about your household. Remember that your name, address and phone number are nowhere on the survey. Your identity will be completely unknown.

(53.)	Age:
(54.)	Sex: M(1) F(2) (55.) Occupation:
(56.)	Marital Status: Single(1) (57.) Race: Black(1)
(58.)	Education Level: Some High School (1) Finished High School (2) Some College (3) College Degree (4) College Degree + (5) Graduate Degree (6)
(59.)	Religious Preference: (60.) Political Preference: Protestant (1) Catholic (2) Jewish (3) Other (4) No Preference (5)
(61.)	Household Income: Less than 10,000 a year (1) 10,000 to 14,999 a year (2) 15,000 to 19,999 a year (3) 20,000 to 24,999 a year (4) 25,000 to 29,999 a year (5) 30,000 to 34,999 a year (6) 35,000 to 39,999 a year (7) 40,000 to 44,999 a year (8) Over 45,000 (9)
(62.)	Do you own your residence? Yes(1) No(2)
(63.)	How many years have you lived there?
(64.)	Number of persons living in household:
(65.)	Type of Residence: Single Family House(1) Apartment(2) Duplex(3) Condominium Rental House for unrelated tenants(5) Other(6)
(66.)	How many different residences have you lived in over your lifetime?

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP

APPENDIX IV DEMOGRAPHIC AND RESIDENCE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE AND THE TWO SUB-SAMPLES

Demographic and Residence Characteristics of the Sample and the Two Sub-Samples. (MV indicates missing values.)

Appendix IV

			nple = 417	In v ol Dist	gh Lvement posers 186	iovo! Disp	Low Lvement posers = 231
Age		SD =	43.010 15.250 = 15-80	SD =	45.500 15.836 = 15-80	SD =	41.009 14.489 = 16-77
Sex	Male Female MV	132 284 1	(31.7%) (68.1%) (0.2%)	52 134 0	(28.0%) (72.0%) (0.0%)	80 150 1	(34.6%) (64.9%) (0.4%)
Marital Status	Single Married Divorced Separated Widowed	56 311 27 3 19	(13.4%) (74.6%) (6.5%) (0.7%) (4.6%) (0.2%)	21 139 14 1 11 0	(11.3%) (74.7%) (7.5%) (0.5%) (5.9%) (0.0%)	35 172 13 2 8 1	(15.2%) (74.5%) (5.6%) (0.9%) (3.5%) (0.4%)
Race	Black White Hispanic Oriental Other MV	20 381 3 4 2 7	(4.8%) (91.4%) (0.7%) (1.0%) (0.5%) (1.7%)	8 169 1 3 2 3	(4.3%) (90.9%) (0.5%) (1.6%) (1.1%) (1.6%)	12 212 2 1 0 4	(5.2%) (91.8%) (0.9%) (0.4%) (0.0%) (1.7%)
Education Level	Some High Finished HS Some College Col. Degree Col. Degree+ Grad. Degree MV	23 107 117 63 52 50 5	(5.5%) (25.7%) (28.1%) (15.1%) (12.5%) (12.0%) (1.2%)	12 53 47 23 23 25 3	(6.5%) (28.5%) (25.3%) (12.4%) (12.4%) (12.4%) (13.4%) (1.6%)	11 54 70 40 29 25 2	(4.8%) (23.4%) (30.3%) (17.3%) (12.6%) (10.8%) (0.9%)
Religious Preference	Protestant Catholic Jewish Other No Pref.	220 122 4 28 39 4	(52.8%) F(29.3%) (1.0%) (6.7%) (9.4%) (1.0%)	96 57 3 13 16	(51.6%) (30.6%) (1.6%) (7.0%) (8.6%) (0.5%)	124 65 1 15 23 3	(53.7%) (28.1%) (0.4%) (6.5%) (10.0%) (1.3%)

Appendix IV (cont'd.)

			ρle 417	Invol Disp	igh vement posers = 186	Invol Disp	ow vement osers 231
Political Preference	Democrat Republican Other No Pref. MV	135 163 12 96 11	(32.4%) (39.1%) (2.9%) (23.0%) (2.6%)	53 80 9 40 4	(28.5%) (43.0%) (4.8%) (21.5%) (2.2%)	82 83 3 56 7	(35.5%) (35.9%) (1.3%) (24.2%) (3.0%)
Household Income	Under \$10,000 10,000-14,999 15,000-19,999 20,000-24,999 25,000-29,999 30,000-34,999 35,000-39,999 40,000-44,999 Over 45,000 MV	32 37 40 34 42 58 32 33 100 9	(7.7%) (8.9%) (9.6%) (8.2%) (10.1%) (13.9%) (7.7%) (7.9%) (24.0%) (2.2%)	18 16 15 16 25 24 12 12 44 4	(9.7%) (8.6%) (8.1%) (8.6%) (13.4%) (12.9%) (6.5%) (6.5%) (23.7%) (2.2%)	14 21 25 18 17 34 20 21 56	(6.1%) (9.1%) (10.8%) (7.8%) (7.4%) (14.7%) (8.7%) (9.1%) (24.2%) (2.2%)
Own Residence	Yes No MV	316 99 2	(75.8%) (23.7%) (0.5%)	145 40 1	(78.0%) (21.5%) (0.5%)	171 59 1	(74.0%) (25.5%) (0.4%)
Years at Residence		SD =	10516 9.265 = 0-47	SD =	11.371 9.411 = 0-47	SD =	9.815 9.105 = 0-40
Number of Persons in Household		SD =	2.944 1.367 = 1-8	SD =	2.918 1.293 = 1-8	SD =	2.965 1.426 = 1-8
Type of Residence	Single Fmly Apartment Duplex Condo Rental for Unrelateds Other	338 41 9 13 3 11 2	(81.1%) (9.8%) (2.2%) (3.1%) (0.7%) (2.6%) (0.5%)	151 17 5 5 3 4	(81.2%) (9.1%) (2.7%) (2.7%) (1.6%) (2.2%) (0.5%)	187 24 4 8 0 7	(81.0%) (10.4%) (1.7%) (3.5%) (0.0%) (3.0%) (0.4%)
Number of Residences in Lifetime	3	SD =	8.407 5.134 = 1-45	SD =	8.517 5.723 = 1-45	SD =	8.321 4.638 = 1-25

APPENDIX V RATIONALES BY VALUE ORIENTATION ADHERENCES: CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

Appendix V

Rationales by Value Orientation Adherences: Correlation Coefficients

RATIONALES	Past	Present	VALUE ORI Future	ENTATIONS Self	Other	Dependent
Economic	.0429	0434	.1467	.1093	.0691	.0977
Return	p=.282	p=.279	p=.023(b)	p=.070(a)	p=.176	p=.093(a)
Helped	.0293	.0607	.0970	.0351	.3372	0750
Someone	p=.346	p=.205	p=.094(a)	p=.317	p=.000(d)	p=.154
Come Out	.0062	.0196	.1809	.1872	.0719	.0843
Ahead	p=.467	p=.396	p=.007(c)	p=.005(c)	p=.166	p=.128
Product	.1254	.1380	.0275	.2065	.2972	0127
Not Wasted	p=.044(b)	p=.030(b)	p=.355	p=.002(c)	p=.000(d)	p=.432
Product	.1463	.1285	0061	.2541	.1454	0182
Appreciated	p=.023(b)	p=.040(b)	p=.467	p=.000(d)	p=.024(b)	p=.403
Paid a Debt	.1606	0075	.1711	.1784	.1062	.1988
	p=.015(b)	p=.460	p=.010(c)	p=.008(c)	p=.076(a)	p=.003(c)
Earned Right To Receive	.1585	.0696	.1491	.2860	.0027	.3329
	p016(b)	p=.173	p=.021(b)	p=.000(d)	p=.486	p=.000(d)
Found Easiest	.1130	0456	.0574	.3179	.0897	.1642
Solution	p=.063(a)	p=.269	p=.219	p=.000(d)	p=.112	p=.013(b)
Annoyance	.0557	0561	0076	.1624	.1574	.0374
Out of Way	p=.226	p=.225	p=.459	p=.014(b)	p=.016(b)	p=.307
God Will	.2943	0635	.1627	.2559	.1288	.2727
Smile on Me	p=.000(d)	p=.195	p=.013(b)	p=.000(d)	p=.040(b)	p=.000(d)
Social	.1409	0014	.2599	.1386	.1332	.2016
Interaction	p=.028(b)	p=.493	p=.000(d)	p=.030(b)	p=.036(b)	p=.003(c)
Seen as	.1987	0108	.2281	.3275	.0015	.2787
Generous	p=.003(c)	p=.442	p=.001(d)	p=.000(d)	p=.492	p=.000(d)
Not Know	0185	.0044	.0642	.0739	.1424	.0366
Next User	p=.401	p=.476	p=.193	p=.160	p=.027(b)	p=.311
Feel in	.0333	.0966	.2022	.2525	.1008	.1594
Control	p=.327	p=.096(a)	p=.003(c)	p=.000(d)	p=.087(a)	p=.015(b)
Afford Not to	0068	.2026	.2500	.2816	.1929	.1570
Worry About It	p=.463	p=.003(c)	p=.000(d)	p=.000(d)	p=.004(c)	p=.017(b)

⁽a = significant at .10, b = significant at .05, c = significant at .01, d = significant at .001)

APPENDIX VI RATIONALES BY DISPOSITION TENDENCIES: CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

Appendix VI

Rationales by Disposition Tendencies: Correlation Coefficients

]	DISPOSITION	TENDENCIE	S	
RATIONALES	Keep	Throw	Sel1	Deduct	Donate	Pass
Economic	.1738	0260	.3356	.1432	4826	1188
Return	p=.009(c)	p=.363	p=.000(d)	p=.026(b)	p=.000(d)	p=.054(a)
He 1 ped	1612	1633	0653	0926	.2289	.1808
Someone	p=.014(b)	p=.013(b)	p=.188	p=.104	p=.001(d)	p=.007(c)
Come Out	.1337	.0045	.1810	.0406	2520	0918
Ahead	p=.035(b)	p=.476	p=.007(c)	p=.292	p=.000(d)	p=.108
Product	0668	1537	1142	0165	.0850	.1905
Not Wasted	p=.183	p=.018(b)	p=.060(a)	p=.412	p=.124	p=.005(c)
Product	.0171	0723	0379	1668	.1173	.0956
Appreciated	p=.409	p=.163	p=.304	p=.011(b)	p=.055(a) p	→097(a)
Paid a Debt	.0273	0805	.1159	0104	1209	.0462
	p=.357	p=.139	p=.059(a)	p=.444	p=.051(a)	p=.267
Earned Right	.0544	.0352	.1402	0710	1719	.0384
to Receive	p=.231	p=.317	p=.029(b)	p=.169	p=.010(c)	p=.302
Found Easiest	0076	.0245	.0354	.0109	0508	.0042
Solution	p=.459	p=.370	p=.316	p=.442	p=.246	p=.477
Annoyance	0956	.0884	.1203	.0661	0632	0507
Out of Way	p=.098(a)	p=.116	p=.052(a)	p=.186	p=.197	p=.247
God Will	0483	.0262	.1602	0011	1528	.0520
Smile on Me	p=.257	p=.362	p=.015(b)	p=.494	p=.019(b)	p=.241
Social	.0464	.0714	.1224	0667	1076	0252
Interaction	p=.266	p=.168	p=.049(b)	p=.184	p=.073(a)	p=.367
Seen as	.0915	.0299	.2012	0113	1997	0797
Generous	p=.108	p=.343	p=.003(c)	p=.440	p=.003(c)	p=.141
Not Know	0984	0501	0252	.1120	.1228	0742
Next User	p=.092(a)	p=.250	p=.367	p=.065(a)	p=.048(b)	p=.158
Feel in	.0133	1045	.0806	.0133	0408	.0033
Control	p=.429	p=.079(a)	p=.138	p=.429	p=.291	p=.482
Afford Not to	0303	.0079	.0177	.0556	0177	0226
Worry About It	p=.342	p=.458	p=.406	p=.227	p=.406	p=.381

⁽a = significant at .10, b = significant at .05, c = significant .01,
 d = significant at .001)

APPENDIX VII MEAN USAGE PERCENTAGES OF EACH DISPOSITION

OPTION FOR HIGH INVOLVEMENT DISPOSERS

Appendix VII

Mean Usage Percentages of Each Disposition Option for High Involvement Disposers

	High Involvement Disposers n = 186
Keeping	$\bar{x} = 22.054$
Tendency	SD = 24.795
Throwing	$\bar{x} = 8.280$
Tendency	SD = 13.124
Selling	$\bar{x} = 14.699$
Tendency	SD = 20.256
Deducting	$\bar{x} = 13.441$
Tendency	SD = 21.770
Donating	$\bar{x} = 17.586$
Tendency	SD = 23.345
Passing	$\bar{x} = 23.941$
Tendency	SD = 22.882

APPENDIX VIII KEEPING BEHAVIOR AND RELEVANT VARIABLES

Appendix VIII

KEEPING BEHAVIOR AND RELEVANT VARIABLES

Tendency to Use: $\bar{x} = 22.054\%$

Value Orientations:

Other-Oriented r=-.1537 (p=.018)

Attitudes:

Like to Keep r= .6120 (p=.000)
Like to Donate r=-.3154 (p=.000)
Like to Throw r=-.2198 (p=.001)
Like to Pass r=-.1168 (p=.058)

Rationales:

Economic Return r= .1738 (p=.009)
Helped Someone r=-.1612 (p=.014)
Come Out Ahead r= .1337 (p=.035)
Not Know Next User Annoyance Out of
Way r=-.0956 (p=.098)

Demographics and Residence:

Age r=-.1167 (p=.057)

No. Res. in Life r=-.1426 (p=.030)

Sex F probability=.0082

Education F probability=.0018

APPENDIX IX THROWING-AWAY BEHAVIOR AND RELEVANT VARIABLES

Appendix IX

THROWING-AWAY BEHAVIOR AND RELEVANT VARIABLES

Tendency to Use: $\bar{x} = 8.280\%$

Value Orientations:

Other-Oriented r=-.1681 (p=.011)
Dependent-Oriented r= .1240 (p=.046)

Attitudes:

Like to Throw r = .4592 (p = .000)Like to Pass r = .1351 (p = .034)

Rationales:

Helped Someone r=-.1633 (p=.013) Product Not Wasted r=-.1537 (p=.018) Feel in Control r=-.1045 (p=.079)

Demographics and Residence:

Age r=-.1653 (p=.012)
No. Res. in Life r=-.1806 (p=.009)
Marital Status F probability=.0345
Education F probability=.0585
Own Res. F probability=.0502

APPENDIX X . SELLING BEHAVIOR AND RELEVANT VARIABLES

Appendix X

SELLING BEHAVIOR AND RELEVANT VARIABLES

Tendency to Use: $\bar{x} = 14.699\%$

Value Orientations:

Dependent-Oriented	r = .2197	(p=.001)
Other-Oriented	r =1765	
Present-Oriented	r =1760	
Past-Oriented	r = .1703	(p=.010)

Attitudes:

Like to Sell	r = .4901 (p = .000)
Like to Donate	r=1877 (p=.006)
Like to Throw	r=0998 (p=.091)

Rationales:

```
Economic Return r=.3356 \ (p=.000) Seen as Generous r=.2012 \ (p=.003) Come Out Ahead r=.1810 \ (p=.007) God Will Smile r=.1602 \ (p=.015) Earned to Receive r=.1402 \ (p=.029) Social Interaction Annoyance Out of Way r=.1203 \ (p=.052) Paid a Debt r=.1159 \ (p=.059) Product Not Wasted r=.1142 \ (p=.060)
```

Demographics and Residence:

No significant relationships

APPENDIX XI DEDUCTING BEHAVIOR AND RELEVANT VARIABLES

Appendix XI

DEDUCTING BEHAVIOR AND RELEVANT VARIABLES

Tendency to Use: $\bar{x} = 13.441\%$

Value Orientations:

Past-Oriented	r =1327	(p=.035)
Present-Oriented	r = .1277	(p=.041)
Self-Oriented	r= .1277 r=1056	(p=.076)

Attitudes:

Like	to	Deduct	r = .5953	(p=.000)
Like	to	Donate	r=3079	(p=.000)
Like	to	Pass	r =1846	(p=.006)
Like	to	Keep	r=1389	(p=.031)
Like	to	Sell	r =1134	(p=.064)

Rationales:

Product

Appreci	lated	r=1668 (p=.01)			
Economic	Return	r = .1432	(p=.026)		
Not Know	Next User	r = .1120	(p=.065)		

Demographics and Residence:

Education	F probability=.0000
Political Pref.	F probability=.0008
HH Income	F probability=.0000
Own Res.	F probability=.0005

APPENDIX XII DONATING BEHAVIOR AND RELEVANT VARIABLES

Appendix XII

DONATING BEHAVIOR AND RELEVANT VARIABLES

			_	
Tendency	tο	IIqa•	v =	17.586%
I CHUCKLCY	LU	030.	~ -	11.000

Value Orientations:

Other-Oriented	r = .1921 (p = .004)
Dependent-Oriented	r=1619 (p=.014)
Present-Oriented	r = .0951 (p = .098)

Attitudes:

Like	to	Donate	r = .5705	(p=.000)
Like	to	Deduct	r=3725	(p=.000)
Like	to	Keep	r =3540	(p=.000)
Like	to	Sell	r=3293	(p=.000)
Like	to	Pass	r =1302	(p=.040)

Rationales:

Economic Return	r=4826 (p=.000)
Come out Ahead	r=2520 (p=.000)
Helped Someone	r = .2289 (p = .001)
Seen as Generous	r=1977 (p=.003)
Earned to Receive	r=1719 (p=.010)
God Will Smile	r=1528 (p=.019)
Not Know Next User	r = .1228 (p = .048)
Paid a Debt	r=1209 (p=.051)
Product	
Appreciated	r = .1173 (p = .055)
Social Interaction	r=1076 (p=.073)

<u>Demographics and Residence:</u>

Age	r = .2297 (p = .001)
Persons in HH	r=1296 (p=.040)
Sex	F probability=.0470

APPENDIX XIII PASSING BEHAVIOR AND RELEVANT VARIABLES

Appendix XIII

PASSING BEHAVIOR AND RELEVANT VARIABLES

Tendency to Use: $\bar{x} = 23.941\%$

Value Orientations:

Other-Oriented r=.1648 (p=.012)

Attitudes:

Like to Pass r= .5932 (p=.000) Like to Donate r= .2247 (p=.001) Like to Keep r=-.2234 (p=.001) Like to Deduct r=-.1180 (p=.057)

Rationales:

Product Not Wasted r= .1905 (p=.005)
Helped Someone r= .1808 (p=.007)
Economic Return r=-.1188 (p=.054)
Product
Appreciated r= .0956 (p=.097)

Demographics and Residence:

No. Res. in Life r=.2064 (p=.003) Education F probability=.0009

APPENDIX XIV DISPOSITION ATTITUDES BY DISPOSITION TENDENCIES: CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

Appendix XIV

Disposition Attitudes by Disposition Tendencies: Correlation Coefficients

			DISPOSITION TENDENCIES					
AT"	ritu	JDES	Кеер	Throw	Sel1	Deduct	Donate	Pass
Like	to	Keep	.6120 p=.000(d)	.0291 p=.348	.0426 p=.284		3540 p=.000(d)	
Like	to	Throw			0998 p=.091(a)		.0890 p=.117	0046 p=.476
Like	to	Sel1	.0572 p=.221	0625 p=.201			3293 p=.000(d)	
Like	to	Deduct	0112 p=.441		0208 p=.391		3725 p=.000(d)	•
Like	to	Donate	3154 p=.000(d)	0148 p=.422		•	.5705 p=.000(d)	
Like	to	Pass	1168 p=.058(a)		0904 p=.112		1302 p=.040(b)	

⁽a = significant at .10, b = significant at .05, c = significant at .01, d = significant at .001)



BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Allen, Chris T., Charles D. Schewe, and Gosta Wijk (1980), "More on Self-Perception Theory's Foot Technique in the Pre-Call/Mail Survey Setting," <u>Journal of Marketing Research</u>, XVII (November), 498-502.
- Bagozzi, Richard P. (1981), "Marketing as Exchange," in <u>Marketing</u>
 Classics (4th edition), Ben M. Enis and Keith K. Cox, eds.,
 Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.
- Berkowitz, Leonard and Kenneth G. Lutterman (1968), "The Traditional Socially Responsible Personality," <u>Public Opinion Quarterly</u>, Vol. 32, No. 2, Summer, 169-185.
- Boorstin, Daniel (1973), <u>The Americans: The Democratic Experience</u>, New York: Random House, 153-154.
- Boraiko, Allen A. (1985), "Storing Up Trouble...Hazardous Waste," National Geographic, Vol. 167, No. 3, 319-351.
- Burke, M., W. D. Conn, and R. J. Lutz (1978), "Using Psychographic Variables to Investigate Product Disposition Behaviors,"

 <u>Proceedings</u>, Educators Conference, American Marketing Association, Subhash C. Jain, ed., No. 43, 321-326.
- Commoner, Barry (1971), The Closing Circle: Nature, Man, and Technology, New York: Alfred A. Knopf.
- Conn, W. David (undated), "Policies for Extending Product Lifetimes As a Means of Reducing Waste," Monograph, School of Architecture and Urban Planning, University of California, Los Angeles.
- Cotgrove, Stephen (1976), "Environmentalism and Utopia," Sociological Review, Vol. 24, No. 1, 23-42.
- Cotgrove, Stephen and Andrew Duff (1980), "Environmentalism, Middle-Class Radicalism and Politics," <u>Sociological Review</u>, Vol. 28, No. 2, 333-351.
- Crosby, Lawrence A. and James D. Gill (1980), "A Causal Path Analysis of Ecological Behavior Relating to Marketing" in Advances in Consumer Research, Kent B. Monroe, ed., Vol. 8, 630-636.

- DeBell, M. and R. Dardis (1978), "Extending Product Life: Technology Isn't the Only Issue," in Advances in Consumer Research, W. Wilkie, ed., Vol. 6, 381-385.
- DeJong, William (1979), "An Examination of Self-Perception Mediation of the Foot-in-the-Door Effect," <u>Journal of Personality and Social Psychology</u>, Vol. 37, No. 12, 2221-2239.
- Goldman, Morton and Christopher R. Creason (1981), "Inducing Compliance by a Two-Door-in-the-Face Procedure and a Self-Determination Request," The Journal of Social Psychology, 114, 229-235.
- Goldman, Morton, Mark Seever, and Margaret Seever (1982), "Social Labeling and the Foot-in-the-Door Effect," The Journal of Social Psychology, 117, 19-23.
- Gould, Richard A. (1978), "The Anthropology of Human Resources,"

 American Anthropologist, Vol. 80, No. 4, 815-835.
- Gouldner, Alvin W. (1960), "The Norm of Reciprocity: A Preliminary Statement," American Sociological Review, Vol. 25, No. 2, 161-178.
- Hanson, James W. (1980), "An Investigation into the Effects of Situation, Product, and Person Variables in Consumer Product Disposition Behavior," <u>Dissertation Abstracts</u>, 66-67.
- Hanson, James W. (1980a), "A Proposed Paradigm for Consumer Product Disposition Processes," <u>Journal of Consumer Affairs</u>, Vol. 14, No. 1, 49-67.
- Henion, Karl E., Russel Gregory, and Mona A. Clee (1980), "Trade-Offs in Attribute Levels Made by Ecologically Concerned and Unconcerned Consumers When Buying Detergents," in <u>Advances in Consumer</u> Research, Kent B. Monroe, ed., Vol. 8, 624-629.
- Henry, Walter A. (1976), "Cultural Values Do Correlate with Consumer Behavior," <u>Journal of Marketing Research</u>, Vol. XIII (May), 121-127.
- Herberger, Roy A., Jr. (1975), "The Ecological Product Buying Motive: A Challenge for Consumer Education," <u>Journal of Consumer Affairs</u>, Vol. 9, No. 2, 187-195.
- Jacoby, Jacob (1976), "Telling It Like It Is," in Advances in Consumer Research, Beverlee B. Anderson, ed., Vol. 3, 1-11.
- Jacoby, Jacob, Carol K. Berning, and Thomas F. Dietvorst (1977), "What About Disposition?," <u>Journal of Marketing</u>, 41 (April), 22-28.
- Kluckhohn, Clyde (1959), "Values and Value-Orientations in the Theory of Action," in <u>Toward a General Theory of Action</u>, Talcott Parsons and Edward A. Shils, eds., Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press, 389-433.

- Kluckhohn, Florence and Fred L. Strodtbeck (1961), <u>Variations in Value</u>
 <u>Orientations</u>, Evanston: Row, Peterson.
- Leitner, Larry (1985), personal interview with clinical psychologist.
- Mayer, Robert N. (1976), "The Socially Conscious Consumer Another Look at the Data," <u>Journal of Consumer Research</u>, Vol. 3, No. 2, 113-115.
- Murphy, Patrick E., Norman Kangun, and William B. Locander (1978),
 "Environmentally Concerned Consumers Racial Variations," <u>Journal</u>
 of Marketing, Vol. 42, 61-66.
- Nicosia, Francesco M. and Robert N. Mayer (1976), "Toward a Sociology of Consumption," <u>Journal of Consumer Research</u>, Vol. 3 (September), 65-75.
- Nunnally, Jim C. (1978), <u>Psychometric Theory (2nd edition)</u>, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Pessenier, Edgar A. Albert C. Bemmaor, and Dominique M. Hanssens, (1977), "Willingness to Supply Human Body Parts: Some Empirical Results," <u>Journal of Consumer Research</u>, Vol. 4, No. 3, 131-140.
- Peter, J. Paul (1979), "Reliability: A Review of Psychometric Basics and Recent Marketing Practices," <u>Journal of Marketing Research</u>, Vol. 16 (February), 6-17.
- Razzouk, Nabil Y. (1980), "Disposition of Consumer Durable Goods: An Information Processing Approach," <u>Dissertation Abstracts</u>, 126-127.
- Rokeach, Milton (1968), "The Role of Values in Public Opinion Research," Public Opinion Quarterly, 30 (Winter), 547-53.
- Schwartz, Robert A. (1970), "Personal Philanthropic Contributions,"

 <u>Journal of Political Economy</u>, Vol. 78, No. 6, 1264-1291.
- Sherif, M. and H. Cantril (1947), The Psychology of Ego-Involvement, New York: John Wiley.
- Sherry, John F., Jr. (1983), "Gift Giving in Anthropological Perspective," <u>Journal of Consumer Research</u>, Vol. 10 (September), 157-168.
- Smead, Raymond J. and John J. Burnett (1979), "Understanding the Blood Donor Problem: A Discriminant Analysis of Active, Dormant, and Non-Donors," in <u>Advances in Consumer Research</u>, Jerry C., Olson, ed., Vol. 7, 622-626.
- Smith, Scott M. (1979), "Giving to Charitable Organizations: A Behavioral Review and a Framework for Increasing Commitment," in Advances in Consumer Research, Jerry C. Olson, ed., Vol. 7, 753-756.

- Thompson, Michael (1979), <u>Rubbish Theory: The Creation and Destruction</u> of Value, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Tucker, Lewis R. (1980), "Identifying the Environmentally Responsible Consumer: The Role of Internal-External Control of Reinforcements," <u>Journal of Consumer Affairs</u>, Vol. 14, No. 2, 326-340.
- Van Liere, Kent D. and Riley E. Dunlap (1980), "The Social Bases of Environmental Concern: A Review of Hypotheses, Explanations, and Empirical Evidence," <u>Public Opinion Quarterly</u>, Vol. 44, No. 2, 181-197.
- Van Liere, Kent D., and Riley E. Dunlap (1981), "Environmental Concern:
 Does It Make a Difference How It's Measured?" Environment and
 Behavior, Vol. 13, No. 6, November 1981, 651-676.
- Webster, Frederick E., Jr. (1975), "Determining the Characteristics of the Socially Conscious Consumer," <u>Journal of Consumer Research</u>, Vol. 2, No. 3, 188-196.
- White, Peter T. (1983), "The Fascinating World of Trash," National Geographic, Vol. 163, No. 4, 424-457.
- Zikmund, W. G. and W. J. Stanton (1971), "Recycling Solid Wastes: A Channel of Distribution Problem," <u>Journal of Marketing</u>, Vol. 35 (July), 34-39.

