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ABSTRACT

AN ANALYSIS OF CONSUMER MARKET SEGMENTATION IN RESPONSE TO AN INSTITUTIONAL INNOVATION IN THE FOOD INDUSTRY

by David Lee Appel

The history of retailing in the United States has been a dynamic one as retailing has continually adapted to keep pace with the times. The process of change is accomplished by the introduction and adoption of institutional innovations, such as the mail-order house and the supermarket. In spite of the importance of the institutional innovation, however, little is known about the actual process of consumer acceptance responsible for the success, or failure, of a new type of retail outlet.

The objective of the study was to learn more about the process of adoption with respect to a selected institution. To accomplish the task, the study investigated the segmentation of the consumer market resulting from the introduction of a one-stop shopping center into a market previously served by two conventional supermarkets. Although several other purchase decision areas were studied, the main thrust of the research was on the purchase of food.

A research instrument was designed to provide a measurement of consumers on three key dimensions of shopping behavior: (1) Socio-Economic Characteristics; (2) Purchase Motivation; and (3) Purchase Behavior and Patronage Loyalty. The purchase motivation variables were classified as convenience, economic and, promotional variables. The variables were analyzed according to the major source of supply for food chosen by the family unit, i.e., either the one-stop shopping center or the conventional supermarket. In addition, the research studied the extent to which behavior patterns carried over to other types of shopping, and analyzed earlier and later adopters of the one-stop shopping center to identify any changes in the responsive segment of the market.

The field research involved the administration of the research instrument to 159 family units in a selected area of Lansing, Michigan, which was broadly representative of different social classes, income levels, age groups, and housing types. Each of the housing units in the research area was located within a five minute driving time of the one-stop shopping center and several conventional supermarkets.

The data was analyzed using both bivariate and multivariate techniques. Both techniques indicated that the one-stop shopping center served a distinct, and readily identifiable, segment of the consumer market.

The bivariate analysis indicated that the segment of the market responsive to the one-stop shopping center was composed primarily of younger families with children under ten. The purchase motivation and purchase behavior of the responsive segment was not found to be different from non-responsive segments. The one-stop shopping center customers did exhibit a higher degree of related purchase behavior, however. In addition, the one-stop shopping center shoppers were found to be heavier users of mail-order shopping than conventional supermarket shoppers.

Bivariate analysis of the data with respect to the time of adoption failed to show a significant difference between earlier and later adopters of the institutional innovation. There was some evidence that the earlier adopters were from lower social classes, had lower incomes, and had lower levels of formal education, but the data was inconclusive.

The multivariate analysis resulted in distinct patterns emerging for the one-stop shopping center customers and the conventional supermarket customers. Combining fourteen research variables into convenience, economic and promotional variables indicated that the one-stop shopping center customers were more interested in the convenience and economic aspects of shopping, while conventional supermarket customers were more interested in the promotional aspects.

AN ANALYSIS OF CONSUMER MARKET SEGMENTATION
IN RESPONSE TO AN INSTITUTIONAL INNOVATION
IN THE FOOD INDUSTRY

By

David Lee Appel

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CHAPTER I

PROBLEM DELINEATION

The primary objective of the research is to investigate consumer market segmentation by use of socio-economic characteristics, purchase motivation, and purchase behavior to determine the responsiveness of consumers to institutional innovations in the field of food retailing.

Nature of the Problem

Background of the Problem

The history of retailing in the United States is a history of competition and change. As the social environment has changed, retailing has continually adapted in an effort to serve changing consumer needs. With the development of mass-production and mass-markets across the nation, retailing entered the era of mass-distribution to link mass-markets with a mass-production capability. The changing structure of distribution in the United States has been studied by numerous scholars.

Schumpeter¹ writes that certain new institutions operate in such a manner that their influence in retailing is felt far beyond their actual number. The type of institution that he refers to is an "institutional innovation" that completely disrupts the status quo in the existing retail system and forces change. The institutional innovation creates what Schumpeter calls the "competition that matters" because the new type of institution enters the market place with new methods of selling and new cost-sales relationships. As he points out, "In the case of retail trade, the competition that matters arises not from additional shops of the same type, but from the department store, the chain store, the mail-order house and the supermarket" ²

Tallman and Bloomstrom discuss this same process of creative destruction in an article on retail innovations.³ According to Tallman and Bloomstrom, "Retail innovations of importance . . . have been the development from 1870 to 1890 of the early forms of the now 'traditional' department

¹Joseph Schumpeter, Capitalism, Socialism and Democracy, Second Edition (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947).

²Ibid., p. 85.

³Gerald Tallman and Bruce Bloomstrom, "Retail Innovations Challenge Manufacturers" in Ronald Gist (editor), Management Perspectives in Retailing (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1967), pp. 67-79.

store, of general merchandise mail-order selling (1890-1910), of the variety and food chain stores (1910-1930), and the food supermarket after 1930. Each of these major retail innovations, when first developed, offered customers lower prices than were generally available through previously existing channels. Each, with time has traded up the quality of its service, and with this its operating expenses and margin."⁴

Both references discuss a more or less definitive cycle in American retailing which McNair has labeled the "Wheel of Retailing."⁵ According to McNair, the wheel revolves, sometimes quite fast and at other times extremely slow, but always moving. The cycle begins with a bold, new concept, or innovation, for a new type of distributive institution. The new institution starts out as a low-status, low-margin, low-price operation. As it matures, however, the process of "trading-up" continually occurs, resulting in higher margins and prices. Finally, a mature institution emerges with high margins and prices. At this stage in the cycle, another institutional innovation appears and the wheel turns.

⁴Ibid., p. 68.

⁵M. D. McNair, "Significant Trends and Developments in the Postwar Period," in A. B. Smith (editor), Competitive Distribution in a Free, High Level Economy and Its Implications for the University (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1958), pp. 1-25 at pp. 17-18. Also see Stanley C. Hollander, "The Wheel of Retailing," Journal of Marketing, July, 1960, pp. 37-42.

Numerous examples of institutional innovations and the wheel of retailing theory exist in American retailing. The department store, the mail-order house, the chain store, and the supermarket all started out as low-margin, low-price institutional innovations replacing higher cost methods of retailing. Each has traded up, resulting in higher margins and prices. Each is now vulnerable to new institutional innovations which may arise.

The fact that this process of creative destruction occurs is well known, but the dynamic process of change itself has not been closely studied. In hindsight, it can be seen that the department store, the mail-order house, the chain store, and the supermarket did gain consumer acceptance, causing them to grow and prosper. Other institutional innovations, lacking this consumer acceptance, have failed to achieve a place in American retailing.

Scope of the Problem

The institutional innovation is generally distinguishable from conventional institutions. As McNair points out, ". . . the innovation has an idea for a new kind of distributive enterprise . . . (which) at the outset is in bad odor, ridiculed, scorned, and condemned . . . but attracts the public on the basis of a price appeal made possible by the low operating costs inherent in his

innovation."⁶ The development of the supermarket during the thirties is perhaps the best example of the wheel concept in action. By 1940, the supermarket had revolutionized the field of food retailing.

In spite of the importance of the institutional innovations, the actual process of consumer acceptance responsible for their success, or failure, is not well known. The institutional innovation may gain consumer acceptance in a number of different ways. First, the new institution may gain consumer acceptance from the total consumer market at its inception. Secondly, the new institution may begin with acceptance from a small, distinct innovative segment of the population, and then gain broader market acceptance with time. Thirdly, the new institution may never achieve broad market acceptance, in which case the institution serves a smaller, identifiable segment of the market which remains the institution's core market over time.

To understand this process better, consumer acceptance can be studied as an adoption process. Much work has been done on the adoption process in the area of diffusion of innovation research.⁷ To date, however, most of

⁶Ibid., p. 17.

⁷Everett M. Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations (New York: The Free Press, 1962). See especially chapters six and seven.

these studies have dealt with either the adoption of concepts and ideas, or the adoption of new products. Little research has been done on the adoption process as it relates to institutional innovations. The adoption process as developed, however, is general enough to be a potentially useful tool in analyzing the consumer acceptance process with respect to institutional innovations.⁸

The acceptance and growth of the supermarket, coin-operated laundry, or the general merchandise discount house could be studied, but they are all too well established to be appropriate research situations. A recent institutional innovation, in part connected with the food industry, does provide an opportunity to carry out the research, however. The institution is the lowered margin, one-stop shopping center. Several factors make the one-stop shopping center an ideal institutional innovation to use in the research.

First, it follows the general pattern that McNair describes in the wheel of retailing theory. It is a low-margin, low-price institution threatening traditional institutions which, through time, have traded-up causing margins and prices to rise. In addition to lower prices on general merchandise items, the one-stop shopping centers generally operate the food departments with prices which

⁸A further review of Rogers' work in the area of diffusion and adoption research can be found in Chapter II, "Shopping Behavior and Innovation."

are five to seven percent below prices in conventional supermarkets.⁹ At present levels, this means the one-stop shopping centers are operating the food departments at approximately seventeen percent gross margin rather than the twenty-two percent found in most conventional supermarkets.

Secondly, the one-stop shopping center is a recent and growing institutional innovation. Gray Matter (a publication of Gray Advertising, Inc.) reports that, "According to Barron's, discount stores (counting food volume) are slightly ahead of conventional department stores in total volume."¹⁰ They predict that if the present growth rate continues, discount retailing will reach twenty billion dollars by 1970.

Thirdly, the one-stop shopping center is generally distinguishable from conventional counterparts. The general pattern is to have both general merchandise and food under a common roof with no walls or barriers separating the two areas. Without dividing walls or barriers, the consumer can freely shop all departments within the store before proceeding to the checkout area. The increased

⁹"Behind the New Wave Discount Super Revolution," Chain Store Age, Vol. 43 (Nov., 1967), p. 88.

¹⁰Gray Advertising, Inc., Gray Matter, Volume 38, Number 5 (May, 1967), p. 2.

emphasis on convenience and time found in the American culture today makes this freedom of movement an important "plus" in favor of the one-stop shopping center.

The early success of the one-stop shopping center indicates that it has filled a need in the market place. A recent study conducted in nine cities indicates that sixty-two percent of the women queried say that they shop in discount stores and that food is part of the attraction.¹¹

The continued acceptance and growth of the new one-stop shopping center as an institutional innovation depends, however, on its continued consumer acceptance. The continued acceptance and growth is a difficult prediction to make, since little is known about the specific market segments responsible for the innovation's present acceptance. The shopper who concentrates food purchases in the one-stop shopping center may be no different than the conventional supermarket shopper, or she may be entirely different in terms of socio-economic characteristics, purchase motivation and purchase behavior. In addition, the market segments being served by the one-stop shopping center may change over time.

Some research has been done on consumers who have accepted another institutional innovation--the general merchandise discount house. One study found that the

¹¹Ibid., p. 2.

general merchandise discount house and the conventional department store each had distinct images to the American consumer and appeal to different market segments.¹² The style and quality of merchandise, as well as clerk service, were important factors to the department store customer, whereas price and bargains were more important to the customer of the price-appeal or discount stores.

In most of these studies, family income and life-cycle concepts have been key variables in segmenting the market to identify heavy-user segments for each type of retail institution. Whereas the middle-income shopper forms the base for both types of institution, higher-income shoppers and the older shoppers do the majority of their shopping in the department store. The study also indicated that heavy users of discount outlets tended to be either lower-income families, or younger families with children at home.¹³

Since there are a number of differences between the general merchandise discount shopper and the department store shopper, the distinct possibility exists that the

¹²Stuart Rich and Bernard Portis, "Clues for Action From Shopper Preferences," *Harvard Business Review* (March-April, 1963), pp. 132-149. Also Rich and Portis, "The 'Imageries' of Department Stores," *Journal of Marketing* (April, 1964), pp. 10-15.

¹³A further review of this area can be found in Chapter II, "Shopping Behavior and Innovation."

behavior and preference patterns may carry over into the purchase of food. It may be that there are distinctive market segments being served by the one-stop shopping center, with its lowered margin food department, and the conventional supermarket. The shoppers adopting the institutional innovation may be significantly different than the shopper frequenting the conventional supermarket in terms of socio-economic characteristics, purchase motivation and behavior patterns.

If significant differences can be identified between consumers frequenting the one-stop shopping center and the conventional supermarket, then a definite segmentation of the consumer market is occurring in response to the institutional innovation. To determine if segmentation is occurring, the first step is to identify the consumers presently being served by each type of institution. With specific identifying characteristics known, the role of each institution in the industry can be identified, and changes occurring in the industry better understood.

Statement of the Problem

The research investigates the segmentation of the consumer market resulting from the introduction of an institutional innovation into a market previously served by conventional retail outlets. The first area of the research attempts to isolate key socio-economic variables that will

result in an accurate identification of appropriate market segments. A second area identifies purchase motivation factors. The third area of the research studies behavior patterns and patronage loyalty with respect to food purchasing. The fourth area investigates related areas of consumer decision making. A final area of the research studies how earlier adopters of the institutional innovation differ from later adopters in terms of the above variables. This will indicate any change in market segments responding to the institutional innovation over time.

Specifically, the research is focused on the following major questions:

1. What are the key socio-economic variables which will lead to an identification of that segment of the consumer market most likely to frequent a one-stop shopping center rather than a conventional supermarket?

2. What element, or elements, in an institution's marketing mix have the greatest motivational effect on the consumer in selecting a specific retail institution to patronize?

3. Is there a significant difference in terms of purchase behavior and patronage loyalty between consumers who shop in one-stop shopping centers and consumers who shop in conventional supermarkets?

4. Does this preference for purchasing food in a one-stop shopping center carry over to a preference

for patronizing lowered-margin institutions in other areas of consumer purchasing?

5. Is there a significant difference between the earlier adopter and the later adopter of the one-stop shopping center in terms of socio-economic variables, purchase motivation, purchase behavior and patronage loyalty?

Hypotheses

The fundamental premise of the research is that certain key socio-economic, purchase motivation and purchase behavior variables can be used to determine which consumers are most likely to patronize specific retail institutions. The specific research hypotheses are based on the premise that the variables can be identified and analyzed as a means of segmenting the market to better delineate the market segments being served by each type of retail institution.

The guiding and research hypotheses cover five general areas of investigation:

1. The profile of the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the one-stop shopping center is significantly different than the profile of the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the conventional supermarket.

1.A. Consumers who concentrate food purchases in the one-stop shopping center differ from consumers who concentrate food purchases in the conventional supermarket in terms of:

- 1.A.1. Family Income;
- 1.A.2. Age of the Household Head;
- 1.A.3. Occupation of the Household Head;
- 1.A.4. Family Size;
- 1.A.5. Level of Formal Education;
- 1.A.6. Family Life Cycle;
- 1.A.7. Social Class.

2. The importance of the various elements in an institution's marketing mix to the consumer in motivating her to frequent a particular institution varies significantly between the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the one-stop shopping center and the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the conventional supermarket.

2.A. The importance of elements in the institution's marketing mix varies between the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the one-stop shopping center and the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the conventional supermarket in terms of:

- 2.A.1. Price;
- 2.A.2. Quality;

2.A.3. Trading Stamps and Promotional Games;

2.A.4. Coupons and Price Specials;

2.A.5. Private Label Merchandise.

3. The purchase behavior and patronage loyalty of the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the one-stop shopping center is significantly different than the purchase behavior and patronage loyalty of the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the conventional supermarket.

3.A. Consumers who concentrate food purchases in the one-stop shopping center differ from consumers who concentrate food purchases in the conventional supermarket in terms of:

3.A.1. Number of Stores Shopped;

3.A.2. Percent of Shopping Done in First Choice Store;

3.A.3. Average Size of the Customer Order;

3.A.4. Number of Shopping Trips to Purchase Food Per Week;

3.A.5. Distribution of Purchases by Day of the Week.

4. Consumer preference for purchasing food in the one-stop shopping center or the conventional supermarket carries over into other areas of consumer purchasing behavior.

4.A. Consumers who concentrate food purchases in the one-stop shopping center are more likely to shop in similar lowered-margin retail institutions than are customers who concentrate food purchases in the conventional supermarket when they shop for:

4.A.1. Convenience Goods;

4.A.2. Shopping Goods;

4.A.3. Specialty Goods.

4.B. Consumers who concentrate food purchases in the one-stop shopping center are more likely to be catalog shoppers than are consumers who concentrate food purchases in the conventional supermarket.

5. Earlier adopters of the one-stop shopping center are significantly different than later adopters of the one-stop shopping center.

5.A. Earlier adopters differ from later adopters in terms of socio-economic characteristics.

5.B. Earlier adopters differ from later adopters in terms of the motivational effect of the various elements in the institution's marketing mix.

5.C. Earlier adopters differ from later adopters in terms of purchase behavior and patronage loyalty.

5.D. Earlier adopters differ from later adopters in terms of the carry over of purchase behavior to other areas of consumer purchase decisions.

Methodology¹⁴

The research study is based on personal interviews with 159 family consuming units. The families participating in the research were all geographically located within a five minute drive of both the one-stop shopping center and several conventional supermarkets.¹⁵

A complete enumeration of all housing units within the geographically concentrated area was used as the population for the research. From the population a sample of 200 housing units were randomly drawn. The interviews were made in the respondent's home by experienced female interviewers hired and trained for the research. The average interview was completed in approximately forty minutes. All interviews were made with the housewife in each consuming unit.

Upon completion of the interview period, which took two weeks, the data collected were transferred to punch

¹⁴A complete section on Methodology can be found in Chapter III, "Research Design."

¹⁵See Figure 3-1 on p. 78.

cards and tabulated. The survey findings were then subjected to statistical tests to accept or reject the research hypotheses.

Potential Contributions of the Research

The primary contribution of the research is to develop a body of knowledge about a distinct segment of the consumer market to determine the extent to which this segment's socio-economic characteristics, purchase motivation and purchase behavior differs from the entire population of consumers. The extent to which the segment served by the institutional innovation differs from the population indicates the extent to which the adopters of such an institution differ from the general population. If these adopters can be identified, the process of acceptance for an institutional innovation can be accelerated. This would result in a better matching of retail offerings to market demand.

Thus, the research assumes an extremely broad definition of the marketing concept. The marketing concept is the philosophy that the business enterprise takes its cues from, and adjusts to, the market. Under the philosophy, the enterprise adjusts not only its product offering, but rather the enterprise itself adjusts in an effort to match marketing effort with market opportunity.

A second, and related, contribution of the research is a better understanding of market segmentation as it exists in an industry which is vital to the growth and well being of the United States economy. With this knowledge, the present and future role of the various types of institutions comprising the industry can be evaluated.

A third contribution of the research is a better understanding of the "Wheel of Retailing" theory. By studying the changing structure of retailing as an on-going process of consumer acceptance, knowledge is gained as to the causes of the rise and fall of specific retail institutions. In addition, knowledge of the adoption process as it applies to the acceptance of institutional innovations is gained.

A fourth contribution of the research is the knowledge to be gained about the extent of carry-over between food purchasing and other related consumer purchase decisions. The research should indicate the extent to which purchase motivation and purchase behavior are similar in different consumer decision areas.

A fifth contribution of the research is a knowledge of the differences between earlier and later adopters of an institutional innovation. This knowledge should allow a continual adjustment of the innovational institution's marketing mix in an effort to better serve the market.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations of the study are as follows:

1. The geographic area of the research was extremely concentrated. All consuming units interviewed in the research were taken from an area approximately one mile wide and three miles long. While visual observation confirms the belief that the area contains a wide divergence in housing types, income levels and social classes, the area is not necessarily representative of the entire metropolitan area. In addition, the reader is cautioned against applying the data generated in the research to other metropolitan areas.

2. It is apparent that the research area was severely "under-stored" in the market offering of food outlets prior to the introduction of the one-stop shopping center. This may be a contributing factor to the early success which the institutional innovation enjoyed in this case. This may also have had some effect on the types of consumers who have chosen the outlet as their primary source of supply for food.

Organization

The remainder of the study is organized into four chapters. Chapter II presents a review of the literature relevant to the research. The areas reviewed are:

- 1) Market Segmentation; 2) General Merchandise Shopping

Behavior; 3) Food Shopping Behavior; and 4) Adoption of Innovation Behavior. Chapter III presents a complete description of the research design used in the study.

The research findings are presented in Chapter IV. The results of the completed research design are presented in tables as a basis for the evaluation of the hypotheses generated in Chapter I. Chapter V is an analysis of the findings with respect to the various research hypotheses. In addition, Chapter V contains the conclusions of the research and presents suggested areas for further research.

CHAPTER II

SHOPPING BEHAVIOR AND INNOVATION

Chapter II presents a review of relevant research pertaining to the areas of market segmentation, shopping behavior and the innovator.

The first section reviews the concept of market segmentation and briefly reports on a number of studies that have been done in the area. The second section reviews conventional and discount shopping with respect to the purchase of general merchandise. The third section discusses conventional and discount shopping with respect to food purchases. The final section reviews the processes of innovation and adoption and reports on some of the recent studies which have relevance to the research.

The Concept of Market Segmentation

Staudt and Taylor¹ have pointed out that, generally ". . . a firm seeks to grow and perpetuate itself, in addition to earning for its owners, managers, and employers an

¹Thomas A. Staudt and Donald A. Taylor, A Managerial Introduction to Marketing (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965).

ever-improving return for effort."² To accomplish this objective in an affluent economy such as we have in the United States today, a firm must accept, and operate under, the marketing concept with its inherent orientation toward the consumer. Operating under a market orientation the firm performs the role of ". . . analyzing, organizing, planning and controlling . . . the firm's customer-impinging resources, policies, and activities with a view to satisfying the needs and wants of chosen customer groups at a profit."³

The market orientation is an important change from the production and selling orientations that most firms have followed in the past. Under the current marketing concept, ". . . the consumer becomes the fulcrum, the pivot point about which the business moves in operating for the balanced best interest of all concerned."⁴ With a market orientation as the guiding philosophy of a business organization, a firm attempts to adjust not only its product offering, but rather adjusts the entire firm itself to

²Ibid., p. 3.

³Philip Kotler, Marketing Management, Analysis, Planning and Control (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967), p. 12.

⁴Fred J. Borch, "The Marketing Philosophy as a Way of Business Life," in William Lazer and Eugene J. Kelley (ed.), Managerial Marketing: Perspectives and Viewpoints, Second Edition (Homewood, Ill.: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1962), p. 15.

changes occurring in the market place. Only through this process of adjusting the enterprise to changes constantly occurring in the market, can the firm efficiently match marketing effort with market opportunity.

Kelley and Lazer enlarge on this concept of adjustment when they state that, "A major marketing management task is that of adapting to market opportunity through planned innovation. Planned innovation is a basic characteristic of the modern marketing concept. Planned marketing involves both adjusting to the innovations of competitors and providing creative counter innovation by the firm."⁵ Interpreted broadly, the emphasis of the passage is that of adjusting the firm's market offering to consumer needs and desires. In attempting to accomplish the desired adjustment of marketing effort to market opportunity (consumer wants), a number of important areas of research have been undertaken in the discipline of marketing.

One particularly useful area of research has been that of market segmentation. Market segmentation recognizes the fact that there is not a single, large market of consumers, but rather a large number of smaller market segments relevant to specific products. Stated more concisely,

⁵Eugene J. Kelley and William Lazer (ed.), Managerial Marketing: Perspectives and Viewpoints, Third Edition (Homewood, Ill.: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1967), p. 12.

market segmentation ". . . consists of viewing a heterogeneous market (one characterized by divergent demand) as a number of smaller homogeneous markets in response to differing product preferences among important market segments."⁶

In the same article by Smith, the author enlarges the definition as follows:

Segmentation is based upon developments on the demand side of the market and represents a rational and more precise adjustment of product and marketing effort to consumer or user requirements. In the language of the economist, segmentation is disaggregative in its effects and tends to bring about recognition of several demand schedules where only one was recognized before.⁷

To date a number of researchers have successfully utilized the concept of market segmentation to better delineate and identify relevant segments of the market. One of the variables that has been used in a number of different studies is social class. In an article entitled "Social Class and Consumer Behavior," Sidney Levy reports that social class has been used successfully to segment markets in a number of situations.⁸ Of particular interest to the research is the effect of social class on shopping behavior.

⁶Wendell R. Smith, "Product Differentiation and Market Segmentation as Alternative Marketing Strategies" in Kelley and Lazer, op. cit., p. 201.

⁷Ibid., pp. 200-201.

⁸Sidney Levy, "Social Class and Consumer Behavior" in Joseph Newman (ed.), On Knowing the Consumer (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966), pp. 146-160.

Levy reports that social status appears to affect how people feel about where they shop. According to the article, shoppers tend to purchase goods in retail outlets which have status "images" similar to the shoppers own social status. High status shoppers tend to shop in high status stores while low status shoppers frequent stores with a lower status where they feel comfortable shopping.

The author also indicates that consumers from different social classes exhibit different shopping behavior. According to the article:

The upper middle class woman organizes shopping more purposefully and efficiently than women of lower status . . . lower middle class women "work" more at shopping, showing more anxiety about it, finding non-food purchases especially demanding and tedious . . . [and] lower class women are most impulsive about shopping, the least organized.⁹

In a second study, Martineau reports similar findings on the usefulness of using social class as a means of segmenting the market.¹⁰ Martineau reports that in the retail food industry, consumer profiles show that each retail chain acquires a status definition. The research indicates that in Chicago, where both A & P and Jewel are large grocery chains, ". . . A & P is strong with the mass

⁹Ibid., p. 154.

¹⁰Pierre Martineau, "Social Class and Spending Behavior," Journal of Marketing, Vol. XXIII (October, 1958), pp. 121-130.

market, whereas Jewel has its strength among the middle class."¹¹

Martineau summarizes the findings of the research by stating that:

Each major department store, furniture store, and grocery chain has a different "pulling power" on different status groups. The usual customers of a store gradually direct the store's merchandising policies into a pattern which works. The interaction between store policy and consumer acceptance results in the elimination of certain customer groups and the attraction of others, with resulting equilibrium around a reasonably stable core of specific customer groups who think of the store as appropriate for them.¹²

A third study of the application of social class to market segmentation should be mentioned.¹³ In the study, Carman summarizes the theory of social class as developed in sociology and marketing research, and reports a number of findings on the measurement of the concept. In general, the conclusions of the study are that: (1) it is possible to use social class theory in a fashion useful to marketing; (2) it is possible to subdivide classes into a few gross, but homogeneous groups which can be identified simply; and (3) persons in each of the groups do exhibit differences which may be useful in planning segmented marketing strategies.

¹¹Ibid., p. 127.

¹²Ibid., pp. 129-130.

¹³James M. Carman, The Application of Social Class in Market Segmentation (Berkeley: Institute of Business and Economic Research, University of California, 1965).

A second variable frequently used in market segmentation is life-cycle. Life-cycle generally is a marriage of the age of the household head and the ages of the children living at home. One study, again reporting on shopping behavior, found that "Younger women shop more often than older women, but presence of children did not make any significant difference within the two age groups."¹⁴ In addition, the study indicated that younger people showed more of a tendency to shop in shopping centers than did older persons.

Lansing and Kish in another article have discussed the general use of the life-cycle variable as a means of segmenting the market.¹⁵ The authors state that in each of the areas of consumer behavior that they had researched, family life-cycle was a better indicator of behavior than was age. The article concludes by stating that ". . . life cycle should be adopted more widely as an independent variable."¹⁶

¹⁴Stuart U. Rich and Subhash C. Jain, "Social Class and Life Cycle as Predictors of Shopping Behavior," Journal of Marketing Research, Vol. V (February, 1968), p. 45.

¹⁵John B. Lansing and Leslie Kish, "Family Life Cycle as an Independent Variable," in Ralph Day (ed.), Marketing Models, Quantitative and Behavioral (Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Textbook Company, 1964), pp. 256-268.

¹⁶Ibid., p. 267.

Similar research findings have been found using a number of different variables as the basis for market segmentation. Some of the more conventional variables that have been used are age,¹⁷ race,^{18,19} and occupation.²⁰ In addition, a number of more complex variables have also been used to segment markets. Among the other variables are personality,²¹ mobility,²² innovativeness,²³ brand loyalty,²⁴ and private-brand proneness.²⁵

¹⁷Sidney Goldstein, "The Aged Segment of the Market, 1950 and 1960," Journal of Marketing, Vol. 32 (April, 1968), pp. 62-68.

¹⁸Milton Alexander, "The Significance of Ethnic Groups in Marketing New-Type Packaged Foods in Greater New York," in Lynn H. Stockman (ed.), Advancing Marketing Efficiency (Chicago: American Marketing Association, 1959).

¹⁹Raymond A. Bauer, "Negro Consumer Behavior," in Joseph Newman (ed.), On Knowing the Consumer (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966), pp. 161-165.

²⁰The Working Man: Do Marketing Men Know Him," Printers Ink, Vol. CCLXXVII (December 1, 1961), pp. 48-49.

²¹Morris J. Gottlieb, "Segmentation by Personality Types," in Lynn H. Stockman (ed.), Advancing Marketing Efficiency (Chicago: American Marketing Association, 1959), pp. 148-158.

²²James E. Bell, Jr., "An Analysis of the Decision Process Utilized by Long Distance Mobile Families in Selecting New Sources of Supply for Goods and Services," Unpublished D.B.A. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1967.

²³William E. Bell, "Consumer Innovation: An Investigation of Selected Characteristics of Innovators," Unpublished D.B.A. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1962.

²⁴Ronald E. Frank, "Is Brand Loyalty a Useful Basis for Market Segmentation," Journal of Advertising Research, Vol. 7 (June, 1967), pp. 27-33.

In the majority of these studies, the researchers found the respective variables useful in identifying homogeneous segments of the total market. Some of the findings have relevance to the research and are briefly reviewed below to give the reader a better idea of the areas in which market segmentation has been used.

Bauer, in analyzing the Negro market concludes that ". . . from reports on shopping behavior, we have indications of a self-segmented market."²⁶ The article indicates that Negro consumers show much more anxiety about products and the making of product decisions than do white consumers. In addition, the negro market is a great deal more brand conscience and brand loyal than the white market.

Frank and Boyd report that they found private-brand-prone (PBP) grocery shoppers to be somewhat different than grocery shoppers who were not private-brand-prone.

The article states that:

There are some relatively small associations between private-brand-proneness and household socio-economic and consumption patterns. Larger families have a higher PBP than do small ones. The greater a household head's education, the higher is the expected level of a household's PBP . . . households with high consumption rates are more apt to be private-brand-prone.²⁷

²⁵ Ronald E. Frank and Harper W. Boyd, Jr., "Are Private-Brand-Prone Grocery Customers Really Different?," Journal of Advertising Research, Vol. 5 (December, 1965), pp. 27-36.

²⁶ Raymond A. Bauer, op. cit., p. 164.

²⁷ Ronald E. Frank and Harper W. Boyd, Jr., op. cit., p. 35.

In another article, Frank concludes that brand loyalty is not very useful in the segmentation of markets.

Frank states:

The pattern of results for brand loyalty as a basis for market segmentation in food products is not encouraging. Brand loyal customers almost completely lack identifiability in terms of either socio-economic or personality characteristics.²⁸

With the exception of the last study, the use of market segmentation reported in each of the articles above has allowed the researcher to more accurately identify a relevant market through identification of smaller homogeneous segments of the total market, rather than using the concept of the more heterogeneous "mass market." Such an identification allows a firm to reduce marketing inefficiencies by narrowing the mass market into more responsive target markets. In this way the firm can better match its marketing effort with market opportunity.

General Merchandise Shopping Behavior

The General Nature of Shopping

Consumer shopping behavior has undergone a number of important changes during the last two decades. Approximately twenty years ago, at the end of World War II, the vast majority of all consumer purchases were concentrated

²⁸Ronald E. Frank, op. cit., p. 33.

in the nation's central business districts. While there were a few planned suburban shopping centers in existence, they accounted for a relatively small percent of retail sales. Today, this is no longer the case.

While the present study is primarily concerned with the shifts in retail patronage occurring within the metropolitan area, a study recently completed at Michigan State University merits mention.²⁹ The study, by Cox and Erickson, indicates a long-run shift in consumer purchase patterns away from the metropolitan areas. According to the study, ". . . since 1929 there has been a relative decentralization of retail sales, in that retail sales in non-metropolitan areas are increasing at a faster rate relative to population and income than are sales in metropolitan areas."³⁰ Two of the reasons posited for the shift are an increasing emphasis on convenience, and the increasing efficiency and effectiveness of the small town retailer. The shift in shopping patterns shown in the Cox and Erickson study is a shift occurring in addition to the shifts occurring within the metropolitan areas which are reviewed below.

²⁹ Eli P. Cox and Leo G. Erickson, Retail Decentralization (East Lansing, Michigan: Bureau of Business and Economic Research, Michigan State University, 1967).

³⁰ Ibid., p. 61.

Within the metropolitan area, two important changes in retail offerings have been primarily responsible for the change in purchase patterns. Each was undertaken in an attempt to follow the changing spatial and demand patterns of the consumer market. First, came the acceptance, and rapid growth, of the planned suburban shopping center. Second, came the acceptance and patronage of the now familiar discount house across the nation. Both changes in the retail offering have caused drastic shifts in the patterns of shopping behavior exhibited by the American consumer.

A great many reasons can be given to explain this shift that is evident. Certainly, the increased mobility of the consumer and the migration of the "masses" from the urban areas are partly responsible. Likewise, increasing affluence and an emphasis on leisure are also responsible. In fact, the whole changing style of life in the United States is responsible for these shifts in shopping behavior and retail offerings.

Kelley attempts to explain these changes in consumer purchasing behavior through the constructs of "commodity costs" and "convenience costs." According to the article, "Commodity costs are defined as the monetary price paid the seller to obtain possession of goods and services (while), . . . convenience costs are incurred through the expenditure of time, physical and nervous energy, and money required to overcome the frictions of space and time, and

to obtain possession of goods and services."³¹ Kelley feels consumers making purchase decisions attempt to achieve an equilibrium between commodity costs and convenience costs, and that presently convenience costs are becoming more important as patronage determinants.³²

The author also states that, "The new emphasis on convenience does not necessarily mean that the consumers are less price conscious than formerly; rather, insistence of convenience cost minimization has been superimposed on the desire for economically favorable commodity transactions."³³ Hence, consumers making purchase decisions attempt to balance both the economic and the convenience aspects of the decision and purchase at the point where the sum of the commodity costs and the convenience costs are minimized.

The fact that consumers attempt to minimize total shopping effort does not mean, however, that consumers no longer like to shop. Another study gathered information from over four thousand women shoppers in two major metropolitan cities.³⁴ The study reported that, "As a testimony

³¹Eugene J. Kelley, "The Importance of Convenience in Consumer Purchasing," in Kelley and Lazer, op. cit., p. 155.

³²Ibid., p. 155.

³³Ibid., pp. 155-156.

³⁴Stuart U. Rich, Shopping Behavior of Department Store Customers (Boston: Harvard University Press, 1963).

to the popularity of shopping, virtually all of the women in New York and Cleveland went shopping for clothing and things for the household, with half of them doing so at least twice a month."³⁵ When asked about enjoyment in shopping, approximately two-thirds of the women interviewed stated that they "really enjoy" shopping, while only 16 percent stated that they "actually dislike" to shop.³⁶

The facts would seem to indicate that even though the consumer is shifting buying patterns to minimize shopping effort, the reason for these shifts does not come from an actual dislike of the shopping process itself.

The Central City vs. the Shopping Center

In the mid-fifties a study of shopping patterns in three major metropolitan markets was undertaken in an attempt to better understand how consumers in the three markets met their shopping needs. The results of the study were reported in The Shopping Center Versus Downtown.³⁷ According to the study the three major disadvantages of the central business district, in order of importance, were 1) difficulty in parking, 2) too crowded to enjoy

³⁵Ibid., p. 61.

³⁶Ibid., p. 65.

³⁷C. T. Jonassen, The Shopping Center Versus Downtown (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1955).

shopping, and 3) traffic congestion. The advantages, in order of their importance were, 1) large selection of goods, 2) the fact that several errands could be completed at one time, and 3) cheaper prices.³⁸

Opinions concerning suburban shopping centers were less uniform. Respondents in all three cities did agree however that the chief advantage was closeness to home. The disadvantages were 1) lack of a large selection, 2) not all kinds of businesses represented, and 3) prices too high.³⁹

Jonassen felt that the results of the study strongly indicated that the advantages of the central business district minimized the disadvantages. The fact that the central business district has continued to decline would seem to indicate that the disadvantages associated with the downtown area were greater than his study first indicated. On the other hand, the suburban shopping center through its continued growth has done much to eliminate the disadvantages he found associated with these centers.

Since the Jonassen study was conducted in the early fifties, the central business district has been slow to respond to the problems of parking and traffic congestion.

³⁸Ibid., p. 90.

³⁹Ibid., p. 90.

Only now, in the late sixties are most of the large cities accepting the realism of the problems and actively attempting to correct them. The solution would appear to be a few years away, however.

A 1965 study, Parking in the City Center, reported on the continuing problem.⁴⁰ According to the study, "The nation's urban centers are striving for a new equilibrium attuned to the motor vehicle--an adaptation essential for their continued prosperity."⁴¹ While the cities are now aware of the problem, the question still remains whether the cities can do enough to "off-set" the problems of parking and traffic congestion soon enough to save the cities.

The study clearly delineates the fact that more downtown travelers will come from auto-oriented suburban areas in the future years, increasing the magnitude of the problem. For example, it was established that Philadelphia's downtown core will require an additional 6000 parking spaces in 1970, as compared with the 3000 additional spaces required in 1960. The findings were similar for the other cities studied in the research.

On the other hand, suburban shopping centers have continued to grow and prosper over the same period of time,

⁴⁰ Wilber Smith and Associates, Parking in the City Center (New Haven, Connecticut: Wilber Smith and Associates, 1965).

⁴¹ Ibid., p. iii.

till they have become part of the American way of life. While the 1957 edition of the Directory of Shopping Centers listed some 2000 shopping centers, the 1967 edition listed over 10,000 different centers in existence.⁴² In addition to the tremendous growth in number of shopping centers, the centers have grown in terms of stature and acceptance also. As one source reports, ". . . in almost every way conceivable, shopping centers will transplant all the services and activities of the central city core to the new centers of population in the suburbs."⁴³

Department Store vs. Discount House

Ever since the nation's first full-line discount store, E. J. Korvette, Inc., opened its doors in 1955 the discount industry has continued its rapid growth. Gray Matter reports that as far back as 1965 the industry had sales of over thirteen billion dollars and that discount stores (including food sales) had passed conventional department stores in total dollar sales.⁴⁴ Another study

⁴²National Research Bureau, Shopping Center Directory (Chicago: Published annually since 1957).

⁴³"Urban Travel Patterns for Airports, Shopping Centers, and Industrial Plants," in National Cooperative Highway Research Program Report 24 (Highway Research Board, 1966), p. 33.

⁴⁴Gray Advertising, Inc., Gray Matter, Vol. 38 (May, 1967).

indicated that sixty-three percent of all people interviewed had shopped in a discount store within the last month.⁴⁵

In a separate article reporting the findings of the Rich and Portis study carried out in New York City and Cleveland, the authors state that ". . . both the discount stores and the department stores have strong distinctive appeals."⁴⁶ Their research indicated that ". . . the main strengths of the department stores lie in the quality of their merchandise, their reputation and reliability, their salesclerk service, and other services."⁴⁷ In addition, the research indicated that ". . . price appeal stands out for the discount stores, in terms of both good value and lower prices, although the latter is by far the stronger reason of the two when it is compared with the store preference reasons for particular department stores."⁴⁸

The study also indicated that, "Salesclerk service and other traditional department store services such as delivery, charge accounts, and so on, are of major importance to the large proportion of women who say that

⁴⁵"14th Annual Study of Super Market Shoppers," (Cincinnati, Ohio: Burgoyne Index, Inc., 1967), p. 38.

⁴⁶Stuart Rich and Bernard Portis, "Clues for Action From Shopper Preferences," Harvard Business Review (March-April, 1963), p. 132.

⁴⁷Ibid., p. 139.

⁴⁸Ibid., p. 139.

department stores are easier places to shop in than are discount stores."⁴⁹ Conversely, ". . . to another sizeable group of women who prefer the discount store . . . the self-service of the discount store is also of major importance."⁵⁰

Analyzing the consumers who shop in discount stores, the study found that, ". . . seventy percent of New York women and sixty percent of Cleveland women do at least some of their shopping in discount stores . . . and nineteen percent of the women in New York and twelve percent of those in Cleveland can be considered to be high frequency shoppers, since they do half or more of their shopping in these stores."⁵¹

In addition, they substantiated two other facts in the research. First, the research indicated that, "Discount shopping . . . tends to be more popular among the lower-and middle-income women."⁵² Secondly, "Younger women patronize discount stores more than do older women . . . and women with children, regardless of age, do more discount shopping than those without children."⁵³

⁴⁹Ibid., p. 143.

⁵⁰Ibid., p. 143.

⁵¹Ibid., p. 135.

⁵²Ibid., p. 135.

⁵³Ibid., p. 136.

Food Shopping Behavior

The food industry in the United States is a large and important industry to our country. In 1967 grocery store sales reached an all time high of seventy-four billion dollars.⁵⁴ This was about a five percent increase over 1966. Along with the continued increase in sales, has come continued increases in efficiency.

One study by a leading trade organization states the following:

Impressive evidence of the benefits to the average consumer from mounting efficiency in food production and marketing is found in the steadily decreasing share of income required to buy the family's food. The earliest study on record, in the 1870's, indicates that food took fifty eight percent of all the consumers earned. By 1965, the figure was 18.2 percent of disposable income--a sixty nine percent reduction.⁵⁵

The reduction is misleading however, since per capita disposable personal income rose significantly during the period.⁵⁶ If this figure is compared with most other countries, the efficiency of the system becomes evident. Disposable income spent for food in most countries exceeds

⁵⁴"Thirty-Fifth Annual Report of the Grocery Industry," Progressive Grocer (April, 1968), p. 79.

⁵⁵Progress in Food Distribution (Washington, D. C.: National Association of Food Chains, 1966), p. 8.

⁵⁶Per Capita D.P.I. rose over 112 percent between 1929 and 1967 alone. For more detail see Economic Report of the President (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1968). (See especially p. 227.)

thirty percent, and in many of the developing countries goes as high as seventy-five percent of disposable income.⁵⁷ The reduction in percent of income spent on food tells only part of the story. The 18.2 percent spent by consumers in the United States today buys more food, more convenience, higher quality, more variety and more services than ever before.

To accomplish the results, the retail segment of the industry has continually adapted to changing consumer needs. The development of the general store, the chain store, the supermarket,⁵⁸ and now the lowered-margin discount operation have all been shifts in the retail offering designed to better serve the consumer.

The most recent change in the retail offering is the rise of the discount supermarket, either as a free-standing unit or under the same roof as a general merchandise discount house. While the actual number of discount houses varies according to the source quoted, a Department of Agriculture study reports that these discount stores accounted for over eleven percent of all grocery store sales in 1965.⁵⁹

⁵⁷ Ibid., pp. 8-9.

⁵⁸ David L. Appel, "The Early Development of the Super Market As a Major American Retail Institution," Unpublished monograph, Food Marketing Program, Graduate School of Business Administration, Michigan State University, 1967.

⁵⁹ Gray Advertising, Inc., op. cit., p. 2.

The new discount supermarket is readily distinguishable from the conventional supermarket. Generally, operating a supermarket under the discount philosophy means ". . . operating the grocery department at an average drop of five points in gross profit percent; at a maximum seventeen percent gross instead of the conventional twenty-one to twenty-two percent."⁶⁰ The discounters usually operate a supermarket which is ". . . larger in selling area by 2,500 to 5,000 sq. ft. than the average . . . and uses price-oriented high pressure advertising (but no games or stamps) as their prime shopper lure."⁶¹ In addition, the new discounter generally ". . . offers lower everyday prices on virtually every grocery item in the supermarket."⁶² Several studies have been conducted which should prove useful to the research.

Progressive Grocer's "Annual Report"⁶³

The "Annual Report of the Grocery Industry," is published yearly in Progressive Grocer, a leading food industry publication. The report analyzes changes and

⁶⁰"Behind the New Wave Discount Super Revolution," Chain Store Age (November, 1967), p. 88.

⁶¹Ibid., p. 88.

⁶²Ibid., p. 90.

⁶³"Thirty-Fifth Annual Report of the Grocery Industry," op. cit.

trends occurring in the industry during the current year. While impossible to report all the findings here, a number of the findings relevant to the research will be reviewed.

The report substantiates the widely held belief that the retail segment of the industry is facing continually rising costs and shrinking margins. Table 2-1 shows the reported margins, expenses and net profits for food chains during the last five years.

TABLE 2-1
FOOD CHAIN MARGINS, EXPENSES AND
NET PROFITS FOR SELECTED YEARS

Item Reported	Year				
	1966- 1967	1965- 1966	1964- 1965	1963- 1964	1962- 1963
Margin on sales	22.23%	22.32%	22.48%	22.23%	22.13%
Total operating expense	21.33	21.38	21.20	21.11	21.13
Net operating profit	0.90	0.94	1.20	1.12	1.00
Net other income	1.33	1.46	1.46	1.50	1.53
Total net income before taxes	2.23	2.40	2.66	2.62	2.53
Net income after taxes	1.19	1.31	1.41	1.31	1.24

Source: Table adapted from p. 93 of the "Thirty-Fifth Annual Report of the Grocery Industry"

The data indicates that margins rose until the 1964-65 period. Since 1964-65 margins have declined while expenses have continued to climb upward. The result has been a decline in net income after tax from 1.41 percent in 1964-65 to 1.19 percent during the current reporting period of 1966-1967.

Another part of the report relevant to the research is concerned with prices and price awareness. The report indicated an increasing awareness of prices and total shopping dollars spent. Of the retailers surveyed, sixty-nine percent indicated that consumers were becoming more sensitive to price specials and sixty-five percent felt there was increasing sensitivity to price increases.⁶⁴

The increase in prices is shown in Table 2-2. The Table shows a five year trend in sales and the relative contribution of price changes and increased product movement. As the Table shows, in every year except 1966 the increase in sales has come more from increased tonnage movement than from rising prices.

A third area of interest that the report is concerned with is trading stamps. Table 2-3 shows the percent of stores using stamps. The Table was developed from the last five annual reports. Data for 1967 is not included due to a change in reporting format. The Table indicates

⁶⁴Ibid., p. 86.

that trading stamps have experienced a decline in usage over the last five years. The 1967 report also indicates a decline in usage. According to the study, ". . . the percent of food stores giving trading stamps showed its greatest single-year decline in 1967."⁶⁵ Stamp usage declined eight percent in regional and local chain operations from 44.5 percent of the organizations using stamps in January, 1967, to 39 percent using stamps a year later.⁶⁶ Independent store owners using stamps declined from 33.2 percent to 31.8 percent over the same time period.⁶⁷ The data from 1967 is not directly comparable with the earlier data.

TABLE 2-2

FIVE YEAR TREND IN SALES AND PRICES OF
MERCHANDISE DISTRIBUTED THROUGH
THE SUPERMARKET

Reason for Change	Year				
	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963
Total sales gain	4.9%	7.5%	6.1%	5.7%	5.4%
Tonnage gain	4.0	2.5	3.7	4.5	3.8
Retail price increase	0.9	5.0	2.4	1.2	1.6

Source: Table adapted from p. 80 of the "Thirty-Fifth Annual Report of the Grocery Industry"

⁶⁵Ibid., p. 80.

⁶⁶Ibid., p. 82.

⁶⁷Ibid., p. 82.

TABLE 2-3

GROCERY STORES USING TRADING STAMPS AS REPORTED
BY PROGRESSIVE GROCER MAGAZINE

Type of Store	1967	1966	Year 1965	1964	1963
Chain stores	N.A.	74%	77%	81%	85%
Independent stores	N.A.	21	22	23	38
All grocery stores	N.A.	25	24	25	64

Source: Data for Table 2-3 was compiled from the 1963 through 1967 Annual Reports by Progressive Grocer Magazine

"The Super Market Industry Speaks"⁶⁸

"The Super Market Industry Speaks" is the annual report published by Super Market Institute. The report is concerned with numerous different aspects of the industry such as sales, operating results, expansion, discounting, sales promotion, personnel and merchandising. Of particular interest to the research are the sections on sales promotion and discounting.

The section of the report on sales promotion deals primarily with trading stamp usage among Super Market Institute member companies. Table 2-4 is a composite of data reported in the 1963 through the 1968 annual report.

⁶⁸"The Super Market Industry Speaks 1967," Annual Report of the Members (Chicago: Super Market Institute, 1967).

The data indicates that stamp usage by member companies and stores increased rapidly until 1960. In 1962 there was another increase in usage, but at a much slower rate of growth. Since 1962, the trend has been one of declining usage. The decay in usage appears to be about as rapid as the growth was during the late fifties.

TABLE 2-4

TRADING STAMP USAGE AMONG SUPER MARKET
INSTITUTE MEMBERS FOR SELECTED YEARS

Companies and stores using trading stamps	Year							
	1968	1966	1964	1962	1960	1958	1956	1954
Percentage of companies	38%	48%	54%	56%	51%	47%	39%	15%
Percentage of stores	46	61	70	78	72	58	40	13

Source: Data for Table 2-4 was compiled from the 1954 through 1968 reports from Super Market Institute.

The other area of interest to the research is the extent to which food retailers are engaging in discount operations, either in free-standing discount supermarkets or under the same roof with a general merchandise discount house. Table 2-5 shows the data.

The Table indicates that a significant number of Super Market Institute members are engaged in the discount revolution. Presently, thirteen percent of the members

operate food stores in discount houses and another sixteen percent operate free-standing discount supermarkets. Combining both types of operation, the stores account for approximately fifteen percent of the member stores. As can be seen in the Table, the percentage represents approximately three times as many member stores as were involved in discounting in 1963. While too early to tell, it does appear from the data that this growth has leveled out during the last two years.

TABLE 2-5

SUPER MARKET INSTITUTE MEMBERS ENGAGED IN FOOD
DISCOUNTING THROUGH DISCOUNT HOUSES
AND/OR DISCOUNT SUPERMARKETS

Number and percent of stores	Year			
	1968	1967	1965	1963
Members operating food store in discount house	13%	12%	11%	10%
Percent of member stores	4	4	4	2.5
Members operating discount supermarkets	16	15	16	12
Percent of member stores	10	10	5	3

Source: Data for Table 2-5 compiled from 1963 through 1968 reports from Super Market Institute.

Burgoyne Index Study⁶⁹

The "Annual Study of Super Market Shoppers" is published annually by Burgoyne Index, Inc. The study reports the results of interviews with approximately 3,500 shoppers in a number of key cities throughout the country. The study is somewhat narrower in scope than the last two studies reviewed. The Burgoyne study is primarily concerned with consumer patronage motives, purchase behavior and purchase loyalty.

The first section of the study reports on actual consumer behavior patterns. Table 2-6 shows the number of food stores patronized. Of the consumers interviewed, eighty-four percent shopped in more than one supermarket, while only sixteen percent of those interviewed completed all their food shopping in a single store.

TABLE 2-6

NUMBER OF STORES SHOPPED TO PURCHASE FOOD

Number of stores shopped	Year				
	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963
One supermarket exclusively	16%	18%	17%	29%	25%
More than one	84	82	83	71	75

Source: Table adapted from p. 10 of the "Fourteenth Annual Study of Super/Market Shoppers"

⁶⁹"14th Annual Study of Super Market Shoppers,"
op. cit.

The data would seem to indicate a trend toward, and pattern of, multiple store shopping. Those shoppers who frequent more than one store, shop in approximately 2.8 different stores to complete their food shopping.⁷⁰ The respondents evidently do not shop in each store every week, however. The average number of stores shopped per week was 1.6.⁷¹ In terms of shopping trips per week, Table 2-7 indicates that forty-nine percent of the respondents shop once a week, or less, while fifty-one percent shop at least twice a week.

TABLE 2-7
NUMBER OF SHOPPING TRIPS PER WEEK
TO PURCHASE FOOD

Shopping trips per week	Year				
	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963
Once a week or less	49%	47%	48%	54%	55%
Twice a week	26	25	26	24	24
Three times a week	15	16	16	13	13
Four or five times a week	6	7	7	7	6
Every day	4	5	3	2	2
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: Table adapted from p. 25 of the "Fourteenth Annual Study of Super Market Shoppers"

⁷⁰Ibid., p. 11.

⁷¹Ibid., p. 13.

A second section of the study is concerned with determining which factors are most important to supermarket shoppers. As Table 2-8 shows, "low prices on groceries" was the most important factor to consumers for the second year in a row. Approximately thirty-two percent of all shoppers interviewed felt that low prices were the most important factor. The second and the third most important factors were "quality and freshness of meat" and "convenient location" with twenty-three percent and fifteen percent respectively.

It is interesting to note the reversal that occurred between 1965 and 1966. Prior to 1966, the quality and freshness of meat was the leading factor mentioned by shoppers as the reason for shopping in a specific store. As of 1966, the primary factor in food store selection shifted away from quality and freshness of meats to lower prices on groceries. The change in emphasis was probably a reaction to rapidly rising meat prices during 1966, although a generally rising awareness of the total food bill may have been responsible also.

A third area of interest from the study is concerned with trading stamps. In the metropolitan areas surveyed, approximately eighty-four percent of the people interviewed received trading stamps and eighty-two percent saved them. The study also indicated that, of the "savers," about sixty percent save two or more different brands of

trading stamps and ninety-seven percent express a preference for a specific stamp.⁷² Table 2-9 shows the trend in saving trading stamps for the last six years.

TABLE 2-8

DETERMINING FACTORS IN SUPERMARKET SELECTION
MENTIONED FIRST BY CONSUMERS

Factor mentioned first	Year				
	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963
Low prices on groceries	31.9	30.5	22.5	21.7	20.3
Quality and freshness of meats	23.2	22.6	27.0	25.4	29.7
Convenient location	14.5	13.7	13.9	13.0	14.8
Attractiveness and cleanliness of store	10.0	11.0	11.7	15.7	12.8
Variety and selection of grocery merchandise	6.8	7.2	6.6	6.9	6.9
Quality and freshness of fruits and vegetables	2.7	3.5	3.9	4.3	4.2

Source: Table adapted from p. 23 in the "Fourteenth Annual Study of Super Market Shoppers"

Table 2-10 indicates that the study found an increasing awareness of the costs involved in giving trading stamps. Approximately two-thirds of the shoppers felt that supermarkets giving trading stamps charged higher prices. Only twenty-nine percent felt the prices were the same.

⁷²Ibid., p. 34.

In addition, when posed with the question of whether they would rather shop in a store giving trading stamps or an identical store with prices two cents less on the dollar, seventy-nine percent chose the latter. Table 2-11 shows that the percent of shoppers preferring lower prices to stamps has risen over the last five years.

TABLE 2-9
TRADING STAMP SAVING BEHAVIOR REPORTED
FOR CONSUMERS BY BURGOYNE STUDY

Year	Percent	Year	Percent
1967	81.6	1964	90.0
1966	88.4	1963	92.5
1965	92.5	1962	91.8

Source: Table adapted from p. 33 of the "Fourteenth Annual Study of Super Market Shoppers"

A fourth section of the study reports on consumer attitudes and behavior with respect to discount stores. Sixty-three percent of all consumers interviewed said that they had shopped in a discount store within the last month.⁷³ Of this group, sixty percent said that they generally purchase food and other merchandise when shopping

⁷³Ibid., p. 38.

in a discount store.⁷⁴ The primary reason for shopping at the discount store was again lower prices with forty-seven percent of the shoppers interviewed reporting this as their primary reason for patronage.^{75,76} Additionally, approximately twenty-two percent of the shoppers stated that they purchase "almost all" of their food in discount stores.⁷⁷

TABLE 2-10
EFFECT OF TRADING STAMPS ON PRICES
AS PERCEIVED BY CONSUMERS

Prices in supermarkets using trading stamps	Year					
	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962
Charge higher prices	66%	64%	54%	55%	59%	57%
Prices about same	29	31	40	40	34	36
Don't know	5	5	6	5	7	7
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: Table adapted from p. 35 of the "Fourteenth Annual Study of Super Market Shoppers"

⁷⁴Ibid., p. 39.

⁷⁵Ibid., p. 40.

⁷⁶The forty-seven percent reporting low prices as their primary reason for patronizing the discount stores, is significantly higher than the 31.9 percent reported for all food shoppers in Table 2-8.

⁷⁷Ibid., p. 42.

TABLE 2-11
CUSTOMER PREFERENCE FOR TRADING STAMPS
VS. LOWER PRICES

Stamps and price	1967	1966	Year 1965	1964	1963
Trading stamps	21%	28%	30%	32%	55%
2 cents lower	79	72	70	68	45
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: Table adapted from p. 37 of the "Fourteenth Annual Study of Super Market Shoppers"

Other Relevant Research

Several other studies have been conducted which have relevance to food shopping generally, and discount food shopping specifically. One unpublished study entitled, "An Exploratory Study of Selected Discount Food Stores,"⁷⁸ is relevant to the research. In the study, the author analyzed three pairs of conventional and discount supermarkets to determine the extent to which the discount supermarkets actually differ from conventional outlets. The three pairs of matched stores studied were selected from 1) a large chain, 2) a small chain, and 3) a voluntary chain.

⁷⁸Robert J. Minichiello, "An Exploratory Study of Selected Discount Food Stores," Unpublished D.B.A. dissertation, Harvard University, 1965.

Several of the findings on actual shopping behavior are of interest. In each case, using similar stores, the discount supermarket's drawing power far exceeded that of the conventional store. From forty-five to sixty-six percent of the conventional store's customers lived within one mile of the store. The discount supermarkets, however, drew heavily from areas beyond one mile with seventy-eight to one hundred percent of all customers coming at least that far to shop.^{79,80} Store visits were less frequent, however, in the discount supermarkets with a maximum of twenty-five percent of the consumers shopping more than once a week as compared with forty-five to fifty percent shopping more than once a week in conventional outlets.

The study also found substantial differences in margins and expenses. According to the study, "Operating expenses were from 2.5 to 3.6 percentage points less at the discount store."⁸¹ In Minichiello's opinion, this was due primarily to the elimination of trading stamps and lower labor expenses. Expenses did not fall quite as sharply as margins, however. In fact, "Reductions in

⁷⁹Ibid., p. 124.

⁸⁰An earlier study by Bernard J. La Londe identified a number of additional factors which affect the drawing power of a retail store such as the location of the shopping center and the cluster of outlets in which the store is located. See footnote 5 in Chapter III for citation.

⁸¹Ibid., p. 149.

operating expenses by the discount food stores did not compensate fully for the differences in gross margins; consequently, net profits before taxes were from 1.4 to 2.6 percentage points lower at the discount stores."⁸²

In summary, the author states:

The findings of this study indicate that discount food stores, as exemplified by the outlets studied, have reduced operating expenses primarily by eliminating trading stamps. The lower operating costs have enabled the discount stores to reduce prices and the lower prices appear to have attracted a segment of the market motivated more by a low price appeal than by merchandise premiums obtainable by saving and redeeming trading stamps.⁸³

In addition to offering customers lower prices, the discount stores studied were also part of a complex providing one-stop shopping. The combination of food and general merchandise in close proximity may have convenience appeal to some customers.⁸⁴

Another study dealing briefly with food discounting was conducted in the Boston metropolitan area in 1965.⁸⁵ At the time, Boston had thirty-one discount supermarkets which represented six percent of all Boston supermarkets, and accounted for eleven percent of total supermarket sales, or eight percent of total food sales for the area. In general, the study found that the discount stores were

⁸²Ibid., p. 150.

⁸³Ibid., p. 151.

⁸⁴Ibid., p. 158.

⁸⁵William Applebaum, Patterns of Food Distribution in a Metropolis (Chicago: Super Market Institute, Inc., 1966). (See especially pp. 10-11.)

about fifty percent larger than conventional supermarkets and located primarily in extensively built-up middle income suburban areas. The study also noted that there was not a single discount supermarket located in a strictly low income area.

A third and fourth study relevant to the research has been conducted by the Agricultural Experiment Station of the University of Kentucky. One of the studies is concerned with sources of information and food buying decisions,⁸⁶ and the other is concerned with homemaker's responses to direct advertising.⁸⁷

The study on sources of information found that factors having influenced recent food purchases were information on containers and labels first, requests from children and family members second, and newspaper grocery store advertisements third. Radio was more important to the Negro segment than the white segment of the market. Literature such as magazines, food articles and reference materials were more important to white segments of the market. Store specials and bargain counters appealed more to the homemakers who had above average incomes and

⁸⁶"Sources of Information and Food Buying Decisions," Southern Cooperative Series Bulletin 85 (Lexington, Kentucky: University of Kentucky, 1963).

⁸⁷"Homemaker's Responses to Direct Advertising," Southern Cooperative Series Bulletin 121 (Lexington, Kentucky: University of Kentucky, 1966).

educational levels as well as to those who were younger. Generally, the study found that patterns of response were similar for white and Negro market segments, but that the levels of response were lower for the Negro segments.

The other study found little difference between Negro and white market segments in response to direct advertising. Differences were found in terms of income, education and age of the household head, however. The respondents with college level educations (especially graduate work) indicated a much more distinctly negative attitude toward direct mail and unsolicited advertising than the average respondent. Respondents with incomes greater than \$8000 per year were also extremely indifferent to this form of advertising. Likewise, older people were shown to be less prone toward direct mail. Thus the negative groups with respect to direct mail advertising were those with advanced formal education, higher incomes, and older persons. Other groups appear to be more tolerant of the technique.

It is apparent from the studies cited that there are a number of different types of food stores composing the retail offering, one of which is the discount supermarket. It also appears that this type of outlet has significantly lower prices and distinctive marketing mixes which should make them readily identifiable to the consumer.

Innovation and the Adoption Process

In the dynamic economy which characterizes the United States, innovation is necessary to continual change. As one author states it:

Innovation is . . . essential in the activities that must be performed to distribute goods and services efficiently and economically. Several process innovations in marketing of a basic nature have appeared in recent years. These include the shopping center, the discount house, automatic vending machines, physical distribution changes, new credit concepts, and new organizational developments growing out of the marketing concept.⁸⁸

Consumer acceptance of these innovations can be studied as an adoption process. Rogers has studied the process of adoption quite extensively.⁸⁹ According to Rogers, adopter categories ". . . are the classification of individuals within a social system on the basis of innovativeness."⁹⁰ As such, the adoption process can be a useful tool in analyzing the consumer acceptance of new institutions. Rogers' work has led to some significant findings useful to the research.

Rogers' past studies have shown that the adoption of innovations generally follows a bell-shaped, or normal,

⁸⁸Eugene J. Kelley and William Lazer, "Managing Innovation in Marketing," in Kelley and Lazer, op, cit., p. 282.

⁸⁹Everett M. Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations (New York: The Free Press, 1962). (See especially chapters six and seven.)

⁹⁰Ibid., p. 148.

curve when plotted over time. While not all adopter distributions have been normal, few have been skewed enough that they do not at least approach normality.⁹¹ Thus, innovativeness is a continuous distribution in that individuals adopt a new process, or idea, at different times. When aggregated, the distribution of adopters takes on a definite pattern which approaches the normal curve.

Since the adoption process forms a continuum, the partitioning of this continuum into categories should be viewed as a conceptual device. Rogers identifies five adopted categories through the use of two parameters--the mean and the standard deviation--of the normal curve.⁹² Each of his five categories (Innovators, Early Adopters, Early Majority, Late Majority and Laggards) have identifying characteristics. Often, however, the differences separating the categories are extremely small.

Due to the small differences, it is often (at least in earlier studies) useful simply to study the adoption process by means of earlier vs. later adopters of an innovation. Using the breakdown, earlier adopters are the left half of the distribution of adopters (i.e., from minus

⁹¹Ibid., pp. 159-169.

⁹²A number of different adopter categories are in use depending on the researcher quoted. Rogers' five categories based on the use of the mean and standard deviation is an attempt at standardization of the terminology.

three standard deviations to the mean) while later adopters are the right half of the distribution (i.e., from the mean to plus three standard deviations). The justification is that there is greater similarity within the earlier adopter category and the later adopter category than there is between the two categories. Rogers has used this breakdown in some of his work and found significant differences between earlier and later adopters.⁹³

Rogers' research, while not directly related to marketing, has shown that the adoption process is definitive enough to lend itself to study in the field of marketing. Rogers' work has been primarily concerned with the diffusion and adoption of new ideas and information. However, the methodology has provided a number of useful tools that should lend themselves to study of the problem at hand. The concepts and techniques developed in diffusion of innovation research can be useful in answering the questions raised by the consumer acceptance of institutional innovations.

Much of Rogers' early work was concerned with the adoption of new farm techniques in rural America. The research indicates that innovators have ". . . higher adoption leadership, more education, greater formal participation, higher social status, younger age, higher reading

⁹³Rogers, op. cit., pp. 171-189.

levels and better interview rapport than other adopter categories."⁹⁴ In another publication⁹⁵ it has been stated that the adoption process ". . . follows a rather uniform pattern from the time the new product is developed until it is widely accepted by the ultimate consumers."⁹⁶

A more general study of the consumer as an innovator was conducted several years ago. The study found that innovators were young, highly concentrated in professional and managerial occupations, very highly educated, and had a high home ownership rate.⁹⁷ The study went further however, and delineated the innovative market segment into strategic and functional innovators. Strategic innovators were defined as those who "accept minor product alterations," while functional innovators were those who "accept more complex change." According to the findings, the functional innovators were older than the strategic innovators, had higher educations, higher incomes, and higher home ownership rates than all other groups.⁹⁸

⁹⁴ Everett M. Rogers, Characteristics of Agricultural Innovators and Other Adopter Categories (Wooster, Ohio: Ohio Agricultural Experiment Station, 1961), p. 1.

⁹⁵ The Foundation for Research on Human Behavior, Adoption of New Products (Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan, 1959).

⁹⁶ Ibid., p. 1.

⁹⁷ William E. Bell, op. cit., p. 181.

⁹⁸ Ibid., p. 182.

New product acceptance has also received a good deal of attention in the literature. One study in the area analyzed social and psychological factors associated with the acceptance of new food products.⁹⁹ In the study, the author found that the "High Triers" (the first sixteen percent to try a new food product) had more formal education, higher levels of income, were younger, had larger families and older children than the "Majority" or the "Low Triers."¹⁰⁰ The study also found no relationship between occupation and the extent to which new foods were tried.

Graham has also studied the adoption process as it relates to marketing.¹⁰¹ Of particular significance to the research is the section on the adoption of the supermarket. While the data does indicate that the middle and upper class were most responsible for the supermarket's success, the dichotomy between "accepters" and "rejectors" was not as distinct as in some other areas of the research. In the study he found that ". . . indications were that the

⁹⁹H. Bruce Bylund, "Social and Psychological Factors Associated with Acceptance of New Food Products," in Ralph L. Day (ed.), Marketing Models: Quantitative and Behavioral (Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Textbook Company, 1964), pp. 145-174.

¹⁰⁰Ibid., see especially pp. 147-152.

¹⁰¹Saxon Graham, "Class and Conservatism in the Adoption of Innovations," in Perry Bliss (ed.), Marketing and the Behavioral Sciences (Revised Edition) (Boston: Allen and Bacon, Inc., 1967), pp. 195-207.

accepting classes were those which had most contact with them, either through residing near them, or through prior use of chain stores."¹⁰²

A number of other studies have been concerned with the process of adoption in marketing. Several of these articles have attempted to clarify the processes of innovation and adoption.^{103,104} Others have studied actual adoption processes such as fashion,¹⁰⁵ drugs,¹⁰⁶ and new products.¹⁰⁷

Summary

The substitution of a market orientation rather than a production or sales orientation by American business has created a renewed interest in the consumer. One method

¹⁰²Ibid., p. 202.

¹⁰³Francis S. Doody, "Research in the Process of Innovation," Boston Business Review, Vol. VIII, No. 4 (Spring, 1962), pp. 13-21.

¹⁰⁴Thomas S. Robertson and James N. Kennedy, "Predictions of Consumer Innovators: Application of Multiple Discriminant Analysis," Journal of Marketing Research, Vol. V (February, 1968), pp. 64-69.

¹⁰⁵Charles W. King, "Fashion Adoption: A Rebuttal to the 'Trickle Down' Theory," in Stephen A. Greyser (ed.), Toward Scientific Marketing (Chicago: American Marketing Association, 1964), pp. 108-125.

¹⁰⁶J. Coleman, E. Katz, et al, "The Diffusion of an Innovation Among Physicians," Sociometry, Vol. XX (1957), pp. 253-270.

¹⁰⁷Adoption of a New Product, op. cit.

of better understanding the consumer is through more precise identification and delineation of appropriate markets. Market segmentation is the tool which makes this possible.

Many authors have utilized the concept of segmentation to better delineate the market. A number of studies in the area have utilized the variables of 1) sex, 2) age, 3) income, 4) race, 5) occupation, 6) social class, 7) personality types, 8) life cycle, 9) mobility, 10) innovativeness, and 11) brand purchasing behavior.

The concept of market segmentation and the above mentioned variables have been useful in studying a number of shopping patterns which have changed markedly over the last twenty years. General merchandise shopping behavior has changed with the decline in the central business district and the rising acceptance of the suburban shopping center and the discount house. Increasing consumer mobility and the rising importance of leisure have also been partly responsible for the shifts in patronage. Generally, young families have been the key segment of the market responsible for many of the changes that have occurred.

Discount shopping has also affected food shopping patterns in the United States. The discount food stores are generally about fifty percent larger than the conventional supermarket, and operate at approximately five percentage points below the gross margin of the conventional market. In addition, the discount supermarket's drawing

power appears to be far greater than that of the conventional supermarket.

The process of consumer acceptance for the new institutional innovations can be studied as an adoption process. The adoption process attempts to stratify consumers on the basis of innovativeness, and studies how a product, an idea, or an institution gains acceptance over a period of time.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN

The purpose of Chapter III is to provide a detailed presentation of the methodology used in the research. The chapter is presented to provide a base upon which the research findings may be accepted or rejected. In addition, the chapter provides a framework for future research in the area of consumer shopping and adoption behavior.

The first part of the chapter presents the independent and dependent variables used in the research. In the second section, the sample design and selection procedures are covered. The third section presents the interviewer selection and training procedures used, the method used to contact the selected consuming units interviewed, and the administrative control procedures followed. The final section of Chapter III is concerned with the preparation of the data for statistical analysis and the statistical analysis used in the research.

Research Design Framework

Identification of Variables

The research design is constructed to make a comprehensive study of the process by which consumer market segmentation occurs in response to an institutional innovation in a specific field of retailing. The actual consuming units interviewed were randomly drawn from a specific geographic area selected due to the presence of both the one-stop shopping center and several conventional supermarkets within a five-minute driving time of all housing units. The research was carried out in a metropolitan area having a total population of over 200,000.

The research design was concerned with a comprehensive investigation of socio-economic variables, purchase motivation, and purchase behavior to determine which segments of the consumer market were responsive to the new type of innovational institution. In addition, the research was designed to study several areas of related consumer purchase behavior and how the adopters of the one-stop shopping center change over time. Characteristics of the consuming units were identified as independent variables while the primary source of supply chosen for food was identified as the dependent variable.

Independent Variables

The selected characteristics of the consuming units used as independent variables were drawn from three areas. The three areas used were socio-economic characteristics, the motivational effectiveness of various elements in an institution's marketing mix, and purchase behavior patterns. The specific socio-economic characteristics chosen for the research were (1) family income, (2) age of the household head, (3) occupation of the household head, (4) size of the family unit, (5) level of formal education, (6) family life cycle, and (7) social class. The life cycle characteristics developed were a function of (1) the age of the household head, and (2) the age of the children.¹ The development of social class data was based on the techniques developed and reported in W. Lloyd Warner's Social Class In America.²

The second area from which the independent variables were selected was the motivational effectiveness of various selected elements of an institution's marketing mix on the consuming unit as a specific institution was selected as the primary source of food purchases. The

¹The life cycle used in the research was developed by the Survey Research Center of the University of Michigan and used in Life Study of Consumer Expenditures. Conducted for Time, Inc., by Alfred Politz Research, Inc., 1957.

²W. Lloyd Warner, Social Class in America (New York: Harper and Row, 1960). (See especially chapters eight and nine.)

specific elements chosen were (1) price, (2) quality, (3) trading stamps and promotional contests, (4) coupons and price specials, and (5) private label merchandise. In each area the consumer was asked to recall specific past behavior patterns for a recent time period rather than general opinions about the variable in question. Recent behavior patterns were studied in the belief that the motivational effectiveness of the selected elements can best be measured by studying recent behavior.

The last area from which the independent variables were drawn was consumer purchase patterns. The area contains both purchase behavior and patronage loyalty factors. The characteristics selected for study were (1) number of stores shopped, (2) concentration of purchases, (3) average size of purchases, (4) number of shopping trips per week, and (5) day of the week that the major shopping trip is made. Again, recent actual purchase behavior was measured. Table 3-1 details the three areas in the context of the entire study.

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable selected for the research is the type of retail institution selected by the consuming units as their primary source of supply for food. The two specific retail institutions studied were the conventional supermarket and the one-stop shopping center. For purposes

TABLE 3-1
RESEARCH VARIABLES

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables	Related Variables
<p>I. Socio-economic Characteristics</p> <p>A. Family Income</p> <p>B. Age of Household Head</p> <p>C. Occupation of Household Head</p> <p>D. Family Size</p> <p>E. Level of Formal Education</p> <p>F. Family Life Cycle (B & D)</p> <p>G. Social Class</p> <p>II. Purchase Motivation</p> <p>A. Price</p> <p>B. Quality</p> <p>C. Trading Stamps and Promotional Contests</p> <p>D. Coupons and Price Specials</p> <p>E. Private Label Merchandise</p> <p>III. Purchase Behavior and Patronage Loyalty</p> <p>A. Number of Stores Shopped</p> <p>B. Concentration of Purchases</p> <p>C. Average Size of Purchases</p> <p>D. Number of Shopping Trips/Week</p> <p>E. Day of Week</p>	<p>Major source of supply chosen by the consuming units. Either (1) the one-stop shopping center, or (2) the conventional supermarket.</p>	<p>I. Extent of Carry Over in Purchase Behavior</p> <p>A. Convenience Goods</p> <p>B. Shopping Goods</p> <p>C. Specialty Goods</p> <p>D. Catalog Shopping</p> <p>II. Earlier vs. Later Adopters</p> <p>A. Socio-economic Characteristics</p> <p>B. Purchase Motivation</p> <p>C. Purchase Behavior and Patronage Loyalty</p> <p>D. Related Purchase Behavior</p>

of the research, the following broad definitions were developed:³

Conventional Supermarket.--A large integrated food store offering groceries, meat, dairy, produce and frozen food, operating primarily on a self-service basis, and having an annual sales volume of at least one million dollars.

One-Stop Shopping Center.--A lowered-margin integrated shopping center offering both a wide line of general merchandise and a complete supermarket under the same roof and operating with a lower gross margin than conventional general merchandise and food outlets.

Related Variables and Additional Analysis

In addition to the independent and the dependent variables, a number of related variables were also studied in the research. The related variables examined identified the extent of carry over in consumer purchase behavior. Specifically, the research identified the extent to which consumer food purchasing behavior carried over into four other purchase decision areas. The areas selected for the research were (1) convenience goods purchase decisions,

³The definitions used here are a conglomerate of definitions from several sources and have been constructed especially for the research.

(2) shopping goods purchase decisions, (3) specialty goods purchase decisions and (4) mail-order shopping.

Finally, the entire range of independent variables studied was reanalyzed for those consuming units selecting the one-stop shopping center as their primary source of supply for food. The independent variables were studied in relation to the time at which the individual consuming units adopted the one-stop shopping center as a primary source of supply. The purpose of this additional area of the research was to see if any of the independent variables could readily identify the earlier adopters of the institutional innovation, and learn how the adopters of the institution have changed over time.

Questionnaire Objective

The questionnaire developed for the research, and contained in Appendix B, was designed to investigate the extent to which market segmentation has occurred due to the introduction of an institutional innovation into a specific geographic area. The questionnaire contained four specific sections which investigated the areas of (1) food purchase behavior, (2) purchase motivation, (3) related purchase behavior, and (4) socio-economic characteristics. The questions were all formulated to stress recent purchase decisions and purchase behavior since it was believed that recent and actual behavior was the best measure that could be used in light of existing time and money considerations.

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The questionnaire was also structured to develop additional information on the consuming units responsible for the acceptance of the one-stop shopping center. Through analysis of the data, the market segments responsible for the original acceptance of the new institution and its continued growth can be analyzed in detail to identify any shift in responsive market segments that has occurred over the last eighteen months.

Sample Selection

Sample Source

Prior to selecting a sample and testing the hypothesis, a relevant population for the research had to be defined. After preliminary investigations of a number of cities in the midwest, the community of Lansing, Michigan and environs, a metropolitan area of about 200,000 total population, was selected for the research.

A two step selection process was used in the research. In the first step, the specific geographic area to be used in the research was selected. In the second step, a sample of housing units was systematically drawn from the research areas to arrive at the actual sample of respondents to be interviewed in the research. Each step in the sample selection process is covered in detail below.

Selection of Research Area

The research was concentrated in a geographic area located at the western edge of the Lansing, Michigan Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area.⁴ The area was selected due to the two decision criteria previously set up. First, extremely diverse conditions existed within the area. Visual observation confirmed the fact that extreme variability in housing types, social class, life cycle and income could all be found in the research area.

Secondly, all housing units within the research area were located within approximately a five minute driving time to both the one-stop shopping center and several conventional supermarkets. The concentrated aspect of the research area controlled the variable of distance, since it has been shown to be such a critical variable in selecting a source of supply for food.⁵

The specific area in which the research was conducted is the area bounded on the north by the Grand River, on the east by the Lansing city limits, on the south by

⁴For further information see: U.S. Bureau of the Census, U.S. Census of Population and Housing: 1960, Census Tracts, Final Report PHC (1)-73 (U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1962).

⁵For other variables affecting trading areas and drawing power see: Bernard J. La Londe, Differentials in Supermarket Drawing Power (E. Lansing, Michigan: Bureau of Business and Economic Research, College of Business and Public Service, Michigan State University, 1962).

West St. Joseph Street, and on the west by Creyts Road. The research area was approximately three miles long and two miles wide. The research area and location of the retail institutions are shown in Figure 3-1.

Selection of Specific Households

The selection of the actual housing units to be interviewed in the research was accomplished by a two-phase process. The first phase required an enumeration of housing units. The second phase then randomly selected the actual housing units to be included in the sample and interviewed for the research. Each phase is covered below.

The first phase in selecting specific housing units to be interviewed in the research required a complete enumeration of all housing units in the research area. Two different techniques were required to complete the enumeration. Approximately fifty percent of the research area is enumerated in the 1967 edition of R. L. Polk's City Directory-Lansing, Michigan.⁶ Using the City Directory, an enumeration of all housing units located in the research area was generated according to street addresses. Since the first half of the research area has very little, if any, new housing starts there was no serious updating problem.

⁶R. L. Polk, Polk's Lansing (Ingham County, Mich.) City Directory (Detroit, Michigan: R. L. Polk and Company, 1967).



FIGURE 3-1

LOCATION OF RESEARCH AREA
AND RETAIL STORES

1. One-Stop Shopping Center
2. Conventional Supermarket Number 1
3. Conventional Supermarket Number 2

After checking numerous sources, it was apparent that no such list existed for the other half of the research area. In addition, this half of the research area had quite a few new houses which were either under construction, or had recently been occupied. Consequently, a more detailed method of enumeration had to be used. A recent street map of the entire area was obtained and each street was systematically enumerated according to street address by visual observation. The procedure resulted in an exact enumeration of all occupied housing units in the area.

By combining the street address listings arrived at by each technique, a complete enumeration of all housing units within the research area was achieved. The master list contained three thousand five hundred and seventy-two street addresses.

The second phase was to select the actual housing units to be interviewed in the research from this master list of housing units. The desired sample was to be composed of two hundred housing units. This sample was then randomly drawn from the master list of all housing units in the area through the process of sequential sampling.

The final sample was systematically drawn through the use of a "skip interval" and randomly chosen starting point. The skip interval is a number, arrived at by dividing the number of housing units in the research area by the number of housing units to be interviewed. The random

starting point is a number between one and the designated skip interval and is selected from a table of random numbers. The methodology guaranteed the random selection and geographic dispersion of the sample from the research area.

For example, if there were thirty six hundred housing units in the relevant population and a sample of two hundred was desired, the skip interval would be eighteen. The skip interval means that every eighteenth house would be systematically selected. The starting point for selecting the sample would be determined by randomly selecting a number between one and eighteen. Starting with the selected number, every eighteenth housing unit would be selected for inclusion in the sample.

In the actual selection procedure the designated skip interval turned out to be seventeen. The result was two hundred and ten housing units being selected for inclusion in the sample. Ten housing units were then randomly dropped from the selected sample, resulting in a final sample of two hundred housing units. The two hundred street addresses were then designated as the actual sample to be used in the research. The housing units selected by the skip interval procedure and dropped were designated as alternates. None of the alternates were used.

Prior to interviewing the selected sample, the survey instrument was pre-tested to insure that the questions were properly worded to obtain the desired information.

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The data gathered during the pretest was not included in any of the statistical analysis or findings. The sole purpose of the pretest was to check the effectiveness of the measuring instrument. In light of the information gained during the pretest two questions were changed slightly.

Interviewer Selection and Household Contact Procedures

Interviewer Selection

All interviews completed for the research were taken by a staff of interviewers recruited, selected, and trained specifically for the research. Interviewers were recruited through a research interviewing service in the Lansing area. After selecting eight interviewers to be used in the study a group training session was held. The purpose of the training session was to acquaint the interviewers with the general purpose of the research and familiarize them with the survey instrument to be used. Training included discussion of the proper way to run an interview, how to ask and record questions, and how to probe for needed information. After the interviewers had been thoroughly briefed on each question contained in the survey instrument, the technique of "role playing" was used to simulate the actual interview situation.

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Contacting Household Units

The research population on which the study was based contained three thousand five hundred and seventy-two housing units. From the population a sample of two hundred households and ten alternates were randomly selected for the study. The objective of the interviewing was to contact as high a percentage of the actual sample as possible and use the alternates only if less than seventy-five percent of the actual sample cooperated in the research. The study results are based on responses from one hundred and fifty nine (159) housing units, or seventy-nine and a half percent (79.5%) of the original sample.

All housing units were contacted by the interviewers a minimum of five times before they were considered non-respondents. Five attempts resulted in one hundred and sixty-one (161) completed interviews. Two (2) of these completed interviews were later dropped from the analysis due to a number of 'nonsense' answers the respondents had given.

Of the thirty-nine (39) interviews that were not completed, twenty-three (23) were contacted but refused to be interviewed without giving a specific reason for the refusal. Nine (9) other housing units were designated as non-respondents when the interviewers had failed to contact anyone at the home after four "call-backs." One (1) housing unit turned out not to be actual family unit. Two (2)

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housing units failed to respond due to illness in the family. Three (3) other housing units refused to be interviewed since they had moved into the Lansing area within the last month and felt they had not yet developed any shopping patterns. Finally, one (1) of the housing units had recently been zoned differently and was at the time a commercial establishment.

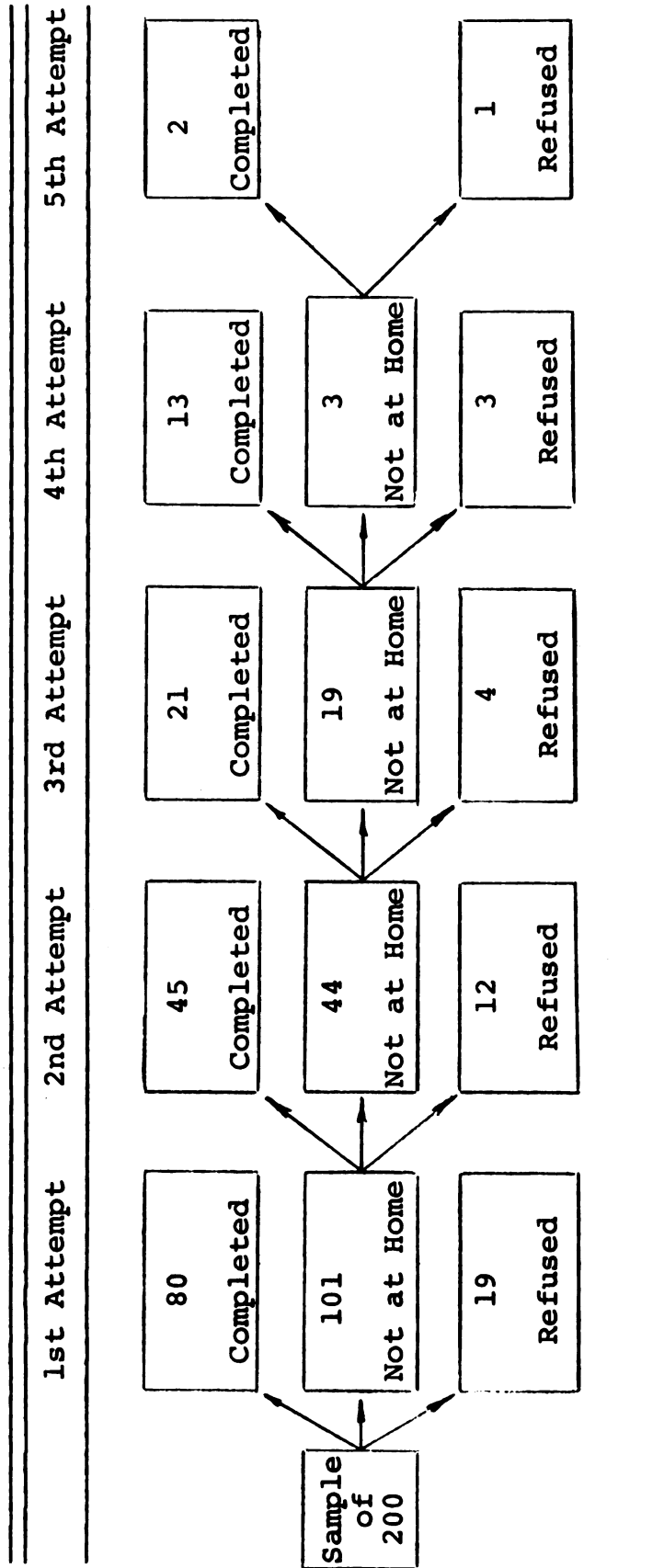
Figure 3-2 and Appendix C detail the breakdown of respondents and non-respondents. Figure 3-2 is a flow chart of the contact process as it occurred in the research. Appendix C analyzes the location of the non-respondents and the reason for not taking part in the research.

Administrative Procedures

All housing units asked to participate in the research were originally contacted at their home by the interviewers personally. Each interviewer carried a letter of introduction to show the respondent, should some question as to the authenticity of the study arise. The letter is contained in Appendix B.

At the start of interviewing period, each interviewer was assigned fifteen to twenty housing units to be contacted. Each survey instrument contained the street address to be contacted, directions on how to find the specific street address, and a control number for accounting purposes. After each attempted interview, the interviewer

FIGURE 3-2
FLOW CHART OF INTERVIEW CONTACT PROCESS



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was required to enter the day, time, and results (i.e., completed, not-at-home, etc.) on the cover of the survey instrument.

If, after two attempts, no contact had been made with the housing units, the interviewers were instructed to check the name on the mailbox, or check with a neighbor to obtain it, and then call to set up a specific time for the interview. In all cases four "call-backs" were attempted before a housing unit was designated as a non-respondent. In each case this included both a Saturday call and an evening call.

The original packets of fifteen to twenty surveys assigned to each interviewer were based on a geographical distribution to minimize travel time whenever possible. On completion of their original assignments, five of the eight interviewers were "pulled out" of the field. The three most productive interviewers were retained to complete the field interviewing. Completion of all interviews took slightly less than two weeks.

Data Collection

The research data was obtained through comprehensive personal interviews conducted with the housewife in each of the selected housing units. All interviews were conducted in the respondent's home. Each interview took between thirty five and forty five minutes to complete depending on

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the amount of information each respondent was able, and willing, to give. The actual field work took place between March 25, 1968, and April 6, 1968.

The interviewers turned in the completed interviews daily at two collection points. As each was returned to the researcher, the status of the survey (i.e., completed, etc.) was recorded on a master control sheet maintained for this purpose. In addition, ten percent of the responding housing units were called to assure that the interviews had actually been taken. Appendix B, in addition to containing the survey instrument used, contains the pre-coded charts used by the interviewers and the letter of introduction carried by each of the interviewers.

Analysis of the Data

Data Preparation

Following the completion of all data collection, the responses were coded according to predetermined category breakdowns and placed on punch cards for computer analysis. The coding was randomly inspected for any coding error, and all punch cards varified for accuracy. In addition, a complete record of all codes used was developed for future reference and a duplicate deck of cards maintained to insure against any loss of the working deck.

The analysis of the data gathered was primarily confined to the hypothesis generated in Chapter I. To test

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the respective hypotheses, two statistical programs were used. In each case it was necessary to secure frequency distributions on all data relevant to specific research hypotheses. Categories were developed according to standard range breakdowns for socio-economic variables. Specific categories were then established for the remaining variables based on frequency distributions.

Computer Programs

The specific research hypotheses were tested through calculation of statistical values determined using the Michigan State University ACT Computer Program.⁷ The program required tables for all hypotheses. The computer program then provided the following information for each table:

- 1) Observed frequencies;
- 2) Table row percentages down and across;
- 3) Percentage of total in each cell;
- 4) Theoretical frequencies;
- 5) Chi-square with degrees of freedom and contingency coefficients.

The chi-square developed for each table was then compared to the chi-square distribution at the .05 level to determine the significance of specific research findings.

⁷Michigan State University, Computer Institute for Social Science Research, Analysis of Contingency Tables (Act II), Technical Report No. 14, January 12, 1968.

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When computed chi-square values were greater than the value shown in the chi-square table for a particular number of degrees of freedom and confidence level, the findings were judged to be statistically significant.

If the computed values were found to be significant, the null hypothesis was rejected. Thus, the alternate hypothesis was accepted and differences in values assumed to be due to the variables under study rather than due to chance. If greater significance than the .05 level was found, this was reported also, since this reduces the probability of type one error, or rejecting the null hypothesis when it was in fact true.

Although the preceeding analysis was sufficient to test all the hypotheses generated, a second analysis was made using the majority of the data gathered. The data used were taken from those respondents who chose either the one-stop shopping center or one of the two major conventional supermarkets in the area as their primary source of food. To accomplish this, ten respondents who shopped primarily outside of the research area were excluded, resulting in a sample of one hundred forty-nine for this section of the analysis.

The smaller sample was then analyzed through the use of the Michigan State University DISCRIM Computer

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Program.⁸ This multiple discriminant analysis program is designed to evaluate similarities and differences among "n" groups of respondents, and determine identifying characteristics of each group.⁹

The output of the computer analysis is a table of multiple discriminant coefficients which show the extent to which specific variables are useful in predicting which group the subjects are most likely to be in. In the research, the program was used to see if any specific identifying characteristics could be attributed to the group of respondents who shopped primarily in the one-stop shopping center and the group who shopped in conventional outlets.¹⁰

Definition of Terms

A number of the terms used in the research are defined here so that each may be understood in the proper context.

Age of the Household Head.--The age of the household head at the time of the survey.

⁸Michigan State University, Computer Institute for Social Science Research, Multiple Discriminant Analysis (DISCRIM), Technical Report No. 33, February 29, 1968.

⁹C. R. Rao, Advanced Statistical Methods in Biometric Research (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1962). See especially chapter 9.

¹⁰For another example of this technique, see: William F. Massy, "Discriminant Analysis of Audience Characteristics," Journal of Advertising Research (March, 1965), pp. 39-48.

Average Customer Order.--The average dollars spent on food by the respondent per shopping trip to the food store.

Catalog Shopping.--Purchases ordered by the respondent from mail-order catalogs and delivered through the mail (i.e., no retail store visited).

Cents-off Label.--A promotional tool used by manufacturers which temporarily reduces the normal price of an item to the consumer by stating on the label of the product that the item is so many cents off (below) the regular retail price.

Concentration of Purchases.--The extent to which all food purchases are made in one retail outlet shown as a percentage figure.

Convenience Good.--Those goods that the consumer usually desires to purchase frequently, immediately, and with a minimum of effort.

Conventional Supermarket.--A large integrated food store offering groceries, meat, dairy, produce and frozen food, operating primarily on a self-service basis, and having an annual sales volume of at least one million dollars.

Coupon.--A promotional tool issued by retailers and/or manufacturers designed to allow the customer to purchase a specific item for a few cents below the normal price in return for the coupon redemption.

Earlier Adopter.--Those respondents who adopted the one-stop shopping center as their primary source of supply for food during the first three months of operation.

Family Life Cycle.--A classification of households according to the age of the household head plus the age of the children in the home.

Formal Education.--The last grade of school completed at the time of the survey.

Household.--All persons who regularly live together in one dwelling unit.

Household Head.--The person recognized by other household members as being the head of the household or, where not clear the major "breadwinner."

Later Adopters.--Those respondents who adopted the one-stop shopping center as their primary source of supply for food after the first three months of operation.

Number of Stores Shopped.--The number of different food stores the respondent said she shopped in during the week preceeding the research.

Number of Shopping Trips Per Week.--The number of separate trips made to any food store, or stores, the week preceeding the research.

Occupation of the Household Head.--The occupation, or the job being performed, by the household head at the time of the study.

One-Stop Shopping Center.--A lowered-margin integrated shopping center offering both a wide line of general merchandise and a complete supermarket under the same roof and operating with a lower gross margin than conventional general merchandise and food outlets.

Price Special.--A promotional tool used by the retailer where an item is featured at a price below the normal selling price for a limited period of time and advertised in a newspaper to create consumer awareness of the special.

Primary Source of Food.--The retail food store in which the respondent did the highest percentage of her food shopping the week preceeding the research.

Private Label Merchandise.--Merchandise sold under a brand name owned or controlled by the distributor or retailer rather than a national manufacturer.

Promotional Games and Contests.--A promotional tool whereby the retail store attempts to increase patronage through "running" special games of chance or contests for certain lengths of time.

Second Source of Food.--The retail store in which the respondent did the second highest percent of her food shopping the week preceeding the research.

Shopping Goods.--Those goods that the consumer usually wishes to purchase only after comparing quality, price, and style in a number of different stores.

Social Class.--A classification of households according to W. Lloyd Warner's scheme of measuring status in the community.

Specialty Goods.--Those goods that have a particular attraction for the consumer so that she is willing to make a special purchase effort.

Third Source of Food.--The retail store in which the respondent did the third highest percent of her food shopping the week preceeding the research.

Trading Stamps.--A promotional tool whereby the retailer attempts to increase patronage through the giving of fractional premiums with merchandise which can be redeemed for merchandise at a later date.

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CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

The purpose of Chapter IV is to present the research findings of the study. Presentation of the findings pertaining to the adoption of a new type of retail institution as a primary source of supply for food will provide additional insight into the process that consumer's use in selecting a source of supply for food purchases. Specific findings relating to each of the research hypothesis will be presented.

The findings of the study are organized into six sections. The six sections follow the order in which the guiding hypotheses were presented in Chapter I. The first four sections of the chapter report findings based on the entire sample of 159 housing units. The fifth section is based on the findings resulting from a further analysis of the 66 housing units selecting the one-stop shopping center¹

¹In Chapter III, the one-stop shopping center was defined for the purposes of the research as, "A lowered-margin integrated shopping center offering both a wide line of general merchandise and a complete supermarket under the same roof and operating with a lower gross margin than conventional general merchandise and food outlets."

as the primary source of supply for food. The last section of the chapter is again based on the entire sample of 159 respondents.

The first section of the chapter presents findings relating to the socio-economic characteristics of the consumers concentrating purchases in the one-stop shopping center and the consumers concentrating purchases in the conventional supermarket. Section two presents the findings relating to the effectiveness of the various elements in an institution's marketing mix in motivating individual consuming units to select a specific type of institution to patronize. The third section reports on findings relevant to the purchase behavior and patronage loyalty of the individual shoppers. In section four, the findings pertaining to areas of purchase behavior related to food shopping are presented. Section five presents findings relating to adoptive behavior and the characteristics of the adopting units over time. Finally, the sixth section presents a number of other significant findings developed in the research.

Tables supporting the findings presented in the first five sections are presented in Appendix A, Table A-1 through Table A-40. The Tables for section six are included in the text of the chapter. Each Table in Appendix A gives a breakdown, by number and percent, of the variable reported on in the Table. Where statistical

significance was found the level is reported. In every case, the significance is included only if the data is significant at the .05 level or higher, which means there are but five chances out of 100 that the data are a result of chance occurrences.

Socio-economic Variables

The first guiding hypothesis was formulated to identify the socio-economic variables which best differentiate the one-stop shopping center customer from the conventional supermarket customer. The hypothesis states that the profile of the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the one-stop shopping center is different than the profile of the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the conventional supermarket.

From the guiding hypothesis, seven research hypotheses were developed to guide and direct the research. The research hypotheses state that consumers who concentrate food purchases in the one-stop shopping center differ from consumers who concentrate food purchases in the conventional supermarket in terms of the following seven variables. The variables are: (1) Family Income, (2) Age of the Household Head, (3) Occupation of the Household Head, (4) Family Size, (5) Level of Formal Education, (6) Family Life Cycle, and (7) Social Class. Each research hypothesis is discussed separately below.

Family Income

The findings relating to family income are presented in Table A-1. The Table provides a breakdown of 1967 family income for the respondents preferring each type of retail institution.

While the difference was not extreme, the data tends to indicate that a greater share of the higher income families preferred the conventional supermarket to the one-stop shopping center. Approximately 65 percent of all conventional supermarket shoppers had family incomes above 10,000 dollars in 1967. The figure for the one-stop shopping center shoppers was 54.8 percent. Conversely, of the shoppers preferring to patronize the one-stop shopping center 12.9 percent had incomes below 5,000 dollars in 1967, while only 5.8 percent of the conventional supermarket shoppers had incomes below 5,000 dollars per year. The data was not statistically significant.

Age of the Household Head

Table A-2 presents the findings pertaining to the age of the household head. The Table presents a breakdown of family units patronizing each type of retail institution by the age of the household head.

The data indicates that the age of the household head was a good indicator of which type of retail institution a family unit is most likely to patronize. Shoppers

who prefer the one-stop shopping center generally tended to be younger than shoppers who prefer to shop in the conventional supermarket. Of the customers patronizing the one-stop shopping center, 54.5 percent were under forty years of age. Of the consumers preferring to shop in conventional supermarkets 68.8 percent were over forty years old, and only 21.2 percent were forty or younger. Almost a third (30.3 percent) of all the one-stop shopping center customers were between 30 and 39 years of age. The greatest majority of conventional supermarket shoppers were older with 62.4 percent of all shoppers in the 40-59 year old group. The data in Table A-2 was found to be statistically significant at the .05 level.

Occupation of the Household Head

The findings pertaining to the occupation of the household head are presented in Table A-3. The Table shows the extent to which the various occupations were represented in each of the institution's customer mix.

The Table indicates that there was no overall difference in the occupation of the household head between consuming units preferring the one-stop shopping center and consuming units preferring the conventional supermarket. In each occupational category the number of shoppers preferring each type of retail institution varied by only a few percent. The category containing the greatest percent

(30.3) of the one-stop shopping center customers was the "skilled worker" category. "Clerks and kindred workers" was the category from which the conventional supermarket drew most heavily with 31.2 percent. The Table shows no statistical significance.

Family Size

The research findings presented in Table A-4 pertain to the size of the family units preferring to shop for food in each type of store. The size of the family unit includes both children and adult family members.

The data indicates that larger families did tend to concentrate their shopping in the one-stop shopping center more than the conventional supermarket. Using a family size of five as an arbitrary divisional point between large and small families, the difference becomes apparent. Table 4-1 shows the data classified using the family size of five as the breaking point. Thirty-eight point four percent of the one-stop shopping center customers fell into the larger family group, while only 20.6 percent of the conventional supermarket customers were in the larger family grouping. Conversely, the conventional supermarket appealed more to the smaller families with 79.4 percent of all conventional supermarket shoppers in this group. The same figure for the one-stop shopping center was 61.6 percent. Neither the data presented in Table 4-1 or Table A-4 was not found to be statistically significant.

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TABLE 4-1

SUMMARY TABLE OF THE SIZE OF FAMILY UNITS
SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE

Store patronized	Family Size	
	One through four family members	Five, or More, family members
One-stop shopping center	61.6%	38.4%
Conventional supermarket	79.4%	20.6%

Level of Formal Education

Table A-5 presents the findings of the research relevant to the level of formal education. The Table shows the level of formal education found for both the man and the woman in each family unit.

Neither the education of the man nor the education of the woman was found to differ significantly between families shopping in each type of retail institution. The Table indicates that each type of store served approximately the same percentage of families from each educational level. The data failed to show any statistical significance.

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Family Life Cycle

The research findings pertaining to family life cycle are presented in Table A-6. The life cycle used was composed of the age of the household head and the age of the children in the family.

The data indicates that younger families made up the majority of the one-stop shopping center customers. Only 12.1 percent of all the respondents patronizing the one-stop shopping center were over forty years old. Even more interesting were the findings in terms of children. Younger families with younger children (children ten years old, or younger) accounted for 57.6 percent of all the one-stop shopping center customers. The same category accounted for only 31.2 percent of the conventional supermarket shoppers.

Younger families with older children only, tended to shop in the conventional supermarket, however. Younger families with older children only, accounted for 43.0 percent of all the conventional supermarket shoppers. The same category represented 25.8 percent of the one-stop shopping center customers. The data was found to be significant at the .02 level.

Social Class

Table A-7 presents the research findings pertaining to the social class from which each type of retail

institution draws its customers. The social class used was the scale developed by W. Lloyd Warner. The methodology used failed to classify approximately twenty-five percent of the family units as being from a specific social class.

The Table tends to indicate that the lower social classes patronized the one-stop shopping center more heavily than the conventional supermarket. The consuming units classified as lower class (either "lower-lower" or "upper-lower") accounted for 30.2 percent of the one-stop shopping center customers and only 19.3 percent of the conventional supermarket customers. There was no real difference found for the middle class. Middle class families (either "upper-middle" or "lower-middle") represent 60.6 percent of the one-stop shopping center customers and 61.3 percent of the conventional supermarket customers. The data indicates, that no respondents could be definitely classified as upper class. The Table failed to achieve any level of statistical significance.

Summary

The research findings tend to indicate that the profile of the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the one-stop shopping center is different than the profile of the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the conventional supermarket in several respects. Consumers preferring the one-stop shopping center tended to have

lower incomes and be younger than consumers preferring the conventional supermarket. The occupation of the household head and the level of formal education showed little difference between consumers patronizing each type of retail institution, however.

Larger families and younger families with young children were heavier users of the one-stop shopping center than were smaller and older families. Lower social class families preferred the one-stop shopping center somewhat more than the conventional supermarket. The age of the household head and the family life cycle data were found to be statistically significant at the .05 and the .02 level, respectively.

Effectiveness of Selected Elements in an Institution's Marketing Mix

The second guiding hypothesis was formulated to determine the importance, to the consumer, of a number of different elements in a retail institution's marketing mix. The hypothesis states that the importance of the various elements in an institution's marketing mix to the consumer in motivating her to frequent a particular institution varies significantly between the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the one-stop shopping center and the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the conventional supermarket.

From the guiding hypothesis, five research hypotheses were developed. The research hypotheses state that the importance of elements in the institution's marketing mix varies between the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the one-stop shopping center and the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the conventional supermarket in terms of five variables. The five variables are: (1) Price, (2) Quality, (3) Trading Stamps and Promotional Games, (4) Coupons and Price Specials, and (5) Private Label Merchandise. Each of the research hypotheses is discussed below.

Price

The research findings pertaining to price awareness are presented in Table A-8. The Table shows the extent to which shoppers preferring each type of retail food outlet could recall the correct price paid for an item the last time it was purchased. The Table contains the findings for ten frequently purchased items.

The data indicates a wide range of awareness between the different products. The greatest percent of correct prices given by all shoppers was for "bread" with 38.4 percent of the respondents giving the correct price. The shoppers patronizing the one-stop shopping center were most correct on the price of "soup" with 48.5 percent stating the correct price. "Bread" was the product priced correctly

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by the greatest percent of the conventional supermarket shoppers. "Cooking oil" had the lowest percent of the respondents price it correctly. The figures for the one-stop shopping center customers and the conventional supermarket customers were 6.1 percent and 9.7 percent respectively.

Overall, conventional supermarket shoppers had a greater percent of the prices correct for six products and one-stop shopping center customers had a greater percent of the prices correct for four products. The differences in percent of correct prices was statistically significant for "coffee" at the .05 level and "soup" at the .02 level. The direction was opposite however, with the percent greater for conventional supermarket shoppers for "coffee" (24.7 percent vs. 19.7 percent) and the percent greater for one-stop shopping center shoppers for "soup" (48.5 percent vs. 22.8 percent).

Table 4-2 summarizes the data presented in Table A-9. The figures given are the arithmetic means of all ten products. The Table indicates that there is very little difference in awareness of the correct price when the data for all the products are combined. On an average, 21.5 percent of the one-stop shopping center customers priced the products correctly while 20.7 percent of the conventional supermarket shoppers priced the products correctly.

TABLE 4-2
AVERAGE PERCENT OF SHOPPERS CORRECTLY
PRICING FOOD PRODUCTS

Store patronized	Don't purchase	Correct price	Incorrect price
One-stop shopping center	19.3%	21.5%	59.2%
Conventional supermarket	15.1%	20.7%	64.2%
All shoppers	16.8%	21.0%	62.2%

Quality

The research findings pertaining to quality are presented in Tables A-9 through A-11. Table A-9 shows how consumers frequenting each type of retail institution rate the quality of the groceries, meat, and produce at the one-stop shopping center. Tables A-10 and A-11 show how both groups of consumers feel about the quality of the groceries, meat and produce at each of the conventional supermarkets. Tables A-9 and A-11 are statistically significant at the .001 and the .02 levels, respectively.

The Tables report the image that the consumers have of the quality of the groceries, meat and produce sold by each of the stores. The product categories were rated as above average, average, or below average for each of the stores by all respondents.

To test the hypothesis, the data has been combined into Table 4-3. The Table shows how shoppers frequenting the one-stop shopping center rate the quality of the one-stop shopping center and how shoppers frequenting the conventional supermarket rate the quality of each of the conventional supermarkets.

Table 4-3 indicates that the one-stop shopping center shoppers rated the quality of the groceries and produce in the one-stop shopping center about the same as the conventional shoppers rated the quality of the groceries and produce in conventional supermarket number two. The customers from the one-stop shopping center rated the quality of the meat much lower than the customers of the conventional supermarket rated the meat in conventional supermarket number two. Approximately eighty-three percent of the one-stop shopping center customers felt that the quality of the meat was average or below. For conventional supermarket number two, almost half (47.3 percent) felt the quality of the meat was above average.

Conventional supermarket number one appears to be rated average or below on the quality of all three product categories. Table A-10 tends to indicate that all shoppers held a low quality image of the store. The Table would tend to indicate the supermarket has completely failed to differentiate itself in the eyes of the consumers. The data presented in the summary table was not found to be statistical significance.

TABLE 4-3

HOW ONE-STOP SHOPPING CENTER CUSTOMERS RATED THE QUALITY OF GROCERIES, MEAT AND PRODUCE FOR THE ONE-STOP SHOPPING CENTER AND CONVENTIONAL SUPERMARKET CUSTOMERS RATED THE QUALITY OF GROCERIES, MEAT AND PRODUCE IN THE CONVENTIONAL SUPERMARKETS

Store Patronized	Groceries						Meat						Produce					
	Above		Below		Tot		Above		Below		Tot		Above		Below		Tot	
	N.R.	Avg	Avg	Avg	Avg	Tot	N.R.	Avg	Avg	Avg	Tot	N.R.	Avg	Avg	Avg	Avg	Tot	Tot
One-stop shopping center	n 1	24	41	0	66	3	8	37	18	66	1	27	35	3	66			
customer's view of OSSC	% 1.5	36.4	62.1	-	100	4.6	12.1	56.1	27.3	100	1.5	40.9	53.0	4.6	100			
Conventional shoppers view of conventional	n 22	15	50	6	93	22	10	47	14	93	20	9	55	9	93			
Super #1	% 23.7	16.1	53.8	6.5	100	23.7	10.8	50.5	15.1	100	21.5	9.7	59.1	9.7	100			
Conventional shoppers view of conventional	n 11	34	46	2	93	15	44	33	1	93	11	41	40	1	93			
Super #2	% 11.8	36.6	49.5	2.2	100	16.1	47.3	35.5	1.1	100	11.8	44.1	43.0	1.1	100			

Note: Table 4-2 derived from Tables A-10 through A-12

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Trading Stamps and Promotional Games

The research findings pertaining to trading stamps are presented in Tables A-12 and A-13. Table A-12 presents the findings on trading stamp saving behavior, and shows the extent to which consumers shopping in the one-stop shopping center and the conventional supermarket save several different trading stamps.

The data presented in the Table indicates very little overall difference in trading stamp saving behavior between families frequenting each type of retail institution. Top Value Stamps were saved by the greatest number of respondents from each group of shoppers. Of the one-stop shopping center customers, 65.1 percent saved the stamp, while 74.2 percent of the conventional supermarket customers saved the stamp. Most savers, from both groups, had one to five books of Top Value Stamps saved. The "one to five book" category was the largest category for each type of stamp. Gold Bond Stamps were saved by the smallest number of shoppers with only 4.5 percent of the one-stop shopping center customers saving Gold Bond Stamps and 11.8 percent of the conventional supermarket customers saving the stamp. The difference in saving behavior was not found to be statistically significant.

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Table A-13 presents the findings relating to the redemption of trading stamps by consumers frequenting each type of retail store. The Table shows the number and value of the gifts received through the redemption of trading stamps within the last twelve month period.

The Table indicates that there is a significant difference between the redemption behavior of consumers preferring the one-stop shopping center and consumers preferring the conventional supermarket.

Seventy percent of the shoppers preferring the conventional supermarket had redeemed trading stamps for a gift during the last year, while only 49.5 percent of the shoppers preferring the one-stop shopping center received a gift from trading stamps during the same period of time. The data also indicates that the one-stop shopping center customers who did redeem stamps received fewer gifts with a lower retail value than conventional supermarket shoppers. Fifty-five percent of the conventional supermarket shoppers received gifts with a total value over ten dollars, while only 34.8 percent of the one-stop shopping center shoppers received gifts worth over ten dollars in retail value. The difference in the number and value of gifts received was found to be significant at the .05 level.

It is interesting to note the difference in the saving behavior and redemption behavior for each group of shoppers. While approximately the same percentage of

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one-stop shopping center customers and conventional supermarket customers save trading stamps, the redemption rate for trading stamps is much greater for the conventional supermarket shoppers. This might indicate that the one-stop shopping center customers save the stamps for long periods of time before turning the stamps in, give the stamps to friends or organizations, or eventually just throw the stamps away. The research did not attempt to determine which was the case.

The research findings pertaining to consumer awareness of promotional contests and games are presented in Table A-14. The Table shows the extent to which one-stop shopping center shoppers and conventional supermarket shoppers are aware of, and have participated in, various promotional games and contests recently used in the research area.

The Table indicates a slightly lower level of awareness for the one-stop shopping center customers than for the conventional supermarket shoppers. The shoppers concentrating food purchases in the one-stop shopping center had a lower level of awareness for four of the six promotional contests and games used in the research. The percent of the respondents who had participated in the games and contests was also lower for the one-stop shopping center customers in four of the six games. On an average, 75.6 percent of the conventional supermarket shoppers had no

recognition of the promotional games and contests while the figure for the one-stop shopping center shoppers was 80.5 percent. Approximately ten percent of the conventional supermarket customers had played the games and contests while 7.1 percent of one-stop shopping center customers had. The differences were not found to be statistically significant.

Coupons and Price Specials

Tables A-15 and A-16 present the research findings related to the usage of manufacturer "cents-off" coupons. The Tables show the number and value of manufacturer "cents-off" coupons redeemed by each group of shoppers during the last thirty days. Both Tables indicate a higher coupon usage rate for consumers preferring to shop in the one-stop shopping center.

The data contained in Table 4-4 shows that 67.7 percent of the conventional supermarket customers had not redeemed any manufacturer's coupons within the last thirty days, while only 50.0 percent of the one-stop shopping center customers had not redeemed any during the same time. For the 50.0 percent of the one-stop shopping center customers and the 32.3 percent of the conventional supermarket shoppers who had redeemed coupons, the data shows little difference in level of usage. The data in Tables A-15 and A-16 failed to show any statistical significance. However,

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Combining the data into "users" and "non-users" as in Table 4-4 shows the difference in manufacturer usage significant at the .05 level.

TABLE 4-4
PERCENTAGE OF EACH TYPE OF SHOPPER REDEEMING
MANUFACTURER "CENTS-OFF" COUPONS*

Store patronized	Coupon Redemption	
	Percentage not redeeming coupons	Percentage redeeming coupons
One-stop shopping center	50.0%	50.0%
Conventional supermarket	67.7%	32.3%

*Significant at the .05 level

Using the weighted average method of determining the average number of coupons turned in confirms the fact that of the consumers who do turn in coupons, the one-stop shopping center shoppers turn in more. Computing a weighted average of the data contained in Table A-15 indicates that one-stop shopping center customers who turn in coupons turned in an average of 1.96 coupons during the last thirty day period. The same figure for the conventional supermarket customers was 1.09 coupons.

The research findings pertaining to the awareness of advertised specials is shown in Table A-17. The Table shows the number of grocery, meat, produce and dairy specials advertised in the newspaper the preceeding week on which the shoppers could correctly identify the advertised price. Overall, the Table shows very little difference between shoppers preferring each type of retail institution. The significant findings is the low level of recall for all shoppers a week after the item was advertised. The data failed to show any statistical significance.

Private Label Merchandise

The research findings relating to awareness of private label merchandise are shown in Tables A-18 and A-19. Table A-18 shows the number of private labels (from a list of eight, all in use in the research area) that each group of shoppers could correctly identify with the store featuring the brand. The Table indicates little difference between one-stop shopping center customers and conventional supermarket customers in the recognition of private labels. A weighted average was computed from Table A-18. The one-stop shopping center customers recognized an average of 2.56 private labels while the conventional supermarket customers recognized 2.16 private labels. Thus, a slightly higher level of awareness is indicated for the one-stop shopping center customers, but the data is not statistically significant.

Table A-19 presents the findings relating to the awareness of two private labels carried in the store the respondents stated was the store shopped in most frequently. Again, the data shows very little difference between consumers frequenting each type of retail institution. Of the shoppers preferring the one-stop shopping center, 78.8 percent failed to identify both brands correctly. The same figure for shopper preferring the conventional supermarket was 79.6 percent.

Summary

The research findings indicate that there is not a significant difference between consumers shopping in the one-stop shopping center and the consumers shopping in conventional supermarkets in terms of the effectiveness of the various elements in the marketing mix. The research tended to indicate very little difference in price awareness and the perception of quality between shoppers preferring each type of store. Trading stamp saving behavior showed little difference, but redemption was significantly higher for conventional supermarket shoppers. Recognition of promotional games and contests was slightly lower for the one-stop shopping center customers than conventional supermarket shoppers. The research also indicated a higher use of manufacturer "cents-off" coupons by the one-stop shopping center customers, but showed little difference in recall

For items advertised as price specials the preceeding week. In addition, the findings failed to show any real difference in terms of private label recognition between the two groups of shoppers.

Purchase Behavior and Patronage Loyalty

The third guiding hypothesis was formulated to identify actual shopping patterns and behavior. The hypothesis states that the purchase behavior and patronage loyalty of the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the one-stop shopping center is significantly different than the purchase behavior and patronage loyalty of the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the conventional supermarket.

Five research hypotheses were generated from the guiding hypothesis. The research hypotheses state that consumers who concentrate food purchases in the one-stop shopping center differ from consumers who concentrate food purchases in the conventional supermarket in terms of: 1) The number of Stores Shopped, 2) Concentration of Purchases, 3) Average Size of the Customer Order, 4) The Number of Shopping Trips to Purchase Food per Week, and 5) The Distribution of Purchases During the Week.

Number of Stores Shopped

The research findings pertaining to the number of stores shopped to complete food purchases are presented in Table A-20. The Table shows the number of stores shopped by respondents preferring each type of retail outlet. The data is concerned with the actual number of different stores shopped rather than the number of trips to shop. Several trips to one store would still be considered a single store.

The category containing the highest percentage (34.4 percent) of conventional supermarket shoppers was "two stores" while the largest category for one-stop shopping center customers was "three stores" with 42.3 percent. The data would tend to indicate that the one-stop shopping center customers shop in more stores than conventional supermarket customers. Table 4-5 shows that 69.6 percent of the one-stop shopping center customers shopped in three or more stores while only 52.7 percent of the conventional supermarket shoppers shopped in that many stores. The data, however, failed to show any statistical significance.

Concentration of Purchases

Table A-21 presents the research findings pertaining to the concentration of food purchases by consumers preferring each type of retail outlet. The Table shows

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the percent of shopping done by the respondents in their first preference store for a number of different product categories.

TABLE 4-5
NUMBER OF STORES SHOPPED BY
EACH TYPE OF SHOPPER

Store Patronized	Number of Stores Shopped	
	Less than three stores	Three stores and over
One-stop shopping center	30.4%	69.6%
Conventional supermarket	47.3%	52.7%

The percent of shoppers doing 76-100 percent of total food shopping in the first preference store exhibited very little overall difference between shoppers preferring each type of retail institution. Of the one-stop shopping center customers, 51.5 percent did over three-quarters of their total food shopping at the first preference store, while 56.9 percent of the conventional supermarket shoppers purchased over three-quarters of total food at the first preference store.

One-stop shopping center customers concentrated produce, grocery and non-foods shopping in their stated first preference store more than did conventional

supermarket customers, however. The shoppers purchasing over three-quarters of each category were 77.3 percent vs. 69.9 percent, 79.3 percent vs. 62.4 percent and 89.4 percent vs. 77.4 percent for produce, grocery and non-foods shopping respectively. The percent of shoppers purchasing at least three-quarters of all meat in the first preference store was significantly lower for one-stop shopping center customers, however, with only 60.6 percent of the shoppers purchasing this much. The figure for the conventional supermarket shopper was 79.5 percent. Table 4-6 presents a summary of the data contained in Table A-21. The difference for meat shopping and grocery shopping were found to be statistically significant at the .01 and the .02 level.

TABLE 4-6

PERCENTAGE OF EACH GROUP OF SHOPPERS CONCENTRATING
AT LEAST SEVENTY-FIVE PERCENT OF ALL
SHOPPING IN ONE STORE

Store patronized	Product Category				
	Total food shopping	Meat shopping*	Produce shopping	Grocery Shopping**	Non-food shopping
One-stop shopping center	51.5%	60.6%	77.3%	79.3%	89.4%
Conventional supermarket	56.9%	79.5%	69.9%	62.4%	77.4%

*Significant at the .01 level

**Significant at the .02 level

Average Size of Customer Order

The findings of the research pertaining to the average size of the customer order are presented in Table A-22. The average customer order is based on the average weekly food bill and the number of trips the respondent made to purchase food during the week.

The Table indicates that the families preferring the one-stop shopping center had larger average food bills per shopping trip. Approximately one-third (36.3 percent) of the one-stop shopping center shoppers purchased over thirty dollars per trip on an average, while only one-fifth (21.2 percent) of the conventional supermarket shoppers purchased this much per trip. Conversely, 45.5 percent of the one-stop shopping center customers had average shopping bills under twenty dollars. The same figure for the conventional supermarket customers was 55.3 percent. The data was not statistically significant.

Number of Shopping Trips

The research findings in Table A-23 pertain to the number of shopping trips a shopper makes per week to purchase food. Overall, the data failed to achieve any level of statistical significance.

The data does tend to indicate that one-stop shopping center customers shop less often than do the conventional supermarket shoppers. Of all one-stop shopping

center customers, 56.1 percent shopped once a week, or less, whereas only 41.9 percent of the conventional supermarket shoppers shopped once a week, or less. Conversely, 14.1 percent of the conventional supermarket customers shopped at least four times while only 9.0 percent of the one-stop shopping center customers shopped this often. A weighted average of the data in Table A-23 indicated that one-stop shopping center customers make 1.88 trips per week and conventional supermarket shoppers make 2.08 trips per week.

Distribution of Purchases by Day
of Week

Table A-24 presents the research findings concerned with the distribution of food purchases during the week. The Table shows the day of the week that respondents chose to complete the major food shopping trip.

While the data failed to show a distinctive differentiation between shopping groups, several findings are of interest. No particular differences were found between early and late week shopping for consumers preferring either type of retail outlet. Wednesday was a heavy shopping day in the conventional supermarket with 22.6 percent of all conventional supermarket customers shopping on Wednesday while only 6.1 percent of the one-stop shopping center customers shopped on Wednesday. The difference was

probably due to double stamps being given by one of the conventional supermarkets on Wednesday. Also interesting was the fact that 37.9 percent of the one-stop shopping center customers had no particular day that they normally shop while only 28.0 percent of the conventional supermarket shoppers fell into the same category. The differences were not found to be statistically significant.

Summary

Overall, shoppers preferring each type of retail outlet failed to show any significant differences. No definite pattern could be determined for the number of stores shopped, but the data tended to indicate that one-stop shopping center customers did shop in more stores than conventional supermarket shoppers. The one-stop shopping center shoppers did tend to concentrate the purchase of produce, grocery and non-foods more than conventional supermarket shoppers, but total food shopping exhibited little difference. The one-stop shopping center customer also tended to have larger average order sizes and to shop fewer times per week, but the differences were not found to be statistically significant. In addition, no difference was found in the distribution of purchases during the week between the two groups, except for Wednesday which is as probably due to trading stamps.

Related Purchase Behavior

The fourth guiding hypothesis was formulated to study consumer purchase decisions in related areas. The hypothesis states that consumer preference for purchasing food in the one-stop shopping center or the conventional supermarket carries over into other areas of consumer purchasing behavior.

From the guiding hypothesis, four research hypotheses were developed to guide the research. The hypotheses were stated in two different forms. The first three hypotheses state that consumers who concentrate food purchases in the one-stop shopping center are more likely to frequent similar lowered-margin retail institutions than are consumers who concentrate food purchases in the conventional supermarket in terms of: 1) Convenience Goods, 2) Shopping Goods, and 3) Specialty Goods. The fourth research hypothesis states that consumers who concentrate food purchases in the one-stop shopping center are more likely to be catalog shoppers than consumers who concentrate food purchases in the conventional supermarket. Each research hypothesis is covered below.

Convenience Goods

The data pertaining to the related purchasing area of convenience goods is shown in Table A-25. The Table

shows where shoppers preferring the one-stop shopping center and the conventional supermarket would purchase a variety of items generally classified as convenience goods.

The Table indicates that a large number of respondents generally tended to purchase convenience goods where they normally shop for food. The tendency was more pronounced for the one-stop shopping center customers, however. Of shoppers preferring the one-stop shopping center, 59.1 percent purchased cigarettes, 75.7 percent purchased non-prescription drugs, and 43.9 percent purchased magazines in the one-stop shopping center also. The percentages for conventional supermarket shoppers purchasing the items in the conventional supermarket were 44.1 percent for cigarettes, 11.8 percent for non-prescription drugs and 33.3 percent for magazines. All three product categories were found to be significant at the .001 level.

Shopping Goods

Table A-26 presents the research findings relating to shopping goods. The Table shows where shoppers preferring the one-stop shopping center and the conventional supermarket would purchase a variety of goods generally classified as shopping goods. The data in Table A-26 is less conclusive than the data shown in Table A-25.

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The data indicates that both the one-stop shopping center customers and the conventional supermarket customers preferred to purchase the shopping goods in the department store and the specialty store. The department store ranked first. Of the one-stop shopping center customers, 30.3 percent preferred to purchase toasters, 45.5 percent preferred to purchase televisions and 68.2 percent preferred to purchase draperies in the department store. The same figures for the conventional supermarket shoppers were 37.6 percent, 39.8 percent and 54.8 percent for the three items respectively. The difference in preference was not found to be statistically significant.

Specialty Goods

The research findings pertaining to specialty goods are presented in Table A-27. The Table shows where consumers preferring each type of retail institution would purchase several items generally classified as specialty goods.

The three specialty goods show distinctly different patterns. The data indicates that the specialty store was the primary place of purchase mentioned for a man's suit. Of the shoppers preferring the one-stop shopping center, 63.6 percent mentioned the specialty store, as did 59.1 percent of the shoppers preferring the conventional supermarket. The purchase of prescriptions indicated a different pattern. While the largest percent of the shoppers (62.1

percent for the one-stop shopping center and 83.9 percent for the conventional supermarket) preferred to purchase prescriptions at the drugstore, 34.9 percent of the one-stop shopping center customers preferred to purchase the product at the one-stop shopping center. The difference in the purchase patterns for prescriptions was significant at the .001 level.

The purchase of good china failed to show a distinct pattern. Both types of shoppers preferred to purchase china primarily in the department and specialty store. The one-stop shopping center customers indicated a stronger preference for the department store (48.5 percent) than the specialty store (33.3 percent) while the conventional supermarket shoppers divided evenly between the two types of stores. Of the conventional supermarket shoppers, 43.0 percent preferred the department store and 41.9 percent preferred the specialty store. The differences were not found to be statistically significant except in the case of prescriptions.

Catalog Shopping

The research findings pertaining to catalog, or mail-order, shopping are presented in Tables A-28 through A-30. A summary of catalog shopping behavior is presented in Table 4-7, which shows that one-stop shopping center customers are much heavier users of catalog shopping than

are conventional supermarket shoppers. Of the shoppers preferring the one-stop shopping center, 60.6 percent do purchase merchandise by mail, while only 41.9 percent of the conventional supermarket shoppers do. The difference was statistically significant at the .05 level.

TABLE 4-7

PURCHASE OF MERCHANDISE BY MAIL FOR
FAMILY UNITS SHOPPING IN
EACH TYPE OF STORE*

Purchase Behavior				
Store patronized		Don't purchase by mail	Do purchase by mail	Total
One-stop shopping center	n	26	40	66
	%	39.4	60.6	100
Conventional supermarket	n	54	39	93
	%	58.1	41.9	100
All shoppers	n	80	79	159
	%	50.3	49.7	100

*Significant at the .05 level

Table A-28 shows the number of respondents preferring to shop in each type of retail institution who had mail-order catalogs in their home at the time of the interview. The data indicates that, for each of the six catalogs listed, a higher percentage of one-stop shopping center customers had catalogs in the home than did the conventional supermarket customers. The Sears catalog exhibited the

greatest coverage with 50.0 percent of one-stop shopping center shoppers having the catalog in their home. Only 31.2 percent of the conventional supermarket shoppers had a Sears catalog. The data on the Sears, Montgomery Ward, Spiegel and Alden catalogs were found to be significant at the .05 level.

Table A-29 shows the value of all items ordered through general merchandise catalogs by both groups of shoppers during the last three months. The Table indicates that one-stop shopping center customers are heavier users of general merchandise catalogs. During the last three months 51.5 percent of the one-stop shopping center customers made purchases through the general merchandise catalogs while only 36.6 percent of the conventional supermarket shoppers did. In addition, for each purchase value category in the Table, the percentage of shoppers purchasing items was higher for the one-stop shopping center customers. The difference was not found to be statistically significant.

The value of all other merchandise ordered through the mail, or through specialty catalogs, during the last three months by shoppers preferring each type of retail institution is presented in Table A-30. The Table indicates that the one-stop shopping center shoppers also purchased more specialized items through the mail. Of the one-stop shopping center customers, 72.3 percent had

purchased specialty items through the mail during the last three months, while only 53.8 percent of the conventional supermarket customers had. The data indicates that the majority of all shoppers had purchased under twenty-five dollars worth of merchandise. The findings were statistically significant at the .05 level.

Summary

The research findings indicate that the one-stop shopping center customer is likely to carry this preference for one-stop shopping over into other related areas. Shoppers preferring to purchase food in the one-stop shopping center purchased significantly more of the convenience goods in their first preference store than did shoppers preferring the conventional supermarket. The purchase of shopping goods exhibited similar preferences for each group of consumers. The preference for purchasing specialty goods was not distinctly different except in the case of prescriptions which exhibited a fairly strong preference for purchasing the item in the one-stop shopping center by its shoppers.

The research findings also exhibited a difference between shoppers preferring each type of retail outlet in terms of mail-order shopping. The one-stop shopping center customer was more prone to purchase merchandise by mail than the conventional supermarket shopper in each situation studied.

Characteristics of Adopter Family Units

The fifth guiding hypothesis was formulated to study the adopters responsible for the acceptance and growth of the one-stop shopping center. The hypothesis states that earlier adopters of the one-stop shopping center are significantly different than later adopters of the institution.

Four research hypotheses were developed from the guiding hypothesis to direct the research. The hypotheses state that earlier adopters differ from later adopters in terms of four variables. The variables are: 1) Socio-economic Characteristics, 2) The Motivational Effect of Various Elements in the Institution's Marketing Mix, 3) Purchase Behavior and Patronage Loyalty, and 4) The Carry-over of Purchase Behavior.

Data was generated and tested in each of the areas presented under the first four guiding hypotheses. Only the tables which differentiate earlier and later adopters will be presented as part of the research findings. It should be noted that the present section of the research findings is based on the sixty-six respondents who named the one-stop shopping center as the store in which the majority of their food purchases were made.

Socio-economic Characteristics

The socio-economic characteristics which best differentiate the earlier and later adopters of the one-stop shopping center are family income, the education of the male, family life cycle, and social class. The research findings are presented in Tables A-31 through A-34. Each of the variables is covered below.

Table A-31 presents the research findings pertaining to family income. While not statistically significant, the data does indicate that a higher percent of the earlier adopters had incomes below 10,000 dollars than the later adopters. Of the earlier adopters, 48.7 percent had incomes below 10,000 dollars while only 38.1 percent of the later adopters had incomes below 10,000 dollars.

The level of formal education of the male for adopting families is presented in Table A-32. The Table indicates that earlier adopters generally had a lower level of formal education than did the later adopters. Of those families classified as early adopters, 54.5 percent had no education past high school, and 25 percent had not completed high school. Conversely, 72.8 percent of the later adopters had had some education at the college level. The findings were significant at the .05 level.

The stage in the family life cycle of adopting families is presented in Table A-33. The research findings presented in the Table indicate that the majority of both

the earlier and later adopters were young families with children. The earlier adopters were more concentrated in the young families with children grouping, however. Of the earlier adopters, 88.6 percent fell into the category while 72.7 percent of the later adopters did. The data was significant at the .05 level.

Table A-34 presents the research findings relevant to the social class of adopter families. The data indicates that the earlier adopters came from lower social classes than the later adopters. In each classification the largest group (34.1 percent for earlier adopters and 31.6 percent for later adopters) was the group which could be definitely classified as "lower-middle" on the Warner scale. Families lower on the scale accounted for 33.2 percent of the earlier adopters and 22.7 percent of the later adopters. Conversely, the families above this classification accounted for only 17.2 percent of the earlier adopters and 45.2 percent of the later adopters. The research findings were significant at the .05 level.

Summary

The research findings indicate that a greater percentage of the earlier adopters had incomes below 10,000 dollars, and a lower level of formal education than later adopters. Earlier adopters were also more concentrated into the categories of younger families with children.

In addition, the earlier adopters generally came from lower social classes than did the later adopters.

Effectiveness of Selected Elements
in an Institution's Marketing Mix

The research findings indicated differences between earlier and later adopters of the one-stop shopping center in terms of trading stamp redemption, manufacturer "cents-off" coupons, and the awareness of private label merchandise carried by the store. The data is presented in Tables A-35 through A-37.

Table A-35 presents the findings of the research relevant to the redemption of trading stamps. The Table indicates a higher rate of redemption for the later adopters of the one-stop shopping center than the earlier adopters. Approximately sixty (59.1) percent of the later adopters had redeemed stamps for gifts during the last year, while only 43.2 percent of the earlier adopters had redeemed trading stamps for a gift during the same time period. In addition, the data indicates the later adopters received more gifts. Of the later adopters, 40.9 percent had received at least two gifts during the period while only 11.4 percent of the earlier adopters received this many. The Table was significant at the .05 level.

The research findings pertaining to the use of manufacturer "cents-off" coupons is presented in Table A-36. The Table indicates a higher usage of manufacturer coupons for the earlier adopters. Over half (56.8 percent) of the earlier adopters had redeemed a coupon during the last thirty days, whereas only 36.4 percent of the later adopters had. In addition, 34.1 percent of the earlier adopters had turned in more than one manufacturer coupon while only 4.5 percent of the later adopters turned in more than one. The data failed to show statistical significance.

Table A-37 presents the research findings relevant to the awareness of private label merchandise carried in the one-stop shopping center. The data indicates a higher level of awareness for later adopters than earlier adopters. In each group the level of recognition of the two brands tested was fairly low. The brand names were correctly identified with the one-stop shopping center by 15.9 percent of the earlier adopters and 27.3 percent of the later adopters. The difference was not statistically significant.

Summary

The research would tend to indicate some differences in the responsiveness of the earlier and the later adopters to several elements in the institution's marketing mix. The earlier adopters redeemed fewer trading stamps for gifts than later adopters. Earlier adopters tended to be

more responsive to manufacturers "cents-off" coupons than did later adopters. In addition, the data would tend to indicate a difference in awareness of private label merchandise carried in the one-stop shopping center, with later adopters more aware than earlier adopters.

Purchase Behavior and Patronage Loyalty

Two of the variables studied in the area of purchase behavior and patronage loyalty tend to differentiate the earlier adopters from the later adopters. The two variables were the concentration of shopping in the first preference store and the number of shopping trips made per week to purchase food. The data are presented in Tables A-38 and A-39.

Table A-38 presents the research findings pertaining to the percent of shopping done in the one-stop shopping center for several broad product categories by earlier and later adopters. While statistical significance was not achieved, the data tends to indicate that the earlier adopters concentrate food purchases more than the later adopters. In each of the five categories shown in the table a higher percentage of the early adopters purchased over 75 percent of the categories studied than the later adopters. The difference in the percentage of the earlier adopters and the later adopters purchasing more than 75 percent

varied by product grouping from a low of 2.3 percent to a high of 19.5 percent. The high of 19.5 percent was for grocery shopping.

The research findings relevant to the number of shopping trips to purchase food per week are presented in Table A-39. The data tends to indicate a lower number of shopping trips were made by the earlier adopters of the one-stop shopping center. Six-tenths of the earlier adopters shopped once a week, or less while 45.5 percent of the later adopters did. In addition, only 20.5 percent of the earlier adopters shopped at least three times a week while 36.3 percent of the later adopters shopped this often. The difference shown was not found to be statistically significant.

Summary

The research findings tend to indicate that earlier adopters and later adopters differ in terms of two variables used in the study. The earlier adopters tended to concentrate shopping in one store to a greater extent than the later adopters. The earlier adopters also appear to have shopped fewer times per week than the later adopters, with a majority of the earlier adopters shopping only once a week.

Related Purchase Behavior

The research indicated very little difference between earlier and later adopters in terms of related purchase behavior. The two areas reviewed are purchasing through mail-order catalogs and the mail-order catalogs present in the home of the respondents. Tables 4-8 and A-40 present the findings.

Table 4-8 summarizes the research findings pertaining to adopters purchasing merchandise through mail-order catalogs.

TABLE 4-8

PURCHASE OF MERCHANDISE BY MAIL FOR ADOPTERS OF THE ONE-STOP SHOPPING CENTER

Adopter Category		Purchase Behavior		
		Don't purchase by mail	Do purchase by mail	Total
Earlier adopters	n	21	23	44
	%	47.7	52.3	100
Later adopters	n	12	10	22
	%	54.5	45.5	100
All adopters	n	33	33	60
	%	50.0	50.0	50.0

The table indicates that the earlier adopters are somewhat heavier users of mail-order catalogs than are the later adopters. Fifty percent of all the adopters stated

that they did purchase merchandise through mail-order catalogs. Of the earlier adopters, 52.3 percent purchased merchandise through the catalogs while 45.5 percent of the later adopters did. The difference was not statistically significant.

The adopters having a number of different general-merchandise mail-order catalogs in the home at the time of the interview is shown in Table A-40. The data shows that for five of the six different catalogs used in the research, a higher percent of the earlier adopters had the catalogs than the later adopters. The J. C. Penney's catalog was the most discriminate with 21.7 percent more earlier adopters having the catalog in the home. The difference for the Penney's catalog was significant at the .05 level.

Summary

The research indicates little difference for most of the research variables in terms of related purchase behavior. Earlier adopters were slightly higher users of mail-order shopping and a greater percentage had mail-order catalogs in the home.

Other Significant Findings

In addition to the data specifically developed to test the hypotheses, the research generated a body of

knowledge tangential to the main emphasis of the study. The sixth section of the chapter presents the additional findings of the research.

Availability and Use of Car and Source of Supply for Food

It is believed by many researchers that the availability and use of a car affects shopping behavior. Tables 4-9 and 4-10 present the research findings related to the area. Table 4-9 shows the number and percent of women preferring each type of retail outlet who stated that they do drive a car. The data indicates very little difference in the percent of women from each group of shoppers who drive. Of the one-stop shopping center customers, 86.4 percent of the women said they drive, while 90.3 percent of the women preferring the conventional supermarket said they drive. The findings would thus indicate that the ability to drive does not affect which type of store the shopper patronizes.

Table 4-10 presents the findings of the research pertaining to the availability of a car to the woman during the day. The data does not indicate a statistically significant difference between the one-stop shopping center customers and the conventional supermarket customers. A higher percentage of the conventional supermarket shoppers did have cars available during the day however. Over

three-quarters (77.4 percent) of the conventional supermarket shoppers had cars available while one-third (66.7 percent) of the one-stop shopping center customers had a car available. While inconclusive, the availability of a car to the woman during the day may affect the choice of a retail outlet for food. If this is the case, having a car available would tend to favor the selection of the conventional supermarket.

TABLE 4-9

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN WHO DRIVE FAMILY CAR

Store Patronized		Woman Shoppers Who Drive		
		Don't Drive	Drive	Total
One-stop shopping center	n	9	57	66
	%	13.6	86.4	100
Conventional supermarket	n	9	84	93
	%	9.7	90.3	100
All shoppers	n	18	141	159
	%	11.3	88.7	100

Who Accompanies the Wife on Food Shopping Trips

Table 4-11 indicates that there is a relationship between the type of outlet selected for the purchase of food and which family members go on the shopping trip. The data indicates that the one-stop shopping center is more of

a family market. Of the women who shopped the conventional supermarket for food, 44.1 percent made the shopping trip alone, while only 22.7 percent of the women who did their food shopping in the one-stop shopping center went to the store alone. In 18.2 percent of the trips to the one-stop shopping center the whole family went, while this was the case in only 2.2 percent of the conventional supermarket trips. The difference in who shopped was found to be significant at the .001 level.

TABLE 4-10

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN WHO HAVE CARS
AVAILABLE DURING THE DAY

Store Patronized	N.R.		Availability of Car		Total
			Car not available	Car available	
One-stop shopping center	n 1		21	44	66
	% 1.5		31.8	66.7	100
Conventional supermarket	n 1		20	72	93
	% 1.1		21.5	77.4	100
All shoppers	n 2		41	116	159
	% 1.3		25.8	72.9	100

Coupon Usage Patterns

Table 4-12 presents the research findings pertaining to consumer usage patterns for coupons received from manufacturers. The consumers use of the coupons was

presented in the second section of the chapter. Table 4-12 is presented to enlarge on the area of manufacturer coupon usage. The Table indicates, as did the earlier tables, that the one-stop shopping center customers were more responsive to the manufacturer coupons.

TABLE 4-11

WHO ACCOMPANIES HOUSEWIFE ON FOOD SHOPPING TRIP*

Store Patronized	Shop alone	Friend neighbor	Other Persons Accompanying Housewife				Whole family	Total
			Husband other adult family member	Child under five	Child over five			
One-stop shopping center	n 15 % 22.7	3 4.5	21 31.8	12 18.2	3 4.5	12 18.2	66 100	
Conventional super- market	n 41 % 44.1	5 5.4	27 29.0	8 8.6	10 10.8	2 2.2	93 100	
All shoppers	n 56 % 35.2	8 5.0	48 20.2	20 12.6	13 8.2	14 8.8	159 100	

*Significant at the .001 level

Combining the categories "use right away" and "save, use later," it can be seen that 66.7 percent of the one-stop shopping center shoppers actually turned in the coupons, while only 41.9 percent of the conventional super-market shoppers actually redeemed them. Over three times

as many one-stop shopping center shoppers as conventional supermarket shoppers used the coupons right away. Also of interest, is the fact that almost twice as many of the conventional supermarket shoppers threw the coupons away on receipt of them. The difference in usage patterns was found to be significant at the .05 level.

TABLE 4-12

MANUFACTURER "CENTS-OFF" COUPON USAGE PATTERNS*

Store Patronized	N.R.	Usage Pattern					Total
		Use right away	Save, use later	Plan to use, but don't	Give away	Throw away	
One-stop shopping center	n 1 % 1.5	10 15.2	34 51.5	4 6.1	1 1.5	16 24.2	66 100
Conventional super- market	n 3 % 3.2	4 4.3	35 37.6	7 7.5	1 1.1	43 46.2	93 100
All shoppers	n 4 % 2.5	14 8.8	69 43.4	11 6.9	2 1.3	59 37.1	159 100

*Significant at the .05 level.

Adoption of a New Retail Institution
and the Availability of a Car

While the research findings with respect to availability of a car to the wife and her selection of a retail outlet for food were inconclusive, the same is not true

with respect to the adoption of a new outlet. The findings are presented in Tables 4-13 and 4-14.

Table 4-13 tends to indicate that the availability of a car during the day is a significant factor differentiating the earlier adopter of the one-stop shopping center from the later adopter. Seventy-five percent of the earlier adopters had cars available during the day while only fifty percent of the later adopters did.

TABLE 4-13
PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN ADOPTING THE ONE-STOP
SHOPPING CENTER HAVING CAR
AVAILABLE DURING THE DAY

Adopter Categories			Availability of Car		
			N.R.	Car not available	car available
Earlier adopters	n	1	10	33	44
	%	2.3	22.7	75.0	100
Later adopters	n	0	11	11	22
	%	-	50.0	50.0	100
All adopters	n	1	21	44	66
	%	1.5	31.8	66.7	100

Table 4-14 supports the evidence presented in Table 4-13. A much higher percentage of the earlier adopter families of the one-stop shopping center had at least two cars available to the family. Approximately two-thirds (65.9 percent) of the earlier adopters had at least two

cars available to the family while only 27.2 percent of the later adopters had more than one car available. The findings were significant at the .05 level. The data would thus tend to indicate that the availability of a car was important to the acceptance and growth of the one-stop shopping center, whereas it was not found to differentiate the one-stop shopping center customer from the conventional supermarket shopper at the time of the research.

TABLE 4-14

NUMBER OF CARS AVAILABLE PER FAMILY
FOR ADOPTER FAMILY UNITS*

Adopter category		Number of cars				Total
		None	1	2	3+	
Earlier adopters	n	1	14	26	3	44
	%	2.3	31.8	59.1	6.8	100
Later adopters	n	1	15	5	1	22
	%	4.5	68.2	22.7	4.5	100
All adopters	n	2	29	31	4	66
	%	3.0	43.9	47.0	6.1	100

*Significant at the .05 level

Discriminant Analysis

In addition to analyzing the data to test the hypotheses directly, the data was analyzed in a second way. In the second analysis, selected variables were analyzed

using multiple discriminant analysis.² Multiple discriminant analysis is concerned with solving the problem of assigning an individual to one of a number of mutually exclusive groups on the basis of a set of n measurements on the individual.

The statistical technique attacks the problem by determining whether or not the points (measurements) representing the performance of each individual on the n variables measured tend to occupy different regions in the n dimensional space defined by the n variables measured. If the points do tend to occupy different regions of the n dimensional space, then classification of new individuals on whom the same n measurements are obtained becomes possible.

In multiple discriminant analysis, the group to which an individual normally belongs, i.e. the first preference food store in the study, is the criteria which orients the analysis of the data rather than the n measurements. Using the groups as the main criterion for the analysis, the computer program develops discriminant functions from the input data. The discriminant function is a linear function of the n measurements which maximizes the

²For further information on multiple discriminant analysis see William F. Massy, *op. cit.*, or David V. Tiedeman, "The Utility of the Discriminant Function In Psychological and Guidance Investigations," Harvard Educational Review, Vol. XXI, No. 2 (Spring, 1951), pp. 71-79.

ratio of among means of groups sum of squares to the within groups sum of squares.

Maximization of the ratio of the among means of groups sum of squares to the within groups sum of squares has the effect of spreading the means of the groups apart, while simultaneously concentrating the scatter of individual points about their respective groups. Thus, the extent of overlap in the distribution of measurements for the various groups is minimized.

The number of discriminant functions necessary to maximize the ratio, i.e. minimize the extent of overlap, is one less than the number of groups used in the study. The present study utilized two discriminant functions since the number of groups in the study was three.

The two discriminant functions developed, reduced the n measurements for each group into group centroids. Since there were three groups, three group centroids were developed. The centroids represent a center of gravity, or statistically a mean of the n measurements for the group under study. The group centroids are then plotted in the discriminant function space, or the space described by the discriminant functions, to determine the extent to which the group centroids enable the researcher to discriminate between the groups on the basis of the n measurements.

Thus, multiple discriminant analysis through the development of discriminant functions describes the variation of the group centroids developed. Determination of the coefficients of these discriminant functions provides a means of transforming the points of the n dimensional space to the discriminant function space which is of lower order than the n dimensional space since the number of groups is smaller than the number of measurements. The transformations tend to exhaust all of the information contained in the original set of n variables concerning the separation of the group centroids and the scatter of individuals about their centroids.

Study of the location of the resultant group centroids in the discriminant function space for each of the groups permits the determination of whether the discriminant functions developed significantly differentiate the groups under study. If the discriminant functions do significantly differentiate the groups, prediction of group membership is possible for new individuals measured on the n variables.

For purposes of the analysis fourteen variables were used. Most of the variables were used elsewhere in the research, but some were included exclusively for the discriminant analysis. The variables used in the discriminant analysis were as follows:

1. The percent of total food shopping done in the first preference store.

2. The number of related items purchased per food shopping trip.

3. The location of the first preference store in reference to the respondents home.

4. The extent to which mail-order purchases were made during the last year using the value of all merchandise received through the mail.

5. The number of prices correctly identified for ten frequently purchased food items.

6. The respondent's awareness of price specials shown by recall of price specials offered the previous week.

7. The number of "cents-off" labels purchased during the last thirty day period.

8. The number of private label brands correctly identified in relation to the store featuring the brand.

9. The extent to which other discount shopping is engaged in, determined by the number of products purchased in discount houses.

10. The number of trading stamps presently saved.

11. The number of gifts received through redemption of trading stamps during the last year.

12. The number of promotional games and contests recognized by the respondent.

13. The number of promotional games and contests participated in by the respondent.

14. The number of manufacturer "cents-off" coupons turned in during the last thirty days.

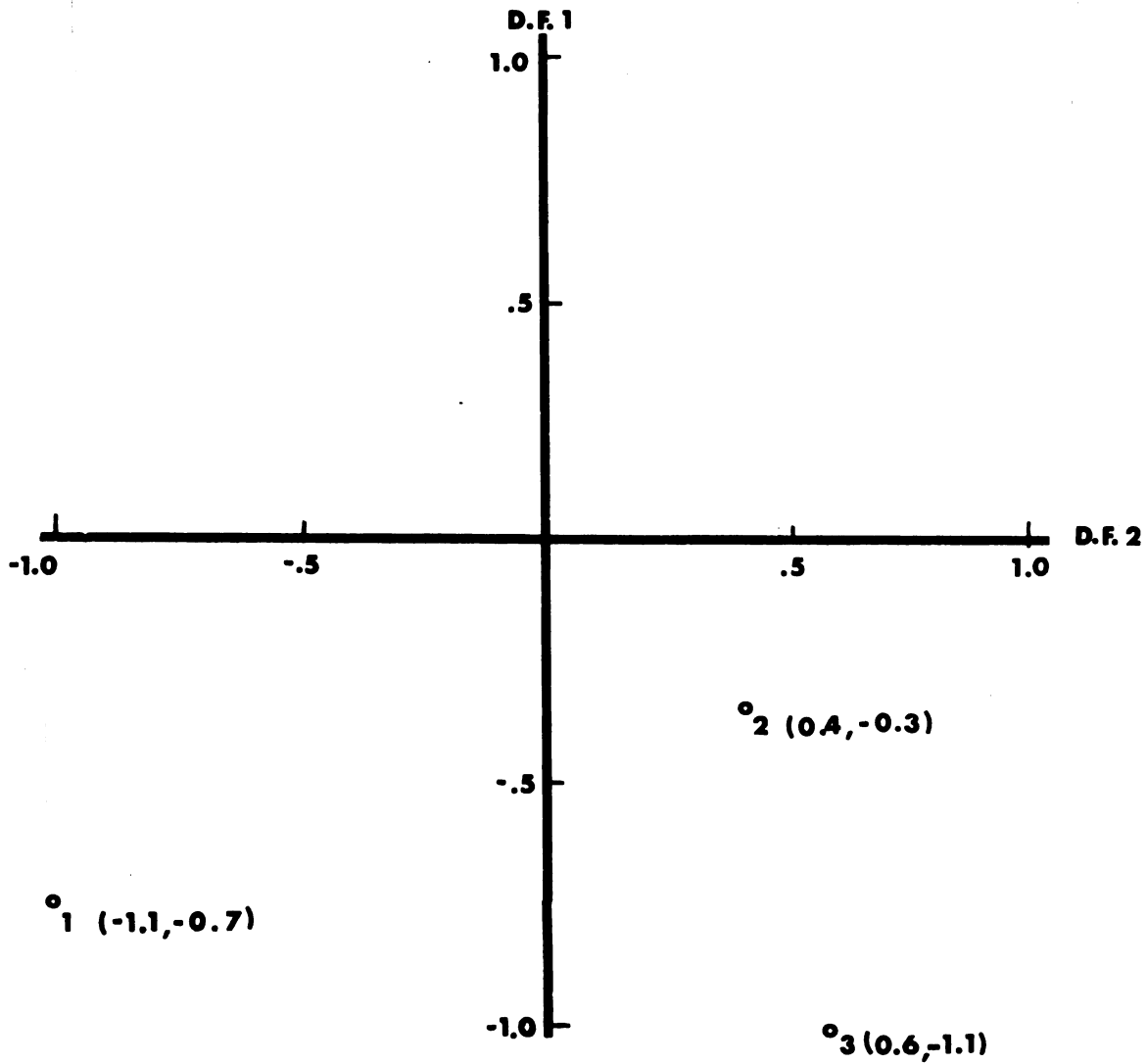
The fourteen variables used were classified into three major variables which were: 1) convenience variables, 2) economic variables, and 3) promotional variables. Variables one through four are convenience variables. Variables five through nine are economic variables. And variables ten through fourteen are promotional variables.

The research findings are presented in Figure 4-1 and Table 4-15. Figure 4-1 shows the position of the group centroids in the discriminant function space. Table 4-15 contains the simple correlations found to exist between the fourteen research variables and the three food stores patronized by the respondents.

The data contained in Figure 4-1 shows that multiple discriminant analysis was successful in distinguishing the three groups from each other. The fourteen variables used in the multiple discriminant analysis resulted in group centroids occurring in different regions of the discriminant function space.

The first discriminant function (the horizontal axis in Figure 4-1) was most successful in separating the one-stop shopping center customers from the conventional supermarket customers. The first discriminant function

Figure 4-1
Position of Group Centroids in Discriminant
Function Space Using Fourteen
Variables



LEGEND:

- 1 - One-Stop Shopping Center**
- 2 - Conventional Supermarket No. 1**
- 3 - Conventional Supermarket No. 2**

separated the two groups of conventional supermarket shoppers very little however. The overall difference in group centroids on the first discriminant function was found to be significant at the .001 level.

The second discriminant function (the vertical axis in Figure 4-1) succeeded in separating the two groups of conventional supermarket shoppers more than the first discriminant function. The separation of the three group centroids was much less on the second axis however. The differences in the group centroids were not found to be statistically significant on the second axis.

Table 4-15 presents the simple correlations found for the fourteen research variables and the three retail outlets. The data indicates that, in general, the correlations found to be positive between the individual research variables and the one-stop shopping center customers were negative for the conventional supermarket customers, and vice versa. The one-stop shopping center customers correlated positively on all the convenience and economic variables except the variable concerned with the distance the customers would travel to purchase food. With the exception of the variable concerned with the usage of manufacturer "cents-off" coupons, the one-stop shopping center customers were found to have negative correlations on the promotional variables. The positive correlation found for one-stop shopping center customers and negative correlation found

TABLE 4-15

SIMPLE CORRELATION OF RESEARCH VARIABLES
WITH FIRST PREFERENCE STORE

Research Variables	First Preference Store		
	One-stop shopping center	Conventional supermarket #1	Conventional supermarket #2
A. Convenience Variables			
1. Percent of Shopping Done in 1st Store	.14	-.15	-.01
2. Number of Related Purchases Per Trip	.33	-.19	-.19
3. Location of Store Shopped	-.30	.13	.20
4. Extent of Mail-Order Shopping	.14	-.03	-.13
B. Economic Variables			
5. Number of Prices Correctly Identified	.03	-.04	.01
6. Awareness of Price Specials	.11	-.05	-.07
7. Number of "Cents-off" Labels Purchased	.17	-.15	-.04
8. Number of Private Labels Recognized	.12	-.03	-.10
9. Extent of Other Discount Shopping	.39	-.15	-.28
C. Promotional Variables			
10. Number of Trading Stamps Saved	-.16	-.02	.19
11. Number of Gifts Received from Trading Stamps	-.21	.17	.07
12. Number of Promotional Games Recognized	-.05	.11	-.05
13. Number of Promotional Games Played	-.12	-.01	.14
14. Number of Manufacturer "Cents-off" Coupons Turned In	.12	-.04	-.09

for conventional supermarket customers on the usage of manufacturer "cents-off" coupons indicates that the variable probably should have been classified as an economic rather than a promotional variable.

Conversely, the conventional supermarket shoppers were found to have a negative correlation with all the convenience and economic variables with the exception of the nearness of the store chosen. The correlation of each group of shoppers with the promotional variables was less distinct than the other two groups of variables. The correlations were mixed with some being positive and others negative. Overall, however, more of the correlations were positive than negative.

The data presented in Table 4-15 and Figure 4-1 would indicate that there is more of a difference between one-stop shopping center customers and conventional supermarket customers than the analysis of individual measurements would indicate. The gestalt of the individual measurements indicates significant differences between the two types of shoppers.

The findings would indicate that one-stop shopping center customers are generally more interested in, and evidently motivated more by, the convenience and economic aspects of shopping rather than the promotional aspects. The conventional supermarket customers, however, appear to be more interested in, and motivated more by, the

promotional aspects of shopping rather than the convenience and economic aspects. The one exception to the pattern is the location of the store selected to supply the family's food needs in relation to the respondent's home. The one-stop shopping center customers appear much more willing to travel farther to shop than the conventional supermarket shoppers. This would indicate that convenience of location is regarded as different than convenience of multiple purchase opportunities by the two types of shoppers.

Summary of Other Significant Findings

In addition to data necessary to test for formulated hypotheses, a number of other significant findings were uncovered in the research. The findings indicated that the availability of a car to the housewife was not generally a discriminating factor determining the selection of retail outlets for food purchases. The availability of a car evidently was important to the adoption of a new retail institution, as earlier adopters were found to own, and have access to, more cars per family than later adopters.

The retail outlet shopped for food also appears to be related to who goes on the shopping trip. The research indicated that the one-stop shopping center had a much higher incidence of family shopping than the conventional supermarket.

Manufacturer coupon usage was also found to differ significantly with the retail outlet patronized. One-stop shopping center customers were much more responsive to the coupons and redeemed a much higher percentage than conventional supermarket shoppers.

In addition to the analysis of the data necessary to test the research hypotheses, a multiple discriminant analysis was used to combine fourteen of the research variables. The fourteen variables were convenience, economic and promotional in nature. The analysis indicated that the one-stop shopping center customers were more interested in the convenience and economic aspects of shopping, while conventional supermarket shoppers appeared to be more concerned with the promotional aspects of shopping.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The final chapter of the dissertation is composed of five sections. The chapter begins with a general summary of the background and nature of the research. The second section of the chapter presents an evaluation of the research hypotheses based on the findings presented in Chapter IV. The third section is concerned with the major conclusions of the research. In the fourth section of the chapter, the implications of the research are presented. Finally, the fifth section is concerned with suggestions for further research.

General Summary of the Study

The history of retailing in the United States has been a dynamic one. As the social and economic environment has changed, retailing has continually adapted to keep pace with the times. The change has been both revolutionary and evolutionary in nature, moving forward with great speed during some time periods and progressing slowly during other time periods.

It has been the summation of the revolutionary and the evolutionary changes, which has allowed the retail segment of the economy to keep pace with the changing wants and needs of the American consumer. McNair has labeled the process of change the "Wheel of Retailing," in which a bold new institution starts out as a low-margin, low-price operation and then gradually "trades-up" over time, until it emerges as a mature institution with high margins and prices. At the mature stage in the cycle, another institutional innovation appears and the wheel turns again.

Numerous examples of institutional innovation exist. The mail-order house, chain store and supermarket all started out as low-margin, low-price retail institutions. Each, in turn has "traded-up" over time, leaving a void for new types of retail institutions. The one-stop shopping center, offering a product mix of general merchandise and food at lower margins than conventional outlets, is a recent example of such an institutional innovation. In addition, the outlet offers a new level of convenience with all merchandise featured in one large shopping area to minimize consumer shopping effort.

In spite of the importance of the institutional innovation to retailing and the American consumer, little is known about the actual process of consumer acceptance responsible for the success, or failure, of a new type of outlet. Neither the specific consumer market segments that

the new institution appeals to, nor the process by which the institution gains acceptance is well documented in the research literature.

It was the object of the study to employ scientific research techniques to learn more about the process of consumer acceptance with respect to the selected institution. To accomplish the task, the research investigated the segmentation of the consumer market resulting from the introduction of a one-stop shopping center into a market previously served by two conventional supermarkets. Although a number of related purchase decision areas were studied, the main thrust of the research was on the purchase of food necessary to meet family requirements.

The research was conducted in a geographically concentrated area at the western edge of the Lansing, Michigan Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area. The findings reported in the research were based on comprehensive interviews with 159 family units. In each family unit the woman of the household was the individual completing the comprehensive twenty page survey instrument used in the research.

The research studied five major areas relevant to consumer decision making. The first three areas were concerned with identifying socio-economic characteristics, purchase motivation, and purchase behavior or patronage loyalty factors for respondents patronizing either the

one-stop shopping center or the conventional supermarket to determine any differentiating characteristics between the two types of shoppers. The fourth area studied purchase behavior related to the purchase of food. The last area of the research studied the adopters of the one-stop shopping center to determine any change in the research variables between the earlier and later adopter segments of the consumer market. For purposes of the study, earlier adopters were defined as those family units which adopted the one-stop shopping center during the first three months it was open, while later adopters were defined as the family units adopting the institution after the first three months of operation.

Evaluation of the Hypotheses

The following paragraphs review the hypotheses around which the study was organized, and the research findings pertaining to each. The research hypotheses were directly tested by the findings using a bivariate analysis. The research hypotheses were generated from five guiding hypotheses which were not directly tested. A multivariate analysis used on fourteen of the variables supports both the guiding hypotheses and the rationale behind the study, however. The guiding hypotheses are presented in Chapter V to lend structure to the chapter and assure that the research hypotheses are reviewed in the context of the total study.

Socio-economic Characteristics

Guiding hypothesis 1 reads as follows: The profile of the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the one-stop shopping center is significantly different than the profile of the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the conventional supermarket.

The first guiding hypothesis was designed to focus a section of the research on the socio-economic characteristics of the shoppers frequenting each type of retail outlet. Seven research hypotheses were generated from the guiding hypothesis.

The seven research hypotheses composing hypothesis 1.A read as follows: Consumers who concentrate food purchases in the one-stop shopping center differ from consumers who concentrate food purchases in the conventional supermarket in terms of:

- 1.A.1. Family Income;
- 1.A.2. Age of the Household Head;
- 1.A.3. Occupation of the Household Head;
- 1.A.4. Family Size;
- 1.A.5. Level of Formal Education;
- 1.A.6. Family Life Cycle;
- 1.A.7. Social Class.

On the basis of the data presented in Tables A-1 through A-7, five of the research hypotheses must be rejected. The findings indicated no significant difference

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between the two groups of shoppers in terms of: Family Income (1.A.1.), Occupation of the Household Head, (1.A.3.), Family Size (1.A.4.), Level of Formal Education (1.A.5.), and Social Class (1.A.7.).

The research did find significant differences between shoppers preferring the one-stop shopping center and the conventional supermarket in terms of the age of the household head (1.A.2.) and family life cycle (1.A.6.). Hypothesis 1.A.2. can be accepted on the basis of findings presented in Table A-2. The data shows that the household head of families shopping in the one-stop shopping center was generally younger than the household head of families shopping in the conventional supermarket. Hypothesis 1.A.6. can be accepted on the basis of the findings presented in Table A-6. The Table shows that the one-stop shopping center customers represent primarily younger families, especially the younger families with children under ten.

Effectiveness of Selected Elements in an Institution's Marketing Mix

Guiding hypothesis 2 reads as follows: The importance of the various elements in an institution's marketing mix to the consumer in motivating her to frequent a particular institution varies significantly between the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the

one-stop shopping center and the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the conventional supermarket.

The second guiding hypothesis was designed to direct measure the effectiveness of a number of selected elements in the marketing mix. Five research hypotheses were generated.

The five research hypotheses contained in hypothesis 2.A read as follows: The importance of elements in the institution's marketing mix varies between the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the one-stop shopping center and the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the conventional supermarket in terms of:

- 2.A.1. Price;
- 2.A.2. Quality;
- 2.A.3. Trading Stamps and Promotional Games;
- 2.A.4. Coupons and Price Specials;
- 2.A.5. Private Label Merchandise.

On the basis of the findings presented in Tables A-8 through A-19 the five research hypotheses must be rejected. The findings of the research indicated little significant difference between the two groups of shoppers in terms of the motivational effect of the various elements from the institution's marketing mix used in the research. There was almost no difference in price awareness as shown in the Summary Table 4-1. The differentiating factor in quality was between conventional supermarket number one

and the other two stores, rather than the way posited in the research. Awareness of promotional games, price specials and private label merchandise also failed to show any significant difference between the two groups of shoppers.

The data presented in Tables A-13 and A-15 did tend to partially support two of the research hypotheses, however. Trading stamp saving behavior showed little difference between the two types of shoppers, but trading stamp redemption was found to be significantly different. One-stop shopping center customers had redeemed significantly less trading stamps for gifts within the last year. Also, for the one-stop shopping center customers who did redeem the stamps, the gifts received were fewer and of less value than for conventional supermarket customers. The data would tend to partially support the hypothesis concerned with trading stamps and promotional games (2.A.3.).

A significant difference was also found with respect to the use of manufacturer "cents-off" coupons. The data in Table A-15 was not significant, but aggregating the data into "users vs. non-users" showed that a significantly higher percentage of the one-stop shopping center customers had responded to this type of promotional effort. The data would tend to partially support the hypothesis concerned with coupons and price specials (2.A.4.).

Purchase Behavior and Patronage
Loyalty

Guiding hypothesis 3 reads as follows: The purchase behavior and patronage loyalty of the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the one-stop shopping center is significantly different than the purchase behavior and patronage loyalty of the consumer who concentrates food purchases in the conventional supermarket.

The third guiding hypothesis was designed to guide the research in the area of purchase behavior and patronage loyalty. From the guiding hypothesis, five research hypotheses were generated.

The five research hypotheses combined into hypothesis 3.A read as follows: Consumers who concentrate food purchases in the one-stop shopping center differ from consumers who concentrate food purchases in the conventional supermarket in terms of:

- 3.A.1. Number of Stores Shopped;
- 3.A.2. Percent of Shopping Done in First Choice Store;
- 3.A.3. Average Size of the Customer Order;
- 3.A.4. Number of Shopping Trips to Purchase Food per Week;
- 3.A.5. Distribution of Purchases by Day of Week.

The five research hypotheses must be rejected on the basis of the findings presented in Tables A-20 through A-24. The data indicates little overall difference between shoppers preferring the one-stop shopping center and shoppers preferring the conventional supermarket. With the exception of the product categories of meat and groceries (see Table A-21) there was no significant difference in the concentration of purchases by each group. Conventional supermarket shoppers purchased a significantly higher percentage of their meat in the first preference store, while one-stop shopping center customers purchased a significantly higher percentage of their groceries (dry groceries as opposed to all food purchases) in the first preference store.

None of the other data achieved a sufficient level of significance to differentiate the two groups of shoppers. The difference in number of stores shopped, average size of the customer order, number of shopping trips per week, and the day on which purchases were made all failed to show any statistical significance.

Related Purchase Behavior

Guiding hypothesis 4 reads as follows: Consumer preference for purchasing food in the one-stop shopping center or the conventional supermarket carries over into other areas of consumer purchasing behavior.

The fourth guiding hypothesis was designed to focus the research in areas of purchase behavior related to food shopping. Four research hypotheses were generated from the general hypothesis.

The first three research hypotheses combined in hypothesis 4.A read as follows: Consumers who concentrate food purchases in the one-stop shopping center are more likely to shop in similar lowered-margin retail institutions than are customers who concentrate food purchases in the conventional supermarket when they shop for:

- 4.A.1. Convenience Goods;
- 4.A.2. Shopping Goods;
- 4.A.3. Specialty Goods.

Hypothesis 4.A.1. can be accepted on the basis of the findings presented in Table A-25. Hypotheses 4.A.2. and 4.A.3. cannot be accepted on the basis of the findings in Tables A-26 and A-27. The research findings indicated that all shoppers tended to purchase convenience items where they make other purchases (especially food purchases). However, the one-stop shopping center customers purchased a significantly higher percentage of the convenience items tested in the research at their first preference store than did the conventional supermarket customers.

The same pattern of purchases was found with respect to the purchase of prescriptions. The purchase of prescriptions was the only item of the specialty goods tested, which significantly differentiated purchase patterns for the two types of shoppers. The data with respect to prescriptions would partially support hypothesis 4.A.3. The other specialty goods and shopping goods failed to show a significant difference in shopping patterns for each of the groups.

The fourth research hypothesis (4.B) reads as follows: Consumers who concentrate food purchases in the one-stop shopping center are more likely to be catalog shoppers than are consumers who concentrate food purchases in the conventional supermarket.

The research hypothesis pertaining to catalog shopping (4.B) can be accepted on the basis of the findings presented in Tables A-28 through A-30, and Summary Table 4-3. The research indicated that a significantly higher percentage of the one-stop shopping center customers purchased merchandise through mail-order catalogs than conventional supermarket customers. Of the six general-merchandise mail-order catalogs tested in the research, the difference in the percentage of each group of shoppers having the catalog in the home was significant for four catalogs. In each case, the group having the higher percentage was the one-stop shopping center customers.

In addition, the value of merchandise ordered through specialty catalogs and other items ordered through the mail showed a significant difference between the two types of shoppers. The value of all other merchandise ordered through the mail was significantly higher for the one-stop shopping center customer.

Characteristics of Adopter Family Units

Guiding hypothesis 5 reads as follows: Earlier adopters of the one-stop shopping center are significantly different than later adopters of the one-stop shopping center.

The final guiding hypothesis was designed to guide the research with respect to further study of the family units adopting the one-stop shopping center as the primary source of supply for food. Four research hypotheses were generated.

The first research hypothesis (5.A) reads as follows: Earlier adopters differ from later adopters in terms of socio-economic characteristics.

The research hypothesis (5.A) can be accepted on the basis of the findings presented in Tables A-32 through A-34 which indicate that earlier adopters and later adopters differ in terms of several socio-economic characteristics. The research indicated that there was a significant difference in the level of formal education of the household

head between adopting categories with the earlier adopters generally having a lower level of formal education than later adopters.

The research also found a significant difference between the adopter categories in terms of family life cycle. While the majority of all adopters were young families with children, the early adopters were disproportionately concentrated in the category of young families with children under ten. Finally, the findings show that there was also a significant difference between adopter groups in terms of social class. The data indicated that the earlier adopters were more concentrated in the lower social classes while the later adopters were drawn more heavily from the higher social classes. The other socioeconomic variables tested in the research failed to show any significant differences between the adopter categories.

The second research hypothesis (5.B) reads as follows: Earlier adopters differ from later adopters in terms of the motivational effect of the various elements in the institution's marketing mix.

Based on the information contained in Table A-35 the research hypothesis (5.B) can be accepted. The data indicated a significant difference between adopter categories in terms of the use and redemption of trading stamps. A significantly lower percentage of the earlier adopter families had redeemed trading stamps for a gift within the

last year. In addition to the fact that a higher percentage of later adopters redeemed trading stamps for gifts, the data tended to indicate that the later adopters received a greater number of gifts of a greater total value than did the earlier adopter. None of the other elements from the institution's marketing mix showed any significant differences.

The third research hypothesis (5.C) reads as follows: Earlier adopters differ from later adopters in terms of purchase behavior and patronage loyalty.

The research hypothesis (5.C) cannot be accepted on the basis of the research findings. Of the five variables tested in the area, none was able to significantly differentiate the earlier adopter from the later adopter. While some differences were found in terms of concentration of shopping (Table A-38) and the number of shopping trips to purchase food per week (Table A-39) the differences were not found to be significant.

The fourth research hypothesis (5.D) reads as follows: Earlier adopters differ from later adopters in terms of the carry over of purchase behavior to other areas of consumer purchase decisions.

The research hypothesis (5.D) cannot be accepted on the basis of the research findings. Neither the related areas of the purchase of convenience, shopping and specialty goods, nor the area of mail-order catalog shopping exhibited

any significant differences between the earlier adopters and the later adopters. A summary of the findings is presented in Table 5-1.

Multivariate Analysis and the Guiding Hypotheses

The rationale underlying the study was that differences did exist, and could be identified, between consuming units preferring to purchase food primarily in the one-stop shopping center and consuming units preferring to purchase food primarily in the conventional supermarket. Thus, the first four guiding hypotheses were formulated to identify the differences thought to exist. The bivariate analysis reviewed above indicated that the two types of shoppers did differ in a number of important respects.

The multivariate analysis confirms and enlarges on the findings of the bivariate analysis, which indicated that the two types of shoppers were different. The multivariate analysis analyzed the data in terms of a total configuration of fourteen measurements of the responding family units rather than analyzing each measurement singly. Thus, the multivariate analysis studied the gestalt of the individual factors influencing the selection of a place to shop for food.

The multivariate analysis resulted in a distinct differentiation of the two types of shoppers in the discriminant function space. Figure 4-1 shows the extent to which

TABLE 5-1
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS FOR INDIVIDUAL RESEARCH VARIABLES
USING BIVARIATE ANALYSIS

Variable	Finding ¹	Comment
I. Socio-economic Characteristics		
A. Family Income	N.S.	Lower for one-stop shopping center customers
B. Age of Household Head	S.	Younger for OSSC customers
C. Occupation of Household Head	N.S.	No distinct pattern
D. Family Size	N.S.	Larger for OSSC customers
E. Level of Formal Education	N.S.	No distinct pattern
F. Family Life Cycle	S.	Young families with young children heaviest users of OSSC
G. Social Class	N.S.	Lower for OSSC customers
II. Purchase Motivation		
A. Price	N.S.	No distinct pattern
B. Quality	N.S.	No distinct pattern
C. Trading Stamps	S.	Lower redemption for OSSC customers
D. Promotional Contests	N.S.	Lower recognition for OSSC customers
E. Coupons	S.	OSSC customers were heavier users
F. Price Specials	N.S.	No distinct pattern
G. Private Label Merchandise	N.S.	Higher awareness for OSSC customers

¹The findings refer to statistical significance; N.S. means no statistical significance was found for the variable, while S. indicates that a statistical significance was found.

TABLE 5-1--Continued

Variable	Finding	Comment
III. Purchase Behavior and Patronage Loyalty		
A. Number of Stores Shopped	N.S.	No distinct pattern
B. Concentration of Purchases	N.S.	No distinct pattern
C. Average Size of Customer Order	N.S.	Larger for OSSC customers
D. Number of Shopping Trips	N.S.	Fewer trips for OSSC customers
E. Distribution of Purchases-Day	N.S.	No distinct pattern
IV. Related Purchase Behavior		
A. Convenience Goods	S.	Higher degree of related purchasing by OSSC customers
B. Shopping Goods	N.S.	No distinct pattern
C. Specialty Goods	S.	High degree of related purchase of prescriptions for OSSC customers
D. Catalog Shopping	S.	Higher degree of catalog shopping for OSSC customers
V. Earlier vs. Later Adopters		
A. Socio-economic Characteristics	S.	Formal education less, family units younger, and social class lower for earlier adopters
B. Purchase Motivation	S.	Redemption of trading stamps lower for earlier adopters

TABLE 5-1--Continued

Variable	Finding	Comment
V. (Continued)		
C. Purchase Behavior and Patronage Loyalty	N.S.	Fewer shopping trips for earlier adopters
D. Related Purchase Behavior	N.S.	Somewhat heavier catalog shopping by earlier adopters

the analysis of the fourteen variables differentiated the family units frequenting each of the retail outlets. Thus, the combining of the research variables resulted in an even more distinctive identification of the different types of shoppers than the bivariate analysis, lending support to both the rationale of the study and the guiding hypotheses.

A simple correlation of the individual research variables with each of the retail outlets was computed as part of the multivariate analysis. On the basis of the correlations exhibited in Table 4-15 it is evident that the one-stop shopping center customers were more oriented toward the convenience and economic aspects of shopping, while the conventional supermarket customers were more oriented toward the promotional aspects of shopping. A more detailed review of the findings is presented in the section of Chapter IV entitled "Other Significant Findings."

Major Conclusions

The One-Stop Shopping Center as an Institutional Innovation

The findings of the research tend to support the broad thesis that the one-stop shopping center is an institutional innovation. The research indicates that the one-stop shopping center was originally perceived as a new type of retail outlet, lacking a broad base of consumer acceptance. Through the eighteen months prior to the

research it appears that consumer acceptance of the one-stop shopping center grew both in depth and breadth.

The research findings tend to indicate that when the new type of institution was first introduced into the research area, it had some of the "low-status, low-image" characteristics that McNair posited in the "Wheel of Retailing" theory. The earlier adopters were primarily lower class family units without significant advanced education. Over half of the earlier adopters had a formal education no greater than a high school education.

During the eighteen months prior to the research the one-stop shopping center had apparently "overcome" the "low-status, low-image" characteristics through continued acceptance and growth. The present customer mix does not appear to be drawn disproportionately from any social class, income group, educational level, or occupation. Indeed, the customer mix has become more difficult to differentiate from the customer mixes of the two conventional supermarkets located in the area. The research indicates, however, that the customers shopping in each type of retail outlet are still significantly different in a number of important respects.

The Customer Mix of the One-Stop
Shopping Center

The segment of the consumer market responding to the one-stop shopping center does have certain distinguishing characteristics. The research indicated that the segment of the market primarily responsible for the acceptance and growth of the one-stop shopping center has been young families. Only twelve percent of the family units shopping primarily at the one-stop shopping center had household heads forty years of age. In addition, approximately two-thirds of the families with household heads under forty had children under ten years old. In essence, the segment of the market composed of young family units, especially with young children, has been responsible for the success enjoyed by the new institution to date.

A number of other characteristics seem to be associated with the segment of the market responsive to the one-stop shopping center. Several of the differentiating factors will be discussed below. Before discussing the factors, it is interesting to note that the responsive segment of the market has not significantly changed their food shopping patterns and habits since the adoption of the one-stop shopping center as the primary source of supply for food. No significant differences were found in terms of concentration of shopping, number of stores shopped, average order size, or the number of shopping trips per

week between the one-stop shopping center shoppers and the conventional supermarket shoppers. Adoption of the one-stop shopping center appears to have had little effect on the personal shopping habits of the customers.

Both the bivariate and multivariate analysis indicates that the one-stop shopping center customer is interested in decreasing the shopping effort, or "convenience costs," necessary to complete the purchasing needed to supply the family unit. The bivariate analysis led to several findings supporting the conclusion.

An indication of the attempt to reduce shopping effort is the finding pertaining to the purchase of other items in the retail outlet patronized for food. The one-stop shopping center shoppers exhibited a much greater incidence of purchasing other merchandise when and where food shopping was done. In the case of each of the convenience goods tested in the research, the one-stop shopping center shopper purchased a significantly higher percentage of each item where food purchases were made. The purchase of prescriptions in the one-stop shopping center also supports the premise.

The research indicated that the responsive segment of the market has attempted to reduce shopping effort expended in a second way also. The one-stop shopping center customers were found to be much heavier users of mail-order purchasing than conventional supermarket shoppers. The

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one-stop shopping center customers generally had more mail-order catalogs in the home and ordered more general and specialized merchandise through the mail than conventional supermarket shoppers. While the distinct possibility exists that the motivation for the purchase of merchandise through the mail is partly economic in nature, the author feels that the convenience motive is inextricably tied into mail-order shopping.

Although not conclusively backed up by the research findings reported to be significant, the bivariate analysis of the data tended to indicate that the responsive segment of the market was somewhat less "promotion" and "premium" oriented than the conventional supermarket shoppers. The lower redemption rate for trading stamps was an example of the decreasing interest in the area. The higher redemption rate for "cents-off" coupons also tended to indicate an increasing awareness of the money spent on food purchases.

More conclusive were the findings of the multivariate analysis. The multiple discriminant analysis resulted in significantly differentiating the one-stop shopping center customers from the conventional supermarket customers. The combination of the fourteen measurements of the family units analyzed together as a group confirms the findings of the individual analysis of the variables. More important, by classifying the fourteen variables as convenience variables, economic variables, and promotional variables, a

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more aggregate picture of each type of shopper becomes evident.

The convenience and economic variables were found to correlate positively with the one-stop shopping center customers and negatively with conventional supermarket customers. The opposite was true of the promotional variables, which were primarily positive for the conventional supermarket customers and negative for the one-stop shopping center customers. Thus, it would appear that the one-stop shopping center customers are indeed more interested in the convenience and economic aspects of shopping, rather than the promotion aspects. Conversely, the conventional supermarket customers appear to be more interested in the promotional aspects of shopping.

In summary, the customer mix of the one-stop shopping center is composed primarily of younger families, especially the younger families with young children. Their purchase behavior and habits are not significantly different than shoppers purchasing food in conventional supermarkets. The responsive segment of the consumer market is, however, more interested in the convenience and economic aspects of shopping behavior, and less interested in the promotional aspects of shopping behavior, than conventional supermarket shoppers.

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The Adoption of the One-Stop Shopping Center

The segment, or segments, of the market responsible for the acceptance and growth of the one-stop shopping center appears to have changed over time. The research indicated that the earlier adopters were significantly different than the later adopters and present customers of the one-stop shopping center. As stated above, the research indicated that the one-stop shopping center did not have an extremely broad base of consumer acceptance at the time of introduction.

The initial acceptance of the one-stop shopping center appears to have been the result of a narrower, more distinctive segment of the consumer market than the institution presently serves. The earlier adopters were more heavily concentrated in the lower social classes and had fewer years of formal education than the later adopters of the institution. In addition, the earlier adopters were even more heavily concentrated among the young families with children under ten years of age, than was the case when the research was conducted eighteen months later. The research also tended to indicate that the earlier adopters had somewhat lower incomes than later adopters, but the evidence in the area of income was not conclusive.

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With the exception of trading stamp redemption, which was much lower for the earlier adopters than the later adopters, the other promotional variables tested failed to show a difference between the earlier and later adopters at a significant level.

From all indications, the one-stop shopping center has gained broader acceptance by consumers to the extent that the customer mix of the one-stop shopping center is similar to the conventional supermarket's customer mix in many ways. However, the customer mix of the one-stop shopping center still has a number of important distinguishing characteristics as discussed in the preceeding section of the chapter. The most important of these characteristics are the young age of the shoppers, and their distinctive interest in the convenience and economic aspects of shopping.

Implications of the Research for Retail Management

Market Segmentation

The one-stop shopping center and the conventional supermarket meet in direct, "head-on" competition in the market place as they vie for the consumer food dollar. While the research indicated that the one-stop shopping center does serve an identifiable segment of the consumer market, at the present time, its future growth can only be at the expense of the conventional supermarket. Thus, the continued acceptance and growth of the one-stop shopping

center is of interest to the executives of the one-stop shopping center and conventional supermarket alike.

Eighteen months after its introduction into the research area, the one-stop shopping center has gained a fairly broad base of consumer acceptance. The customers of the one-stop shopping center are still a readily identifiable market segment, however. The research has shown that the one-stop shopping center customers come generally from younger families who have children living at home.

In addition to being extremely young, the responsive segment of the consumer market has several other characteristics which differentiate it from non-responsive segments of the consumer market. The research indicated that the segment of the consumer market responsive to the one-stop shopping center is primarily interested in the convenience and economic aspects of shopping. Conversely, the segment of the consumer market shopping in conventional supermarkets appears to be more interested in the promotional aspects of shopping.

Thus, the segment of the consumer market responsive to the one-stop shopping center is identifiable in terms of age, convenience and economics. The responsive segment is composed primarily of younger families who have recently entered the market place as consuming units. The segment is not primarily motivated by the various promotional tools available to the retail institution, but rather by

the convenience and economic aspects of shopping which result in the lowering of shopping effort and monetary costs to the family unit.

Growth

The heavy acceptance of the one-stop shopping center by primarily younger family units, especially the families with young children, has important ramifications for the business executive concerned with the growth of a specific retail enterprise. As shown in the research, approximately ninety percent of the family units frequenting the one-stop shopping center were family units in which the household head was under forty years of age. These younger family units not only represent a major segment of the present consuming population, but also represent the middle-age and older consuming units of the future.

The fact that the majority of the one-stop shopping center shoppers are young family units gives the one-stop shopping center a distinct advantage over the conventional supermarket. It indicates that the one-stop shopping center has successfully gained the acceptance and patronage of the new family units who have most recently entered the market place. The relatively new consuming units can be both the one-stop shopping center's present and future customer mix.

To continue the growth pattern that the one-stop shopping center has had over the last few years, the

management must concentrate on two key approaches to serving its customers. The executive of the one-stop shopping center must continually adjust the marketing mix of the institution toward two objectives. The objectives should be to:

1. Continually gain young family units as customers when they enter the market place as "new" consuming units.
2. Retain the young family units presently patronizing the one-stop shopping center as they move through the different stages of the life cycle.

The mission is not an easy one, but it is not an impossible one either. If the convenience factor of one-stop shopping can be sufficiently instilled in the one-stop shopping center customer, as the research indicates it has, her desire for convenience and lowered shopping effort will probably be sufficient to continue patronage over the years.

Conversely, if the conventional supermarket is to remain the dominant source of supply for consumer food purchases, the executives of the conventional supermarket must take decisive action in the near future. The continued growth of the one-stop shopping center as a source of supply for food, and the resultant increase in market share, can only be achieved at the expense of the conventional supermarket in the long run. To prevent the relative decline of the conventional supermarket, its

executives have three alternative courses of action they can take.

The executives of the conventional supermarket can either:

1. See that the conventional supermarket does not continue to lose new family units to the one-stop shopping center, through gaining the acceptance and patronage of an increasing share of the younger families entering the market place as new consuming units.

2. Continue to concentrate the marketing mix of the conventional supermarket toward the present customer mix of middle-age and older family units in the hope that the younger family units will "trade-over" to the conventional supermarket as they progress through the different stages in the family life cycle.

3. Join the "trend" toward one-stop shopping by adjusting the firm's market offering to reflect changing consumer desires through the addition of the one-stop shopping center, or related elements of the one-stop shopping center concept, to the firm's market offering.

All three alternative strategies are presently available to the conventional supermarket executives. In part, elements of each alternative strategy should probably be adopted. Assuming that the firm is operating under the marketing philosophy, it would appear logical that the firm should attempt to adjust its market offering to better

reflect changing consumer desires. In fact, a number of leading food industry chains have chosen the third strategy of adjusting their market offering, and are now operating one-stop shopping centers and discount supermarkets in addition to conventional supermarkets.

Assuming that the third strategy has either been adopted by the firm, or ruled out as a possibility, the first strategy must be considered a better alternative than the second strategy. While it is of critical importance to keep the present customer mix satisfied so they are not lost to the competition, it is of even more importance in the long run that the conventional supermarket encroach on the one-stop shopping center's ability to attract young family units. Only through the continual gaining of new customers, such as the new family units, can the conventional supermarket offset the normal attrition of present customers and maintain, or increase, its market share in the future.

Competitive Strategy

The findings of the research have a number of important implications pertaining to the selection of a competitive marketing strategy. The implications should be of interest to the executives of both the one-stop shopping center and the conventional supermarket. Both types of retail institutions need to attract new family units

entering the market place to survive in the long run. Thus, each type of retail institution must design at least a part of its marketing mix to attract the young family units the research found to be patronizing the one-stop shopping center.

The research findings indicated that the promotional orientation that most retail food outlets have used to date is no longer as effective as it was five or ten years ago. The newer family units preferring the one-stop shopping center are not motivated by the "traditional" promotional tools of games, contests and trading stamps to the extent that most of the conventional supermarket shoppers are. To continue emphasizing the promotional tools used by a great many retail outlets today, can only result in a continued alienation of the new family units.

To attract the younger families with their higher level of education and awareness, as well as their increasing emphasis on leisure and convenience, the successful retail outlet will have to match its market offering more closely with consumer wants and desires. The findings of the present study indicate that the way to match the consumer's needs and desires more closely is to increase the emphasis on the convenience and economic aspects of shopping that the younger families find so important.

In short, the marketing mix must emphasize the price aspects of the total shopping bill and the convenience

of related lines of merchandise carried in a single retail outlet. The research indicates that the advantage presently lies with the one-stop shopping center due to its lower priced image and assortment of related merchandise and product lines.

The increased emphasis on convenience is important for both types of retail outlets, however. The consumer desires to purchase as many of her needs in a single store as possible. Thus, related product lines, especially convenience goods, can increase patronage loyalty and profits to the institutions responding to the consumer's desire for convenience and price.

The increased emphasis on convenience has ramifications beyond the food industry also. From all indications, the emphasis on leisure and convenience will continue in the future. As such, executives in all areas of business dealing with the consumer may have to face major changes in their products and operations within the next decade.

The heavier use of mail-order purchasing goes hand-in-hand with the emphasis on convenience. The next decade may also find a significant "upswing" in mail-order houses. It is extremely possible that as consumers achieve higher levels of income and more leisure time, the service and convenience aspects of all business units will gain continued importance. The question is beyond the scope of the present research, however.

Implications for Consumer Behavior Research

The research led to several implications for future research in the area of consumer behavior. The implications relate to the measurement and analysis of consumer behavior as a tool for description and prediction.

The bivariate analysis of the research variables used in the study was not as conclusive as anticipated. While many of the variables exhibited a distinct pattern, only a relatively small number were found to be significant.

Combining a number of the measurements into "macro" variables such as convenience variables, economic variables, and promotional variables was found to be useful. The analysis of several different measurements related to the three macro variables led to distinctive consumer behavior patterns being identified.

The finding would seem to indicate that, with the increasing complexities of our modern society with all its ramifications on consumer behavior, individual variables analyzed singly, are unable to adequately measure, describe, and predict consumer behavior. What is evidently needed, is a "macro" approach in which a whole range of measurements is analyzed together rather than individually.

Rarely is consumer behavior determined by any single cause. More often, consumer behavior is a result of a whole range of different causes. Thus, it is necessary

to study the relevant variables together as a group, or a gestalt, rather than individually as is often done.

Implications for the Adoption Process

The research findings also lead to some implications relevant to the adoption of a new retail institution. As shown in the research, the earlier adopters were found to be younger family units, from lower social classes, and with fewer years of formal education. After the first three months of operation, the one-stop shopping center had broadened its base of consumer acceptance to include all social classes and educational levels. Thus, the younger family units, especially those with young children, have been the segment of the market most responsible for the new institution's growth.

The fact that the one-stop shopping center's customers are young is only one of the identifying characteristics found in the research. As discussed above, the research indicated that the responsive segment of the consumer market is extremely interested in the convenience and economic aspects of shopping rather than the promotional aspects. Thus, the one-stop shopping center shoppers are interested in both the total price of consumer expenditures, and the amount of shopping effort expended to complete the family purchasing.

Identifying the important characteristics of the responsive segment has important implications to the executive charged with the success or failure of a new type of retail institution such as the one-stop shopping center. The responsive segment should be kept in mind as corporate decisions are made all the way from selecting a proper location for a new institution, through selection of a product mix and price line to selection of the appropriate promotional mix. Proper selection of the elements composing the new institution's marketing mix can determine the success or failure of the new institution. Unless the responsive segment is appealed to in each of the areas mentioned, the acceptance of the institution will be much more difficult to achieve.

For example, a location with easy access to young families should be desired. The product mix and price lines carried should be originally adjusted to the needs and ability to purchase of the responsive segment. And finally the promotional mix should be designed to tell the responsive segment about the convenience and economic advantages available through one-stop shopping and the fact that the institution is designed to serve the young consumer and her family's needs. Obviously, over time, if the new institution desires to broaden its customer mix and retain customers as they progress through the life cycle, the marketing mix will have to change and broaden also.

However, this is much easier to accomplish after the institution has gained its initial acceptance.

Suggested Areas for Further Research

The research effort has been primarily focused on determining the extent to which the consumer market segments itself in response to the introduction of a new type of retail institution into a market area previously served by two conventional supermarkets. The segments were then studied to determine the differentiating characteristics of the two types of shoppers. In addition, the earlier adopters and later adopters of the one-stop shopping center were studied to see how the responsive segment of the market changed over time. Based on the experience gained in the research, a number of areas for further research can be suggested.

The first area for further research would be to increase the breadth of the study in terms of the geographic area. Repetitions of the present study in numerous areas would also accomplish this purpose. The present research was concentrated in approximately six square miles. In the author's opinion the research area was severely "understored" in terms of food outlets before the introduction of the one-stop shopping center. If the area was truly "understored," it may have affected the findings. A larger study including several heterogeneous research areas

would be aimed at determining the representativeness of the present research findings to other areas of the country.

A second research proposal would be concerned with gaining a greater knowledge of the motivational effect of the various elements in an institution's marketing mix. The research indicated little difference between the two groups of respondents in terms of the effectiveness of the various elements tested. Such a study would be designed to measure the effect of each of the various elements from the marketing mix on consumers shopping in different types of retail outlets. The research would also be designed to measure the level of awareness and importance of each variable, as well as the interrelated effect of the whole mix.

A third research suggestion would be a similar study of consumers purchasing food in the different types of retail outlets. The methodology would be similar to the present study, but the variables studied would be concerned with the psychological makeup of the consumers. A study of this nature would be difficult and costly, but the rewards would be significant. The study would attempt to determine whether various psychological variables could better differentiate types of shoppers. In addition the study would add insight into the little known area of what causes specific purchase behavior and action.

A fourth study would be a longitudinal study to determine how purchase patterns and customer loyalties change over time. By necessity, the study would be a before-after experimental design with several measurements before a new institution opened for business and several measurements afterwards. Such a study would be primarily concerned with identifying the changes occurring in the subjects over time with respect to the introduction of a new source of supply for food.

A fifth research suggestion would be develop the multiple discriminant analysis into a tool for prediction. Multiple discriminant analysis significantly differentiated and identified the shoppers frequenting each of the stores used in the research. The proposed study would go one step farther and use the information gained in the present study to predict which group of shoppers a respondent is most likely to belong to, given the measurements used in the research.

A sixth area for further research is concerned with the adoption of new institutions. By necessity, the present research could only look at earlier vs. later adopters of the one-stop shopping center. The proposed study would use a finer categorization of adopters such as Rogers has done as reported in Chapter II. The research would have to be conducted concurrent to the opening of the new institution to be of maximum benefit. Such a study could

determine who are the real innovators in the adoption of a new institution and find the relevant characteristics for each of the adopter categories.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Detailed Research Findings Pertaining Specifically to Chapter IV

TABLE A-1

INCOME OF FAMILY UNITS SHOPPING IN EACH
TYPE OF STORE

Store	No Re- Patronized sponse	Family Income							Total
		\$001- 2,999	\$3,000- 4,999	\$5,000- 6,999	\$7,000- 9,999	\$10,000- 14,999	\$15,000- 24,999	\$25,000- and over	
One-Stop Shopping Center	n 4	1	7	3	17	22	11	1	66
	% 6.0	1.5	10.6	4.5	25.8	33.3	16.7	1.5	100
Conven- tional Super- market	n 7	3	2	6	19	34	18	4	93
	% 7.5	3.3	2.2	6.5	20.4	36.6	19.4	4.3	100
All	n 11	4	9	9	36	56	29	5	159
Shoppers	% 6.9	2.5	5.7	5.7	22.6	35.2	18.2	3.1	100

TABLE A-2

AGE OF THE HOUSEHOLD HEAD FOR FAMILY UNITS SHOPPING
IN EACH TYPE OF STORE*

Store Patronized	No Re- sponse		Age of Household Head					Total
			Under 30	30-39	40-49	50-64	65+	
One-Stop Shopping Center	n	0	16	20	17	9	4	66
	%	-	24.2	30.3	25.8	13.6	6.1	100
Conven- tional Super- market	n	0	10	19	29	29	6	93
	%	-	10.8	20.4	31.2	31.2	6.5	100
All	n	0	26	39	46	38	10	159
Shoppers	%	-	16.4	25.4	28.9	23.9	6.3	100

*Significant at the .05 level.

TABLE A-3

OCCUPATION OF THE HOUSEHOLD HEAD FOR FAMILY
UNITS SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE

Store Pa- tronized	Occupation								Total
	No Re- sponse	Profes- sional	Semi- Profes- sional	Clerks and Kindred Workers	Skilled Workers	Proprietors of Small Businesses	Semi- Skilled Workers	Un- Skilled Workers	
One-Stop Shopping Center	n 1 1.5	8 12.1	7 10.6	16 24.2	20 30.3	1 1.5	11 16.7	2 3.0	66 100
Conven- tional Super- market	n 1 1.1	8 8.6	14 15.1	29 31.2	25 26.9	3 3.2	8 8.6	5 5.4	93 100
All	n 2	16	21	45	45	4	19	7	159
Shoppers	% 1.3	10.1	13.2	28.3	28.3	2.5	12.0	4.4	100

TABLE A-4
 SIZE OF FAMILY UNITS SHOPPING IN
 EACH TYPE OF STORE

Store Patronized		Number of Family Members								Total
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
One-Stop Shopping Center	n %	1 1.5	11 16.9	10 15.4	19 29.2	13 20.0	10 15.4	0 ---	2 3.0	66 100
Conven- tional	n	4	22	20	28	10	6	1	2	93
Super- market	%	4.3	23.7	21.5	30.1	10.8	6.5	1.1	2.2	100
All	n	5	33	30	47	23	16	1	3	159
Shoppers	%	3.2	20.9	19.0	29.8	14.6	10.1	0.6	1.9	100

TABLE A-5
LEVEL OF FORMAL EDUCATION FOR FAMILY UNITS
SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE

Store Patronized	Formal Education									
	Male					Female				
	No Re- sponse	Some Grade School	Com- pleted Grade School	Some High School	Com- pleted High School	Some College	Com- pleted College	Post- Grad- uate Work	Other	To- tal
One-Stop Shopping Center	n	5	0	7	16	14	11	6	2	66
	%	7.6	-	10.6	24.2	21.2	16.7	9.1	3.0	100
Conven- tional Super- market	n	10	2	9	27	18	13	6	3	93
	%	10.8	2.2	9.7	29.0	19.4	14.0	6.5	3.2	100
One-Stop Shopping Center	n	1	0	12	25	10	8	5	1	66
	%	1.5	-	18.2	37.9	15.2	12.1	7.6	1.5	100
Conven- tional Super- market	n	1	1	15	38	24	4	6	0	93
	%	1.1	1.1	16.1	40.9	25.8	4.3	6.5	-	100

TABLE A-6
STAGE IN THE FAMILY LIFE CYCLE FOR FAMILY UNITS
SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE*

Store Patronized	Stage in Family Life Cycle						
	No Re- sponse	No Children, Household Head Under Forty	Young Children	Older Children Only	No Children, Married, Household Head Over Forty	No Children, Single, Household Head Over Forty	Total
One-Stop Shopping Center	n 1 % 1.5	2 3.0	38 57.6	17 25.8	8 12.1	0 -	66 100
Conven- tional Super- market	n 2 % 2.2	1 1.1	29 31.2	40 43.0	17 18.3	4 4.3	93 100
All	n 3	3	67	57	25	4	159
Shoppers	% 1.9	1.9	42.1	35.9	15.8	2.5	100

*Significant at the .02 level.

TABLE A-7

SOCIAL CLASS OF FAMILY UNITS SHOPPING IN
EACH TYPE OF STORE

Store Patronized	Social Class											
	No Re- sponse	Upper Class		Upper Middle		Lower Middle		Upper Lower		or		Total
		Upper Class	Upper Middle	Upper Class	Upper Middle	Lower Middle	Lower Middle	Upper Lower	Upper Lower			
One-Stop Shopping Center	n	2	0	0	6	12	22	4	16	2	2	66
	%	3.0	-	-	9.1	18.2	33.3	6.1	24.2	3.0	3.0	100
Conven- tional Super- market	n	6	0	2	9	8	40	10	15	3	0	93
	%	6.5	-	2.2	9.7	8.6	43.0	10.8	16.1	3.2	-	100
All	n	8	0	2	15	20	62	14	31	5	2	159
Shoppers	%	5.0	-	1.3	9.4	12.6	39.0	8.8	19.5	3.1	1.3	100

TABLE A-8
PRICE AWARENESS OF FAMILY UNITS SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE
FOR SELECTED ITEMS

Store Patronized	Coffee*				Soup**			
	Don't Purchase	Correct Price	Incorrect Price	Total	Don't Purchase	Correct Price	Incorrect Price	Total
One-Stop Shopping Center	n 8 % 12.1	13 19.7	45 68.2	66 100	7 10.6	32 48.5	27 40.9	66 100
Conven- tional Super- market	n 2 % 2.2	23 24.7	68 73.1	93 100	11 12.0	21 22.8	60 65.2	92 100
All	n 10	36	113	159	18	53	87	158
Shoppers	% 6.3	22.6	71.1	100	11.4	33.5	55.1	100

*Significant at the .05 level.

**Significant at the .01 level.

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TABLE A-8--Continued

Store Patronized	Canned Peas				Canned Peaches			
	Don't Purchase	Correct Price	Incorrect Price	Total	Don't Purchase	Correct Price	Incorrect Price	Total
One-Stop Shopping Center	n 19	11	36	66	23	9	34	66
	% 28.8	16.7	54.5	100	34.9	13.6	51.5	100
Conven- tional Super- market	n 27	18	48	93	21	14	58	93
	% 29.0	19.4	51.6	100	22.6	15.1	62.4	100
All	n 46	29	84	159	44	23	92	159
Shoppers	n 28.9	18.2	52.8	100	27.7	14.5	57.9	100

TABLE A-8--Continued

Store Patronized	Milk				Cold Cereal			
	Don't Purchase	Correct Price	Incorrect Price	Total	Don't Purchase	Correct Price	Incorrect Price	Total
One-Stop Shopping Center	n 18 % 27.3	13 19.7	35 53.0	66 100	10 15.2	9 13.6	47 71.2	66 100
Conven- tional Super- market	n 13 % 14.0	17 18.3	63 67.7	93 100	24 26.1	7 7.6	61 66.3	92 100
All	n 31	30	98	159	34	16	108	158
Shoppers	% 19.5	18.9	61.6	100	21.5	10.1	68.4	100

TABLE A-8--Continued

Store Patronized	Eggs				Bread			
	Don't Purchase	Correct Price	Incorrect Price	Total	Don't Purchase	Correct Price	Incorrect Price	Total
One-Stop Shopping Center	n 12	12	42	66	1	26	39	66
	% 18.2	18.2	63.6	100	1.5	39.4	59.1	100
Conven- tional Super- market	n 15	26	52	93	1	35	57	93
	% 16.1	28.0	55.9	100	1.1	37.6	61.3	100
All	n 27	38	94	159	2	61	96	159
Shoppers	% 17.0	23.9	59.1	100	1.3	38.4	60.4	100

TABLE 8--Continued

Store Patronized	Cooking Oil				Ketchup			
	Don't Purchase	Correct Price	Incorrect Price	Total	Don't Purchase	Correct Price	Incorrect Price	Total
One-Stop Shopping Center	n 19	4	43	66	10	13	43	66
	% 28.8	6.1	65.2	100	15.2	19.7	65.2	100
Conven- tional Super- market	n 18	9	66	93	8	22	63	93
	% 19.4	9.7	70.9	100	8.6	23.7	67.7	100
All	n 37	13	109	159	18	35	106	159
Shoppers	% 23.3	8.2	68.6	100	11.3	22.0	66.7	100

TABLE A-9--Continued

Store Patronized	Produce*					Total
	No Re- sponse	Above Average	Average	Below Average		
One-Stop Shopping Center	n %	1 1.5	27 40.9	35 53.0	3 4.6	66 100
Conven- tional Super- market	n %	25 26.9	20 21.5	38 40.9	10 10.8	93 100
All	n	26	47	73	13	159
Shoppers	%	16.4	29.6	45.9	8.2	100

*Significant at the .001 level.

TABLE A-10

QUALITY IMAGE OF GROCERIES, MEAT AND PRODUCE IN CONVENTIONAL SUPERMARKET
NO. 1 BY FAMILY UNITS SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE

Store Patronized	Groceries					Meat		
	No Re- sponse	Above Average	Below Average	Total	No Re- sponse	Above Average	Below Average	Total
One-Stop Shopping Center	n 20 & 30.3	11 16.7	33 50.0	2 66 3.0 100	12 20 18.2 30.3	24 36.4	10 15.2	66 100
Conven- tional Super- market	n 22 & 23.7	15 16.1	50 53.8	6 93 8.5 100	10 22 10.8 23.7	47 50.5	14 15.1	93 100
All	n 42	26	83	8 159	22 42	71	24	159
Shoppers	& 26.4	16.4	52.0	5.0 100	13.8 26.4	44.7	15.1	100

TABLE A-10--Continued

Store Patronized	Produce				
		No Re- sponse	Above Average	Below Average	Total
One-Stop Shopping Center	n	20	6	31	9
	%	30.3	9.1	46.9	13.6
					100
Conven- tional Super- market	n	20	9	55	9
	%	21.5	9.7	59.1	9.7
					100
All	n	40	15	86	18
	%	25.2	9.4	54.1	11.3
					100

TABLE A-11

QUALITY IMAGE OF GROCERIES, MEAT AND PRODUCE IN CONVENTIONAL SUPERMARKET
NO. 2 BY FAMILY UNITS SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE

Store Patronized	Groceries*					Meat*		
	No Re- sponse	Above Average	Below Average	Total	No Re- sponse	Above Average	Below Average	Total
One-Stop Shopping Center	n 19 % 28.8	21 31.8	26 39.4	0 66 - 100	19 28.8	36 54.6	10 15.2	1 1.5 66 100
Conven- tional Super- market	n 11 % 11.8	34 36.6	46 49.5	2 93 2.2 100	15 16.1	44 47.3	33 35.5	1 1.1 93 100
All	n 30	55	72	2 159	34	80	43	2 159
Shoppers	% 18.9	34.6	45.3	1.3 100	21.4	50.3	27.0	1.3 100

*Significant at the .05 level.

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TABLE A-11--Continued

Store Patronized	Produce*					Total
		No Re- sponse	Above Average	Average	Below Average	
One-Stop Shopping Center	n	20	15	29	2	66
	%	30.3	22.7	43.9	3.0	100
Conven- tional Super- market	n	11	41	40	1	93
	%	11.8	44.1	43.0	1.1	100
All	n	31	56	69	3	159
Shoppers	%	19.5	35.2	43.4	1.9	100

*Significant at the .05 level.

TABLE A-12
 AMOUNT OF SELECTED TRADING STAMPS SAVED BY FAMILY UNITS
 SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE

Type of Stamp	Number of Books Saved						
	Save, Don't Save		Don't Know How Many		Over 20		
	n	%	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	Total
S&H	One-Stop Shopping Center	n 26 % 39.4	2 3.0	4 6.1	2 3.0	0 -	66 100
	Conventional Supermarket	n 40 % 43.0	2 2.2	4 4.3	3 3.2	1 1.1	93 100
	One-Stop Shopping Center	n 23 % 34.9	4 6.1	5 7.6	0 -	0 -	66 100
	Conventional Supermarket	n 24 % 25.8	4 4.3	10 10.8	2 2.2	0 -	93 100

TABLE A-13
NUMBER AND VALUE OF GIFTS RECEIVED THROUGH TRADING STAMP REDEMPTION
BY FAMILY UNITS SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE*
(12 Month Period)

Store Patronized	Number of Gifts Received			Value of Gifts Received		
	None	One	Two or More	Total	None	\$1-10 \$11+ Total
One-Stop Shopping Center	n 34 % 51.5	18 27.3	14 21.3	66 100	34 51.5	23 34.2 9 13.7 66 100
Conven- tional Super- market	n 27 % 29.3	32 34.7	33 36.0	92 100	27 30.0	49 55.0 14 15.0 90 100
All	n 61	50	47	158 ^a	61	72 156 ^a
Shoppers	% 38.5	31.6	29.9	100	38.5	14.6 46.9 100

*Significant at the .05 level.

^aNote missing respondents.

TABLE A-14
 AWARENESS OF PROMOTIONAL CONTESTS AND GAMES BY
 FAMILY UNITS SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE

Promotional Game	Recognition by Each Type of Shopper							
	One-Stop Shopping Center Customer				Conventional Supermarket Customer			
	No Recognition	Recognize Game	Have Played	Total	No Recognition	Recognize Game	Have Played	Total
"King Korn n Derby" %	34 51.5	25 37.9	7 10.6	66 100	28 30.1	40 43.0	25 26.9	93 100
"Bonus n Bingo" %	66 100	0 -	0 -	66 100	93 100	0 -	0 -	93 100
"Sport of n Kings" %	42 63.6	11 16.7	13 19.7	66 100	48 51.6	21 22.6	24 25.8	93 100
"Jigsaw n Cash" %	66 100	0 -	0 -	66 100	89 95.6	2 2.2	2 2.2	93 100
"Super n Pro" %	53 80.3	5 7.6	8 12.1	66 100	83 89.3	7 7.5	3 3.2	93 100
"Gold Bond n Bingo" %	58 87.9	8 12.1	0 -	66 100	81 87.1	10 10.7	2 2.2	93 100
Average Percent for Six Games	80.5	12.4	7.1	100	75.6	14.3	10.1	100

TABLE A-15

REDEMPTION OF MANUFACTURER "CENTS-OFF" COUPONS BY
FAMILY UNITS SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE
(One Month Period)

Store Patronized		Number of Coupons Redeemed							Total
		None	1	2	3	4	5	6	
One-Stop Shopping Center	n	33	17	9	4	2	1	0	66
	%	50.0	25.8	13.6	6.1	3.0	1.5	-	100
Conventional Super-Market	n	63	14	9	5	1	0	1	93
	%	67.7	15.1	9.7	5.4	1.1	-	1.1	100
All Shoppers	n	96	31	18	9	3	1	1	159
	%	60.4	19.5	11.3	5.7	1.9	1.1	1.1	100

TABLE A-16

VALUE OF MANUFACTURER "CENTS-OFF" COUPONS REDEEMED
BY FAMILY UNITS SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE
(One Month Period)

Store Patronized	Value of Coupons Redeemed								
	No Re- sponse	\$.00 None	\$.26 -.25	\$.51 -.50	\$.76- -.75	\$ 1.01 1.00	\$ 1.01 +	Don't Know	To- tal
One-Stop Shopping Center	n	1	33	17	10	2	0	1	66
	%	1.5	50.0	25.8	15.2	3.0	-	1.5	100
Conventional Super-market	n	0	63	20	4	2	1	0	93
	%	-	67.7	21.5	4.3	2.2	1.1	-	100
All Shoppers	n	1	96	37	14	4	1	1	159
	%	0.6	60.4	23.3	8.8	2.5	0.6	0.6	100

TABLE A-17

NUMBER OF ADVERTISED SPECIALS PRICED CORRECTLY BY FAMILY
UNITS SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE

Product Category	Number of Specials Recognized by Store Patronized									
	One-Stop Shopping Center					Conventional Supermarket				
	None	1 Spe- cial	2 Spe- cial	3 or More Specials	Total	None	1 Spe- cial	2 Spe- cial	3 or More Specials	Total
Grocery Specials Priced Correctly %	49	12	4	1	66	79	8	4	2	93
Meat Specials Priced Correctly %	74.2	18.2	6.1	1.5	100	85.0	8.6	4.3	2.2	100
Produce Specials Priced Correctly %	64	2	0	0	66	85	5	3	0	93
Dairy Specials Priced Correctly %	97.0	3.0	-	-	100	91.4	5.4	3.2	-	100
Grocery Specials Priced Correctly %	65	1	0	0	66	90	2	1	0	93
Meat Specials Priced Correctly %	98.5	1.5	-	-	100	96.7	2.2	1.1	-	100
Produce Specials Priced Correctly %	60	4	1	1	66	91	2	0	0	93
Dairy Specials Priced Correctly %	90.9	6.1	1.5	1.5	100	97.8	2.2	-	-	100

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TABLE A-18
 NUMBER OF PRIVATE LABELS RECOGNIZED BY FAMILY
 UNITS SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE

Store Patronized	n	No Response	Number Recognized out of Eight						Total
			0	1	2	3	4	5	
One-Stop Shopping Center	8	-	12.1	7.6	30.3	24.2	16.7	6.1	100
Conven- tional Super- market	93	1	15	15	28	18	7	6	93
All	159	1	23	20	48	34	18	10	159
Shoppers	100	0.6	14.5	12.6	30.2	21.4	11.3	6.3	100

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TABLE A-19

AWARENESS OF TWO PRIVATE LABEL BRANDS IN FIRST
PREFERENCE STORE BY FAMILY UNITS SHOPPING
IN EACH TYPE OF STORE

Store Patronized	Recognition of Private Labels			Total
	No Response	Didn't Rec- ognize Pri- vate Labels	Recog- nized Pri- vate Labels	
One-Stop Shopping Center	n 1	52	13	66
	% 1.5	78.8	19.7	100
Conven- tional Supermarket	n 2	74	17	93
	% 2.2	79.6	18.3	100
All	n 3	126	30	159
Shoppers	% 1.8	79.3	18.9	100

TABLE A-20

NUMBER OF STORES SHOPPED FOR FOOD BY FAMILY
UNITS SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE

Store Patronized	Number of Stores Shopped					Total
	1	2	3	4	5+	
One-Stop Shopping Center	n 2	18	28	10	8	66
	% 3.2	27.2	42.3	15.2	12.1	100
Conven- tional Super- market	n 12	32	26	15	8	93
	% 12.9	34.4	28.0	16.1	8.6	100
All	n 14	50	54	25	16	159
Shoppers	% 8.8	31.4	34.0	15.7	10.1	100

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TABLE A-21
CONCENTRATION OF PURCHASES FOR SELECTED PRODUCT CATEGORIES BY
FAMILY UNITS SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE

Product Category	Concentration of Shopping in Each Store															
	One-Stop Shopping Center					Conventional Supermarket					All Shoppers					
	1-25%	26-50%	51-76%	77-100%	Total	1-25%	26-50%	51-76%	77-100%	Total	1-25%	26-50%	51-76%	77-100%	Total	
Total Food Shopping	n 0	12	20	31	66	1	13	26	53	93	1	25	46	87	159	
Meat Shopping	n 18	4	4	40	66	6	6	7	74	93	24	10	11	114	159	
Produce Shopping	n 3	7	5	51	66	7	16	5	65	93	10	23	10	116	159	
Grocery Shopping	n 0	4	11	51	66	7	16	12	58	93	7	20	23	109	159	
Non-Food Shopping	n 1	2	4	59	66	7	9	5	72	93	8	11	9	131	159	
	1.5	3.0	6.1	89.4	100	7.5	9.7	5.4	77.4	100	5.0	6.9	5.7	82.4	100	

*Significant at the .01 level.

**Significant at the .02 level.

TABLE A-22

AVERAGE FOOD BILL PER SHOPPING TRIP FOR FAMILY
UNITS SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE

Store Patronized		Food Bill per Shopping Trip					Total
		\$1-9	\$10-19	\$20-29	\$30-39	\$40+	
One-Stop Shopping Center	n	10	20	12	14	10	66
	%	15.2	30.3	18.2	21.1	15.2	100
Conventional Supermarket	n	18	39	15	11	8	91
	%	19.7	42.8	16.4	12.0	9.1	100
All Shoppers	n	28	59	27	25	18	151 ^a
	%	17.8	37.5	17.1	15.9	11.7	100

^aNote missing respondents.

TABLE A-23

NUMBER OF TRIPS TO PURCHASE FOOD BY FAMILY
UNITS SHOPPING EACH TYPE OF STORE

Store Patronized		Trips per Week							Total
		One or less	2	3	4	5	6	7	
One-Stop Shopping Center	n	37	12	11	2	3	0	1	66
	%	56.1	18.2	16.7	3.0	4.5	-	1.5	100
Conventional Supermarket	n	39	30	11	8	2	2	1	93
	%	41.9	32.3	11.8	8.6	2.2	2.2	1.1	100
All Shoppers	n	76	42	22	10	5	2	2	159
	%	47.8	26.4	13.8	6.3	3.1	1.3	1.3	100

TABLE A-24

PURCHASES BY DAY OF WEEK FOR FAMILY UNITS
SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE

Store Patronized		Major Purchase of Food							Total
		No Partic- ular Day	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thur.	Fri.	Sat.	
One-Stop	n	25	1	5	4	5	15	9	66
Shopping									
Center	%	37.9	1.5	7.6	6.1	7.6	22.7	13.6	100
Conven- tional	n	26	0	3	21	8	16	14	93
Super- market	%	28.0	-	3.2	22.6	8.6	17.2	15.1	100
All	n	51	1	8	25	13	31	23	159
Shoppers	%	32.1	0.6	5.0	15.7	8.2	19.5	14.5	100

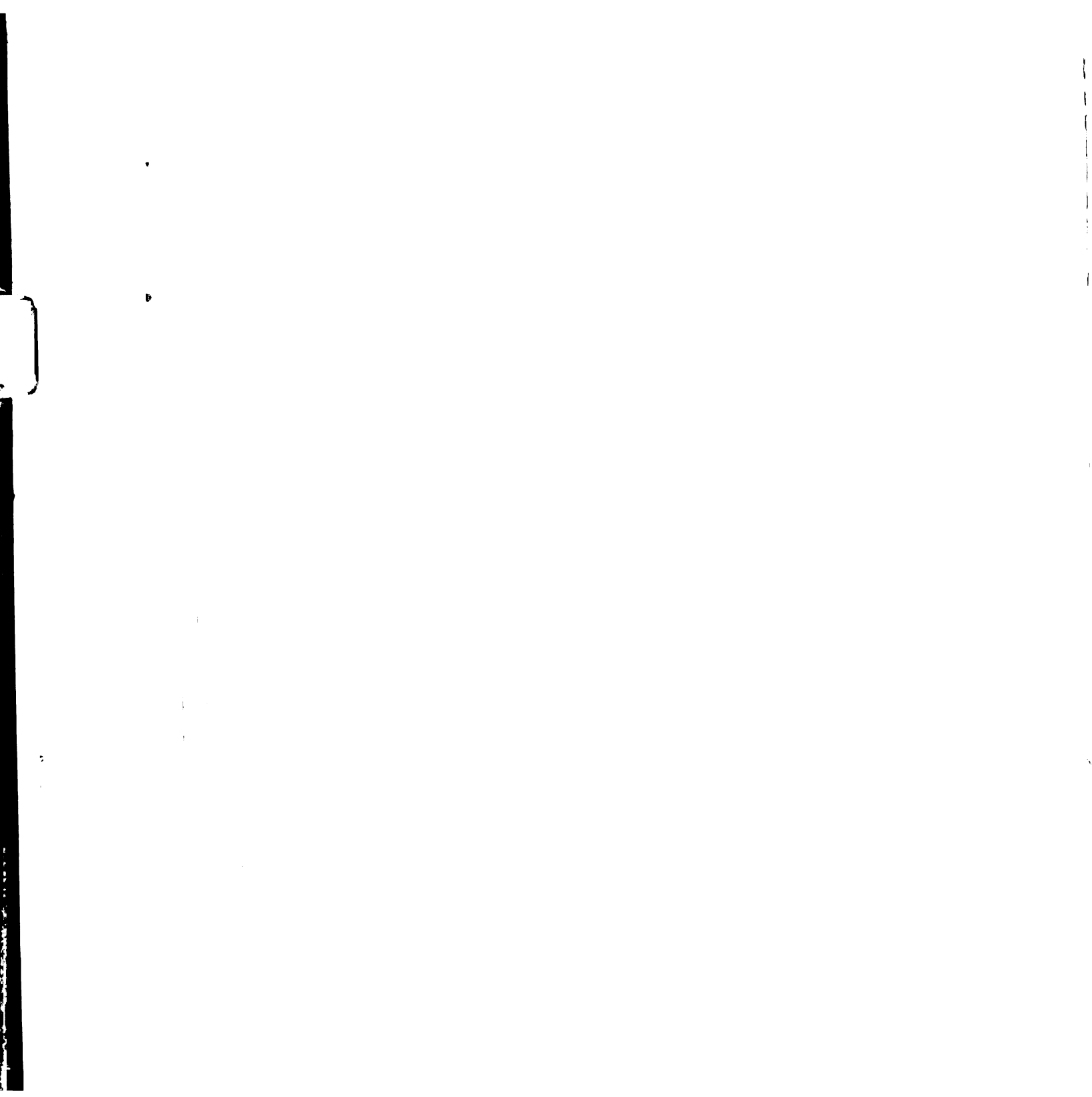


TABLE A-25

WHERE FAMILY UNITS SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE STATED
THEY WOULD PURCHASE SELECTED CONVENIENCE GOODS

Product	Type of Retail Outlet Mentioned													
	Don't Know or Don't Purchase		Conven- tional Super- market		One- Stop Shop- ping Center		De- part- ment Store		Dis- count Store		Vari- ety Store		Spe- cialty Store	
	No Re- sponse													
Ciga- rettes*	One-Stop Shopping Center	n	1	23	1	39	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	66
		%	1.5	34.9	1.5	59.1	-	3.0	-	-	-	-	-	100
	Conven- tional Super- market	n	1	28	41	10	0	11	1	0	1	0	0	93
		%	1.1	30.1	44.1	10.8	-	11.8	1.1	-	1.1	-	1.1	100
Non- pre- scrip- tion Drugs*	One-Stop Shopping Center	n	0	1	0	50	0	5	10	0	0	0	0	66
		%	-	1.5	-	75.7	-	7.6	15.2	-	-	-	-	100
	Conven- tional Shopping Center	n	1	3	11	26	0	20	32	0	0	0	0	93
		%	1.1	3.2	11.8	28.0	-	21.5	34.4	-	-	-	-	100

*Significant at the .001 level.

TABLE A-25---Continued

		Type of Retail Outlet Mentioned									
Product		Don't Know Or Don't Purchase		Conventional Supermarket		One-Stop Shopping Center		Department Store		Discount Store	
		No Response	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Maga-zines*	One-Stop Shopping Center	n	1	8	3	29	0	0	15	2	66
		%	1.5	12.1	4.5	43.9	-	-	22.7	3.0	100
	Conventional Supermarket	n	2	13	31	7	0	0	28	7	93
		%	2.2	14.0	33.3	7.5	-	-	30.1	7.5	100

*Significant at the .001 level.

WHERE FAMILY UNITS SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE STATED THEY WOULD PURCHASE SELECTED SHOPPING GOODS

Type of Retail Outlet Mentioned												
Product	Don't Know		Conven-tional Super-market Center		One-Stop Shopping Center		De-part-ment Store		Dis-count Store		Vari-ety Store	
	No Re-sponse	Don't Purchase	Don't Know	Conven-tional Super-market	One-Stop Shopping Center	De-part-ment Store	Dis-count Store	Drug Store	Spe-cialty Store	Mail	Total	
Toaster	One-Stop Shopping Center	n	0	10	0	10	20	11	0	15	0	66
		%	-	15.2	-	15.2	30.3	16.7	-	22.7	-	100
	Conven-tional Super-market	n	2	4	1	11	35	22	0	17	1	93
		%	2.2	4.3	1.1	11.8	37.6	23.7	-	18.3	1.1	100
Television	One-Stop Shopping Center	n	0	11	0	0	30	3	0	22	0	66
		%	-	16.7	-	-	45.5	4.6	-	33.3	-	100
	Conven-tional Super-market	n	3	11	0	0	37	5	0	37	0	93
		%	3.2	11.8	-	-	39.8	5.4	-	39.8	-	100

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TABLE A-26--Continued

Type of Retail Outlet Mentioned										
Product		Don't Know or Don't Purchase	Conventional Supermarket	One-Stop Shopping Center	Department Store	Discount Store	Variety Store	Specialty Store	Mail	Total
One-Stop Shopping Center	n	0	9	1	45	3	0	1	7	66
	%	-	13.6	1.5	68.2	4.5	-	1.5	10.6	100
Conventional Supermarket	n	2	12	1	51	5	0	0	21	93
	%	2.2	12.9	1.1	54.8	5.4	-	-	22.4	100

TABLE A-27

WHERE FAMILY UNITS SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE STATED
THEY WOULD PURCHASE SELECTED SPECIALTY GOODS

		Type of Retail Outlet Mentioned									
Product		Don't Know		Conven- tional Super- market		One- Stop Shop- ping Center		De- part- ment count Store		Vari- ety Store	
		No Re- sponse	Don't Purchase								cialty Store Mail Total
Man's Suit	One-Stop Shopping Center	n 0	6	0	0	0	17	1	0	42	0 66
		% -	9.1	-	-	-	25.8	1.5	-	63.6	- 100
	Conven- tional Super- market	n 1	10	0	0	0	22	5	0	55	0 93
		% 1.1	10.8	-	-	-	23.7	5.4	-	59.1	- 100
Pre- scriptions*	One-Stop Shopping Center	n 2	0	0	23	0	0	0	41	0	0 66
		% 3.0	-	-	34.9	-	-	-	62.1	-	- 100
	Conven- tional Super- market	n 5	2	0	7	0	0	1	78	0	0 93
		% 5.4	2.2	-	7.5	-	-	1.1	83.9	-	- 100

*Significant at the .001 level.

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TABLE A-27--Continued

		Type of Retail Outlet Mentioned									
Product		Don't Know		One-Stop Shopping Center		Department Store		Discount Store		Variety Store	
		No Response	Or Don't Purchase	Conventional Supermarket	Shopping Center	Department Store	Discount Store	Drug Store	Specialty Store	Mail	Total
China	One-Stop Shopping Center	n	0	12	0	0	32	0	0	22	66
		%	-	18.2	-	-	48.5	-	-	33.3	100
	Conventional Supermarket	n	3	8	1	0	40	2	0	39	93
		%	3.2	8.6	1.1	-	43.0	2.2	-	41.9	100

TABLE A-28

MAIL-ORDER CATALOGS IN HOMES OF FAMILY UNITS
SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE

Mail-Order Catalogs Possessed by Each Group of Shoppers							
Catalog		One-Stop Shopping Center			Conventional Supermarket		
		No Catalog in Home	Catalog in Home	Total	No Catalog in Home	Catalog in Home	Total
Sears*	n	33	33	66	64	29	93
	%	50.0	50.0	100	68.2	31.2	100
Penney's	n	53	12	65 ^a	83	10	93
	%	81.0	19.0	100	89.3	10.7	100
Mont- gomery Ward*	n	53	12	65 ^a	86	7	93
	%	81.0	19.0	100	92.5	7.5	100
Spiegel*	n	55	10	65 ^a	87	6	93
	%	84.1	15.9	15.9	93.6	6.4	100
Alden*	n	58	7	65 ^a	90	3	93
	%	88.6	11.4	100	96.8	3.2	100
John Plain	n	63	2	65 ^a	90	3	93
	%	96.2	3.8	100	96.8	3.2	100

*Significant at the .05 level.

^aNote missing respondent.

TABLE A-29

VALUE OF GENERAL MERCHANDISE ORDERED BY MAIL
FOR FAMILY UNITS SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF
STORE (3 Month Period)

Store Patronized		Value of Merchandise				
		None	\$1-25	\$26-50	\$51+	Total
One-Stop Shopping Center	n	32	19	6	9	66
	%	48.5	28.8	9.1	13.5	100
Conventional Supermarket	n	59	23	5	6	93
	%	63.4	24.7	5.4	6.6	100
All Shoppers	n	91	42	11	15	159
	%	57.2	26.4	6.9	9.4	100

TABLE A-30

VALUE OF SPECIAL MERCHANDISE ORDERED BY MAIL FOR
FAMILY UNITS SHOPPING IN EACH TYPE OF STORE*

Store Patronized		Value of Merchandise				
		None	\$1-25	\$26-50	\$51+	Total
One-Stop Shopping Center	n	18	42	6	0	66
	%	27.3	63.6	9.1	-	100
Conventional Supermarket	n	43	40	7	3	93
	%	46.2	43.0	7.5	3.3	100
All Shoppers	n	61	82	13	3	159
	%	38.4	41.6	8.2	1.9	100

*Significant at the .05 level.

TABLE A-31
INCOME OF FAMILY UNITS ADOPTING
THE ONE-STOP SHOPPING CENTER

Adopter Category		Income			Total
		\$0- 4,999	\$5,000- 9,999	\$10,000+	
Earlier	n	6	14	21	41
Adopters	%	14.6	34.1	51.3	100
Later	n	2	6	13	21
Adopters	%	9.6	28.5	61.9	100
All	n	8	20	34	62 ^a
Adopters	%	12.9	32.3	53.8	100

^aNote missing respondent.

TABLE A-32

EDUCATION OF THE MALE FOR FAMILY UNITS
ADOPTING THE ONE-STOP SHOPPING CENTER*

Adopter Category	Level of Formal Education									
	No Re- sponse	Some Grade School	Com- pleted Grade School	Some High School	Com- pleted High School	Some College	Com- pleted College	Post- Grad- uate Work	Other	Total
Earlier Adopter	n 3	0	5	6	13	4	7	4	2	44
	% 6.8	-	11.4	13.6	29.5	9.1	15.9	9.1	4.5	100
Later Adopter	n 2	0	0	1	3	10	4	2	0	22
	% 9.1	-	-	4.5	13.6	45.5	18.2	9.1	-	100
All Adopters	n 5	0	5	7	16	14	11	6	2	66
	% 7.6	-	7.6	10.6	24.2	21.2	16.7	9.1	3.0	100

*Significant at the .05 level.

TABLE A-33
STAGE IN THE FAMILY LIFE CYCLE FOR FAMILY UNITS
ADOPTING THE ONE-STOP SHOPPING CENTER*

Adopter Category	Stage in Family Life Cycle						
	No Re- sponse	No Children, Household Forty	Young Children	Older Children Only	No Children, No Children, Married, Single, Household Head Over Forty	Household Head Over Forty	Total
Earlier	n	0	24	15	5	0	44
Adopters	%	-	54.5	34.1	11.4	-	100
Later	n	1	14	2	3	0	22
Adopters	%	4.5	63.6	9.1	13.6	-	100
All	n	1	38	17	8	0	66
Adopters	%	1.5	57.6	25.8	12.1	-	100

*Significant at the .05 level.

TABLE A-34
SOCIAL CLASS OF FAMILY UNITS ADOPTING THE
ONE-STOP SHOPPING CENTER*

Social Class												
Adopter Category		No Re- sponse	Upper Class	Upper Middle	Upper Middle or Lower	Upper Middle or Lower	Lower Middle or Upper	Upper Middle or Lower	Upper Lower or Lower	Upper Lower or Lower	Lower Lower or Lower	Total
Earlier	n	2	0	0	3	5	15	4	13	2	0	44
Adopters	%	4.5	-	-	6.8	11.4	34.1	9.1	29.6	4.5	-	100
Later	n	0	0	0	3	7	7	0	3	0	2	22
Adopters	%	-	-	-	13.6	31.6	31.6	-	13.6	-	9.1	100
All	n	2	0	0	6	12	22	4	16	2	2	66
Adopters	%	3.0	-	-	9.1	18.2	33.3	6.1	24.2	3.0	3.0	100

*Significant at .05 level.

TABLE A-35
 NUMBER OF GIFTS FROM TRADING STAMP REDEMPTION FOR
 FAMILY UNITS ADOPTING THE ONE-STOP SHOPPING CENTER*
 (12 Month Period)

Adopter Category		Number of Gifts Received			Total
		None	1	2 or More	
Earlier	n	25	14	5	44
Adopters	%	56.8	31.8	11.4	100
Later	n	9	4	9	22
Adopters	%	40.9	18.2	40.9	100
All	n	34	18	14	66
Adopters	%	51.5	27.3	21.2	100

*Significant at the .05 level.

TABLE A-36
 REDEMPTION OF MANUFACTURER "CENTS-OFF" COUPONS FOR FAMILY
 UNITS ADOPTING THE ONE-STOP SHOPPING CENTER
 (12 Month Period)

Adopter Category		Number of Coupons							Total
		None	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Earlier	n	19	10	8	4	2	1	0	44
Adopters	%	43.2	22.7	18.2	9.1	4.5	2.3	-	100
Later	n	14	7	1	0	0	0	0	22
Adopters	%	63.6	31.8	4.5	-	-	-	-	100
All	n	33	17	9	4	2	1	0	66
Adopters	%	50.0	25.8	13.6	6.1	3.0	1.5	-	100

TABLE A-37

AWARENESS OF TWO PRIVATE LABELS FEATURED IN THE
ONE-STOP SHOPPING CENTER BY FAMILY UNITS
ADOPTING THE ONE-STOP SHOPPING CENTER

Adopter Category		Recognition of Two Private Labels			Total
		No Re- sponse	Didn't Recognize Private Labels	Did Recognize Private Labels	
Earlier	n	0	37	7	44
Adopters	%	-	84.1	15.9	100
Later	n	1	14	6	22
Adopters	%	4.5	68.2	27.3	100
All	n	1	52	13	66
Adopters	%	1.5	78.8	19.7	100

TABLE A-38

CONCENTRATION OF PURCHASES IN SELECTED PRODUCT CATEGORIES FOR
FAMILY UNITS ADOPTING THE ONE-STOP SHOPPING CENTER

Product Category	Concentration of Purchases by Adopter Categories														
	Earlier Adopters					Later Adopters					All Adopters				
	1- 25%	26- 50%	51- 75%	76- 100%	Total	1- 25%	26- 50%	51- 75%	76- 100%	Total	1- 25%	26- 50%	51- 75%	76- 100%	Total
Total Food Shopping	n 0	7	13	24	44	0	5	7	10	22	0	12	20	34	66
	% -	15.9	29.5	54.6	100	-	22.7	31.8	45.5	100	-	18.2	30.3	51.5	100
Total Meat Shopping	n 11	3	3	27	44	7	1	1	13	22	18	4	4	40	66
	% 25.0	6.8	6.8	61.4	100	31.8	4.5	4.5	59.1	100	27.2	6.1	6.1	60.6	100
Total Produce Shopping	n 3	3	3	35	44	0	4	2	16	22	3	7	5	51	66
	% 6.8	6.8	6.8	19.6	100	-	18.2	9.1	72.7	100	4.5	10.6	7.6	77.3	100
Total Grocery Shopping	n 0	2	5	37	44	0	2	6	14	22	0	4	11	51	66
	% -	4.5	11.4	84.1	100	-	9.1	27.3	64.6	100	-	6.0	16.7	77.3	100
Total Non-Food Shopping	n 1	1	2	40	44	0	1	2	19	22	1	2	4	59	66
	% 2.3	2.3	4.5	90.9	100	-	4.5	9.1	86.4	100	1.5	3.0	6.1	89.4	100

TABLE A-39

NUMBER OF TRIPS TO PURCHASE FOOD FOR FAMILY
UNITS ADOPTING THE ONE-STOP SHOPPING CENTER

Adopter Category		Number of Shopping Trips per Week							Total
		Once, or Less	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Earlier	n	27	8	4	1	3	0	1	44
Adopters	%	61.4	18.2	9.1	2.3	6.8	-	2.3	100
Later	n	10	4	7	1	0	0	0	22
Adopters	%	45.5	18.2	31.8	4.5	-	-	-	100
All	n	37	12	11	2	3	0	1	66
Adopters	%	56.1	18.2	16.7	3.0	4.5	-	1.5	100

TABLE A-40
MAIL-ORDER CATALOGS IN HOMES OF FAMILY UNITS
ADOPTING THE ONE-STOP SHOPPING CENTER

Mail-Order Catalogs Possessed by Adopter Categories							
Catalog	Earlier Adopters				Later Adopters		
		No Catalog in Home	Catalog in Home	Total	No Catalog in Home	Catalog in Home	Total
Sears	n	21	23	44	12	10	22
	%	47.7	52.3	100	54.5	45.5	100
Penney's*	n	32	11	43 ^a	21	1	22
	%	73.8	26.2	100	95.5	4.5	100
Mont- gomery Ward	n	33	10	43 ^a	20	2	22
	%	76.1	23.9	100	99.9	9.1	100
Spiegel	n	35	8	43 ^a	20	2	22
	%	80.7	19.3	100	90.9	9.1	100
Alden	n	39	4	43 ^a	19	3	22
	%	89.8	10.2	100	86.4	13.6	100
John Plain	n	41	2	43 ^a	22	0	22
	%	94.3	5.7	100	100	-	100

*Significant at the .05 level.

^aNote missing respondent.

APPENDIX B

**Letter of Introduction, Interviewer Instructions,
Research Questionnaire and Family Recall Charts**

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

March 25, 1968

Dear Respondent:

This letter is to introduce you to Mrs. Judith Risak, an interviewer with the Consumer Shopping Research Study being conducted by David L. Appel, a graduate student in Marketing at Michigan State University.

She will ask you a number of questions on your shopping habits. All your answers will be held in strict confidence.

If you have any questions, you may contact either of us at the following address:

Mr. David L. Appel	Professor Bernard J. La Londe
355-5116	355-5119
Michigan State Univ.	Michigan State University
Research Director	Faculty Advisor

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Mr. David Appel

Professor B. J. La Londe

DLA/jaa

INTERVIEWER INSTRUCTIONS

1. In all cases, the interview is to be conducted with the lady of the house.
2. Complete all questions unless otherwise indicated. Where respondent cannot answer, indicate the reason. If respondent refuses to answer, put N.R. (No Response).
3. Ask questions as they are written. Only help respondent as directed in training session.
4. Make three calls at each designated housing unit.
5. In all probe questions, always ask respondent what she has in mind. Try to get specific responses without being "too" forceful.
6. Make sure complete survey and all cards are in your possession when interview is over.
7. All information obtained is to be held in strict confidence.
8. In case of unexpected problems, call Mr. Appel at 355-5116 for assistance.

					INIT	DATE	TIME	REASON
C.N.	NAME VII				1.			
PH.	ADD. VI				2.			
I	II	III	IV	V	3.			

CONSUMER FOOD SHOPPING

RESEARCH STUDY

Department of Marketing and Transportation

Michigan State University

East Lansing,

Michigan

Directions: _____

Introduction

Good morning (afternoon, evening)! My name is _____ and I'm helping conduct a study of the food shopping habits of Lansing families. The study is being conducted by Michigan State University. All your answers will be held in strict confidence. May I come in?

PART A

In the first part of the questionnaire we are interested in learning a little about your own shopping habits as they relate to the purchase of food.

A.1. How many shopping trips have you made in the last seven days to purchase food?

A.2. Is there any particular day of the week that you usually do your food shopping?

_____ Yes _____ No

If "yes," which day of the week?

(CIRCLE ONE) M T W T F S S

A.3. What would you estimate your overall weekly food bill is, in dollars?

A.4. What food stores have you shopped at within the last 30 days? (ENTER ANSWER ON CARD #1) What per cent of your total food shopping did you do at each of these stores?

(ENTER ANSWERS ON CARD #1 AND HAND CARD TO RESPONDENT)

Would you enter the per cent of the total meat you purchased at each store in column #2? Would you do the same thing for produce, groceries and non-foods (i.e., drugs, housewares) in columns 3, 4 + 5, respectively. (GET CARD FROM RESPONDENT.)

A.5. How long have you been shopping at _____?
(NAME STORE WITH HIGHEST % TOTAL SHOPPING--PROBE FOR EXACT ANSWER.)

_____ Years and _____ Months

[IF STORE NAMED IN A.5. IS MEIJER GO TO A.5(a)--
IF OTHER GO TO A.6.]

A.5(a). On your last major food shopping trip, the trip on which you purchase the majority of your food, did you purchase anything at Meijer's that you would not have found in a conventional supermarket such as A&P or Kroger?

_____ Yes _____ No

If "yes," what else was purchased?

A.5(b). On this same trip, did you purchase any other items, or make any other stops besides the stop at Meijer--for example, at a hardware store?

_____ Yes _____ No

If "yes," what else was purchased (WHERE) and what other stops made?

[GO ON TO A.7.]

A.6. On your last major food shopping trip, the trip on which you purchase the majority of your food, did you make any other stops or purchases, other than at the supermarket--for example, at a hardware store?

_____ Yes _____ No

If "yes," what else was purchased (WHERE) and what other stops were made?

A.7. Did anyone go with you on this shopping trip?

_____ Yes _____ No

If "yes," who?

PART B

The second part of the questionnaire will again deal with food shopping habits. As you are aware, different factors in food shopping do not have the same importance to all people. For example, what one person feels is extremely important another person may feel is not important at all. This section looks at some of these different factors.

[HAND RESPONDENT CARD #2]

B.1. Here is a list of ten frequently purchased items. For each item, can you tell me the brand, size, and price paid the last time you purchased each item at _____? (USE STORE WITH HIGHEST % OF TOTAL IN A.4.) If you did not purchase one, or more, of the specific items on the list, are there similar items that you did purchase? (RECORD ANY CHANGE IN ITEMS--GET CARD.)

ITEM	BRAND & SIZE	PRICE
1. Bread, white		
2. Coffee, Vacuum Pack		
3. Soup, Tomato		
4. Peas, Canned		
5. Peaches, Canned		
6. Milk, fresh		
7. Cereal, cold		
8. Eggs, Grade A		
9. Cooking Oil		
10. Ketchup		

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•

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•

B.2. What is the closest, complete supermarket to your home? The second closest?

1. _____
2. _____

[HAND RESPONDENT CARD #3]

B.3. Using a rating of 1, 2 or 3 as shown on the card, how would you rate the quality of the groceries, meat and produce in the stores listed? If you don't know about one of the stores, leave the spaces blank. (GET CARD.)

B.4. Do you presently save any type of trading stamps?

_____ Yes _____ NO

[IF "YES," ASK B.4(a) + (b)]

B.4.(a). What different stamps are you presently saving? (PROBE) How many books do you presently have saved for each type of stamp?

	Stamp	Books
1.	_____	_____
2.	_____	_____
3.	_____	_____
4.	_____	_____

B.4(b). Are you presently saving for any specific gift?

_____ Yes _____ No

If "yes," what are you saving for?

B.5. Many different businesses, such as food stores and department stores, give trading stamps. Where do you get most of your trading stamps? (PROBE FOR SOURCE AND % FROM EACH.)

B.6. Have you redeemed any trading stamps for a gift within the last year?

_____ Yes _____ No

If "yes," what gifts have you received? What would you estimate each of these gifts to be worth?

	GIFT	VALUE
1.	_____	_____
2.	_____	_____
3.	_____	_____
4.	_____	_____

[HAND RESPONDENT CARD #4]

B.7. A number of promotional games and contests have recently been offered to consumers in the Lansing area.

This card includes eight of them. Can you tell me who is sponsoring each? Which ones have you, or your family, taken part in? (GET CARD.)

PROMOTION	SPONSOR	PLAYED	
		YES	NO
"Bonus Bingo" (M.O.)			
"King Korn Derby" (S)			
"Goldmine Giveaway" (D)			
"Sport of Kings" (K)			
"Jig Saw Cash" (P)			
"Dilly Dollars" (D)			
"Super Pro" (S.O.)			
"Gold Bond Bingo" (SR)			

B.8. Manufacturers of products sometimes offer the consumer "cents-off" coupons which allow the consumer to purchase the product below its normal price. Have you turned in any of these "cents-off" coupons within the last 30 days?

_____ Yes _____ No

If "yes," who were the coupons from (MFG) and what were their values?

	MFG/PRODUCT	VALUE
1.	_____	_____
2.	_____	_____
3.	_____	_____
4.	_____	_____
5.	_____	_____

B.9. What were the primary sources of any "cents-off" coupons that you have received within the last 30 days?
(PROBE FOR SOURCE AND % SPLIT.)

B. 10. When these coupons are received, some people redeem them immediately, while other people save them till they would be purchasing the product anyway. What do you usually do?

B. 11. Some manufacturers offer premiums such as silverware or toys that the consumer can send in for, either free or for a small price. Have you sent away for any manufacturer premiums within the last 60 days?

_____ Yes _____ No

If "yes," what was the premium and who offered it?

B.12. You said that you do your major food shopping at _____ . (SAME STORE AS IN A.5.) Can you tell me what 5 or 6 of their advertised specials were last week, and the prices on these advertised specials? (AFTER LIST IS GIVEN.) Can you tell me the price of these items at any other store? (PROBE FOR STORE & PRICE--ENTER "NONE" IF RESPONDENT DOESN'T KNOW ANY.)

Store _____		Comparison	
Item	Price	Store	Price
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			
5.			
6.			

[HAND RESPONDENT CARD #5]

B.13. On this card are listed a number of "private labels." These are brand names used on certain products which the retail food store controls. Consequently, you only find these brands in certain stores. For example, the A&P stores use the name "Ann Page" on many of their bakery items. Can you tell me which stores in the Lansing area use the brand names listed?

QUESTION B.15

Certain products are often found on the supermarket shelf with special "cents-off" labels featured on them. Have you purchased any products with "cents-off" labels within the last thirty days? (IF YES, LIST; IF NOT, WRITE "NO") How much lower than the regular price were each of these items?

	ITEM	CENTS LOWER
1.	_____	_____
2.	_____	_____
3.	_____	_____
4.	_____	_____
5.	_____	_____

PART C

The third part of the questionnaire deals with shopping habits in areas related to food shopping. It is not concerned directly with food purchasing. Again we are interested in your opinions as they relate to the questions.

[HAND RESPONDENT CARD #6]

C.1. On this card are a number of purchases that your family might make in the next few months. If you were

going to purchase each of these itmes, in what store do you think you would most likely purchase each of them.

<u>Item</u>		<u>Store</u>
1. Cigarettes	(1)	_____
2. Toaster	(2)	_____
3. Man's suit	(3)	_____
4. Television	(2)	_____
5. Drugs (non-pres)	(1)	_____
6. Prescriptions	(3)	_____
7. Magazines	(1)	_____
8. "Good" China	(3)	_____
9. Draperies	(2)	_____

C.2. Do you, or any of your family, ever purchase anything from general merchandise mail-order catalogs such as those Sears and Montgomery-Ward put out?

_____ Yes _____ No

[IF "YES," ASK C.2(a) + (b)]

C.2(a) What general merchandise catalogs do you presently have in your home? (MAIN CATALOG--NOT SUPPLEMENTS)

C.2(b) Approximately what was the total dollar value of all items purchased through the use of these catalogs within the last three months?

_____ \$ 0-\$ 25	_____ \$101-\$125
_____ 26- 50	_____ 126- 150
_____ 51- 75	_____ 151 and over
_____ 76- 100	

[HAND RESPONDENT CARD #7]

C.3. Have you, or any of your family, requested or ordered any of the following items by mail within the last 3 months?
(GET CARD.)

- _____ 1. Membership in Book Club or Books
- _____ 2. Membership in Record Club or Records
- _____ 3. Magazine Subscriptions
- _____ 4. Household Kitchen Appliances
- _____ 5. Plants, Flowers or Seeds
- _____ 6. Travel Information and Reservations
- _____ 7. Merchandise Catalogs
- _____ 8. Film Processing
- _____ 9. Special Food Products

If "yes," approximately what was the total dollar value of all the items ordered through these sources within the last 3 months?

_____ \$ 0-\$ 25	_____ \$101-\$125
_____ 26- 50	_____ 126- 150
_____ 51- 75	_____ 151 and over
_____ 76- 100	

PART D

In this last part we would just like a little information on you and your family to complete the interview.

D.1. How long have you lived at this address?

D.2. What is your marital status?

_____ Married _____ Single _____ Widowed
or
Divorced

D.3. Are there any children living here at home?

_____ Yes _____ No

If "yes," what are their ages?

[IF ANSWER TO D.1. IS "SINGLE" OR "DIVORCED" GO TO
D.6.]

D.4. What is your husband's occupation?

D.5. Who is your husband's employer (FIRM)?

D.6. Do you work, for pay, outside the home?

_____ Yes _____ No

[IF "YES," ASK D.6(a) - (c)]

D.6.(a). Do you work full-time (40 hr/wk) or part-time?

_____ full-time _____ part-time

D.6.(b). What type of work do you do?

D.6(c). Who is your employer (FIRM)?

D.7. What is the age of the head of the household?

[HAND RESPONDENT CARD #8]

D.8. What was the last grade that you attended in school?

Your husband? (HAVE RESPONDENT GIVE LETTER OF CATEGORY ONLY.)

_____ Wife _____ Husband

A. Some Grade School

B. Completed Grade School

C. Some High School

D. Completed High School

E. Some College

F. Completed College

G. Post-Graduate Work

H. Other (specify) _____

D.9. Do you drive an automobile?

_____ Yes _____ No

If "yes," is there usually a car available for your use during the day?

_____ Yes _____ No

D.10. How many cars does your family own?

[HAND RESPONDENT CARD #9]

D.11. Would you tell me, again by letter, which income grouping most closely represents your total before tax family income for 1967? (GET CARD.)

- _____ A. \$ 0- 2,999
- _____ B. 3,000- 4,999
- _____ C. 5,000- 6,999
- _____ D. 7,000- 9,999
- _____ E. 10,000-14,999
- _____ F. 15,000-24,999
- _____ G. 25,000 and over

[HAND RESPONDENT CARD #10]

D.12. Would you tell me, again by letter, which category most closely represents your family's primary source of income?

- _____ A. Hourly wages
 _____ B. Weekly or Monthly Salary
 _____ C. Earned fees or profits
 _____ D. Previously earned wealth
 _____ E. Inherited wealth
 _____ F. Private Relief (family or friends)
 _____ G. Public Relief (Government)

[THANK RESPONDENT!]

FAMILY RECALL CHARTS

CARD #1

IN WHAT STORES HAVE YOU SHOPPED FOR FOOD
WITHIN THE LAST THIRTY DAYS

C.N. _____

	1	2	3	4	5
Store	% Total Shopping	% Meat	% Product	% Grocery	% Non-Food
1.					
2.					
3.					
4.					
5.					
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

CARD #2

PRODUCTS PURCHASED

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------|
| 1. Bread, White | 6. Milk, Fresh |
| 2. Coffee, Vacuum Pack | 7. Cereal, Cold |
| 3. Soup, Tomato | 8. Eggs, Grade A |
| 4. Peas, Canned | 9. Cooking Oil |
| 5. Peaches, Canned | 10. Ketchup |

CARD #3

QUALITY OF PRODUCT CATEGORIES

C.N. _____

Store	Groceries	Meat	Produce
Meijer			
Kroger			
Schmidts			
Other _____			

1 = Above Average

2 = Average

3 = Below Average

CARD #4

PROMOTIONAL GAMES

- | | |
|------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. "Bonus Bingo" | 5. "Jig Saw Cash" |
| 2. "King Korn Derby" | 6. "Dilly Dollars" |
| 3. "Goldmine Giveaway" | 7. "Super Pro" |
| 4. "Sport of Kings" | 8. "Gold Bond Bingo" |

CARD #5

PRIVATE LABEL BRANDS

- | | |
|----------------|--------------------|
| 1. "Food Club" | 6. "Swansoft" |
| 2. "Ease Life" | 7. "Orchard Fresh" |
| 3. "Rose-Dale" | 8. "Surfine" |
| 4. "Spartan" | 9. "Avondale" |
| 5. "Elna" | 10. "Home Town" |

CARD #6

PRODUCTS TO BE PURCHASED

- | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------|
| 1. Cigarettes | 6. Prescriptions |
| 2. Toaster | 7. Magazines |
| 3. Man's Suit | 8. "Good" China |
| 4. Television Set | 9. Draperies |
| 5. Drugs (Non-Prescription) | |

CARD #7

ITEMS ORDERED THROUGH THE MAIL

1. Membership in Book Clubs or Books
2. Memberships in Record Clubs or Records
3. Magazine Subscriptions
4. Household Kitchen Appliances
5. Plants, Flowers, Seeds
6. Travel Information/Reservations
7. Merchandise Catalogs
8. Film Processing
9. Special Food Products

CARD #8

LAST LEVEL IN SCHOOL COMPLETED

- A. Some Grade School
- B. Completed Grade School
- C. Some High School
- D. Completed High School
- E. Some College
- F. Completed College
- G. Post-Graduate Work
- H. Other (Specify) _____

CARD #9

INCOME OF FAMILY UNIT

- A. \$ 0 -- \$ 2,999
- B. \$ 3,000 -- \$ 4,999
- C. \$ 5,000 -- \$ 6,999
- D. \$ 7,000 -- \$ 9,999
- E. \$10,000 -- \$14,999
- F. \$15,000 -- \$24,999
- G. \$25,000 and over

CARD #10

SOURCE OF INCOME

- A. Hourly Wages
- B. Weekly or Monthly Salary
- C. Earned Fees or Profits
- D. Previously Earned Wealth
- E. Inherited Wealth
- F. Private Relief (Family or Friends)
- G. Public Relief (Government)

APPENDIX C

Summary Data on Responding and Non- Responding Family Units

Appendix C provides the reader with a brief summary of responding and not-responding family units from the original sample of 200 used in the research. The primary objective of the appendix is to give the reader a basis on which to judge the representitiveness of the 159 responding family units.

Table C-1 shows the final results of the field interviewing. As the table shows, 161 research questionnaires were completed. Two contained a number of nonsense answers and were dropped from the group of surveys used for the findings of the research. The result was 159 usable questionnaires. Of the 39 questionnaires not completed, the greatest cause was a direct refusal by the family unit without giving the interviewer a reason. The second greatest cause of interviews not being completed was a failure to find the respondents at home, even after five callbacks. Several other causes for not completing the interviews were found and shown in the table. None of the other causes accounted for a large percent of incompleted surveys.

Table C-2 shows the number of calls the interviewer made to complete the 161 interviews that were taken during the research. As indicated in the table, almost half of the interviews were completed on the first call.

TABLE C-1
SUMMARY OF FIELD INTERVIEWING

<u>Results of Field Work</u>	<u>Number of Surveys</u>
Surveys Completed	161
Completed, Usable	159
Completed, Not Usable	<u>2</u>
Surveys Not Completed	39
Refusal, No Reason	23
Not at Home	9
Not a Family Unit	1
Wife in Hospital	2
Moving (In or Out)	3
Commercial Property	<u>1</u>
Total Surveys	<u>200</u>

TABLE C-2
NUMBER OF CALLS TO COMPLETE THE INTERVIEWING

<u>Number of Calls</u>	<u>Surveys Completed</u>
1	80
2	45
3	21
4	13
5	<u>2</u>
	161

The 161 interviews that were completed represent a completion rate of approximately eighty percent (80.5 percent). With the two interviews that were dropped from the analysis, the findings are based on 79.5 percent of the total family units selected for inclusion.

To analyze the non-respondents to the research questionnaire, the research area was divided into quartiles

using Saginaw Street as the East-West axis and Waverly Road as the North-South axis.

Tables C-3 through C-6 show the location of the non-responding family units analyzed according to the reason for the interviews not being completed. Table C-3 reports the location of the family units refusing to take part in the research. Tables C-4 and C-5 show the location of the "not-at-homes" and the "other" reasons given for not taking part in the research.

TABLE C-3

REFUSAL TO TAKE PART IN RESEARCH

<u>Quadrant</u>	<u>Number of Surveys</u>
NE	7
SE	6
SW	5
NW	<u>5</u>
Total	23

TABLE C-4

FAMILY UNITS NOT-AT-HOME

<u>Quadrant</u>	<u>Number of Surveys</u>
NE	2
SE	4
SW	1
NW	<u>2</u>
Total	9

TABLE C-5

"OTHER" REASONS FOR NOT TAKING PART IN RESEARCH

<u>Quadrant</u>	<u>Number of Surveys</u>
NE	2
SE	3
SW	2
NW	<u>0</u>
Total	7

Table C-6 shows the combined results of Tables C-3 through C-5. The table shows the number of surveys that were not completed from each quadrant. The quadrant with the highest number of interviews not completed was the South-East quadrant. The South-East quadrant contained the lower income and social class family units, and to an extent a lower rate of response was expected from the quadrant.

The bias would appear to be slight however. The quadrant contained 49 family units selected for the research. Since only 13 interviews were not completed, the rate of response was 74 percent, or a little less than 6 percent below the rate of response for the research as a whole.

TABLE C-6

SUMMARY TABLE OF NON-RESPONDENTS

<u>Quadrant</u>	<u>Number of Surveys</u>
NE	11
SE	13
SW	8
NW	<u>7</u>
Total	39

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