AN ANALYSIS OF DEMOGRAPHIC, SOCIOECONOMIC AND ATTITUDINAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE URBAN IN - HOME SHOPPER

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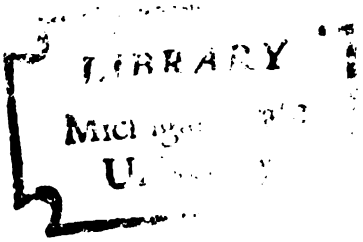

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AN ANALYSIS OF DEMOGRAPHIC, SOCIOECONOMIC AND ATTITUDINAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE URBAN IN-HOME SHOPPER

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ABSTRACT

AN ANALYSIS OF DEMOGRAPHIC, SOCIOECONOMIC AND ATTITUDINAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE URBAN IN-HOME SHOPPER

By

Peter Lee Gillett

Despite the expansion of suburban shopping centers, discount stores and self-service retailing, recent in-home buying gains have been most impressive in urban and suburban areas. Between 1955 and 1965, for example, general merchandise mail order sales approximately doubled, while total sales of general merchandise grew at an estimated rate of less than 4 per cent annually. The current retailing literature sees several trends encouraging urban in-home shopping:

1. Shoppers are more convenience-oriented than ever before.
2. With suburban growth, heavy traffic, inadequate parking and crowded stores are reducing the convenience of suburban shopping.
3. In-home merchandisers are upgrading their facilities, merchandise and shopping services.

The research analyzed the relationships among selected demographic, socioeconomic and attitudinal characteristics of urban female shoppers and their telephone and mail shopping for general merchandise. In-home buying was defined as: (1) telephone shopping from retail stores; (2) shopping from general merchandise catalogs by mail, phone or in person from catalog offices; and (3) buying by mail from specialty mail order firms.

The research encompassed the following problem areas:

1. What is the nature and extent of in-home shopping, from various in-home shopping sources?
2. Is the urban in-home shopper "locked in" away from retail stores?
3. What socioeconomic and demographic characteristics discriminate in-home shoppers from women who do not buy at home?
4. Are in-home shoppers especially convenience minded? Do in-home shoppers express unique attitudes toward shopping convenience and the shopping process that differentiate them from non-shoppers?

Personal interviews with 210 female shoppers in Grand Rapids, Michigan provided the research data. Data were analyzed using several nonparametric bivariate tests of significance. Research findings indicated that:

1. Most urban women had shopped at home during the preceding 11-month period, spending less than $60.
2. Few shoppers are locked in because of their job, age, preschool children at home, residential location or lack of transportation. Perhaps because of the easy access to shopping areas in Grand Rapids, locked-in shopping is only a minor contributor to in-home buying.
3. In-home buying intensity is related to above average family income and education, but not to shopper age, family life cycle or family size. Telephone and direct mail shoppers are above average in socioeconomic status, while catalog shoppers do not differ from women who seldom or never buy at home.
4. Negro shoppers did not differ significantly from white shoppers on in-home spending, although data suggested that Negro shoppers may spend less by direct mail.
5. In-home shoppers do not view the shopping process as less important or enjoyable than do other women. But experienced in-home shoppers, who are also frequent store shoppers, rate in-home shopping more favorably over a wide range of convenience, service, merchandise and price factors than do other shoppers.

6. In-home buying is motivated by a wide range of factors: catalog shoppers buy most often because of merchandise assortment and price, while phone shoppers stress shopping convenience and impulse motives. Perceived risk of buying merchandise without personal inspection is a major deterrent to in-home buying. Many other shoppers avoid the experience of buying at home, particularly by phone, because it is unfamiliar.

The research found differences between urban in-home shoppers and other buyers which have important implications for market segmentation and merchandising strategy. It is also suggested that the urban in-home market for general merchandise will continue its significant growth in the future. A projected rise in family incomes will be accompanied by increased demands for shopping conveniences, and technological innovations such as electronic ordering will make the in-home shopping task even more convenient.

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Peter Lee Gillett

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Problem

The limited ability of any one firm to satisfy consumer demands requires that firms identify market segments and tailor their market offerings to the potentially most profitable segments. In a market of rapidly-increasing discretionary income and ever-changing consumer wants, however, identifying homogeneous groups of buyers is one of marketing management's most difficult tasks. The objective of the present research is to identify an important and growing market segment, the buyer who shops at home for a significant portion of her purchases, the in-home shopper.

Marketing research and the marketing literature have until recently paid relatively little attention to the in-home shopper. There is probably some justification for this apparent lack of interest: the in-home market as a percentage of total retail sales is quite small. For example, mail order retail sales, a substantial portion of the total in-home market, have never accounted for more than 1.3 per cent of total retail sales in any given year

since 1929.[1] Further, the in-home market in the United States has traditionally been the rural family, geographically isolated from retail stores and dependent upon the general merchandise catalog for many shopping needs. With the population movement from a rural to an urban-suburban environment, the rural mail-order market has diminished in importance. But the national in-home market has not declined. In fact, examination of recent retail sales data shows that the in-home market has been growing faster than total retail sales. The major growth has been in the urban-suburban market, where telephone purchasing from retail stores and catalog firms has been steadily replacing mail ordering. Since the growth trend apparently reflects an increasing desire of urban and suburban families to shop at home, retailing efforts tailored to the in-home market would seem to hold considerable promise for future sales and profits.

Several problems occur in trying to measure the size and growth of the in-home market: First, there is little common agreement on what constitutes the "in-home market"; the term is not defined in the retailing literature nor in United States government or trade association publications. Second, lack of comprehensive data allows only rough estimates of the size and growth of the in-home market, and available data are generally understated. But an examination

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[1]E. Jerome McCarthy, Basic Marketing (revised ed.; Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1964), p. 499.

of several sources of in-home shopping data reveals an increasingly important consumer market.

One measure of the size and growth of in-home buying is presented in Table 1 below. The in-home market for general merchandise, the product category representing the bulk of total dollar sales to in-home shoppers, is estimated by combining United States Department of Commerce data on retail mail-order sales by mail-order companies and mail order divisions with estimates of department store sales out-of-house.[1] The data show that, after rather

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[1]The magnitude of the mail and telephone order market for general merchandise is understated in Table 1. Sales data for mail order retailing do not include mail orders received by retailers, principally some specialty and narrow line mail order houses not classified by the Census as mail order houses.

The U. S. Bureau of the Census has defined mail order houses narrowly, excluding many retailers selling part of their volume by mail by classifying them with other types of retail establishments. In addition, many mail order establishments are too small or transitory in nature to be included in any statistical compilation. To illustrate the differences in estimates of direct mail sales, Griffin states that there are reliable listings of organizations engaged in mail order selling triple or quadruple the numbers in the 1958 Census reports. (The 1958 Census of Business lists 2550 mail order establishments.) He cites a 1959 report by B. Klein and Company, New York City, claiming that the gross sales of mail order firms in 1958 totaled approximately $3.5 billion, an increase of about 500 per cent in a little more than ten years; see Harold E. Griffin, Jr., Mail Order Retailing--Economic Considerations for Small Operators (University of Connecticut, 1963), pp. 13-15. The 1958 Census of Business, in contrast, reported mail-order house sales of less than $2 billion. The 1963 Census lists 4,206 mail order houses with total annual sales of $2,378 million; see U. S., Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Census of Business: 1963, Vol. I, Retail Trade-Summary Statistics, Table 1: U. S.--1963 and 1958 (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office), pp. 1-6.

TABLE 1.--The growth of the general merchandise mail order market: 1951-1967 (in millions of dollars).

Year	Mail Order[a] (D.S.M)	Department Store[b]			Total
		Telephone Sales	Mail Order Sales	Total	
1951	$1,308	$349	$249	$598	$1,906
1955	1,332	381	272	653	1,985
1960	1,860	509	364	873	2,733
1961	1,932	552	395	947	2,879
1962	2,028	554	396	950	2,978
1963	2,124	584	417	1,001	3,125
1965	2,340	652	466	1,118	3,458
1965	2,581	689*	499*	1,197*	3,778*
1966	2,691	747*	534*	1,281*	3,972*
1967	2,767	800*	571*	1,371*	4,138*

[a] "Mail Order Sales of Department Store Merchandise by Mail Order Companies or Mail Order Divisions," Survey of Current Business, U. S. Department of Commerce.

[b] Mail order sales and telephone order sales based on estimates by National Retail Merchants Association, and Stuart U. Rich, Shopping Behavior of Department Store Customers (Cambridge: Harvard University, 1963).

* Estimated by trend extension from Source b, 1960-1964 data above.

insignificant gains from the early and middle 1950's, general merchandise mail order sales approximately doubled in the ten years between 1955 and 1965. Mail order sales have continued to increase, and it is certain that department store sales out-of-house, notably telephone sales, have also gained. This in-home market for general merchandise, probably exceeding four billion dollars in 1967, has grown faster than total retail sales during the last decade.

Using similar data plus annual estimates of direct (door-to-door) sales, the Stanford Research Institute reports $7 billion annual in-home sales in 1963, or 9 per cent of total national general merchandise sales. Of the total, catalog sales show a 6 per cent annual increase, an impressive trend when it is estimated that general merchandise sales have increased 3.5 per cent annually in the last decade. Stanford Research Institute predicts that in-home purchases of general merchandise will reach 10 to 11 per cent of general merchandise sales by 1975. Moreover, this is an increasingly urban market; an estimated 70 to 80 per cent of catalog sales are now in the metropolitan market as compared with 50 per cent or less some fifteen years ago.[1]

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[1]Stanford Research Institute, Industrial Economics Division, "In-Home Selling Report No. 225," (Menlo Park, California: Stanford Research Institute, October, 1964), pp. 2-3, 5.

Gains in advertising revenue also give some indication of growth in sales volume. Direct mail advertising volume is expanding; the $2.5 billion spent on direct mail advertising exceeds the amount spent on either TV or magazine advertising.[1] Total expenditures for direct mail advertising increased 550 per cent from 1946 to 1964.[2]

Scope of the Problem

The proposed study is a cross-section analysis of certain socioeconomic and attitudinal characteristics of urban shoppers that are believed to be related to in-home buying behavior. For purposes of the study, urban in-home buying will be confined to catalog and direct mail shopping, and buying by telephone from retail stores. The study will also be limited to general merchandise purchases, as defined below, and to specialty merchandise typically sold by direct mail houses.

General merchandise, broadly descriptive of the majority of items sold through large mail-order catalogs,[3] is chosen for analysis for two related reasons: first, the category represents the bulk of merchandise bought at home; second, being so inclusive, it is a category large

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[1] "Telepurchasing--Major Trend in Retailing?" Forbes, October 15, 1967, p. 62.

[2] Charles F. Higgins, "The Booming In-Home Market," The Reporter of Direct Mail Advertising, Summer, 1967, p. 47.

[3] See Chapter III, Definitions, p. 91.

enough to be measurable within the research design limitations. Personal services and food items are major consumer expenditure categories specifically excluded from the study.

In-home shopping is defined for purposes of the study as buying from samples, advertisements or catalogs. Merchandise is bought by description or from sample displays, not from retail store shelves. With the exception of catalog store or catalog counter ordering, described below, the complete shopping transaction can take place in the home.

The study defines three methods of in-home shopping: (1) mailing orders to any retailer accepting mail orders, (2) ordering by telephone, (3) ordering in person at a catalog store or at the catalog counter of a retail store.[1] While the latter method involves leaving the home to place the order, it nonetheless involves catalog ordering from sources other than retail store shelves.

Specifically excluded from the study as methods of in-home shopping otherwise meeting the above definition are: (1) buying from direct (door-to-door) salespersons; (2) group in-home buying such as houseware "home parties"; and (3) ordering merchandise as premiums from trading stamp gift catalogs. Since the first two methods are seldom buyer-initiated and are not "long-distance" methods

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[1]See Chapter III, Definitions, p. 90.

of in-home buying, they are considered of minimal importance to the hypotheses in the research. Exchanging trading stamps for merchandise is not considered an alternative to in-store buying, for purposes of the study.

The study classifies three major in-home shopping sources: (1) large general merchandise catalog firms, such as Sears, Montgomery Ward, and Spiegel, who regularly publish catalogs featuring wide varieties of general merchandise items; (2) direct-mail retailers, the smaller or more specialized firms, the bulk of whose business is by long-distance mail; and (3) retail stores offering shopping service via any of the in-home shopping methods discussed above--usually telephone or mail order service.

The large general-merchandise catalog firms offer the widest choice of in-home ordering methods. Their customers may order from catalogs via telephone or mail order or they may place orders in person at catalog stores or at catalog counters in retail stores. Merchandise information is obtained primarily through catalogs, usually two large catalogs per year supplemented by numerous sale catalogs, and through mail stuffers in billing statements.

Direct mail firms rely on long-distance mailings for advertising, receiving and filling customer orders. Carefully screened and compiled customer lists are often used. Newspaper and magazine advertising are also heavily

used, while radio and television advertising are limited and usually confined to the larger direct mail firms.

Some retail stores, particularly the larger department stores, actively promote mail and telephone orders from their regular merchandise stocks. Newspapers are the advertising medium used most heavily in reaching in-home customers. Radio and television, special catalogs (particularly Christmas gift catalogs), and telephone calls to regular customers are other frequently-used methods of informing in-home shoppers and obtaining telephone and mail orders.

In summary, types of in-home shopping to be measured are mail and telephone ordering from catalog firms, retail stores and direct mail firms, and in-person ordering from catalog counters and catalog stores. Specifically excluded from the study are direct (door-to-door) sources of in-home buying, and group in-home buying such as houseware "home parties."

Statement of the Problem

Among the many interrelated decisions a shopper makes are choosing how and where to search for merchandise. The urban shopper has several broad alternatives. She can travel to stores and buy merchandise from retail shelves. Or if she cannot or does not wish to travel to retail stores to shop in person, she may be able to delegate the shopping task to others, or cancel the

trip, or postpone it until more favorable circumstances for store shopping are present. She may also choose to avoid shopping in retail stores and buy merchandise from her home. The research investigates whether people who shop by mail and telephone differ from other shoppers on a number of socioeconomic, demographic and attitudinal characteristics. A conceptual framework of in-home shopping behavior will relate the intensity of use of mail and telephone ordering to the key behavioral variables assumed to influence the shopping choice. The research thus has two related objectives. First, it attempts to describe an "in-home shopper" market segment, those women who frequently choose in-home shopping sources and respond to newspaper and magazine advertisements and other persuasive messages from in-home shopping sources. Second, through testing a number of related hypotheses within the research framework, the study attempts to explain the reasons why certain shoppers tend to buy intensively at home.

The following questions outline the scope of the research:

1. What is the pattern of in-home buying intensity among different types of urban shoppers, and among the various methods and sources of in-home buying?

2. To what extent is the in-home shopper a "locked in" shopper?[1]
3. Are there distinctive socioeconomic characteristics which are related to preferences for different methods and sources of in-home shopping?
4. Do in-home shoppers express unique attitudes toward the shopping process that differentiate them from persons doing little or no in-home shopping? Are in-home shoppers particularly convenience-minded?

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses to be tested in the study are grouped for convenience under five broad guiding assumptions. Their order of presentation does not necessarily represent a ranking of possible validity or importance.

1. Hypotheses concerning locked in shoppers
   A. Availability of private (family) automobiles during major shopping hours is inversely related to in-home buying intensity.
   B. In-home buying intensity is positively related to perceived travel time from the home to the shopper's favorate general merchandise stores.

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[1]See Chapter III, Definitions, p. 93.

C. In-home buying intensity is positively related to distance of shopper's home from public bus transportation.

D. Shoppers in the "young married with pre-school children" stage of family life cycle buy more at home than other shoppers.

E. In-home buying intensity is higher in the "elderly, empty nest" stage of family life cycle than in earlier stages of family life cycle.

F. Working women buy more at home than women not employed outside the home.

2. Socioeconomic and demographic characteristics related to in-home buying intensity

A. In-home buying intensity is positively related to amount of annual family income.

B. In-home buying intensity is positively related to education level.

C. In-home buying intensity is positively related to family size.

D. Negro shoppers buy less at home than white shoppers.

3. Convenience orientation of shopper types

Heavy in-home buyers are more convenience-oriented than other shoppers, according to the following measures of convenience orientation:

A. In-home buying intensity is positively related to number of telephones per household.

B. In-home buying intensity is positively related to number of shelter magazines in the home.[1]

C. In-home buying intensity is positively related to the number of newspaper subscriptions received.

D. In-home buying intensity is positively related to the number of credit cards.

E. In-home buying intensity is positively related to number of charge accounts reported by shoppers.

4. In-home shoppers in lower income classes tend to order from general merchandise catalogs, while higher-income shoppers tend to order by telephone from department and specialty stores.

5. Hypotheses concerning shopping attitudes

A. Heavy in-home buyers perceive their shopping situations as less convenient than do other shoppers.

B. Heavy in-home buyers perceive selected elements of the shopping process as less convenient than do other shoppers.

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[1]See Chapter III, Definitions, p. 93.

C. Heavy in-home buyers compare in-home shopping more favorably with retail store shopping, on selected convenience factors, than do other shoppers.

Research Design and Methodology

Personal interviews were used to collect data on shopping habits, socioeconomic and demographic characteristics and shopping attitudes of 210 adult female shoppers in Grand Rapids, Michigan. Using 1960 census data and personal observation to stratify the population on estimated average annual family income, house value and racial composition by city block, four subsample areas were chosen to represent upper, middle, and lower income white, and lower income Negro urban populations.

Households were sequentially sampled from a random starting point in each subsample area until a predetermined quota of approximately fifty interviews per area were completed.

Interviews were taken during a four-week period in November and the first week of December, 1967. Average length of interviews varied from thirty minutes for housewives who had not shopped at home during the past year to forty-five minutes for in-home shoppers.

After editing and coding all completed questionnaires, survey data were transferred to punched cards for tabulation and statistical testing of the research hypotheses.

The research hypotheses were tested for statistical significance using several nonparametric tests depending upon the measurement level of the data and the data classifications by the research variables. The X^2 test, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov two-sample test and the Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance tests were all used where appropriate. In addition, other data related to the research hypotheses were collected.

Limitations of the Study

The results of the study should be interpreted keeping the following research design and procedures limitations in mind:

1. The research design was confined to one metropolitan area, Grand Rapids, Michigan, during a single four-week time period, November and the first week of December, 1967. To the extent that Grand Rapids is an atypical area or that the interview period does not represent typical shopping conditions, the research findings and conclusions cannot be generalized beyond the sample.
2. The study utilized a quota sampling method in which households were selected from four predetermined sample areas. In addition, the skip interval used in the Negro subsample differed from that followed in the other three

areas. Hence, statistical estimation from sample values to the shopper population of Grand Rapids or any other metropolitan area is precluded.

3. The sample is not a complete cross-section of the general merchandise shoppers in the metropolitan area: only eligible housewives or adult female heads were chosen for interviews, other single females, all males, and members of institutions such as college dormitories or sororities being specifically excluded from the sample.

Potential Contributions of the Research

In-home shoppers are assumed to be nonrandomly distributed among the urban shopper population; that is, in-home shopping decisions result from unique combinations of environmental and attitudinal characteristics common to in-home shoppers. The potential contribution of the present study, like previous research in this area of consumer behavior, is the identification of the in-home shopper in terms of these relevant characteristics. A twofold purpose is served by this research:

1. Information and insights about the in-home shopping segment may benefit firms offering mail and telephone shopping services. For example, the effectiveness of promotional

efforts can be increased by tailoring messages to more precisely identified market segments. The efficiency of catalog distribution likewise depends heavily upon the sender's knowledge of those buyer characteristics closely linked with in-home shopping intensity.

2. New hypotheses and data contribute to the further development of a specific body of knowledge of the in-home market that in turn aids further research in a relatively neglected area of consumer behavior research.

The in-home shopper as a market segment has received relatively little attention in the marketing and retailing literature. Several empirical studies of the department store telephone shopper have contributed findings relevant to the present research.[1] Of these studies, Rich's 1963 findings offer the most comprehensive profile of the telephone shopper's socioeconomic characteristics, what she buys, how much she spends, and why she shops that way. Less is known about the catalog shopper who orders by phone or mail. At least, non-proprietary data is scarce;

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[1]Stuart U. Rich, Shopping Behavior of Department Store Customers (Cambridge: Harvard University, 1963); Bell Telephone System, Executive Summary from A Study of Telephone Shopping in the Baltimore Area (Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: National Analysts, Inc., 1956); Bell Telephone System, Executive Summary, The Locked-In Shopper, 1963; Bell Telephone System, Executive Summary, 1101 San Francisco Women Tell About Shopping in Department Stores, (no date given).

Rich found too little mail ordering among his urban samples to reach meaningful conclusions about mail order shoppers. There is some evidence that multiple catalog ownership is increasing in urban areas. It would be useful to explore this evidence further.

In summary, the present research will investigate the urban in-home shopper who utilizes multiple sources of merchandise information to shop by mail or telephone for a relatively important share of her general merchandise purchases. In addition, the choice of a medium-sized city offers potentially useful contrast to previous research; urban in-home shopping studies usually have been conducted in the nation's largest cities, where shopping conditions and shopper demands may differ from those in smaller urban areas in ways significant for in-home shopping. Finally, the present study re-examines some previous research questions in order to update their findings in a more current market environment.

Organization

The remainder of the study consists of four chapters: Chapter II reviews the literature relevant to the research problem. Chapter III explains the research design and methodology used to collect and analyze the data. Research findings are discussed in Chapter IV, while Chapter V summarizes the findings, describes the in-home shopper as a market segment, and suggests potential

marketing applications of the findings and their implications for further research. Following Chapter V, the data collection instrument and telephone interview results are presented in the Appendix section.

CHAPTER II

THE CONVENIENCE-ORIENTED IN-HOME SHOPPER

Introduction

The consumer behavior literature provided several propositions which guided the research in the selection of the variables reviewed in Chapter II. The propositions are stated as follows:

1. The shopper is a rational goal-seeker whose decision processes can be usefully conceptualized as involving three basic sets of interrelated factors: (a) shopping environment conditions and shopper income and credit circumstances which limit the shopping decision in terms of choice of outlet and type and amount of products, services and conveniences; (b) environmental situations and personal attributes which intervene to narrow the affordable choice of product, place, and services. Such variables might include family life style characteristics, distance from residence or place of work to retail stores, cost and availability of transportation and parking,

shopping hours available, amount and type of merchandise sought, shopping information possessed by or available to the shopper, and so on; (c) the particular set of shopping experiences, values, attitudes and opinions through which the shopper perceives the elements of (a) and (b) above.[1]

2. The shopping decision results from an attempt to minimize both the commodity costs and convenience (shopping) costs as perceived by the decision-maker.[2]
3. In-home shopping is basically convenience shopping; in-home shoppers perceive convenience costs as an especially important element in the shopping decision.

Since the research is concerned with investigating specific hypotheses based largely on the third proposition, Chapter II reviews the literature on convenience shopping, paying particular attention to variables assumed to be important in describing or explaining in-home shopping behavior.

The first section explores the evidence concerning the influence of shopping convenience on shopping decisions.

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[1]See Chapter III, pp. 70-73 for a further discussion of the conceptual framework used in the research.

[2]See p. 31 of this chapter.

The second section briefly traces the interrelated influences of environment and the consumer's shopping demands on the development of modern in-home retailing from its rural origins. Section three examines in detail the literature pertaining to the research variables and attitude factors. The final section summarizes research findings on the in-home shopper and her decision environment.

Convenience-Orientation in In-Home Shopping

> The consumer, without knowing it, is the agent of change in marketing processes and techniques. That consumer, often acting in the grip of social and economic changes, has caused retailers, wholesalers, and manufacturers to drastically change their products, their methods of selling as well as the sales environment itself.[1]

The present study likewise sees the development of modern retailing, and the growth of in-home retailing in particular, as basically a response to the consumer's changing life style. In-home retailing is viewed as offering shopping services and conveniences increasingly demanded by urban consumers as their desire and ability to pay for them has risen. Understanding and predicting present and future change in retailing and market institutions, then, requires a thorough knowledge of the

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[1]Robert D. Entenberg, "Socioeconomic Change and Retail Management: Present and Future," in Managerial Marketing: Perspectives and Viewpoints, ed. by Eugene J. Kelley and William Lazer (Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1967), p. 507.

consumer and the changing social and economic environment influencing his life style.

But as with any ex post facto investigation of phenomena, difficulties arise in establishing causal relationships. One serious limitation is the inability to control or account for all intervening variables that may be involved in any given relationship. For example, the current patterns of retailing structures and functions result from many influencing factors; the particular state of retail competition and the actions of competitors, the cost of land and capital, zoning laws, historical patterns of retail distribution and commercial dominance all play a part in businessmen's decisions regarding the location and design of shopping centers. One recent empirical study concludes, for example, that heavy reliance on existing theories of consumer convenience demands to predict the location of a shopping center is presently less satisfactory than relying on a wide range of institutional considerations.[1] With these limitations in mind, the following section reviews the historical development of modern in-home retailing, taking the point of view that the provision of shopping convenience has been the factor central to the growth and change in in-home retailing institutions and methods.

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[1]Donald L. Thompson, "Consumer Convenience and Retail Area Structure," Journal of Marketing Research, (February, 1967), p. 43.

Historical Development of In-Home Retailing

Rural Origins of the Mail-Order Market

The historical development of modern in-home retailing in the United States can be explained as a continual response to technological innovation, industrialization and urbanization and their effects on consumer life styles and market demands in a competitive retail environment. To understand the place of in-home selling in retailing history, it is useful to begin with the consumer market in the 1870's, a period during which Montgomery Ward opened the first full-line mail-order house in 1872.[1] First, it should be pointed out that from the post-Civil War period on, the nation has witnessed the steady transformation from a rural, agrarian society into a predominantly industrial and urban environment. In terms of population and buying power, the urban market has grown significantly, while proportionately the rural market has been steadily declining. Nonetheless, until about 1910 more than half the national population was still rural and farm income was rising steadily. Thus the rural market was large and growing during this period of significant

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[1]Boris Emmet and John Jeuck, Catalogues and Counters (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1950), p. 19. The "full-line" mail-order house, like department stores, offers relatively complete lines of general merchandise.

industrial expansion, particularly in the western regions.

Small-town retailers and country stores served most of the needs of the rural market. Although urban areas offered wider assortments of merchandise than rural or small town retailers could carry, farm families isolated by distance, slow transportation and long working hours generally found urban shopping quite inconvenient. Mail order provided farm families convenient buying from wider assortments of general merchandise than many small town retailers could offer.

There is general consensus in the retailing literature as to the major factors contributing to the early growth of mail-order retailing: the spread of a national railroad network, the adoption of an inexpensive, relatively efficient postal system, the high literacy rate, the increased use of advertising, the inefficiencies of the local merchant, and rapid industrialization leading to a buyer's market were together all contributing to a favorable environment for mail-order retailing. The mail-order business flourished in the late nineteenth century, and quickly became dominated by several giants in the field, notably Sears, Roebuck and Company, and Montgomery Ward. Sears' sales, for example, rose from $137,743 in 1891 to over $60 million by 1910.[1] By 1918 there were 2,500

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[1] Ibid., pp. 172-173.

mail-order houses in the United States; 850 of them had annual sales of over $100,000.[1]

In-Home Selling to the Urban Market

But after the turn of the century urban migration and immigration were rapidly creating a predominantly urban market, and department stores came into direct competition with the mail-order houses as suppliers of shopping convenience. The rapid growth in urban shopping and the consequent revolution in retailing was enhanced by two major advances in transportation and communications: the birth of the private automobile and the consequent growth in the public highway system, and the telephone. Both had a major impact on in-home retailing. The private transportation system made downtown stores accessible to urban and rural shoppers alike, while the telephone was a technological innovation that simply replaced mail-order as the most convenient way to shop at home.

In order to compete in the urban market, some of the catalog firms responded by changing their merchandise lines to appeal to both the rural and urban shopper, installing telephone ordering facilities, and opening retail stores. Sears, beginning the trend away from complete reliance on

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[1]Paul H. Nystrom, Economics of Retailing (New York: The Ronald Press, 1930), p. 185.

in-home sales, opened its first store on the outskirts of Dallas, Texas in 1910.[1]

In-Home Retailing Response to the Suburban Movement

Population pressures on cities and the advent of the private automobile as the major source of transportation led to a rapid growth of suburban areas, and retailing responded to the changes in market demands. The "explosion" of cities into their suburbs brought with it a multitude of related retailing changes, the most striking response being the still-continuing development of the planned shopping center. But the trend to decentralized retailing was neither smooth nor immediate. As McNair states,

> Stores have, in some instances belatedly, followed their customers, and decentralization of retailing facilities has been the order of the day; mail-order stores, specialty stores, and chains began it; and department stores, slow to join the procession because of tradition and preconceived ideas, have in the postwar period swung heavily to suburban branch operations. At the same time it has been necessary to meet changed buying habits, since shopping is no longer a major diversion, but rather a task or chore to be performed as expeditiously as possible.[2]

Catalog selling continued to hold its small share of the urban market, with telephone ordering steadily

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[1] Ibid., p. 184.

[2] Malcolm McNair, "Significant Trends and Developments in Postwar Period," in Managerial Marketing: Perspectives and Viewpoints, ed. by William Lazer and Eugene J. Kelley (Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1962), p. 489.

replacing mail-order. Beginning in the 1930's, and particularly during the post-World War II period, the mail-order firms, now mis-named as their suburban stores grew in number, adjusted their marketing strategies to capture the attention of the affluent middle-class urban and suburban markets, while retaining the still-important rural customer. Style and fashion merchandise were stressed in both catalogs and stores; merchandise lines were upgraded and tailored to urban tastes.

In-Home Retailing in Recent Years

The last several years have witnessed a renewed growth in catalog sales to urban-oriented customers. Montgomery Ward, for example, has increased the number of its catalog stores, particularly in smaller towns and suburban areas where the firms have no retail stores, and catalog sales have become the fastest-growing part of Ward's business.[1] The success of catalog sales might be linked to several market trends. First, the suburban shopping center, which responded to shoppers' convenience needs more fully than could the congested, increasingly-distant downtown areas, is today often faced with the same crowded conditions and inadequate service that have plagued much downtown shopping for decades. Thus in-home shopping may

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[1]Higgins, "The Booming In-Home Market," p. 47.

offer relatively more convenience today than in several decades. Second, much catalog sales effort has been directed toward non-urban areas, the smaller towns and fringe areas beyond the suburbs that for some time have been experiencing retail sales growth rates exceeding that of suburban areas.[1]

Direct mail sales have also thrived in recent years. The rising affluence of the consumer has created new markets for unique, specialized products and services in which marketing specialists like direct mail firms can profitably compete. In response, direct mail marketing has acquired new technology and methods of efficiently locating market segments, advertising to them, and filling mail orders.

Shopping Convenience--Some Theoretical Considerations

Neoclassical economic theory holds that economic decisions are largely a function of utility and disutility considerations. Utility theory has been applied in examining the role of convenience in shopping decisions.[2] For

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[1]Eli P. Cox and Leo G. Erickson, Retail Decentralization (East Lansing, Mich.: Bureau of Business and Economic Research, 1967), pp. 5-20.

[2]Leo Aspinwall, "The Characteristics of Goods and Parallel Systems Theories," in Managerial Marketing: Perspectives and Viewpoints," ed. by Eugene J. Kelley and William Lazer (Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1967); Wesley Bender, "Consumer Purchase Costs--Do Retailers Recognize Them," Journal of Retailing,

example, on a highly conceptual level, Aspinwall's red-orange-yellow characteristics of retail goods were related both to their channels of supply and the amount of consumer research involved. Thompson suggests that one of the first applications of utility theory to marketing began with Parlin's convenience goods--shopping goods classification scheme for retail merchandising.[1] From Parlin's original classification, Copeland[2] added specialty goods, and Holton[3] and Bucklin[4] have appraised

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XL (Spring, 1964), 1-8, 52; Richard N. Cardozo, "An Experimental Study of Consumer Effort, Expectation and Satisfaction," Journal of Marketing Research, II (August, 1965), 244-249; Anthony Downs, "A Theory of Consumer Efficiency," Journal of Retailing, (Spring, 1961), 6-12; Eugene J. Kelley, "The Importance of Convenience in Consumer Purchasing," in Managerial Marketing: Perspectives and Viewpoints, ed. by Eugene J. Kelley and William Lazer (Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1967), pp. 155-162; William J. Reilly, The Law of Retail Gravitation (New York: William J. Reilly Company, 1931); Thompson, "Consumer Convenience and Retail Area Structure," pp. 37-44.

[1]Charles Coolidge Parlin, "The Merchandising of Textiles," (1915), reprinted in Marketing in Progress: Patterns and Potentials, ed. by Hiram C. Barksdale (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964), pp. 297-312.

[2]Melvin T. Copeland, Principles of Merchandising (Chicago: A. W. Shaw Co., 1925).

[3]Richard H. Holton, "The Distinction Between Convenience Goods, Shopping Goods, and Specialty Goods," Journal of Marketing, XXIII (July, 1948), pp. 53-56.

[4]Louis P. Bucklin, "Retail Strategy and the Classification of Consumer Goods," Journal of Marketing, XXVII (January, 1963), pp. 51-56.

and refined the classification further, Bucklin adding the concepts of convenience, shopping and specialty stores.

Kelley believes that the consumer attempts to minimize both product costs and convenience costs in making shopping decisions, and suggests that convenience costs are becoming more important as patronage determinants.[1]

Reilly's law of retail gravitation resulted from some early attempts at quantifying convenience cost importance in retail trade area drawing power. It is interesting to note the importance attached to downtown shopping inconvenience early in the days of the private automobile. Reilly stated in 1921:

> But in connection with the centralization of markets for style goods, a noticeable reaction has already begun. The use of the automobile has resulted in such congestion in the downtown section of our larger cities that the inconveniences involved have tended to repel rather than to attract retail trade.[2]

A similar conclusion was reached by Frederick, who explained the rise in telephone shopping and predicted a suburban shift in retailing from his observations of urban shopping congestion.[3]

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[1]Kelley, "The Importance of Convenience in Consumer Purchasing," p. 155.

[2]William J. Reilly, Methods for the Study of Retail Relationships (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1929, reprinted 1959), p. 35.

[3]J. George Frederick, Selling By Telephone (New York: The Business Bourse, 1928).

Utility theory notions of convenience costs have not always been upheld in empirical research on shopping behavior. Cardozo found, for example, that increased shopping effort led to increased satisfaction with the product, a finding that suggests the relevance of dissonance theory to the shopping decision problem.[1]

Shopping Convenience and In-Home Shopping--Some Empirical Evidence

There is a general consensus in the business literature that shopping convenience is the key factor behind the recent growth of in-home shopping. Recent articles have pictured the urban shopper as impatient with the deteriorating level of convenience and service she encounters even in suburban shopping.[2] The modern shopper is depicted as being concerned with saving time, as a result of her increasing tendency to work or to be "locked in" at home. The business literature draws most of its conclusions about the convenience-minded urban shopper from research studies in two prominent areas of retailing, planned shopping centers and telephone selling.

Jonassen's 1955 study of shopper attitudes and behavior with respect to downtown versus suburban shopping

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[1]Cardozo, "An Experimental Study," p. 248.

[2]"Telepurchasing--Major Trend in Retailing?" Forbes, (October 15, 1967), pp. 56, 61-63; Higgins, "The Booming In-Home Market," pp. 47-50; Grey Matter, Vol. 38, No. 9, September, 1967.

found that downtown shopping was considered inconvenient in terms of parking, traffic and crowds; the popularity of suburban shopping was attributed largely to the relative absence of shopping inconveniences.[1] Downtown stores, because of their wider assortment of high quality merchandise, drew shoppers in spite of shopping inconveniences. Similar studies in other cities have agreed substantially with Jonassen's conclusions.[2]

Telephone shopping studies also affirm the importance of added convenience in the decision to shop by telephone. In Rich's survey of department store shopping, over 90 per cent of a sample of New York and Cleveland telephone shoppers claimed convenience as the major attraction of telephone shopping.[3] They listed crowds, boredom and fatigue, making arrangements and getting to the store, and difficulty in finding merchandise and getting waited on as major inconveniences of store shopping.

Several telephone shopping studies sponsored by Bell Telephone agreed substantially with Rich's findings.[4]

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[1]C. T. Jonassen, The Shopping Center Versus Downtown (Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Business Research, The Ohio State University, 1955).

[2]For example, George Sternlieb, The Future of the Downtown Department Store (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1962).

[3]Donald F. Cox and Stuart U. Rich, "Perceived Risk and Consumer Decision Making--The Case of Telephone Shopping," Journal of Marketing Research, (November, 1964), p. 487.

[4]Bell Telephone System executive summaries from: A Study of Telephone Shopping in the Baltimore Area;

In the Baltimore study, one-third of the shoppers reported experiencing barriers to shopping in person; almost half of the shoppers claimed they postponed shopping trips because of crowds or public transportation problems.[1] Another Bell study found 36 per cent of a nationwide sample of department store and discount store shoppers "locked in" on any average day, usually by transportation problems, illness in the family, bad weather, no baby-sitter, or outside employment demands on their shopping time.[2]

Environmental Factors in In-Home Shopping

The product plays a significant role in the in-home shopping decision. Some general merchandise items are almost never purchased by mail or phone. There is a definite hierarchy of "perceived risk"[3] in buying certain products in lieu of personal inspection which appears to hold for the majority of shoppers.[4] Most furniture,

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The Locked-In Shopper; 1101 San Francisco Women Tell About Shopping in Department Stores.

[1] A Study of Telephone Shopping in the Baltimore Area.

[2] The Locked-In Shopper.

[3] See p. 58 for a definition of perceived risk.

[4] Cox and Rich, "Perceived Risk and Consumer Decision Making--The Case of Telephone Shopping," p. 504.

women's wearing apparel, almost any items which are usually tried on or matched for style, color, size and fit are seldom bought by phone. Linens, children's clothing, and small appliances are examples of products that shoppers consider much less risky to buy without personal inspection.

There is some speculation in the literature that many products today involve less purchase risk as consumers are becoming more familiar with product attributes. Several marketing scholars have hypothesized that the continuous buyer's market and increasing consumer incomes are lessening the distinction between shopping goods and convenience goods. The result has been less comparison shopping on product attributes and an increasing emphasis on buying at the most convenient place.[1,2] In-home shopping, a low convenience cost alternative, should consequently gain in popularity. Cox and Erickson cite several reasons why consumers are willing to forego product comparison. Mass production and marketing in a buyer's market result in greater standardization of higher-quality products that are nationally distributed and widely serviced; products thus differ from each other primarily in non-functional respects. Also, increased

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[1]Cox and Erickson, Retail Decentralization, pp. 47-49.

[2]Kelley, "The Importance of Convenience in Consumer Purchasing," p. 156.

national branding and intensive advertising are making it easier for the shopper to comparison shop for price and brand without going from store to store. Protected from making bad product choices by the pressures of a buyer's market and by the tremendous amount of market information he obtains through advertising and other sources, the better-informed consumer is instead using his increasing purchasing power to save himself inconvenience in shopping.[1]

The importance of place, or location of retailing facilities and services in space and time in relation to the shopper, has been assumed in much of the previous discussion on in-home shopping as convenience shopping.[2] The trend to convenience shopping for former shopping goods may evidence an increasing shift in the importance of "place" in the shopper's decision function. In-home shopping is an extreme example of the minimization of place costs; the shopping search and transaction may take place entirely within the home.

It appears that the more conveniently placed the retailing facilities, the less importance in-home shopping will have. Rich found that phone ordering was most

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[1]Cox and Erickson, Retail Decentralization.

[2]For example, see Bernard J. LaLonde, "Differentials in Supermarket Drawing Power and Per Capita Sales by Store Complex and Store Size," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1961).

popular in cities with the least suburban branch expansion.[1] A problem in measuring retail location as a factor in convenience shopping is that geographic distance measured in highway miles is but one element that the consumer must consider; parking and shopping time, both within and between stores, are also important. It is suggested that a measure of portal-to-portal travel time, as a minimum, would provide a more meaningful estimate.

Socioeconomic and Demographic Characteristics of In-Home Shoppers

The retailing literature has advanced a number of hypotheses and some empirical data relating shopping behavior to socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of shoppers and their families. The following section explores the research literature concerning the interrelationships of in-home buying behavior to a number of key socioeconomic and demographic variables. From the research evidence, a number of hypotheses have been derived for testing in the present study.

Age of Shopper

Age of shopper appears to be related to in-home shopping behavior. Both the young adult shopper and the elderly shopper would seem to have special demands for

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[1]Rich, Shopping Behavior of Department Store Customers, p. 56.

shopping convenience. Younger shoppers are new shoppers, less closely tied to old ways of shopping and more willing to accept new products and shopping methods. The younger wife tends to have small children at home, restricting her shopping mobility. Young families, particularly those living in suburbia, may also be restricted in shopping mobility by a lack of private or public transportation. For the elderly shopper, advancing age produces somewhat different shopping problems, but ones with similar results in restricted shopping mobility or decreased desire to spend much time in shopping. The elderly may have particularly strong demands for shopping convenience, since they often lack transportation for shopping or are unable to shop in person because of illness or other physical limitations. Further, shopping in stores, particularly self-service stores, often requires considerable walking, waiting in line, package carrying, as well as driving and parking, all of which may make the shopping trip a tiring, unpleasant task for older shoppers.

Changes in the age distribution patterns of the American population may be a contributing factor in the rise of in-home shopping. Both the young and the elderly have been growing disproportionately faster than the general population increase. Reversing an immediate postwar decline, the population of spending units in

which the head is under 25 is now increasing. The average age of the population is declining. At the same time, however, the proportion of spending units whose head is 65 years of age or older has been steadily increasing. Both trends accentuate the demand for in-home shopping.

Family Life Cycle

Family life cycle refers to the series of changes in the family status of the individual as he grows older. Marriage, birth of the first child, and the time when children grow up and leave the home all mark life cycle changes. The relationship of these family status levels to important differences in purchasing behavior reflects changing life styles and consequent demands in consumption. Family life cycle, despite its relative newness in marketing research, has proved to be a valuable concept in frequent use today. In an important article, Lansing and Kish illustrated the superiority of family life cycle over age in explaining changes in six economic characteristics.[1]

Research involving life cycle suggests that certain changes in the American family life cycle in the last several decades may favor in-home shopping:

(1) Recent population trends in the United States have indicated a lowering of the age of first marriage

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[1]John B. Lansing and Leslie Kish, "Family Life Cycle as an Independent Variable," in Marketing and the Behavioral Sciences, ed. by Perry J. Bliss (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1963), pp. 138-151.

and an acceleration of family formation; the proportion of young families is increasing. Young families, heavy consumers of general merchandise, particularly household durables, would seem to be particularly receptive to shopping at home. Younger people tend to be early adopters of new shopping ideas. And if both husband and wife work, or if small children keep the wife at home, the restricted shopping time and mobility may increase the shopper's demands for convenience.[1]

(2) Data from surveys of American families throughout the 1950's and early 1960's shows a decline in the proportion of married units with no children at home. Katona, for example, reports a decline in the proportions of single, widowed, divorced or separated persons under 45 years of age.[2] Childless wives are often working wives, a segment assumed to have shopping time restrictions.

(3) Spending units with three or more children have also increased significantly. Two- and three-person

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[1]These assumptions are found in a number of recent articles and research studies on in-home buying. See, for example, Higgins, "The Booming In-Home Market"; Grey Matter, September, 1967; Stanford Research Institute, "In-Home Selling Report No. 225"; Bell Telephone Systems Executive Summary, The Locked-In Shopper. There is currently little empirical support for the assumptions, however.

[2]George Katona, Charles A. Lininger and Eva Mueller, 1963 Survey of Consumer Finances (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 1964), p. 5.

spending units have declined, while larger units, primarily spending units with three or more children, have gained in proportion.[1] And younger wives with several children at home, an increasing proportion of total households, may be particularly receptive to mail and telephone shopping.

Shopping studies have revealed some differences in shopping attitudes and behavior by both age and family life cycle. Age and life cycle differences have been reported for downtown versus shopping center patronage; Rich, for example, found that younger people patronized shopping centers more than older people.[2] Rich found also that New York women under 40 with children living at home were three times as likely to be high phone users as were women under 40 without children (15 per cent versus 5 per cent).[3] Similarly the Bell Telephone "Baltimore" study reported that younger women postpone shopping trips more frequently than older women, usually because of crowds, public transportation problems, and small children to care for.[4]

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[1] Ibid., p. 4.

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

[3] Cox and Rich, "Perceived Risk and Consumer Decision Making--The Case of Telephone Shopping," p. 495.

[4] Bell Telephone System Executive Summary from A Study of Telephone Shopping in the Baltimore Area, p. 5.

Rich and Jain, exploring the usefulness of social class and life cycle variables as predictors of shopping behavior in today's environment, summarize some of their life cycle findings as follows:

(1) Younger women shopped more often than older women, but presence of children did not make any significant difference within the two age groups. Stone and Form found shopping frequency mainly dependent on presence of children in the family.[1] Rich and Jain attempt to reconcile the differences by suggesting that traditional distinctions among stages in the family life cycle may be blurring because of "recent changes in income, education, leisure time, movement to suburbia, and other factors."[2]

(2) Women under and over 40 with children put more stress on quick shopping than women without children. In contrast, Stone and Form found that women in their forties felt most hurried, and women in their twenties less hurried. Thus, age determined the attitude toward the importance of shopping quickly in one study, but not in another.[3]

(3) Life cycle did not differentiate shoppers on attitude toward shopping as a pleasant activity, types of stores favored for each of eight types of merchandise, on

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[1]Rich and Jain, "Social Class and Life Cycle as Predictors of Shopping Behavior," p. 45.

[2]Ibid., p. 48.

[3]Ibid., p. 45.

interest in fashion, or on perceived helpfulness of newspaper advertising in shopping decisions.[1]

In summary, while family life cycle seems a potentially useful independent variable for discriminating in-home buying behavior, some difficulties have been experienced in applying the classification to explain shopping behavior. Rich and Jain suggest that recent changes in factors such as income, education and leisure time have obscured traditional life cycle distinctions. The difficulty with life cycle, however, does not lie entirely in the dynamics of consumer change outmoding life cycle classifications. As Wells and Gubar point out, there are some measurement problems involved with life cycle as a research tool.[2] Researchers do not agree in their categorization of the life cycle, making verification of study results difficult. And the categories have often been inappropriately selected, merging different groups and hindering discriminant ability.

Family Income

There is some evidence that higher-income shoppers are more likely to buy at home than lower-income shoppers. Telephone shopping studies universally report that

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[1] Ibid., p. 44.

[2] William D. Wells and George Gubar, "Life Cycle Concept in Marketing Research," Journal of Marketing Research, III (November, 1966), p. 360.

higher-income shoppers order by phone more frequently than lower-income shoppers. Among catalog shoppers, family income differences are apparently less important. Rich found that income had little effect on mail orders. On the other hand, the most frequent mail shoppers were also high phone users,[1] suggesting that users of multiple in-home shopping methods are higher-income shoppers.

There are further indications that high-income shoppers are convenience-oriented. Higher-income women shoppers own more credit cards and have more charge accounts and charge purchases twice as frequently as lower-income shoppers.[2] Higher-income women expect more salesclerk assistance, home delivery and other services when shopping in department stores, while lower income women are more concerned with bargains and lower prices.[3] The complexity of defining "shopper convenience" is evident in Rich's study; higher- and lower-income women disagreed on whether department stores or discount stores were easier places in which to shop, higher-income women choosing department stores and lower-income women selecting

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[1]Rich, Shopping Behavior of Department Store Customers, p. 79.

[2]Bell Telephone System Executive Summary, 1011 San Francisco Women Tell About Shopping in Department Stores.

[3]Rich, Shopping Behavior of Department Store Customers, pp. 88-89.

discount stores. The reasons for the differences are evident in the factors selected as "conveniences." The lower-income women stressed self-service, bargains and sales, accessibility and parking facilities, while upper-income shoppers mentioned salesclerk services, quality and variety of merchandise, and other services such as delivery, phone orders and charge accounts most frequently.[1]

Assuming in-home shoppers are likely to be above-average in family income, it is apparent that growth in mail and telephone sales could be attributed partly to rapid changes in income distribution. United States Bureau of the Census data indicate, for example, that while United States families with annual money incomes of $10,000 or more represented only 10 per cent of total spending units in 1955, in 1960 this percentage had jumped to 17 per cent, and to 25 per cent in 1965. Median income has risen over the same decade from $5,223 to $6,882.[2] For families with the wife in the paid labor force, median money income rose from $5,622 in 1955 to $8,597 by 1965.[3] The rapidly-rising family income levels suggests that an

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[1] Ibid., p. 118.

[2] U. S., Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-60, No. 51, reprinted in Statistical Abstracts, 1967, Table 477, p. 336.

[3] Ibid., Table 478, p. 336.

increasing percentage of shoppers can afford shopping convenience and services.

Working Wives

Many marketers are convinced that the recent growth in catalog shopping is partly the result of rapid increases in the number of women in the labor force over the past two decades. Working women, particularly working mothers, they argue, have fewer hours of discretionary time for shopping plus more discretionary income than non-working women.[1] And higher-income, shopping convenience-oriented women appear most likely to shop in-home.

The working wife is an important source of family income. Households with two or more working members are more affluent than households with one wage-earner, for all but the very highest levels of household income. And households with two or more working members are found with increasing frequency at progressively higher incomes up to $15,000 per year.[2]

United States Department of Labor statistics confirm the increases in working wives. Today nearly 40 per cent of all females 14 or over are in the labor force, compared with 27 per cent in 1940.[3] The most striking rate of

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[1]For example, see Higgins, "The Booming In-Home Market," p. 49.

[2]Katona, et al., 1963 Survey of Consumer Finances, p. 5.

[3]U. S., Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Statistical Abstracts of the United States, 1967, Table 324.

increase in employment has been among working mothers. More than one out of three mothers were in the labor force in March, 1966 as compared with less than one out of ten in 1940. Almost two of every five working mothers have children under six years of age, while more than three out of five have children from six to seventeen years old only.[1] Other notable trends are the increases in younger working women, particularly the number of childless wives, probably reflecting the declining birth rate during the younger childbearing years. Nonwhite mothers are more likely than white mothers to be working: 40 per cent of nonwhite mothers who had children under six years of age worked in 1966 compared with 24 per cent for white mothers.[2]

Empirical research on the in-home shopping behavior of working wives is neither comprehensive nor conclusive. Among shoppers reporting in a Bell Telephone Study that they were "locked-in yesterday" and unable to shop in stores, only 15 per cent listed employment outside the home as the reason, although 31 per cent of the declared "ready-to-buy" proportion of the "locked-in" shoppers were employed.[3] Since over 36 per cent of married women work,

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[1]U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Leaflet 37, "Who Are the Working Mothers?", 1967.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Bell Telephone System, The Locked-In Shopper.

the results cannot be interpreted as suggesting that working wives feel especially restricted in their shopping activities.[1]

Rich reported that working women did not display a greater-than-average propensity to shop quickly,[2] and that working women, as expected, shopped less frequently during weekdays and more frequently during evenings and Saturday than women who did not work.[3] Also, working women near stores spent more of their lunch hours and to-and-from work time shopping than did other working women. One-fifth of women working near stores shopped during their lunch hours; to-and-from work shopping was infrequent.[4] Rich did not indicate whether working women were frequent or infrequent telephone shoppers.

Leisure Time

There is some consensus in the retailing literature on two points with regard to leisure time and its uses: First, discretionary time is assumed to be increasing among persons who work and shop. Second, increases in

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[1]Although no information was given on the characteristics of non-respondents or the proportion of working wives in the total sample, the large (10,000) mail sample yielded an 89 per cent return rate, indicating that a reasonably representative socioeconomic cross-section would be expected.

[2]Rich, Shopping Behavior of Department Store Customers, p. 74.

[3]Ibid., p. 72.

[4]Ibid.

discretionary time parallel increased discretionary purchasing power and discretionary mobility, and the simultaneous gains in all three have widened the choices of alternate uses of discretionary time that are more attractive than shopping.[1] One possible outcome is that consumers more able and willing to seek convenience and save time in shopping will look to in-home shopping.

Both assumptions need to be examined more carefully. On the first point, the shorter work week, it should be noted that large segments of the working population are experiencing less leisure time, as measured by the increasing length of the work week. The number of nonfarm wage and salary employees working more than forty-eight hours per week almost doubled from 1948 to 1965, increasing from 12.9 per cent to 19.7 per cent during this time period.[2] At the same time, other occupational groups were shifting to shorter workweeks. On the balance, average weekly hours for full-time nonfarm work force were about the same in 1965 as in 1948.[3] Part of the increase in leisure time may be attributed to more days

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[1]John M. Rathmell, "Discretionary Time and Discretionary Mobility," in Managerial Marketing: Perspectives and Viewpoints, ed. by Eugene J. Kelley and William Lazer (Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1967), p. 149.

[2]Peter Henle, "Leisure and the Long Workweek," Monthly Labor Review, (July, 1966), p. 721.

[3]Ibid.

off with pay as opposed to shorter work weeks. Women shoppers are of course not as likely to be either part of the labor force, nor as likely to work more than forty hours per week, so the leisure time trends are less likely to directly affect their personal shopping habits.

Second, the use of leisure time for shopping has not been empirically established one way or the other. Thompson suggests that two conflicting hypotheses are possible: the rising value of time and the increasing array of attractive uses or opportunity costs of time may decrease the amount of time people are willing to spend in shopping. On the other hand, increasing discretionary time, income and mobility will make store shopping easier and faster, allowing consumers to spend even more time shopping, if shopping is an increasingly enjoyable alternative use of their time.[1] The researcher is of course faced with the problem of determining to what extent and under what conditions shopping intrudes on leisure time or is considered a leisure time activity in itself.

Race

Marketing research has until recent years paid relatively little attention to racial differences in buying behavior. But today the Negro market in particular is being studied intensively by market research firms

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[1]Thompson, "Consumer Convenience and Retail Area Structure," p. 39.

specializing in Negro buying behavior, by Negro media, by academicians, social workers, and so on. Yet Bauer finds that generalizations about Negro consumers are quite difficult since it is not yet clear just how the Negro buyer perceives his role; that is, whether or not Negroes actually take whites as their reference group. Early studies of the Negro market showed that Negroes saved more of their incomes than whites at comparable income levels.[1] It has also been found that Negroes take shopping more seriously, are more interested in shopping values, and are less concerned with "shopping pleasure" and more opposed to "spending the money" than whites with comparable incomes.[2] The latter findings may suggest that Negroes use other Negroes as reference groups.

On the other hand, the marketing literature has frequently reported the tendency for many Negroes to be heavy consumers of conspicuous status items, and heavily brand conscious. Bauer, Cunningham, and Wortzel, noting the extremely high rate of the Negro male's consumption of items such as prestige-brand Scotch whisky, termed as "strivers" those middle class Negroes who are anxious to

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[1]Raymond A. Bauer, "Negro Consumer Behavior," in On Knowing the Consumer, ed. by Joseph W. Newman (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1968), p. 161.

[2]Ibid., p. 162.

buy the "right" things.[1] Bullock describes how the "self-rejection side of the Negro split self-image" leads relatively well-off Negroes to overconform to what they see as "white community norms."[2] Bauer found that Negroes rated themselves lower than did comparable whites on the National Opinion Research Center scale.[3] In conclusion, Bauer thinks that the Negro market is self-segmenting on the basis of whether or not the individual is striving for the white standard, and whether the Negro is brand conscious and especially responsive to new brands, or brand loyal.

Research on Negro in-home buying is limited, and data on the Negro consumer are not complete or specific enough to warrant strong hypotheses. Rich's study found little difference between Negroes and low-income whites in department store and telephone spending or shopping frequency. Especially where symbolic or fashion products are involved, the brand-conscious Negro would be unlikely to buy from catalogs, since mail-order houses have working class images and typically sell private label merchandise.

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[1]Raymond A. Bauer, M. Cunningham and L. H. Wortzel, "The Marketing Dilemma of Negroes," Journal of Marketing, XXIX (1965), p. 1-6.

[2]H. A. Bullock, "Consumer Motivations in Black and White," Harvard Business Review, XXXIX (May-June, 1961), p. 96.

[3]Bauer, "Negro Consumer Behavior," p. 161.

On the other hand, telephone ordering from department stores might be acceptable.

It must be remembered that as predominantly lower-income shoppers, Negroes face certain income, credit, shopping information and shopping mobility constraints. Like low income whites, Negroes often shop relatively close to their homes, patronizing neighborhood stores. Negroes are particularly aware of subtle discrimination and punishments from shopping in higher-class stores, and may avoid shopping in stores where they encounter hostility.[1] For Negroes, in-home buying may be a less-threatening method of shopping than buying in stores. Evidence is inconclusive; Rich found no differences between Negro women and lower-income white women on enjoyment of shopping in stores. Negro women shoppers were found to be more highly fashion-conscious than whites. But no significant differences by race were reported for any other aspect of department store and telephone shopping behavior that could not be accounted for by income differences.

Place of Residence

Families living in urban fringe or suburban areas are assumed to experience more transportation difficulties than city dwellers, and generally are farther

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[1]Bullock, "Consumer Motivations in Black and White," p. 113.

from shopping stores in travel time as well as distance. To the extent that these assumptions are correct, suburban families would appear to have heavier shopping convenience demands and thus greater in-home buying potential than city dwellers. Empirical data offer some support for the notion that suburban residents are heavier-than-average in-home buyers, but the findings are by no means conclusive. Rich, for example, found that New York suburbanites used mail-order more often than city dwellers. No urban-suburban differences in mail ordering were reported, however, for Cleveland mail shoppers.[1] Frequent telephone users tended to live in suburbs.[2]

Yet another study reports that "relatively few" suburban and rural women shop by phone, although nearly 40 per cent of shoppers living outside the city limits were "locked-in yesterday" and unable to shop in stores.[3] It is increasingly difficult to make meaningful statements about the in-home shopping habits of suburbanites versus city dwellers, since the type of transportation system and the extent of decentralization in retail shopping

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[1]Rich, Shopping Behavior of Department Store Customers, p. 79.

[2]Ibid., pp. 81-82.

[3]Bell Telephone System, Executive Summary, The Locked-In Shopper.

facilities vary widely within any metropolitan area. For example, suburban telephone buying is thought to be inversely related to the extent of retail decentralization, particularly toward suburban shopping centers.[1]

Geographic distance is today thought to be a less valid delineator of retail trading areas than is driving time. Most shopping center trading area studies, for example, are using driving time as a measure of trading area potential. The changing nature of urban and suburban transportation systems and traffic patterns, particularly the growth of expressway systems, have made spatial distance a less meaningful factor. A recent study in the Toledo, Ohio metropolitan area found that the most significant driving time dimension for shopping center trade area analysis is fifteen minutes. Approximately 75 per cent of each of the five shopping centers' patrons were found to reside within fifteen minute driving distance of the center. The effect of expressways on shopping patterns was not measured.[2]

In addition to the spatial dimension, the place of residence as an independent measure of shopping behavior

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[1]Rich, Shopping Behavior of Department Store Customers, p. 57.

[2]James A. Brunner and John L. Mason, "The Influence of Driving Time Upon Shopping Center Preference," Journal of Marketing, XXXII (April, 1968), pp. 57-61.

reflects important differences in life style, income, and convenient access to store shopping, among other factors.

Attitudes

"Attitudes" as used in the present research are regarded as predispositions to act in certain ways in certain situations. Attitudes toward in-home buying directly affect purchase decisions and these, in turn, directly affect attitudes through experience with the products bought at home and with the in-home process itself. To the extent that shopper attitudes can predict shopping behavior, researchers find it useful to measure attitudes toward particular shopping referents. Jonassen's 1955 study of downtown and suburban shoppers, for example, produced several attitude scales, successfully tested for reliability and validity, which predicted shopper type and shopping behavior. In particular, attitude scores indicated that, on the balance, downtown shoppers thought the quality and selection of merchandise advantages outweighed the inconveniences of the downtown area. Suburban shoppers were less concerned with the downtown's service and assortment attributes. The shopping attitudes of different socioeconomic types correlated significantly with their actual shopping choices.[1]

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[1]Jonassen, The Shopping Center Versus Downtown, p. 25.

Several of the telephone shopping studies previously cited measured attitudes of different shopper types toward various shopping processes and elements in the shopping environment. The store preferences noted in Rich's study agree in essence with previous findings concerning attitude differences among social classes; lower-middle income groups preferred to shop in discount and mail-order stores, while upper-middle and upper-income classes preferred department stores.[1] Nearly all shoppers, both frequent and infrequent phone shoppers, and regardless of social class, see shopping as an enjoyable activity, although the reasons for enjoying shopping differed somewhat by social class. Attitudes concerning which shopping features were most convenient or inconvenient differed by income level. Higher-income shoppers attached more importance to store services and variety and quality of merchandise, while lower-income shoppers saw self-service and "bargains" as more important than sales clerk assistance. Higher-income whites and Negro women express more interest in fashion than low-income whites. Rich found that higher social status women consider it most important to shop quickly, even though higher status women spend more on an average shopping trip than other women.

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[1]Rich, Shopping Behavior of Department Store Customers, pp. 106-107.

An attitude dimension of increasing interest to market researchers is the consumer's view of the risk of the shopping situation. The concept, generally known as "perceived risk," is described as follows:

> 'Perceived risk' refers to the nature and amount of risk perceived by a consumer in contemplating a particular purchase decision. . . . The amount of risk perceived by the consumer is a function of two general factors: the amount at stake in the purchase decision, and the individual's feeling of subjective certainty that she will 'win' or 'lose' all or some of the amount at stake. The amount at stake in a buying situation is determined by the importance of the buying goals . . . and by the costs (economic, temporal, physical, and psychological) involved in attempting to achieve a particular set of buying goals.[1]

The high perceived risk of telephone shopping may explain why the majority or urban shoppers in Rich's study did not shop by telephone, despite the value American women seem to place on convenience and the recognized convenience advantages of telephone shopping. Cox and Rich hypothesize that "the additional elements of potential uncertainty which are present in telephone shopping create perceived risk which acts as a deterrent to phone shopping."[2] Compared with store shoppers, telephone shoppers have far fewer opportunities to reduce uncertainty, being limited to past experience with

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[1]Cox and Rich, "Perceived Risk and Consumer Decision Marking--The Case of Telephone Shopping," p. 489.

[2]Ibid., p. 487.

the firm, product or brand, or to newspaper advertising which may not picture the merchandise. Cox and Rich showed that shoppers closely agree on the degree of perceived risk associated with various types of merchandise ordered by phone. By knowing these attitude measures, the authors claim, it is possible to predict with a high degree of confidence the frequency with which various items will be bought by phone.[1]

Perceived risk attitude measures would appear to have potential use in isolating in-home shopping of all types. There is little reason to assume that catalog ordering, for example, differs significantly from telephone shopping in perceived risk.

Summary

Changes in the retailing environment are basically reactions to changing consumer needs brought about by a complex set of interrelated economic and social forces. Any prediction of in-home retailing behavior, however, must also recognize and take into account the broad institutional factors influencing the particular development of retail facilities and methods.

A broad overview of the historical development of in-home retailing suggests that the underlying theme has been the response of in-home sellers to consumer demands

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[1] Ibid., p. 499.

for shopping convenience. Increasing demand for in-home shopping seems to be the result of several related factors:

(1) Although retail stores have responded to changing consumer demands through new forms of shopping, such as planned shopping centers, discount stores and self-service, retail stores are limited in their ability to provide maximum shopping convenience and services to all types of customers. In-home retailing, in its various forms, specializes in offering a low-convenience-cost alternative that appeals to many shoppers. On the other hand, the high perceived risk of buying by description necessarily limits the in-home market.

(2) Intensive use of retail store facilities, especially in downtown areas but increasingly in suburban shopping areas, produces major shopping inconveniences. Crowded stores, traffic and parking problems become major deterrants to shoppers. In-home shopping is one way to avoid these shopping inconveniences.

(3) It has been hypothesized that in our high-level, market-oriented economy, mass distribution of increasingly standardized, branded and advertised products have shifted the shopper's attention away from in-store comparison shopping among product attributes and toward purchasing convenience considerations. If the hypothesis is correct, in-home shopping along with other low-convenience cost

methods of obtaining products should become increasingly attractive.

(4) Most importantly, not all shopper types respond equally to in-home shopping alternatives. The consumer behavior literature suggests that certain measurable socio-economic and attitudinal characteristics may differentiate the in-home shopper from her store-shopping counterpart.

From a preliminary examination of the literature, it may be useful to postulate two types of in-home shoppers: the "locked-in shopper" who buys at home of necessity, and the "convenience-oriented shopper" for whom in-home shopping is only one alternative method of buying. Both types may share many socioeconomic and attitudinal characteristics, but the circumstances under which they shop at home may differ. The "locked-in shopper" is assumed to be prevented from shopping in stores, usually for one or more of the following reasons: she works outside the home, and has little spare time for shopping; she has small children at home who demand much of her time; or she lacks transportation for shopping, or is otherwise unable to travel to the stores, even if she has spare time. The locked-in shopper, then, demands shopping convenience because of her unusually restricted time or mobility. Evidence that she actually shops at home is not substantial, however.

The "convenience-oriented in-home shopper," is not necessarily locked in at home, and in fact is ordinarily

a frequent store shopper. Evidence from telephone shopping studies suggests that, in contrast to the woman who does not shop by telephone, the frequent telephone shopper is younger, more affluent, and a heavier user of charge accounts. She is a suburban dweller, and probably has several children. She finds shopping enjoyable, but is more concerned with shopping quickly. She is probably less tolerant of the major inconveniences of shopping in stores.

The two classifications of in-home shoppers may be inaccurate. The evidence for each socioeconomic and attitudinal difference among shopper types is not equally convincing. On some variables the research data is inconclusive; on others, relationships are still hypothetical. Most empirical data on the variables that seem relevant to in-home shopping differences are limited to department store customers who shop by phone. Data on mail-order shoppers and on buyers who use more than one in-home shopping source are limited. The present research attempts to answer some of the questions concerning the behavioral characteristics of today's urban in-home shoppers.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN

Research Design Framework

Chapter III presents the research design and methodology followed in collecting data and analyzing the research hypotheses. In the first section, the variables presented in the research hypotheses in Chapter I and reviewed in detail in Chapter II are listed and incorporated within a descriptive diagram or model of the shopping decision environment. The second section explains the sampling design and methodology and the third section explains the interviewing procedures followed in obtaining the data. The method of data analysis is described in the fourth section, followed by a final section defining basic concepts used in the research.

Dependent Variables

Previous research data had suggested that different shopper types vary rather widely in their in-home shopping behavior, both in terms of how much they shopped at home from various sources, and in the methods used to complete the shopping transactions.[1] And evidence discussed in the

[1]See Chapter II, pp. 43-46.

first two chapters suggested further that shopping decisions correlated with measurable socioeconomic differences among shoppers that could be usefully employed in market segmentation. Consequently in-home shopping intensity was chosen as the general dependent variable in the study. Sub-classification of in-home shopping behavior by various sources and methods of in-home shopping, as outlined in Chapter I and summarized below in Figure 1, allowed shopping intensity to be measured more precisely.

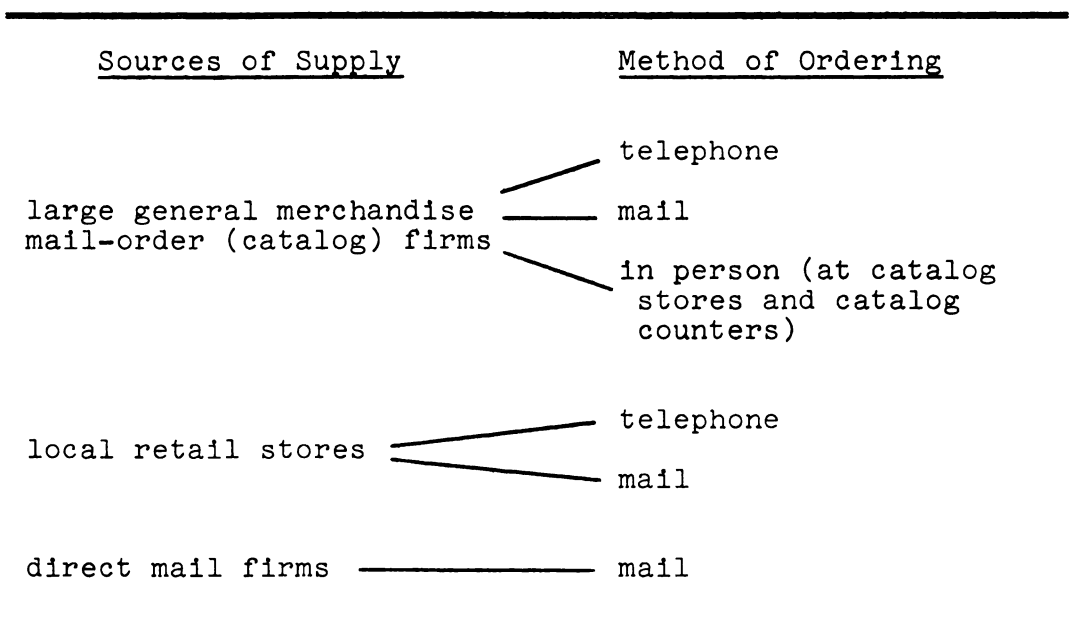

Figure 1.--In-home shopping sources of supply and methods of in-home ordering.

Obtaining data on in-home shopping intensity among the shopper sample required that respondents recall their in-home shopping actions. Two operational measures of in-home shopping intensity were suggested as potentially meaningful and accurate dependent variables: (1) number of dollars spent on in-home purchases, and (2) number of in-home orders. Both variables were used in the research to collect data on in-home shopping behavior.

Because of difficulties in obtaining accurate recall data on number of direct mail orders for the variety of product categories included in the study, frequency of direct mail ordering could not be measured. Thus the total number of in-home orders from all three sources could not be reliably computed and used as a dependent variable for hypothesis testing. All hypotheses thus were tested by aggregating dollars spent by each in-home method into the dependent variable, total dollars spent in-home.

Since the number of catalog and telephone orders were also measured, the relationship between frequency of in-home buying and dollars spent at home were examined. As expected, correlation analysis revealed that the relationships were positive and fairly strong.[1]

Independent Variables

The shopper deciding whether to shop at home or from a retail store acts within a particular environment as

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[1]Pearson γ (number of phone orders x dollars spent by phone) = .497; Pearson γ (number of catalog orders x dollars spent by catalog) = .662.

perceived through her system of attitudes and values. The environment, attitudes and value system all interact to constrain and motivate her shopping behavior. The present research is concerned with identifying key independent factors which influence decisions to buy from telephone, catalog and direct mail sources. In selecting potentially useful independent variables for hypothesis testing, several criteria were followed:

1. A strong relationship between the independent variables and in-home buying behavior was assumed, as suggested by previous research findings in shopping behavior.
2. Independent variables were operationally definable; that is, they met the measurement requirements of the research and agreed in general with other accepted definitions in consumer behavior research.

Independent variables measured in the research are grouped into three categories, socioeconomic and demographic, convenience orientation, and attitude variables. All are outlined below. Socioeconomic and demographic attributes and convenience orientation data were gathered from structured survey questions. Three attitude scales measured shopper attitude responses. Previous attitude research findings formed a basis for choosing the attitude measures. Several of the items used in the scales had

been tested for reliability and validity in Jonassen's study of downtown versus suburban shopping, while others were chosen for the present study with the objective of efficiently covering a wide range of relevant shopping phenomena on which shopper attitudes could conceivably differ.

Shopping Attitude Scale I, a six-item scale measuring shopper attitudes concerning the difficulty of their situation for store shopping, was designed to complement several demographic measures of "locked-in" shopping conditions.[1] The "locked-in" factors are listed below.

Shopping Attitude Scale II, a 16-item Likert scale, measured attitudes toward the shopping process.[2] On several items respondents evaluated importance of the search process in shopping. Other items measured shopper attitudes toward shopping convenience and enjoyment, particularly shoppers' opinions of the inconveniences involved in store shopping.

The third shopping attitude scale attempted to measure the extent of perceived differences among retail stores and in-home shopping sources in providing shopping enjoyment, services and conveniences.[3] To isolate

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[1]See Chapter IV, Fig. 3, p. 133.

[2]See Chapter IV, Fig. 4, p. 137.

[3]See Chapter IV, Fig. 5, p. 141.

discriminating scale items, attitude scores on all three scales were tested for significance of difference among shoppers on the dependent variable, dollars spent at home.

The following list of independent variables used in the research include brief descriptions where necessary:

I. Socioeconomic and Demographic Variables
   A. Life style variables
      1. family life cycle, as measured by
         a) marital status
         b) age of household head
         c) number of children at home
         d) ages of children
      2. age of shopper
      3. education of shopper
      4. occupation of household head
      5. employment status of shopper--part- or full-time
      6. head of household--shopper, or her spouse
      7. race of shopper--white or Negro
      8. family size
      9. mobility of family--how many times family has moved intercounty in the last five years
   B. Other "locked-in shopper" variables
      1. travel time (portal-to-portal) to favorite stores
      2. shopping mobility, as measured by
         a) availability of automobile transportation for shopping

b) shopper ability to drive automobile

c) distance from home to nearest public (bus) transportation

II. Convenience Orientation Variables

1. number of mail-order catalogs in home
2. number of specialty catalogs in home
3. number of charge accounts in general merchandise stores
4. number of credit cards owned by shopper and spouse
5. number of shelter magazines in home
6. number of automobiles in family
7. number of telephones in home
8. number of newspaper subscriptions

III. Attitude Variables

A. Perceived shopping difficulties presented by:

1. hours available for shopping
2. transportation situation
3. distance to stores
4. employment status
5. children at home

B. Shopping convenience attitudes concerning the following factors:

1. traffic problems when shopping
2. parking difficulty when shopping
3. parking costs
4. crowds

5. store shopping enjoyment
6. importance of spending time in shopping
7. need to compare items in person before buying
8. waiting for salesclerk assistance
9. waiting in line to pay for merchandise
10. carrying packages

C. Attitudes toward in-store versus in-home shopping sources on providing certain shopping conveniences and services and other factors, including:

1. delivery service
2. return and exchange service
3. selection of styles, sizes
4. quality of merchandise
5. low prices; value received for money
6. sales
7. merchandise guarantees
8. merchandise information
9. time convenience
10. shopping enjoyment
11. frequency of need to return merchandise
12. overall shopping convenience

The In-home Shopping Decision Framework

The following conceptual framework of the shopping decision environment, diagrammed in Figure 2, incorporates the variables into a research structure tentatively

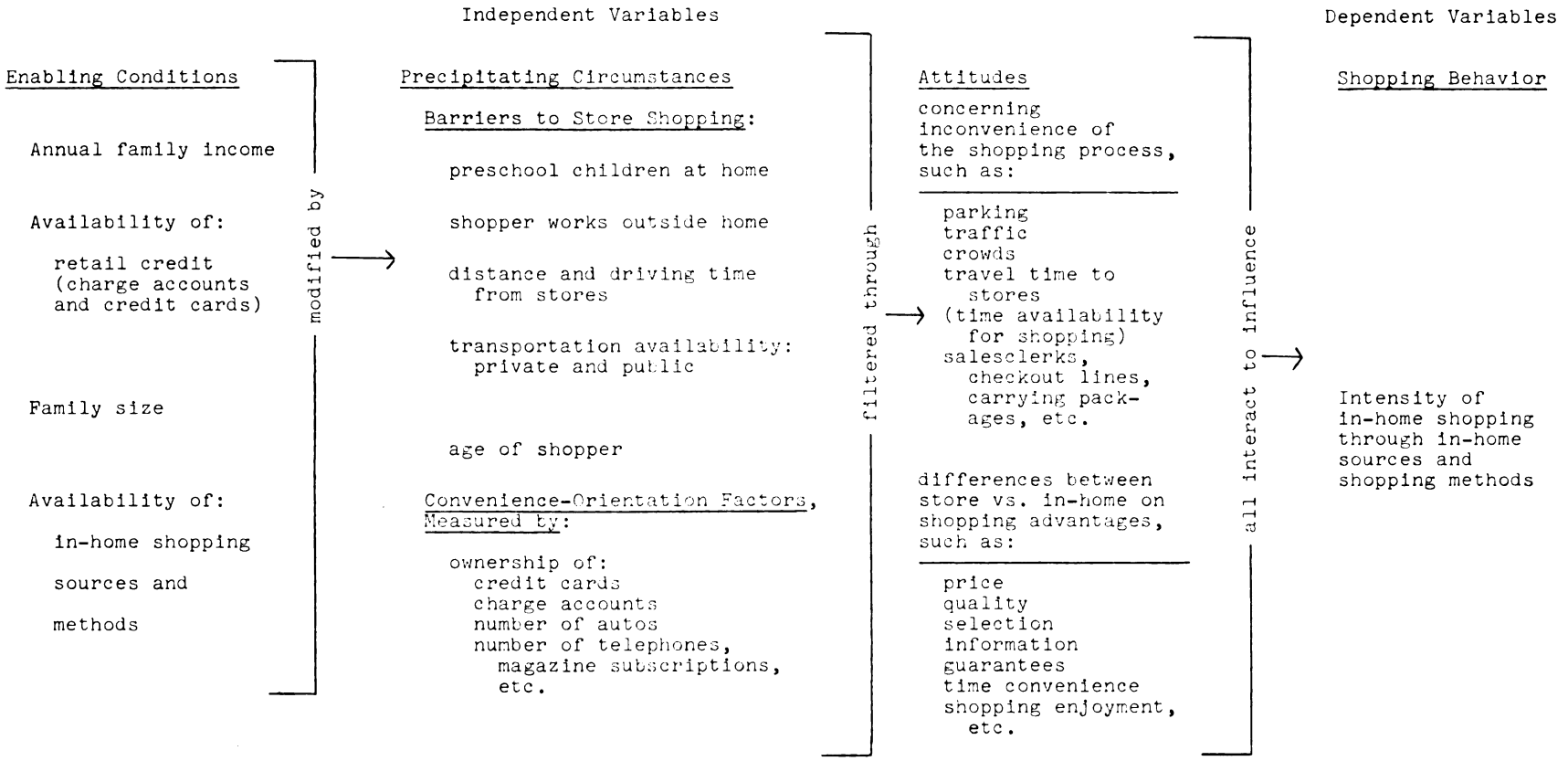

Figure 2.--The in-home shopping decision environment.

explaining the shopping decision process as the interaction of environment and its perception by the shopper. Similar conceptual models of consumer behavior have been expressed throughout the marketing literature. The 1935 article by Kornhauser and Lazarsfeld, for example, ". . . views the action of product choice as an interplay between the "predispositions" of the consumer and the situation." The "situation" may consist of product attributes, store location, level of services offered and other market influences.[1] Jonassen summarized his model similarly: ". . . the consumer's market behavior is essentially a compromise adaption to attracting and repelling forces evaluated within the framework of his attitudes and values."[2]

The diagram utilized in the present study agreed substantially with the Katona view of the consumer decision process which proposes that it is meaningful to consider consumers as rational goal-seekers whose market decisions are constrained by enabling conditions and modified by precipitating circumstances and attitudes. Of the "enabling" factors, in-home shopping sources and

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[1]Arthur Kornhauser and Paul F. Lazarsfeld, "The Analysis of Consumer Actions," in Marketing Models, ed. by Ralph L. Day (Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Textbook Company, 1964), p. 11.

[2]Jonassen, The Shopping Center Versus Downtown.

methods were considered as constant for the Grand Rapids environment, since all were available, although perhaps not equally accessible, to the entire shopper population.

Field Work Procedures

The Data Collection Instrument

A structured nondisguised questionnaire was constructed to guide the personal interviews. To minimize interview time and reduce errors in recording answers, closed-end questionnaire items and attitude scales were stressed. Extensive open-end responses were limited to several questions on in-home shopping behavior. For respondents who had not shopped at home, interviews took approximately a half-hour to complete; in-home shoppers answered several additional questions, increasing their interview time to about forty-five minutes. The questionnaire is reproduced in Appendix A.

The questionnaire and interviewing techniques were pretested in several homes prior to the initial interview period. As a result of the pretest findings, a number of questionnaire items were reorganized and simplified. Revision of the questions and changes in interviewing procedures, particularly the modification of answer cards to save interviewing time, resulted in a more concise, efficient and easily administered questionnaire.

Sample Design

The Population

The population from which the sample was drawn included all eligible adult female shoppers residing in selected 1960 Census tract areas of Grand Rapids, Michigan. Because of their relative ease of identification, however, housing units were defined for sampling purposes and then one eligible adult female shopper in each housing unit in the sample was interviewed.

Grand Rapids was considered a representative urban shopping area for the following reasons: (1) As a United States Bureau of the Census "urbanized area" Grand Rapids was included within a Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area providing population characteristics for census tracts and city blocks. (2) It is a medium-sized city (206,000 people in the city, 387,000 in Kent County, 1965) offering a diversified shopping environment: downtown stores, suburban shopping centers, string street and neighborhood shopping areas were all available. The major mail-order firms were represented, and a variety of retail stores offered telephone and mail-ordering services. A modern expressway system allowed easy access to nearly all shopping areas, including the downtown. (3) With stable and diversified industry and employment, steady year-round retail sales and major population characteristics such as income, age and occupation closely

approximating Michigan and national averages, Grand Rapids ranks consistently among the nation's ten most popular test market areas, a good indication of representativeness.[1] (4) Grand Rapids, more than 100 miles from a larger metropolitan area, was quite free from the potentially biasing effects of retail influence from other large cities.

The Sampling Frame

Several opposing objectives had to be satisfied in choosing a sample design. Given the exploratory nature of much of the research, the primary objective was to sample a wide range of shopper types intensively enough to be able to test the hypotheses at an acceptable level of precision. Obtaining proportionate representativeness of the Grand Rapids metropolitan area was considered a desirable but less important objective. Given the usual time and financial constraints of the study, it was decided to stratify the sample on key demographic and socioeconomic variables to obtain minimum quotas of important shopper types within limited, relatively contiguous geographic areas of the city.

Three stratification criteria were established as guides for selecting the independent variables for stratifying the Grand Rapids population: (1) the

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[1]The Grand Rapids Press, Grand Rapids Market, Current Data, Grand Rapids, Michigan, 1967, p. 1.

independent variables should be strongly related to the dependent variable, in-home buying intensity; (2) population parameters of the independent variables should be known; and (3) the geographic concentration of the variables in the population should be known.

Annual family income, race, and residential location were chosen initially as meeting the stratification criteria and the sampling objectives. Family income was assumed to affect the intensity of in-home shopping as well as the choice of methods and sources of in-home shopping. Further, annual family income was available from 1960 Census tract data,[1] and average value of housing, a good estimate of family income, was available for city blocks within the census tracts.[2] The choice of race as a stratification criterion was considered necessary, even though no strong relationship between race and in-home shopping behavior was known prior to the study, in order to efficiently sample and interview enough Negro shoppers to meet sample size requirements. Negro families in Grand Rapids, as in most northern cities, usually concentrate geographically

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[1]U. S., Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, U. S. Census of Population and Housing: 1960, Final Report PHC (1)-55. Census Tracts. Grand Rapids, Michigan (Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office).

[2]U. S., Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, U. S. Census of Housing: 1960, Series HC (3)-206, City Blocks, Grand Rapids, Michigan (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office).

near the downtown or central city area, and random sampling even in low income areas might have failed to cover enough Negro families to meet sampling requirements. Racial composition was also available from United States Census data.

Both urban and suburban areas were originally considered as independent variables for stratification purposes. Urban-suburban differences were considered important influences on in-home buying intensity, and population parameters and geographic concentration could be estimated from Census tract data. However, research limitations prevented sufficient sampling of both suburban areas and Negro shoppers to meet subsample minimums, so a decision was made to not select a suburban area subsample.

Given the sampling objectives and the stratification criteria, a multistage quota sample design was chosen to stratify the Grand Rapids urban area on family income or house value and race. While the subsample areas were chosen on a judgment basis, precluding inferences on a probability basis to the population, probability sampling was done within each subsample area.

Selection of Census Tracts and City Blocks

Four geographic areas were chosen to represent the urban population, one each for upper, middle and lower incomes, and one predominantly Negro area. From each

area, approximately fifty interviews were to be completed, for a total sample size of 200.

In the first stage of the sampling process, all 1960 census tract areas in Grand Rapids were analyzed and ranked by average annual family incomes, and white-nonwhite proportions were noted. Using annual family income levels of $9,000 and above, $6,000 to $8,000, and below $5,000 as first estimates of higher, middle and lower incomes respectively, approximately three census tracts were selected for each income level. The three tracts with the highest proportion of Negro residents were also chosen, excluding the downtown tract area because its high proportion of commercial and industrial areas would have made interviewing especially difficult. Census tract populations often differ widely in their socioeconomic characteristics, so to assure further sample homogeneity within subsamples the researcher consulted city block census data for each selected tract. Since family income by city block was unavailable, average value of housing statistics were substituted as measures of economic status. Census tracts showing wide variation in family income per block were either eliminated in favor of more homogeneous tracts, or city block areas deviating markedly from tract averages were eliminated or if approximating the house values of adjoining tracts the blocks were included in the latter's sample area. Average house values of $20,000

and over, $10,000 to $16,000, and under $8,000 served as rough estimates of upper, middle and lower family incomes, respectively. Thus the four geographic areas finally chosen did not parallel exactly the 1960 census tract boundaries.

Since the census data used to stratify the sample were seven years old, two further procedures helped update and verify the sample characteristics, spot checks of socioeconomic characteristics of several city streets in each area, using cross-classified telephone directory data on income, occupation, and house value, and personal observation in each of the areas. Finally, an interviewer with wide and current experience in the Grand Rapids area confirmed most of the observations.

After final sample areas had been judged relatively homogeneous within their boundaries, representative of the family income averages and racial proportions required, and large enough to meet sample size requirements, detailed maps of several blocks each were constructed to aid the interviewers in selecting households for interviewing.

Selection of Households and Respondents

The sample quota was fifty completed interviews in each subsample, for a total sample size of 200. A 10 per cent oversample allowed for incomplete or ineligible

interviews. The final total of 210 useable interviews was distributed by subsample area as follows:

higher income white = 50

middle income white = 50

lower income white = 51

lower income Negro = 59

Interviewers selected households systematically within each of the four sample areas by choosing a random starting point, avoiding corner house starts, and then following a skip interval of every fourth street address sequentially by city block until each area quota was filled. Substitutions of street addresses were allowed for refusals, non-existent or otherwise ineligible addresses (such as business addresses), for not-at-homes after callback attempt minimums had been met, and for ineligible respondents.

The following criteria determined which households and respondents should be included in the sample:

1. In all selected households an eligible respondent must have shopped for general merchandise, by any shopping method, between January 1, 1967 and the time of the interview, in late November or early December, 1967; this requirement helped insure the validity of answers involving recall of shopping experience and attitudes toward shopping.

2. Only housewives or female heads of households were eligible to be interviewed. While joint husband-wife shopping decisions are common where larger general merchandise items are involved, the high rate of general merchandise shopping by women and the difficulty in finding husbands at home during normal interviewing hours resulted in selecting only women in the sample. In households of several adult females it is difficult to determine major purchase responsibility, so these households also were not interviewed.
3. Persons living in institutional residences such as college dormitories, sororities or nursing homes were not considered separate households and were not interviewed.
4. To avoid possible overrepresentation of apartment dwellers in large multiple-residence buildings, no more than four household addresses in a single apartment building were interviewed. The usual skip interval of every fourth address or apartment number was followed.

Because information on the shopping behavior of working wives was especially important to the research, it was considered necessary to make vigorous attempts to interview initial not-at-homes. Interviewers were

instructed to attempt on the first call to secure neighbor information on the not-at-homes. Then a minimum of two callback attempts were to be made on different hours and days to increase the chances of finding working wives at home, before submitting the addresses to a list for telephone appointments. Finally, telephone numbers of the remaining not-at-homes were to be obtained from a cross-classified telephone directory, and three telephone appointment attempts made, also at random times. Substitutions could be made for the final list of not-at-homes by adding addresses to the sequential sample following the regular skip interval. The entire sampling procedure is summarized in Table 2.

Interviewer Selection and Training

A staff of three female interviewers was hired and trained to conduct the personal interviews. All were residents of Grand Rapids, with extensive interview experience in the Grand Rapids area. One member of the staff, well-trained in interviewing supervision, was chosen to supervise the field interviewing. The author worked closely with the supervisor in pretesting the questionnaire. The supervisor was then given primary responsibility for instructing the other two interviewers in respondent selection techniques, interviewing and callback procedures. Since a highly structured

TABLE 2.--Diagram of the interviewing process.

		(1) Initial Interview Attempt	(2) First Callback	(3) Second Callback	(4) Interviewing Status at Time of Modified Callback	(5) Not-at-Homes Selected for Modified Callback Attempts[b]	(6) Modified Callback Attempts Day 1	(6) Modified Callback Attempts Day 2	(7) Status at Termination of Personal Interviews	(8) Final Useable Interviews	(9) Telephone Interviews
Subsample 1: higher-income white	Not-at-homes	105	19	7	98	32	19	7	26		
	Completions	29	12	2	43		12	2	57 - - - - - →	50	6
	Refusals	6	1	0	7		1	0	8		
	Ineligibles	2	0	0	2		0	0	2		
	Total Attempts	142	32	9	183		32	9	24		
Subsample 2: middle-income white	Not-at-homes	84	13	0	84	28	14	4	18		
	Completions	38	4	0	42		4	6	52 - - - - - →	50	10
	Refusals	11	1	0	12		1	4	17		
	Ineligibles	11	0	0	11		0	0	11		
	Total Attempts	144	18	0	162		19	14	195		
Subsample 3 and 4: lower income white and Negro[a]	Not-at-homes	175	20	2	173	29	1	4	5		
	Completions	86	12 (10 Negro)	3 (Negro)	101 -		5	5	111 - - - - - →	110; 51 white, 59 Negro	4
	Refusals	17	4	0	21		3	1	25		
	Ineligibles	19	1	1	21		0	0	21		
	Total Attempts	297	37	6	340		9	10	359	___	___
					↓ 59 Negro (terminate)						
Total sample		583	87	15						210	20

[a]Since the low-income white and Negro households could not be identified until the interview was made, the two subsamples are not differentiated during the early steps in the interviewing process.

[b]One-third of eligible not-at-homes were randomly chosen for modified callbacks. Since the Negro subsample quota was completed at the end of the third week, one-half of the remaining not-at-homes, including all addresses in Negro areas, were dropped, and one-third of the remaining not-at-homes were then chosen for further callbacks.

questionnaire was used with standardized interviewing procedures, training the professional interviewers was completed in a one-day period.

The interview supervisor, given weekly field assignments, was responsible for working with the author in determining daily assignments until sample quotas were filled.

Completed questionnaires were returned periodically to the supervisor for editing interview accuracy and completeness of answers. A telephone audit was made of a 15 per cent sample of completed respondent interviews.

Interview Procedures

Interviews were conducted during the last three weeks of November and the first week of December, 1967. Generally all four sample areas were interviewed each week by assigning interviewers among the four areas throughout the interviewing period to balance the weekly quotas filled per area.

Interviewers followed the interview instructions discussed in the previous section. All interviewers were assigned sample areas each day and given city block maps outlining the area boundaries.

After the first several days of interviewing it became apparent that the proportion of not-at-homes was quite high, about 60 per cent of all interview attempts. Interviewers had been instructed to devote part of each

day on callbacks which could be made efficiently because of neighbor information, nearness to the present interview area, or when the callback was a rescheduled interview appointment with an eligible respondent who did not complete the initial interview. But even with the initial callback attempts, the number of eligible not-at-homes grew so large after the first two weeks of interviewing that it became inefficient to make the two callbacks and three telephone calls required under the original instructions before substituting new addresses in the four sequential subsamples. Also, because of the high not-at-home rate, the quotas were not being filled rapidly enough during the interview time period.

The time and budget constraints imposed on the interviewing process required a modified callback procedure. First, one-third of the eligible not-at-homes remaining in each of the three white subsamples at the end of the third week of interviewing were randomly selected for further callback attempts.[1] Telephone numbers were then obtained for the list of not-at-home addresses, and the numbers were phoned up to three times on random hours over the next two days to secure personal interview appointments or, if refused, a short telephone interview. Personal interviewing was terminated in all

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[1]After changing to a two-address skip interval after the second week, the Negro subsample was completed after the third week. See pp. 86-87.

areas as soon as the quotas of fifty or more completed interviews were attained. The results of the modified callback procedures are included in Table 2.

The special telephone interview schedule gathered pertinent data on basic socioeconomic and demographic characteristics and in-home shopping habits, providing an additional check on potential differences among not-at-homes and the rest of the sample. Twenty telephone interviews were completed; the results are included in Appendix A.

The Negro subsample posed several problems which eventually resulted in using a sample skip interval of every second house in this area as opposed to every fourth house in the other areas. Neighborhood disturbances in some predominantly Negro blocks in Grand Rapids, following closely in the wake of the Detroit riots in the summer of 1967, had resulted in the decision to not send white female interviewers into the lowest-income Negro blocks, and to attempt evening appointments only in selected Negro neighborhoods otherwise sampled during the day. Trained Negro interviewers, a possible answer to these interview problems, could not be obtained in Grand Rapids during the interview period. After the first two weeks of interviewing it became apparent that the resultant reduction of an already limited sample area, together with the high substitution rate from not-at-homes, required a smaller

skip interval to fill the quota in the Negro subsample area. The skip interval was thus reduced to every second house.

Interviewers subsequently reported no unusual difficulties, and interview completion rates compared favorably with other subsample areas. It is felt that under the circumstances mentioned, data from all sample areas were reasonably complete and accurate.

Since interviewers were compensated on an hourly wage basis, the unexpectedly high rate of non-response nearly doubled the original estimates of interview costs. Wages paid to personnel for interviewing and interview supervision, representing most of the variable costs of interviewing, were approximately $800. On the basis of 210 completed questionnaires, the average cost per completed interview was $3.80.

Analysis of Data

In order to isolate the potential in-home shopping segment in terms of key socioeconomic and attitudinal characteristics, specific hypotheses about the in-home shopper were tested. As a first step in the data analysis procedure, all responses to questionnaire items were coded and transferred to computer data decks for statistical analysis. Using the ACT II (Analysis of Contingency Tables) program written for the CDC 3600 computer at Michigan State University, categories of frequency

distributions for relevant dependent and independent variables were established. From these categories, data on the variables were calculated in terms of observed frequencies and percentages per cell.

The empirical verification or rejection of the hypotheses of association between variables required inductive inference from the characteristics of the sample observations to the population characteristics. Bivariate analysis was the basic method used to test the research hypotheses. Since the assumptions necessary for using parametric statistics, namely, populations normally distributed on the variables being measured, equal variance, and at least interval scale of measurement, were generally not met in the data, nonparametric statistical tests were used to test the hypotheses. The choice of nonparametric tests varied according to the level of measurement attained in the data, the number of categories used, and sample cell size restrictions. For bivariate distributions with more than two sample categories with at least ordinal data, the Kruskal-Wallis One-Way Analysis of Variance was used. The Kolmogorov-Smirnow "D" test was used to test two independent sample associations. The X^2 test was used to test bivariate distributions at the nominal level of measurement.[1] All

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[1]All of these tests and the conditions under which they can be used are discussed in Sidney Siegel, Nonparametric Statistics (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1956).

of the nonparametric tests of significance were available on existing computer programs.

Summary

Chapter III introduced a conceptual framework of the variables involved in the in-home shopping decision environment, and outlined the dependent and independent variables examined in the research. A structured personal interview schedule was then designed to collect the research data for hypothesis testing. A multistage quota sample of Grand Rapids households, stratified on family income and race, was chosen to represent the urban shopper population. On the basis of census tract and city block information on income, house value and racial composition, updated and verified by personal observation of characteristics, four subsamples were chosen. The areas were labeled as higher, middle, and lower-income white, and lower-income Negro, respectively.

Next, an interview team was selected and trained, and the survey questionnaire was pretested and revised. Interviewers then selected shoppers on a probability sampling basis until a quota of at least 50 completed interviews was filled in each area. The 210 completed interviews were then edited and coded for computer analysis.

Nonparametric statistical techniques were used to test each hypothesis at the .05 level of significance. Results of hypotheses tests and other related findings

are presented in tabular form and discussed in Chapter IV. Chapter V evaluates the research findings and discusses the implications of the results for marketing management and research.

Definitions

The following terms are defined as used in the present study:

Catalog counters.--Similar to catalog stores, these are catalog sales divisions located within the large retail stores operated by the major mail-order firms. Catalog counters fill mail, telephone, and in-person orders from catalogs; they do not sell merchandise from retail shelves within the store, but fill all their orders, at catalog prices, from mail-order warehouses.

Catalog shopper.--A shopper who has spent at least one dollar at the catalog division of a general merchandise mail-order firm between January 1, 1967 to the day of the interview. Sears, Wards, J. C. Penny, Spiegel, Alden's or Rogers Distributing Company are coded as general merchandise mail-order (catalog) firms. Other nonstore catalog retailers are coded as direct mail firms for purposes of the study.

Catalog stores.--Retail establishments of major mail-order firms whose primary business is receiving mail and telephone orders from their catalogs and filling the orders from mail-order warehouses. Many of the newer

catalog stores also sell a limited assortment of merchandise, mostly "big-ticket" items, from floor displays, or from catalog stocks via salesmen working from the catalog store.

Direct mail shopper.--A shopper who has spent at least one dollar by mail from a direct mail retailer (see "in-home shopping sources--direct mail retailers) between January 1, 1967 to the date of the interview.

Family.--See "household."

General merchandise.--Department store merchandise; clothing and accessories, home furnishings and home operation and improvement items, outdoor and recreation equipment are product categories typically bought from department stores, limited line stores, and large mail-order houses. Food and beverages, with the exception of certain gift items often bought by mail or phone, are excluded. (The United States Department of Commerce publishes census data only on types of retailers of general merchandise. A complete classification of types of "general merchandise" is not available from these sources.)

General merchandise catalog.--Catalog distributed by a general merchandise mail-order firm. In the present study, Sears, Montgomery Ward, Spiegel, Alden, J. C. Penney and Rogers Distributing Company were defined as general merchandise mail-order firms.

General merchandise shopper.--An urban housewife or female head of household who has shopped for general merchandise from January 1, 1967 to the time of the interview.

Household.--

> . . . number of independent buying units, family or individual. 'Family' is no longer a term used by the Census, but families defined as a group of two or more persons related by blood, marriage or adoption and living together are . . . included under 'households.' Any occupied dwelling unit is considered a household.
>
> A single person living alone in an apartment or other dwelling unit is a household. . . . If that single person lives in a hotel, rooming house, college dormitory, military barracks or an institution, he or she is considered a private individual, but not a household.[1]

Housing unit.--The census defines a housing unit as a house, apartment, or other group of rooms, or a single room with private access or separate cooking facilities.

In-home shopper.--A general merchandise shopper who has bought from an in-home shopping source using an in-home shopping method, between January 1, 1967 to the day of the interview.

In-home shopping.--Ordering general merchandise from an in-home shopping source, using an in-home shopping method, as defined below.

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[1] Sales Management, Survey of Buying Power, June 10, 1966, p. A 2.

In-home shopping methods.--Mail ordering, telephone ordering, or placing an order in person at catalog stores or catalog counters. Buying from door-to-door salespersons, ordering from "home party" sales demonstrations, ordering merchandise from trading stamp gift catalogs, and in-person ordering of out-of-stock or special-order items from retail stores ordinarily selling these items from their store shelves are not considered in-home shopping for purposes of the research.

In-home shopping sources.--These include (a) the large general merchandise mail-order firms (examples: Sears, Montgomery Ward, J. C. Penney, Spiegel); (b) department stores, discount stores, and any limited line retail stores including as part of their business mail or telephone shopping for general merchandise items; (c) direct mail retailers (generally firms smaller or more specialized than the large mail-order firms), with or without retail store outlets, whose general merchandise sales are predominantly by mail order (examples: Sunset House, book and record clubs selling by mail).

Locked-in shopper.--The shopper who cannot get out to stores to buy general merchandise items on a given shopping day is considered locked-in on that day.

Shelter magazines.--Magazines whose editorial contents feature the furnishing, decorating and maintaining of the home from the layman's point of view. In the

research, women's magazines such as Woman's Day and Good Housekeeping are considered shelter magazines.

Specialty catalog.--Merchandise catalog distributed by direct mail firms other than large general merchandise mail-order firms. Specialty catalogs contain a much more limited variety of merchandise than general merchandise catalogs.

Telephone shopper.--A general merchandise shopper who has spent at least one dollar by telephone order from a retail store other than a catalog store or catalog counter between January 1, 1967 and the day of the interview.

Working wife.--Wives employed outside the home for less than forty hours per week are part-time working wives. Those working forty or more hours, forty-eight or more weeks per year, are full-time working wives; if less than forty-eight weeks per year, part-time. Other female shoppers, single, divorced, or separated who work outside the home are similarly defined.

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Introduction

Chapter IV presents the results of the tests of hypotheses and other data describing the in-home shopper and the nature and extent of the respondents' in-home shopping. The first section describes the in-home buying behavior of the shopper sample. Then the research findings, grouped into the five separate subject areas outlined in Chapter I, are presented in the following order of appearance: (1) the extent to which certain environmental factors restrict store shopping and influence in0home buying; (2) key demographic proxy variables[1] which identify the intensive or heavy in-home buyer; (3) the relationship between shopping convenience orientation measures and in-home buying intensity; (4) the influence

[1]Demographic proxy variables are variables presumed to be associated with certain behavioral tendencies, rather than a direct measure of that behavior. For example, the number of charge accounts held by the shopper is assumed to indicate an attitude preference for charging purchases; a more direct or behavioral measure would be stated attitude preferences or a count of retail sales charges.

of family income class on the choice of in-home shopping sources; and (5) the influence of shopper attitudes concerning shopping convenience and in-home versus store shopping advantages on in-home buying.

The final section of Chapter IV presents additional data on the sample, including socioeconomic profiles of the three in-home shopper types--catalog, telephone and direct mail shoppers; multiple in-home buying--buying from more than one in-home shopping source; and multiple catalog ownership and its influence on in-home buying.

In-Home Spending Profile

In-home spending data were gathered for direct mail, telephone and catalog buying from January 1, 1967 to the time of the interview, or approximately an eleven-month period. Catalog and telephone shopping were measured in both dollar totals and frequency of orders placed. It was assumed that respondents would have considerable difficulty in estimating accurately the total amount spent on direct mail, or the number of direct mail purchases they had made during the eleven-month period. Thus shoppers were asked to estimate their direct mail purchases by product category. Frequency of direct mail orders was not measured.

In-home buying was widespread among the urban sample; 70 per cent of all respondents bought general

merchandise items from direct mail, telephone or catalog sources, or some combination of these sources, at least once during the eleven-month period. Mean shopping expenditures are shown in Table 3. As expected, the average expenditure was not large, about $58 for the entire sample and $82 among all in-home buyers. The median expenditure for the total sample was in the $15-$29 range.

TABLE 3.--Total dollars spent in-home.

Dollars Spent In-Home	Number	Per Cent
$0	63	30.4%
$1-14	30	14.5
$15-29	23	11.1
$30-59	30	14.5
$60-119	31	15.0
$120 or over	30	14.5
Total	207[a]	100.0%
Mean for Total Sample:		$57.61
Mean for in-home buyers:[b]		$82.42

[a]Three of the sample of 210 omitted because of incomplete data.

[b]Excludes shoppers spending $0 in-home.

As Table 4 shows, more shoppers bought by direct mail than by other in-home shopping methods; nearly 43 per cent of the sample bought by direct mail compared with about 38 per cent who ordered by phone and 29 per cent who ordered through catalogs. But in terms of dollars spent, telephone buyers ranked first with an

average of $74.50 each followed by $54 for the average catalog buyer and $34 for direct mail buyers. The range of total in-home spending was fairly wide over the sample; 30 per cent of the sample spent nothing at home while approximately 15 per cent spent $120 or more.

TABLE 4.--Total dollars spent in telephone, catalog and direct mail shopping.

Dollars Spent	Telephone		Catalog		Direct Mail	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
$0	127	61.7	149	71.0	117	56.5
$1-14	12	5.8	14	6.7	36	17.4
$15-29	15	7.3	14	6.7	27	13.0
$30-59	27	13.1	12	5.7	16	7.7
$60-119	51	7.3	14	6.7	8	3.9
$120 or over	10	4.9	7	3.3	3	1.5
Total	206	100.1%	210	100.1%	207	100.0%
Mean for total sample:		$28.57		$15.77		$14.74
Mean for telephone, catalog or direct mail buyers:		$74.50		$54.31		$33.73

The average telephone buyer ordered almost nine times during the time period, suggesting that telephone shopping is a rather well-established practice among many shoppers. Catalog buyers ordered nearly as often as phone buyers, 6.7 times during the same period.

Frequency of ordering by phone or catalog correlated fairly closely with the dollar amount spent,[1] suggesting that both are equivalent measures of in-home buying intensity.

The shopping profile data indicate that while in-home buying represents a minor proportion of total expenditures on general merchandise for most families, it is widespread among the urban sample. Most urban women bought at home from one or more sources several times during the time period measured.

The "Locked-in" Shopper and In-Home Purchasing Patterns

The growth in the in-home market has been attributed in part to the increasing numbers of "locked-in" shoppers, women who are restricted to their home and unable to shop in stores as easily or frequently as other shoppers. The "locked-in" state may be either temporary or relatively permanent. Illness, bad weather, or lack of transportation, for example, might cause shoppers to temporarily postpone or cancel shopping trips. On the other hand, some shoppers with small children to care for at home, or living long distances from stores, or who work during most shopping hours, or who are elderly or disabled and unable to shop in stores may be confined to their homes on a rather permanent basis.

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[1]Number of telephone orders correlated with dollars spent on telephone orders at 0.497. Number of catalog orders correlated with dollars spent on catalog orders at 0.662.

The present research focuses on the more permanent environmental barriers to store shopping and attempts to determine their influence on shopping behavior, and on in-home buying intensity in particular. Six different environmental factors were selected as measured of "locked-in" shopping situations, including availability of private and public transportation, distance from home to stores, stage in family life cycle, shopper age, and the shopper's employment status.

Hypothesis 1(A).--Availability of private (family) automobiles during major shopping hours is inversely related to in-home buying intensity.

Hypothesis 1(A) stated that women without private auto transportation for shopping would buy more heavily from in-home sources. To test the hypothesis respondents were grouped according to whether or not they had the use of a family automobile for shopping between 9:00 a.m. and 9:00 p.m.[1] and compared on in-home buying intensity. Of the 207 eligible respondents, 153 answered "yes," 17 replied "no," and the remaining 37, indicating that transportation availability was infrequent, sporadic or simply unknown, were grouped as "don't know." A Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance revealed that the three

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[1]Since many stores offer evening shopping, it was decided to measure transportation availability through 9:00 p.m. It is expected that many more shoppers would find transportation unavailable until 5:00 p.m., but available most evenings.

groups differed in buying intensity at a significance level of about .10, in the opposite direction from the predicted direction, and the hypothesis was rejected. It is suggested that the 8 per cent of shoppers without transportation may be lower-income shoppers who tend to spend very little by mail or phone. Nearly 75 per cent of the respondents said that transportation was available during major shopping hours.

TABLE 5.--In-home buying intensity by availability of private transportation during major shopping hours.[a]

Dollars Spent In-Home	Private Transportation Availability		
	Yes	No	Don't Know[b]
$0	29.4	41.2	29.7%
$1 -14	13.1	11.8	21.6
$15-29	10.5	23.5	8.1
$30-59	14.4	11.8	16.2
$60-119	15.7	5.9	16.2
$120 and over	17.0	5.9	8.1
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	(153)	(17)	(37)

[a]Kruskal-Wallis H (3.06 at 2df) significant at .10 (dollar totals ungrouped).

[b]Includes "don't know," "uncertain" answers.

Hypothesis 1(B).--In-home buying intensity is positively related to perceived travel time from the home to the shopper's favorite general merchandise stores.

Shoppers isolated from stores by time and distance were assumed likely to be effectively "locked-in" away from stores and thus more likely to purchase from in-home shopping sources. Shoppers estimated the average length of time they spent traveling from home to their favorite general merchandise stores[1] by choosing among five time categories. Since no respondent checked "one hour or more," only four time categories were compared on in-home buying intensity. Shoppers' responses were compared against their in-home buying totals and tested for significant differences using a one-way analysis of variance. The observed relationship was significant at about .14, above the necessary .05 level of significance, and the research hypothesis was rejected (see Table 6).

Like Hypothesis 1(A), the lack of significant relationship between shopping travel time and in-home buying intensity seems attributable in part to small shopper variance over the independent variable. Over three-fourths of the women estimated their one-way travel time to be somewhere between ten and twenty minutes; only 17 per cent thought their travel time exceeded twenty minutes, and only one respondent claimed to travel more

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[1]Since "favorite general merchandise store" was not defined for respondents, it is not known to what extent the response denotes the best-liked store as opposed to the most frequently shopped store.

TABLE 6.--In-home buying intensity by travel time from home to shopper's favorite general merchandise stores.[a]

Dollars Spent In-Home	Travel Time			
	Less Than 10 Minutes	10 to 20 Minutes	20 to 30 Minutes	More Than 30 Minutes
$0	16.7%	30.4%	38.2%	0.00%
$1 -14	8.3	12.0	26.5	0.00
$15-29	16.7	10.1	17.4	0.00
$30-59	25.0	15.2	5.9	100.00
$60-119	8.3	17.1	5.9	0.00
$120 and over	25.0	15.2	8.8	0.00
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.00%
	(12)	(158)	(34)	(1)

[a]Kruskal-Wallis H (6.399 at 3 df) significant at .1441 (dollar totals ungrouped).

than one-half hour one way. The limited variability in travel time may reflect both the short geographic distances from subsample residential areas to major shopping areas, and the urban freeway system which allows quick access to most shopping areas from nearly anywhere in the Grand Rapids area.

Hypothesis 1(C).--In-home buying intensity is positively related to distance of shopper's home from public bus transportation.

It was assumed that walking distance to the nearest bus stop would be a useful measure of the convenience of public shopping transportation; other factors equivalent, a long walking distance would present a shopping barrier.

Subjects were asked how many blocks they resided from the nearest public bus stop, and their answers were compared on in-home buying. Reported distances ranged from 0 to about 5 blocks, with 87 per cent of all shoppers indicating they lived three blocks or less from a bus stop. The average reported distance was two blocks. An Analysis of Variance found no significant relationship between distance from the nearest bus stop and in-home buying intensity, and the research hypothesis was rejected.

The lack of relationship might indicate that shoppers seldom used bus transportation. Further analysis revealed that only 9 per cent of the sample used the bus for more than 10 per cent of their shopping trips. This 9 per cent also lived an average distance of two blocks from the nearest bus stop, the average distance for the total sample. It appears that in terms of walking distance, accessibility of bus transportation was not an important shopping factor for the sample (see Table 7).

Hypothesis 1(D).--Shoppers in the "young married with preschool children" stage of family life cycle buy more at home than other shoppers.

Shoppers with preschool children at home were assumed more likely to be "locked-in" than other shoppers, and thus more likely to shop at home. Data on shopper age, marital status, and ages of children were combined

TABLE 7.--In-home buying intensity by accessibility of public bus transportation.[a]

	Distance to Nearest Bus Stop (in City Blocks)[b]						
	0	1	2	3	4	5 or More	Don't Know
$0	24%	31%	31%	32%	33%	27%	50%
$1 -14	10	12	15	18	22	9	17
$15-29	21	14	8	12	0	0	0
$30-59	14	16	17	15	22	0	0
$60-119	14	17	15	9	0	2	0
$120 and over	17	10	14	15	22	18	33
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
	(29)	(58)	(59)	(34)	(9)	(11)	(6)

[a]Kruskal-Wallis H (2.16 at 7 df) significant at .9504 (dollar totals ungrouped).

[b]H statistic originally computed for 8 categories of the independent variable; thus n - 1 = 7 df.

into a family life cycle variable and categorized into four separate groups similar to the classification used in Stuart Rich's study of department store shoppers.[1] The four groups were women (a) under forty with preschool children; (b) under forty without preschool children; (c) over forty without preschool children; (d) forty or over with preschool children.

A one-way analysis of variance found family life cycle groups did not differ significantly on in-home buying intensity, and the research hypothesis was rejected. Table 8 data indicate that women under forty

TABLE 8.--In-home buying intensity by family life cycle.[a]

Dollars Spent In-Home	Stage in Family Life Cycle			
	Under 40; No Preschool Children	Under 40; Preschool Children	Over 40; No Preschool Children	Over 40; Preschool Children
$0	25.9%	32.8%	30.3%	33.3%
$1 -14	14.8	12.5	16.5	00.0
$15-29	3.7	17.2	7.3	33.3
$30-59	14.8	10.9	17.4	00.0
$60-119	14.8	17.2	14.7	00.0
$120 & over	25.9	9.4	13.8	33.3
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	(27)	(64)	(109)	(6)

[a]Kruskal-Wallis H (5.068 at 3 df) significant at .167 (dollar totals ungrouped).

[1]Rich, Shopping Behavior of Department Store Customers, p. 62.

without preschool children may be most likely to spend above-average amounts at home, while younger women without preschool children do not differ from women over forty in shopping at home.

Hypothesis 1(E).--In-home buying intensity is greater in the "elderly, empty nest" stage of family life cycle than in earlier stages of family life cycle.

It was hypothesized that elderly shoppers, because of their higher incidence of poor health or their unwillingness or inability to drive to shopping areas, carry packages or perform other shopping tasks, would be particularly receptive to in-home shopping alternatives. Shoppers sixty years old or older with no children at home were compared against all other shoppers on in-home buying intensity. A Kolmogorov-Smirnov two-sample test on the two groups yielded a significant difference on ungrouped buying data of approximately .40. Since the observed significance exceeded the .05 level, the hypothesis was not accepted. A closer examination of the data in Table 9 shows that about 30 per cent in either group bought nothing from in-home sources during the previous year.

TABLE 9.--In-home buying intensity--elderly versus other shoppers.[a]

Dollars Spent In-Home	Stage in Family Life Cycle	
	Elderly	All Other Shoppers
$0	31.4%	30.2%
$1 -14	22.9	12.8
$15-29	11.4	11.1
$30-59	14.3	14.5
$60-119	17.1	14.5
$120 and over	2.9	16.9
Total	100.0%	100.0%
	(35)	(172)

[a]Kolmogorov-Smirnov D significant at less than .40.

Hypothesis 1(F).--Working women buy more at home than women not employed outside the home.

On the assumption that working women have fewer hours available for shopping than women who do not work, it was hypothesized that working women would shop at home more than nonworking women. Respondents grouped into two categories, employed outside the home, and not employed, were compared on total dollars spent at home. The two-sample test indicated a probability of .247 that in-home spending was higher for employed shoppers. Since the observed difference was not significant at the .05 level, the research hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE 10.--In-home buying intensity by shopper employment status.[a]

Dollars Spent In-Home	Employment Status of Shopper	
	Employed	Not Employed
$0	30.4%	30.5%
$1 -14	16.1	13.9
$15-29	1.8	14.6
$30-59	19.6	12.6
$60-119	14.3	15.2
$120 and over	17.9	13.3
Total	100.0%	100.0%
	(56)	(151)

[a]Kolmogorov-Smirnov D significant at .247 (dollar totals ungrouped).

Employed shoppers were separated into part-time and full-time workers and compared on in-home buying. The two groups were found to differ significantly in buying intensity, but in the opposite direction from that suggested by the fewer number of hours the full-time worker should have available for shopping. Part-time working women spent significantly more dollars at home than full-time workers. The observed difference, shown in Table 11 below, was significant at .05.

Family income level was found to be equivalent whether or not the shopper was employed. Since families in which the shopper works usually have two incomes, however, the finding suggests that the household head

TABLE 11.--In-home buying intensity: part-time versus full-time employment.[a]

Dollars Spent In-Home	Employment Status of Shopper	
	Part-time	Full-time
$0	19.4%	44.0%
$1 -14	12.9	24.0
$15-29	3.2	0.0
$30-59	25.8	12.0
$60-119	19.4	8.0
$120 and over	19.4	12.0
Total	100.0%	100.0%
	(31)	(25)

[a]Kolmogorov-Smirnov D (7.05 at 2 df) significant at .05.

in the "shopper employed" group earns less income than household heads in the single income group. Thus income of the household head is less strongly associated with in-home buying intensity than is total family income level. Total family incomes of shoppers employed part-time also did not differ significantly at the .05 level from family incomes of women employed full-time.

The Influence of Selected Demographic and Socioeconomic Variables on In-Home Shopping

Hypothesis 2(A).--In-home buying intensity is positively related to amount of annual family income.

Based on earlier research studies which found strong relationships between family income level and the desire for shopping conveniences such as telephone shopping, it was hypothesized that higher-income shoppers would buy more at home than lower-income shoppers. Total dollars spent on in-home shopping were compared against family income class using the one-way analysis of variance. Table 12 shows in-home buying differences among the income classes were highly significant in the predicted

TABLE 12.--In-home buying intensity by annual family income.[a]

Dollars Spent In-Home	Annual Family Income				
	$0- $3,999	$4,000- $6,999	$7,000- $9,999	$10,000- $14,999	$15,000 & Over
$0	35.7%	40.4%	29.3%	23.3%	14.3%
$1 -14	32.1	24.6	8.6	2.3	3.3
$15-29	7.1	12.3	12.1	14.0	4.8
$30-59	3.6	7.0	22.4	27.9	0.0
$60-119	14.3	8.8	12.1	20.9	28.6
$120 & over	7.1	7.0	15.5	11.6	47.6
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	(28)	(57)	(58)	(43)	(21)

[a]Kruskal-Wallis H (30.89 at 4 df) significant at less than 0.0001 (dollar totals ungrouped).

direction, and the research hypothesis was not rejected. In-home shoppers apparently have larger annual family incomes than shoppers buying little or no general

merchandise at home. Shoppers in the $15,000 and over income level, for example, represented only 10 per cent of the total sample but accounted for one-third of the shoppers spending $120 or more at home. Twenty-two per cent of the shoppers in the three income categories below $10,000 spent $60 or more at home, while 47 per cent of shoppers in the two income categories above $10,000 spent $60 or more. The results of Hypothesis 2(A) apparently confirm earlier findings of similar studies.

Hypothesis 2(B).--In-home buying intensity is positively related to shopper education level.

It was hypothesized that in-home buying increases with the shopper's education level. To test the hypothesis, shoppers were first classified into seven categories according to the number of years of formal education completed. These seven categories were later regrouped into five to increase the sample cell size necessary for hypothesis testing. A one-way analysis of variance tested differences in in-home buying intensity among the five education levels. Buying differences were significant at .0018, and the hypothesis was not rejected.

TABLE 13.--In-home buying intensity by shopper education level.[a]

Dollars Spent In-Home	Years of Formal Education[b]				
	Grade School (to 6 Yrs)	Some High School (7-11)	High School Grad. (12 Yrs)	Some College (13-15 Yrs)	College Grad. (16 or More Yrs)
$0	60.0%	34.7%	28.4%	25.0%	0.0%
$1 -14	10.0	22.2	13.6	3.6	0.0
$15-29	10.0	12.5	9.1	10.7	22.2
$30-59	20.0	29.7	18.2	14.3	11.1
$60-119	0.0	12.5	15.9	28.6	0.0
$120 & more	0.0	8.3	14.8	17.7	66.7
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	(10)	(72)	(88)	(28)	(9)

[a]Kruskal-Wallis H (20.99 at 6 df) significant at .0018 (dollar totals ungrouped).

[b]H originally computed on seven education level categories.

Hypothesis 2(C).--In-home buying intensity is positively related to family size.

The research explored the assumption that shoppers with large families would tend to be particularly interested in shopping convenience, and would therefore buy more heavily from in-home sources than shoppers with smaller families. Shoppers were grouped into seven family size categories,[1] and the groups were compared

[1]Categories include the husband and wife. Thus the single-unit category consists of adult female heads of household.

on in-home shopping intensity. As shown in Table 14 below, buying differences were significant at .143 in the predicted direction, but above the .05 level of significance, and the hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE 14.--In-home buying intensity by family size.[a]

Dollars Spent In-Home	Family Size[b]						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7+
$0	46.7%	31.1%	23.1%	36.1%	23.8%	36.8%	25.0%
$1 -14	20.0	20.0	11.5	11.1	14.3	21.1	4.2
$15-29	20.0	8.9	7.7	11.1	11.9	5.3	16.6
$30-59	6.7	15.6	23.1	8.3	14.3	10.5	20.8
$60-119	6.7	20.0	11.5	13.9	21.4	5.3	12.5
$120 or more	0.0	4.4	23.8	19.4	14.3	21.1	20.8
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	(15)	(45)	(26)	(36)	(42)	(19)	(24)

[a]Kruskal-Wallis H (12.19 at 8 df) significant at .143 (dollar totals ungrouped).

[b]H originally computed on nine family size categories.

Hypothesis 2(D).--Negro shoppers buy less at home than white shoppers.

It was hypothesized that Negro women shoppers buy less at home than white shoppers. Since family income level was assumed strongly related to in-home shopping intensity, the substantial Negro-white family income differences were controlled by selecting a subsample of

white shoppers equivalent to the Negro sample on average annual family income. The "low income white" subsample proved to be almost identical to the Negro subsample on average income.[1]

In-home buying data for the two subsamples were grouped into six ordered categories, as shown in Table 15, and Negro-white buying differences were tested for significance with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov two-sample test. The test, which looks for areas of extreme difference between the two independent sample distributions, found observed differences significant in the predicted direction at less than .20, but above the necessary .05 level. Since the spending distribution data suggested that the sample means might differ, a t test was run on the ungrouped spending data. The observed t value of 1.33 was below the 1.645 level necessary for significance at .05, and the hypothesis was rejected.

The magnitude of differences observed in Table 15 does suggest, however, that significant buying differences

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[1]In evaluating the data several other points should be kept in mind. The two sample areas were geographically contiguous, suggesting that accessibility to stores, at least in terms of distance, was quite similar. Second, although upper-income Negro shoppers were not available for comparison with upper-income whites, both of the subsamples included middle as well as lower-income families, in approximately equal proportions. For example, 41 per cent of the Negro shoppers reported family incomes of $7,000 and over, as did 43 per cent of the white subsample. Thus the two subsamples were comparable over several family income classes.

TABLE 15.--In-home buying intensity by race.[a]

Dollars Spent In-Home	Race[b]	
	White	Negro
$0	32.0%	50.9%
$1 -14	28.0	14.0
$15-29	6.0	7.0
$30-59	10.0	12.3
$60-119	10.0	10.5
$120 and over	14.0	5.3
Total	100.0%	100.0%
	(50)	(57)

[a]Kolmogorov-Smirnov D (3.80 at 2 df) significant at .20 (dollar totals grouped).

[b]Mean annual family income: whites, $4,105; Negroes, $4,020.

by race might be found in the extreme ranges. For example, 32 per cent of low-income whites failed to buy at home during the preceding year, compared with 51 per cent of Negro shoppers in the sample.

Negro-white differences in catalog, telephone and direct mail buying were also measured. As illustrated in Tables 16, 17 and 18 below, Negroes and whites did not differ significantly at the .05 level on any of the three in-home buying alternatives.[1] Apparently low income

[1]Since respondents who bought from more than one shopping source are included in several tables, the sum of percentages in Tables 16, 17, and 18 exceeds the percentage totals in Table 13.

TABLE 16.--Telephone buying intensity by race.[a]

Dollars Spent In-Home	Race	
	White	Negro
$0	82.0%	86.2%
$1 -14	6.0	3.5
$15-29	2.0	0.0
$30-59	2.0	8.6
$60-119	6.0	0.0
$120 and over	2.0	1.7
Total	100.0%	100.0%
	(50)	(58)

[a]Kolmogorov-Smirnov D (4.27 at 2 df) significant at < .20 (dollars grouped).

TABLE 17.--Catalog buying intensity by race.[a]

Dollars Spent In-Home	Race	
	White	Negro
$0	74.5%	74.6%
$1 -14	5.9	5.1
$15-29	5.9	6.8
$30-59	5.9	3.4
$60-119	2.0	8.5
$120 and over	5.9	1.7
Total	100.0%	100.0%
	(51)	(59)

[a]Kolmogorov-Smirnov D (1.92 at 2 df) significant at .40 (dollars grouped).

TABLE 18.--Direct mail buying intensity by race.[a]

Dollars Spent In-Home	Race	
	White	Negro
$0	56.0%	77.2%
$1 -14	16.0	8.8
$15-29	10.0	7.0
$30-59	6.0	7.0
$60-119	8.0	0.0
$120 and over	4.0	0.0
Total	100.0%	100.0%
	(50)	(57)

[a]Kolmogorov-Smirnov D (4.79 at 2 df) significant at .10 (dollars grouped).

shoppers, white or Negro, seldom buy by catalog or telephone. Less than 20 per cent of either group bought by telephone during the preceding year while slightly more, 25 per cent in either race group, bought from a general merchandise catalog. But percentage differences between the two groups on direct mail spending suggest that direct mail shopping may be more popular among low income whites than Negroes. More than 40 per cent of the low income whites had ordered by direct mail, compared to 23 per cent of the Negro sample, a difference significant below .10.[1]

[1]The difference is significant at the .05 or .10 level depending upon whether or not a directional hypothesis is being tested. Since no directional hypothesis had been stated prior to testing the data, the more conservative test was chosen, resulting in an observed X^2 value significant at .10. But the observed differences seem large enough to warrant further examination.

The Relationship Between Selected Convenience Orientation Measures and In-Home Buying Intensity

Previous research in retail shopping has suggested that convenience orientation is an important factor in explaining shopping behavior. Telephone shopping, for example, appeals particularly to consumers who wish to avoid a shopping trip for only one or two items, or who cannot get out of the house to shop, or who often feel that shopping in stores is an unpleasant and time-consuming chore. Shopping studies have suggested further that the American consumer, particularly the more affluent shopper and her family, demand and can afford greater convenience in many aspects of everyday living. If the desire for convenience is an important motivator in decisions to buy at home, valid measures of family convenience orientation should effectively isolate the in-home buyer market segment. Several hypotheses related different proxy measures of convenience orientation with in-home spending, and the results are presented in the following section.

Hypothesis 3(A).--In-home buying intensity is positively related to number of telephones per household.

Number of telephones per household was selected as one proxy measure of family convenience orientation. It was hypothesized that number of telephones in the home would be positively related to in-home buying intensity.

To test the hypothesis, shopper households grouped by number of telephones were tested for significant differences in total dollars spent in-home. As shown in Table 19 below, the observed H value was significant at .0514. Since the relationship was very close to the .05 significance level, a product-moment correlation coefficient was computed on the relationship, using ungrouped data. The coefficient of .276, tested against a Z distribution, was highly significant at less than .0005. Based on the Z test of significance, the research hypothesis was not rejected.

TABLE 19.--In-home buying intensity by number of telephones per household.[a]

Dollars Spent In-Home	Number of Telephones[b]			
	0	1	2	3
$0	28.6%	26.6%	36.9%	18.8%
$1 -14	42.9	21.9	10.7	3.1
$15-29	14.3	10.9	9.7	15.6
$30-59	0.0	14.1	16.5	12.5
$60-119	14.3	20.3	9.7	21.9
$120 and over	0.0	6.3	16.5	28.1
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	(7)	(64)	(103)	(32)

[a]Kruskal-Wallis H (9.42 at 4 df) significant at .0514 (dollar totals ungrouped).

[b]H originally computed on five categories of the independent variable.

r = .276, significant at .0005.

The 15 per cent of families with three or more telephones were about twice as likely to spend $60 or more in-home than were households with two telephones or fewer. Families with two telephones are no more likely to buy at home than are one telephone households.

Hypothesis 3(B).--In-home buying intensity is positively related to number of shelter magazines in the home.

Women who read shelter magazines oriented toward home improvement, home furnishing and food preparation, and the "do-it-yourself" reader were assumed to be especially concerned with shopping convenience because of their probable interest and involvement in time-consuming activities around the home. Accordingly, it was hypothesized that the more shelter magazines the shopper received the more likely she would shop at home. To test the hypothesis, respondents grouped by number of shelter magazines regularly purchased or received by subscription were compared on in-home buying intensity. A Kruskal-Wallis test confirmed the research hypothesis at a significance level of .0003. Women who reported having one or more shelter magazines were nearly three times as likely to shop at home than women who did not regularly receive shelter magazines. Table 20 suggests, however, that while shelter magazine ownership is significantly related to whether or not a shopper buys at home, within

the in-home buyer group the number of shelter magazines owned does not vary appreciably with in-home buying intensity.

TABLE 20.--In-home buying intensity by number of shelter magazines in the home.[a]

Dollars Spent In-Home	Number of Shelter Magazines[b]			
	0	1	2	3 or More
$0	46.3%	21.1%	14.8%	14.9%
$1 -14	12.6	18.4	11.1	8.5
$15-29	11.6	13.1	11.2	17.0
$30-59	9.5	7.9	33.3	19.2
$60-119	12.6	21.1	14.8	14.9
$120 and over	7.4	18.4	14.8	25.5
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	(95)	(38)	(27)	(47)

[a]Kruskal-Wallis H (29.09 at 8 df) significant at .0003 (dollar totals ungrouped).

[b]H originally computed on nine categories of the independent variable.

Hypothesis 3(C).--In-home buying intensity is positively related to the number of newspaper subscriptions received.

It was hypothesized that heavy in-home buyers would subscribe to more newspapers than other shoppers. To test the hypothesis, shoppers grouped according to the number of local and out-of-town newspaper subscriptions received were tested for buying differences. As shown in Table 21 below, nearly 90 per cent of all shoppers in

the subsample subscribed to a newspaper. About 70 per cent of the shoppers subscribed to the one local newspaper, the Grand Rapids Press. The 17 per cent of the sample in the "two or more newspapers" category were all receiving at least one out-of-town newspaper.

Significant buying differences were found among the shopper groups in the predicted direction at the .01 probability level, and the hypothesis was not rejected. Women subscribing to out-of-town newspapers as well as the local paper were especially likely to shop at home; two-thirds of this shopper group spent at least $30 at home, compared to only 23 per cent of the shoppers who did not subscribe to a newspaper.

TABLE 21.--In-home buying intensity by number of newspaper subscriptions received.[a]

Dollars Spent In-Home	Number of Newspapers		
	0	1	2 or More
$0	50.0%	31.0%	20.6%
$1-14	11.5	17.0	6.0
$15-29	15.4	11.6	8.8
$30-59	3.9	15.7	17.6
$60-119	11.5	11.6	23.5
$120 and over	7.7	13.1	23.5
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	(26)	(147)	(35)

[a]Kruskal-Wallis H significant at .01 (dollar totals ungrouped).

Hypothesis 3(D).--In-home buying intensity is positively related to number of credit cards owned by the family.

It was hypothesized that the more credit cards a shopper and her family owned the more dollars the shopper would spend at home. To test the hypothesis, shoppers were grouped into four categories according to the number of credit cards owned and compared on in-home buying intensity. An analysis of variance yielded an observed H value significant at .006, and the research hypothesis was not rejected.

TABLE 22.--In-home buying intensity by number of credit cards.[a]

Dollars Spent In-Home	Number of Credit Cards[b]			
	0	1	2-3	4 or more
$0	36.4%	26.8%	24.3%	15.8%
$1 -14	18.2	14.6	10.8	0.0
$15-29	12.7	9.8	10.8	5.3
$30-59	13.7	12.2	21.6	10.5
$60-119	10.0	26.8	13.5	21.0
$120 or more	9.1	9.8	18.9	47.3
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	(110)	(41)	(37)	(19)

[a]Kruskal-Wallis H (21.5087 at 8 df) significant at .0059 (dollar totals ungrouped).

[b]H originally computed on nine categories, 0-8 credit cards.

Table 22 data suggest that significant increases in buying intensity appear at the one credit card level. Shoppers owning two or more cards were nearly twice as likely to spend $30 or more at home than shoppers owning no credit cards. More than half of the total sample claimed to own no credit cards.

Hypothesis 3(E).--In-home buying intensity is positively related to number of charge accounts reported by shoppers.

Charge accounts, like credit cards, offer definite shopping conveniences and enjoy widespread use among today's shoppers. Accordingly, it was hypothesized that shoppers owning several charge accounts would also buy more at home than shoppers who had few or no charge accounts. Shoppers grouped according to the reported number of charge accounts they held were compared on in-home buying intensity. Buying differences were found highly significant in the predicted direction, and the hypothesis was not rejected. Apparently shoppers with multiple charge accounts are much more likely to buy at home than other shoppers.

Table 23 data suggest that four charge accounts or more is the critical number in determining in-home buying differences. For example, only 10 per cent of shoppers with four or more charge accounts failed to buy at home, compared with 38 per cent of shoppers with

TABLE 23.--In-home buying intensity by number of charge accounts.[a]

Dollars Spent In-Home	Number of Charge Accounts[b]						
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6+
$0	38.0%	43.2%	51.9%	22.9%	6.3%	0.0%	29.4%
$1 -14	24.0	13.5	11.1	17.1	6.3	8.0	5.9
$15-29	14.0	8.1	11.1	14.3	6.3	16.0	0.0
$30-59	8.0	16.2	11.1	22.9	25.0	16.0	5.9
$60-119	8.0	13.5	11.1	11.4	37.5	20.0	23.5
$120 or more	8.0	5.4	3.7	11.4	18.8	40.0	35.3
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	(50)	(37)	(27)	(35)	(16)	(25)	(17)

[a]Kruskal-Wallis H (43.7238 at 8 df) significant at less than 0.0001 (dollar totals ungrouped).

[b]H originally computed on nine categories, 0-8 charge accounts.

fewer than four charge accounts. And less than 20 per cent of shoppers with fewer than four accounts spent $60 or more at home, compared with 60 per cent of shoppers with four or more accounts.

All five hypotheses relating proxy measures of shopper convenience orientation to in-home buying intensity were supported at the .05 level of significance, suggesting that in-home shoppers have more telephones, newspapers, shelter magazines and credit and charge accounts than other shoppers. It is assumed that in-home shoppers also are heavier users of these sources of information and buying conveniences than other shoppers.

An examination of the relationships among the five criterion variables and family income level suggested that income differences explain some of the positive association among the proxy measures of convenience orientation and in-home buying intensity. The inter-relationship is not surprising. It has already been shown that higher-income women buy more at home than other shoppers, and it is also known that higher-income families are the largest market for multiple phones, magazines and newspapers, and own more credit cards and charge accounts than lower-income families.

The Influence of Income Class on In-Home Shopping

Hypothesis 4.--In-home shoppers in lower-income classes tend to order from general merchandise catalog firms, while higher-income shoppers tend to order by telephone from department and specialty stores.

The retailing literature suggests that telephone and catalog shopping appeal to different income classes. For example, the large general merchandise catalog firms such as Sears or Montgomery Ward have traditionally catered to the lower- and middle-income families, while department store telephone shopping generally attracts shoppers with above-average incomes. Rich's study, for example, found that Telephone shoppers had significantly higher family incomes than non-telephone shoppers, while the few mail-order buyers sampled were not found to differ from non-telephone shoppers on major socioeconomic characteristics.

To update previous research findings, the three in-home shopper types were compared on annual family income. It was hypothesized that telephone shoppers have higher annual family incomes than catalog shoppers. To test the hypothesis, shoppers who had purchased by catalog at least once during the preceding year were first grouped as "catalog shoppers" and compared on family income against shoppers making at least one telephone purchase.

A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of income differences yielded a X^2 of 2.67, which was significant at .28, not enough to accept the hypothesis.

Next, women who had used both catalog and telephone shopping were dropped from the two groups and the test was rerun.[1] By eliminating the effects of double counting the multiple in-home shoppers, income differences between the two groups increased appreciably. As indicated in Table 24 below, women who had shopped by telephone only had significantly higher family incomes than women who had shopped by catalog only.

TABLE 24.--Choice of telephone versus catalog buying by annual family income level.[a]

Annual Family Income Level	Shopper Type	
	Catalog Shoppers	Telephone Shoppers
Below $4,000	24.3%	6.8%
$4,000-$6,999	29.7	23.7
$7,000-$9,999	29.7	27.1
$10,000-$14,999	16.3	27.1
$15,000 and over	0.0	15.3
Total	100.0%	100.0%
	(37)	(59)

[a]Kolmogorov-Smirnov D (6.16 at 2 df) significant at .05.

[1]Findings concerning "multiple in-home shoppers," women buying from more than one in-home shopping source during the same time period, are presented in a separate section of Chapter IV. See pp. 156-157.

Income distributions of direct mail shoppers were also compared with all other shoppers in the sample using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. The observed D value of .264 exceeded the .254 value corresponding to the .05 level of significance, and it was concluded that direct mail shoppers differ significantly from other shoppers on family income level. Table 25 indicates that the distribution of direct mail shopper's incomes over the income scale appears quite similar to the telephone shoppers' income distribution.

TABLE 25.--Direct mail shoppers versus other shoppers, by annual family income level.[a]

Annual Family Income Level	Shopper Type	
	Direct Mail Shoppers	Other Shoppers
Below $4,000	8.6%	17.1%
$4,000-$6,999	17.2	35.0
$7,000-$9,999	29.0	28.2
$10,000-$14,999	28.0	14.5
$15,000 and over	17.2	5.1
Total	100.0%	100.0%
	(93)	(117)

[a]Kolmogorov-Smirnov D significant at less than .05.

The Relationship Between Shopper Attitudes and In-Home Shopping

Three broad hypotheses guided the investigation of possible relationships among shopper attitudes and in-home shopping behavior. The first hypothesis assumed that shoppers who perceived their home or work situation as severely restricting their store shopping activities would spend more at home than shoppers who did not feel "locked-in" away from store shopping. A second hypothesis predicted a significant association between how important certain shopping features and disadvantages seemed to the shopper, and the extent of her in-home buying. The third hypothesis postulated a somewhat different shopping attitude--shopping behavior relationship; shoppers' opinions on the superiority of store shopping versus in-home shopping in providing certain shopping conveniences were assumed to correlate strongly with their in-home buying behavior. To test the hypotheses, three shopping attitude scales were constructed and administered to the shopper sample. Response patterns for each attitude item were correlated with in-home buying differences. The results of each attitude scale are discussed in order.

Hypothesis 5(A).--High-intensive in-home buyers perceive their shopping situations as more inconvenient than do low-intensive buyers.

In-home shopping would appear to be a reasonable alternative for shoppers who face circumstances which

make store shopping unusually difficult. The "locked-in" shopper may lack transportation, or may be employed, or have small children to care for, or face other constraints which raise her shopping costs. An earlier set of hypotheses attempted to measure the effect of store shopping barriers on in-home shopping using proxy demographic and socioeconomic variables such as availability of transportation or presence of small children at home as predictors. None of these measures of locked-in shopping discriminated the in-home shopper group at the .05 level of significance.

Hypothesis 5(A) examined the relationship between store shopping difficulty and in-home buying by measuring the shoppers' feelings about the importance of shopping barriers she faced. It was assumed that the more difficult or inconvenient the shopper believed her situation was for store shopping, the more likely she would buy at home. Attitude Scale I obtained shopper responses to potential "locked-in" shopping situations in terms of the degree of perceived difficulty each situation held for the respondent. Attitude responses ranged on a five-point Likert scale from "very difficult" to "no trouble at all."[1] Shopping Attitude Scale I is reproduced in Figure 3 below.

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[1]The response scale and several of the attitude items were adopted, with modifications, from Jonassen's validated shopper attitude scale used to differentiate

Item	Response				
	Practically Impossible (A)	Extremely Difficult (B)	Difficult (C)	Slightly Difficult (D)	No Trouble At All (E)
1. My situation is such that for me to get to an adequate shopping center or downtown is:	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. My hours available to shop are such that for me to get downtown or to a shopping center is:	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. My transportation is such that for me to get downtown or to a shopping center is:	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. The distance from my home to the stores I like to shop in around here is such that getting to them as often as I'd like is:	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
(ASK ONLY IF RESPONDENT IS EMPLOYED OUTSIDE THE HOME)					
5. My job is such that for me to go shopping for items other than food is:	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
(ASK ONLY IF RESPONDENT HAS CHILDREN LIVING AT HOME)					
6. My situation with children at home is such that for me to go shopping for clothes, furniture, etc. is:	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Figure 3.--Shopping Attitude Scale I.

Shopper attitude scores were related to shopping behavior by two different methods. First, shoppers were split into two groups, at a $15 median, on dollar in-home spending totals and compared on each item for significant differences in attitudes.[1] The attitude responses, reproduced in Table 26, were then tested against X^2 for significance at the .05 level.

None of the six attitude items significantly differentiated shoppers by in-home buying intensity, and the hypothesis was rejected. Item 5, the influence of the respondent's job on store shopping difficulty, shows an attitude response in the opposite direction from that predicted. Although the group attitudes do not differ at the .05 level of significance, the data suggest that many working women may experience less store shopping difficulty than women not employed outside the home. Only on Item 6, "presence of children at home," did more than 20 per cent of either shopper group declare that the situation made store shopping "difficult." Most responses were clustered around the "slightly difficult" or "no trouble" end of the attitude continuum, suggesting that

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downtown and suburban shoppers on various shopping convenience factors. See Jonassen, The Shopping Center Versus Downtown, pp. 19-21.

[1]It was decided to split the shopper group as closely equivalent in sample size as possible, using the nearest $5 spending total. The $15 median divided the shoppers into groups of 96 below and 111 shoppers at or above the $15 total.

TABLE 26.--In-home buying intensity by perceived inconvenience of selected shopping situations (Shopping Attitude Scale I).

Item	Shopper Response (%)					Sample n	Results[b]
	(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)		
1. ($0-14)	3.1	2.1	8.3	20.8	63.5	(96)	X^2 sig. at .70
($15 +)	1.8	2.7	9.9	17.1	68.6	(111)	
2. ($0-14)	1.0	2.1	10.4	25.0	60.4	(96)	X^2 sig. at .60
($15 +)	.9	6.3	12.6	20.7	59.5	(111)	
3. ($0-14)	0.0	7.3	5.2	15.6	70.8	(96)	X^2 sig. at .60
($15 +)	2.7	5.4	4.5	16.2	71.2	(111)	
4. ($0-14)	1.1	5.3	8.5	22.3	62.8	(96)	X^2 sig. at .95
($15 +)	.9	3.6	8.1	19.8	67.6	(111)	
5. ($0-14)	0.0	0.0	15.4	30.7	53.9	(26)[a]	X^2 sig. at .70
($15 +)	0.0	0.0	6.9	20.7	72.4	(29)	
6. ($0-14)	1.6	6.5	9.7	25.8	56.5	(62)[a]	X^2 sig. at .97
($15 +)	3.8	63.	12.5	26.3	51.3	(80)	

[a]Other respondents not eligible for the question.

[b]X^2 tests found none of the items significant below .60.

most shoppers experienced relatively little difficulty in getting out to stores when they wanted to shop.

Hypothesis 5(B).--High-intensive in-home shoppers perceive selected elements of the shopping process as less convenient than do low-intensive in-home shoppers.

Hypothesis 5(B) assumed that in-home shoppers would attach more importance to shopping convenience and less importance to shopping enjoyment than women who shopped very little at home. Shopping Attitude Scale II, a 16-item Likert scale, was constructed to explore the hypothesis. None of the 16 attitude items had previously been tested for their discriminatory power in the in-home shopping situation, but several quite similar items had been validated in Jonassen's survey of shopping convenience-orientation among downtown and suburban shoppers. Shopping Scale II is reproduced from the questionnaire in Figure 4 below.

Shoppers were divided at the $15 level into two in-home spending groups and tested using X^2. While many shopping factors were rated as "difficult" by more than 50 per cent of all shoppers, on most items shoppers' responses did not differ by in-home buying intensity. Only Items 11 and 15 were significant at .05 in the predicted direction; the higher-spending group attached less importance to the necessity of seeing and comparing

	Item	Response				
		Practically Impossible (A)	Extremely Difficult (B)	Difficult (C)	Slightly Difficult (D)	No Trouble At All (E)
1.	When I drive to go shopping I find the traffic is:	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
	When I go shopping by car, finding a place to park is:					
2.	(Downtown)	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3.	(Shopping Center)	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
		Strongly Agree (A)	Agree (B)	Undecided (C)	Disagree (D)	Strongly Disagree (E)
4.	As far as I'm concerned, the cost of parking downtown matters very much.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5.	Shopping in shopping centers, downtown, or in other stores is a pleasant change from everyday routine.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6.	When I go shopping in stores downtown or in shopping centers, I find the amount of walking is altogether too much.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7.	I go shopping in stores around here only when I cannot avoid it.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8.	When I want to go shopping for such things as clothing and furniture, the time it takes me matters very much.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9.	It really isn't necessary for me to look at furniture and home furnishings in stores before buying them.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10.	It really isn't necessary for me to see and try on clothing before I buy it.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
11.	Before buying things at home by catalog or phone order, I need to see and compare them.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
12.	I find that waiting for assistance from a sales-clerk is very difficult and inconvenient	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
13.	I find that waiting in line to pay for something is very difficult and inconvenient.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
14.	I find that carrying packages while shopping is very difficult and inconvenient.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
		Hate Them (A)	Dislike Them (B)	Am in No Way Affected by Them (C)	Like Them (D)	Like Them Very Much (E)
15.	With regard to crowds when I shop, I can truly say that I:	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
16.	With regard to the hustle and bustle downtown and in shopping centers, I can truly say that I:	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Figure 4.--Shopping Attitude Scale II.

merchandise before ordering by phone or catalog, and liked shopping crowds less. One item revealed buying differences significant in the opposite direction from that predicted. Higher-spending buyers perceived less difficulty in parking downtown (Item 2). Item 6, amount of walking, was significant in the opposite direction below .10.

None of the other 12 items, including shopping traffic problems, waiting in line to pay for merchandise, or getting salesclerk assistance discriminated shoppers on in-home buying below the .10 level of significance. Several items produced very little attitude difference. Almost all women felt that store shopping was a pleasant change from everyday routine, and few thought that they would buy furniture or home furnishings without prior inspection or would purchase clothing without first trying it on.

In summary, the attitude scale did not yield results which clearly indicate the nature of the relationship between in-home buying intensity and shoppers' attitudes concerning the importance or inconvenience of certain shopping factors.

Hypothesis 5(C).--High-intensive in-home buyers compare in-home shopping more favorably with retail store shopping, on selected convenience factors, than do low-intensive in-home buyers.

TABLE 27.--In-home buying intensity by attitude differences toward shopping convenience (Shopping Attitude Scale II).

Item		Shopper Response (%)					Sample n	Results
		(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)		
1.	($0-14)	3.6	1.8	16.1	30.4	48.2	(56)[a]	X^2 sig. at .30
	($15 +)	0.0	5.1	10.1	31.7	53.2	(79)	
2.	($0-14)	23.6	14.6	21.8	16.4	23.6	(55)[a]	X^2 sig. at .05
	($15 +)	3.9	8.9	15.2	31.7	35.4	(79)	
3.	($0-14)	0.0	0.0	3.6	16.1	80.4	(56)[a]	X^2 sig. at .50
	($15 +)	0.0	0.0	1.3	7.6	91.1	(79)	
4.	($0-14)	16.1	48.2	14.3	21.4	0.0	(56)[a]	X^2 sig. at .25
	($15 +)	11.4	36.7	13.9	38.0	0.0	(79)	
5.	($0-14)	10.5	66.3	3.2	18.6	1.1	(96)	X^2 sig. at .20
	($15 +)	7.2	80.2	4.5	6.3	1.8	(111)	
6.	($0-14)	12.6	26.3	12.6	44.2	4.2	(96)	X^2 sig. at .05
	($15 +)	3.6	18.9	12.6	61.3	3.6	(111)	
7.	($0-14)	2.1	46.3	3.2	47.4	2.1	(96)	X^2 sig. at .60
	($15 +)	2.7	35.1	1.8	56.8	3.6	(111)	
8.	($0-14)	4.2	47.4	5.3	41.1	2.1	(96)	X^2 sig. at .70
	($15 +)	2.7	43.2	5.4	46.9	1.8	(111)	
9.	($0-14)	1.1	4.2	0.0	70.5	24.2	(96)	X^2 sig. at .25
	($15 +)	0.0	1.8	2.7	66.7	28.7	(111)	
10.	($0-14)	2.1	2.1	1.1	64.2	30.5	(96)	X^2 sig. at .20
	($15 +)	0.0	5.4	5.4	61.4	27.9	(111)	
11.	($0-14)	3.4	60.0	17.9	18.7	0.0	(96)	X^2 sig. at .02
	($15 +)	3.6	52.3	14.6	31.5	0.0	(111)	
12.	($0-14)	10.5	41.1	15.8	32.6	0.0	(96)	X^2 sig. at .70
	($15 +)	5.1	43.3	12.6	34.2	1.8	(111)	
13.	($0-14)	27.4	46.3	6.3	20.0	0.0	(96)	X^2 sig. at .40
	($15 +)	18.0	55.9	5.4	20.7	0.0	(111)	
14.	($0-14)	14.7	49.5	5.3	30.5	0.0	(96)	X^2 sig. at .70
	($15 +)	9.9	49.6	4.5	36.0	0.0	(111)	
15.	($0-14)	13.7	32.6	42.1	8.4	3.2	(96)	X^2 sig. at .10
	($15 +)	11.7	46.9	32.4	9.0	0.0	(111)	
16.	($0-14)	10.4	45.8	32.3	9.4	2.1	(96)	X^2 sig. at .70
	($15 +)	7.2	44.1	40.5	7.2	0.9	(111)	

[a]Other respondents not eligible for the question.

Hypothesis 5(C) explored the nature of the relationship between shoppers' opinions about store shopping versus in-home shopping advantages, and shoppers' actual in-home buying. More specifically, two related questions about shopper attitudes and buying behavior were explored by the hypothesis:

1. How do shoppers rate store shopping versus in-home shopping in providing certain shopping advantages? For example, which shopping method offers the lower prices, or is the least tiring?
2. To what extent are perceived differences in relative shopping advantages related to in-home buying differences?

Shopping Attitude Scale III, constructed to test the research hypothesis, contained 14 statements on shopping convenience and enjoyment factors such as price, quality and selection of merchandise, guarantees and delivery service. From an answer card containing five response choices, subjects chose, for each different statement, either in-home shopping or store shopping as having the advantage. A shopper unwilling to choose between store shopping and in-home shopping could also select either "no difference," "undecided" or "doesn't matter" to more accurately reflect her opinion.[1] Shopping Attitude Scale III is reproduced below in Figure 5.

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[1]Respondents were neither encouraged nor discouraged from choosing among the latter three answers. The "no difference" and "undecided" answers were assumed

Item	Response				
	At Home (A)	In Store (B)	No Difference (C)	Undecided (D)	Doesn't Matter (E)
1. I can get better delivery service	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Easier for me to return and exchange goods	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. I can find a greater variety of styles and sizes	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. I can find better bargain sales	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. I can find better quality merchandise	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. I find lower prices	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7. Shopping is more convenient for me	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. I can get more dependable guarantees	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9. Less time-consuming for me	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10. Gives more information about what I'm buying	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
11. I don't have to return merchandise as often	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
12. Get more value for my money	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
13. More enjoyable shopping	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
14. Less tiring for me	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Figure 5.--Shopping Attitude Scale III.

Respondents were again divided into two groups, above and below $15 spent in-home. Then attitude responses of the two groups were compared for each attitude item and tested for significant differences with X^2. Results of the X^2 analysis are presented in Table 28.

Based on the results of the X^2 analysis, nine of the fourteen attitude items discriminated the two shopper groups in the predicted direction at the .05 level of significance. Three other attitude items discriminated the two groups below the .10 level of significance. On every significant item, the buyer group spending $15 or more tended to view in-home shopping relatively more favorably in comparison to retail store shopping than did the group spending less than $15 in home. Attitude Scale III discriminated the two shopper groups in the predicted direction, at the .05 level, on the following shopping situation factors:

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to represent distinct responses which would vary with the respondents' confidence and experience in comparing the alternate shopping methods; since a large segment of the sample had not bought at home during the previous year, the "undecided" answer choice was included as an alternative to "no difference." But initial analysis of the data showed that very few women, about 6 or 7 per cent over the whole scale, chose "undecided," a percentage that did not appear to vary significantly with in-home buying differences. The fifth answer choice, "doesn't matter," attempted to measure the perceived importance of the shopping factors in comparing stores with in-home shopping. Less than 2 per cent of the total sample chose the "doesn't matter" response.

TABLE 28.--Comparison of advantages of in-store versus in-home shopping sources, by in-home buying intensity (Shopping Attitude Scale III).

	Item	(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)	Sample n	Results
1.	($0-14)	3.1	60.4	22.9	8.3	5.2	(96)	X^2 sig. at .01
	($15 +)	8.1	35.1	42.3	8.1	6.3	(111)	
2.	($0-14)	4.2	71.6	14.7	7.4	2.1	(96)	X^2 sig. at .10
	($15 +)	6.3	56.8	29.7	3.6	3.6	(111)	
3.	($0-14)	4.2	91.6	4.2	0.0	0.0	(96)	X^2 sig. at .10
	$$15 +)	7.2	79.3	6.3	4.5	2.7	(111)	
4.	($0-14)	2.1	86.3	3.2	5.3	3.2	(96)	X^2 sig. at .20
	($15 +)	4.5	76.6	9.0	9.0	0.9	(111)	
5.	($0-14)	1.1	85.3	5.3	8.4	0.0	(96)	X^2 sig. at .10
	($15 +)	1.8	73.0	16.2	9.0	0.0	(111)	
6.	($0-14)	7.5	69.2	7.5	14.9	1.1	(96)	X^2 sig. at .02
	($15 +)	6.3	53.2	26.1	13.5	0.9	(111)	
7.	($0-14)	12.6	77.9	5.3	4.2	0.0	(96)	X^2 sig. at .001
	($15 +)	33.3	44.1	11.7	5.4	5.4	(111)	
8.	($0-14)	1.1	75.8	12.6	10.5	0.0	(96)	X^2 sig. at .001
	($15 +)	3.6	48.7	35.1	8.1	4.5	(111)	
9.	($0-14)	29.5	52.6	2.1	12.6	3.2	(96)	X^2 sig. at .001
	($15 +)	62.2	23.4	5.4	4.5	4.5	(111)	
10.	($0-14)	7.4	85.3	2.1	4.2	1.1	(96)	X^2 sig. at .001
	($15 +)	13.5	60.4	19.8	5.4	0.9	(111)	
11.	($0-14)	1.1	88.4	5.3	5.3	0.0	(96)	X^2 sig. at .02
	($15 +)	3.6	73.0	19.8	2.7	0.9	(111)	
12.	($0-14)	3.2	79.0	11.6	5.3	1.1	(96)	X^2 sig. at .001
	($15 +)	3.6	46.9	40.5	9.0	0.0	(111)	
13.	($0-14)	2.1	94.7	3.2	0.0	0.0	(96)	X^2 sig. at .05
	($15 +)	8.1	81.1	8.1	2.7	0.0	(111)	
14.	($0-14)	48.4	33.7	6.3	8.4	3.2	(96)	X^2 sig. at .30
	($15 +)	63.1	21.6	5.4	5.4	4.5	(111)	

Item	Shopping Factor
1	better delivery service
6	lower prices
7	general shopping convenience
8	dependability of guarantees
9	less shopping time involved
10	better shopping information
11	ease in returning merchandise
12	value received for money spent
13	shopping enjoyment

The following items discriminated shopper types at the .10 significance level, based on X^2 results:

Item	Shopping Factor
2	easier to return and exchange goods
3	wider variety of styles and sizes
5	better quality of merchandise

Of the remaining items, shoppers apparently differed only slightly in believing that stores offered better bargain sales (4). Both shopper groups agreed that store shopping was more tiring than shopping at home (14).

Most shoppers saw clear advantages of store shopping over shopping at home, over a wide range of shopping considerations. In-home shopping had the advantage in only two of the factors; women thought in-home shopping was less time-consuming (Item 9) and also less tiring (Item 14), as already mentioned. The predominance of

retail store preferences is to be expected, considering that retail stores account for the great majority of general merchandise sales, and since in-home buyers also shop often in stores at least as frequently as the average shopper. But the higher-spending group, while generally stating that stores offered relative shopping advantages, were much more likely than other shoppers to perceive no difference between the two shopping sources or to state a preference for in-home shopping.

Other Research Findings

The survey questionnaire gathered additional data on in-home shopping behavior and shopper characteristics related to the original research hypotheses. The following section summarizes findings on the nature and extent of multiple in-home shopping and compares catalog, telephone and direct mail shoppers[1] on several key socioeconomic characteristics.

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[1]Catalog, telephone and direct mail shoppers are defined as stated earlier in Chapter III, Definitions, pp. 90-94.

Comparison of Telephone, Catalog and Direct Mail Shoppers on Selected Socioeconomic Characteristics[1]

Family Income Level

Family income differences among catalog and telephone shoppers were examined in Hypothesis 4; it was found that average family income levels differ significantly after eliminating the influence of shoppers who bought by both methods and thus were counted more than once. When multiple shoppers were eliminated, telephone shoppers were found to have significantly higher average annual family incomes than catalog shoppers. Direct mail shoppers' incomes were quite similar to those of telephone shoppers. Table 29 below compares income distributions for the three in-home shopper types; shoppers buying from more than one in-home source are included in the distributions. The percentage of catalog shoppers in the $0-$3,999 annual family income category is about twice that of direct mail and telephone shoppers, suggesting that the lowest income shoppers are more likely to shop by catalog than by phone or direct mail. The percentage distribution of catalog shoppers among the

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[1]The categories include shoppers who made purchases in several categories during the same time period. Totals of the three in-home shopping categories thus exceed the total sample size. The percentage of shoppers purchasing in multiple categories are discussed on pp. 156-157.

TABLE 29.--In-home shopper type by annual family income.

Income Category	Type of In-Home Shopping			Total Sample
	Telephone	Catalog	Direct Mail	
$0-$3,999	6.3%	16.4%	8.6%	13.3%
$4,000-$6,999	17.7	23.0	17.2	27.1
$7,000-$9,999	26.6	26.2	29.0	28.6
$10,000-$14,999	26.6	18.0	28.0	20.5
$15,000 and Over	22.8	16.4	17.2	10.5
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	(79)	(61)	(63)	(210)

other income levels is closer to that of telephone and direct mail shoppers.

Shopper Age

Cross-classifying the three in-home shopper types by shopper age shows that telephone shoppers are highest in average age, followed by direct mail and then catalog shoppers. Introducing family income level into the cross-classification reveals some interesting trends. Catalog and direct mail shoppers below $7,000 in family income are rather evenly distributed over the three age categories. But among the lower-income telephone shoppers, 70 per cent are sixty years old or over while

only 30 per cent are less than sixty years old. Elderly women on retirement pensions or other low, relatively fixed incomes apparently prefer to shop by phone from local stores, while younger women with low family incomes are most likely to buy from general merchandise catalogs. Looking at the data another way, telephone buyers in the twenty-thirty-nine and forty-fifty-nine age categories have somewhat higher average incomes than catalog buyers.

In summary, catalog shoppers are younger, lower-income women; telephone shoppers are older, higher-income women, and also elderly women on lower retirement incomes. Direct mail shoppers are similar to telephone shoppers except that the lower-income direct mail buyers are younger.

Family Size

The three in-home shopper types are similar in average family size, as shown in Table 31. The trends in the data suggest a slight tendency for households without children to shop by phone, while the trend is to catalog and direct mail buying as family size increases.

Shopper Education Level

Distributions of educational attainment level are very similar among the three in-home shopper types. Table 32 indicates the median level of education in each shopper category was high school graduate.

TABLE 30.--In-home shopper type by shopper age and family income level.

Family Income Class	Shopper Age								
	20-39			40-59			60 and Over		
	Catalog	Direct Mail	Phone	Catalog	Direct Mail	Phone	Catalog	Direct Mail	Phone
$0-$6,999	18%	12%	3%	10%	8%	4%	10%	7%	17%
$7,000-$9,999	17	13	15	10	12	8	0	2	4
$10,000 and over	18	18	18	15	24	28	2	3	4
Total	53%	43%	36%	35%	44%	40%	12%	12%	25%

Catalog n = 60; telephone n = 78; direct mail n = 90.

TABLE 31.--In-home shopper type by family size.

Family Size[a]	Type of In-Home Shopping			Total Sample
	Telephone	Catalog	Direct Mail	
1	6.3%	4.9%	2.2%	7.1%
2	26.6	14.8	18.9	21.9
3	11.4	9.8	12.2	12.4
4	12.7	24.6	21.1	17.2
5	27.9	21.3	21.1	20.0
6	3.8	8.2	11.1	9.5
7 or more	11.4	16.4	13.3	11.9
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	(79)	(61)	(90)	(210)

[a]Includes shopper, spouse.

TABLE 32.--In-home shopper type by education level.

Education Level	Type of In-Home Shopping			Total Sample
	Telephone	Catalog	Direct Mail	
Grade School (up to 6 years)	1.3%	3.3%	2.2%	4.8%
Some high school (7-11 years)	31.7	26.6	29.0	34.8
High school grad. (12 years)	41.8	47.5	40.9	42.5
Some college (13-15 years)	16.5	13.1	19.4	13.5
College grad. (16 or more years)	8.9	9.8	8.6	4.4
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	(79)	(61)	(93)	(207)

Occupation of Household Head

In-home shopper types were cross-classified and compared by occupation of the household head. The twelve United States Department of Labor classifications used to gather the original data were regrouped into seven categories to increase minimum cell sizes. Differences among shopper types on the final seven occupational categories were slight. "Managers, proprietors and officials" represented the largest single category for telephone and direct mail buyers, followed by "craftsmen, foremen and operatives," and then "professional and technical" occupations. Catalog shoppers were less predominant in the "managers, proprietors and officials" group, but otherwise quite similar to telephone and direct mail shoppers on occupation. Telephone shoppers were particularly likely to be in the "retired" category, a characteristic also suggested by the "shopper age" and "family size" findings (see Table 33).

Shopper Employment Status

Hypothesis 1(F) indicated that in-home shoppers and store-only shoppers were equally likely to be employed outside the home. The percentage of employed versus non-employed shoppers was also similar among all three categories of in-home shopper, as shown in Table 34.

TABLE 33.--In-home shopper type by occupation of household head.

Occupation Categories	In-Home Shopper Type			Total Sample
	Telephone	Catalog	Direct Mail	
Professional, technical	15.2%	18.0%	16.7%	12.4%
Managers, proprietors, officials	29.1	19.7	25.6	17.7
Clerical and sales	12.7	13.2	14.4	10.5
Craftsmen, foremen, operatives	19.0	21.3	23.3	26.3
Private household, service and laborers	10.1	9.8	11.1	15.8
Retired	13.9	8.2	6.7	12.4
Unemployed; others	0.0	9.8	2.2	4.8
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	(79)	(61)	(90)	(209)

TABLE 34.--In-home shopper type by shopper employment status.

Employment Status	In-Home Shopper Type			Total Sample
	Telephone	Catalog	Direct Mail	
Employed	26.6%	23.0%	25.6%	27.0%
Not Employed	73.4	77.0	74.4	73.0
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	(79)	(61)	(90)	(207)

Catalog Ownership and In-Home Shopping Behavior

General Merchandise Catalog Ownership

Table 35 summarizes findings on the relationship between catalog ownership and in-home buying.

TABLE 35.--In-home buying intensity by multiple catalog ownership.[a]

Dollars Spent In-Home	Number of General Merchandise Catalogs[b]				
	0	1	2	3	4-6
$0	37.8%	30.9%	15.4%	0.0%	20.0%
$1 -14	18.4	14.7	3.9	0.0	20.0
$15-29	14.3	11.8	3.9	0.0	0.0
$30-59	12.2	14.7	19.2	20.0	20.0
$60-119	11.2	16.2	23.1	30.0	0.0
$120 or more	6.1	11.8	34.6	50.0	40.0
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	(98)	(68)	(26)	(10)	(5)

[a]Kruskal-Wallis H (33.72 at 5 df) significant at .001.

[b]H originally computed on six categories of the independent variable.

Forty-seven per cent of the sample reported having no general merchandise catalogs in the home. Nearly one-third of the respondents had one catalog, and the remaining 20 per cent owned two or more catalogs. Shoppers owning two or more catalogs were more than four times as likely to have spent $120 or more at home than shoppers with one or no catalogs.

Correlation analysis revealed that the number of general merchandise catalogs in the home may be a fairly good predictor of catalog buying intensity ($r = .46$), but is a much less effective predictor of telephone sales ($r = .19$) or direct mail sales ($r = .16$). The much stronger relationship between catalog ownership and catalog buying probably reflects most general merchandise catalog firms' policies of establishing order size and/or order frequency minimums for catalog distribution. Catalog owners are usually established catalog customers.

Specialty Catalog Ownership

The relationship between specialty catalog ownership and in-home buying intensity was also investigated. Thirty-eight per cent of the total sample reported having at least one specialty catalog in the home; 15 per cent of the women reported owning two or more specialty catalogs. Among women owning no specialty catalogs, about 40 per cent did not shop at home, and less than 20 per cent spent $60 or more at home. In contrast, only 3

per cent of the women with two or more specialty catalogs failed to shop at home, while 63 per cent spent $60 or more at home during the ten-month period. The differences in buying intensity by specialty catalog ownership were significant below the .001 probability level.

TABLE 36.--In-home buying intensity by number of specialty catalogs.[a]

Dollars Spent In-Home	Number of Specialty Catalogs[b]			
	0	1	2	3 or More
$0	40.5%	23.9%	5.3%	0.0%
$1 -14	15.1	17.4	10.5	8.3
$15-29	12.7	13.0	0.0	0.0
$30-59	11.9	13.0	26.3	25.0
$60-119	11.1	17.4	31.6	16.7
$120 and over	8.7	15.2	26.3	50.0
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	(126)	(46)	(19)	(12)

[a]Kruskal-Wallis H (31.49 at 5 df) significant at .001.

[b]H originally computed on six categories of the independent variable.

Use of Multiple Sources of In-Home Shopping

The research investigated the extent and nature of multiple in-home shopping in the sample during the same time period. Nearly one-third of the total shopper sample had purchased through a combination of in-home shopping sources during the previous year. About two-thirds of

the telephone shoppers, for example, had also purchased through direct mail, or through general merchandise catalogs, or both during the year. As Table 37 suggests, telephone shopping plus direct mail was the most likely combination. Less than 9 per cent of the sample had purchased from all three in-home shopping sources.

Cross-classifying multiple in-home shopping by family income level showed that higher-income families, particularly in the "$15,000 and above" subsample, are particularly likely to have bought from more than one in-home source. Shoppers above $10,000 in family income were nearly four times as likely to be multiple shoppers than respondents with incomes below $7,000.

Reasons for Last Telephone and Catalog Orders

Telephone and catalog shoppers were asked what factor motivated their last telephone or catalog order. The responses, combined into several summary categories, are presented in Table 38.

The answers suggest that shoppers bought by phone and catalog for a variety of reasons, and that the reasons differed rather widely between telephone and catalog shoppers. Shopping convenience was the most frequently mentioned reason for telephone ordering, followed by impulse buying, or responding to newspaper ads or telephone promotions. In comparison, catalog buyers stressed

TABLE 37.--Extent of use of multiple sources of in-home shopping, by family income level.

Multiple Sources of In-Home Shopping	Family Income Level					
	$0-$3,999 (n)	$4,000-$6,999 (n)	$7,000-$9,999 (n)	$10,000-$14,999 (n)	$15,000 and Up (n)	Total Sample (n)
Catalog and Telephone	1	1	2	1	1	6
Catalog and Direct Mail	3	3	5	5	0	16
Phone and Direct Mail	1	2	9	11	6	29
Catalog, Phone, Direct Mail	0	2	3	4	9	18
Total	5	8	19	21	16	69
Multiple shoppers as a per cent of income level	17.9%	14.0%	32.8%	48.8%	76.2%	32.9%

TABLE 38.--Comparison of reasons for last telephone order and last catalog order.

Shopper Response	Reasons for Last Phone Order	Reasons for Last Catalog Order
Couldn't get to store (locked-in)	12.3%	11.1%
More convenient than shopping from store	36.2	19.7
Impulse: response to ad or telephone suggestion selling	20.5	9.9
Merchandise availability; quality; assortment	0.0	36.0
Low price; sale price	7.2	13.1
Experience with merchandise; confidence in buying this way	14.5	0.0
All other reasons; no particular reason; don't know	9.3	10.2
	100.0%	100.0%
	(83)	(61)

merchandise availability, assortment and quality reasons first and shopping convenience second. Merchandise availability, quality and assortment were never mentioned as reasons for telephone shopping. Low price was a more important consideration for catalog shoppers than for telephone shoppers. Both groups included about the same

proportion of locked-in purchase motivations. Interestingly, about 15 per cent of the telephone buyers mentioned previous experience with merchandise or confidence in telephone shopping as primary reasons for their last order. None of the catalog buyers mentioned confidence or experience factors.

Summary

None of the six hypotheses concerning the relationship between demographic measures of the extent of locked-in shopping conditions and in-home buying intensity were supported. The few shoppers whose environmental situations were rated as difficult for shopping were no more likely to buy at home than other shoppers. Likewise, shopper ratings of their own situations as store shopping barriers were not significantly associated with in-home buying intensity. Variance among respondents in perceived shopping difficulty was minimal, according to Shopping Attitude Scale I; none of the attitude items discriminated in-home buyers.

Among the several hypotheses relating demographic characteristics to in-home buying, family income level and shopper educational level were both found significantly associated with in-home spending, suggesting that the in-home buyer tends to be the higher income, better educated woman. Larger families were not found to spend more at home than smaller families. White shoppers were

not found to buy significantly more at home than Negro women with equivalent family incomes, although the observed sample spending differences appeared to be large enough to warrant further investigation using larger samples. Within the several in-home shopping sources, catalog and telephone buying differences by race were slight; few low income whites or Negro shoppers ordered by telephone from local stores. But white shoppers may spend more than Negroes by direct mail. Again, the sample differences, while not significant, seemed large enough to suggest that significant differences might be found in larger samples.

All of the hypotheses stating a positive association between certain proxy measures of convenience orientation and in-home buying were supported at the .05 significance level. Apparently in-home buyers have more telephones, newspapers, shelter magazines, credit cards and charge accounts than other shoppers. The higher family incomes of in-home buyers accounts for some of the positive association.

It was found that telephone shoppers tend to have higher family incomes than catalog shoppers. The large proportion of multiple shoppers among the in-home buyer segment also has particularly high family income.

Shoppers spending $15 or more at home did not consider shopping convenience more important or rate

certain store shopping situations as less convenient than other respondents. According to Shopping Attitude Scale II data, the heavier spending in-home buyers did express a greater dislike for crowds and claimed to be more willing to buy merchandise at home without first inspecting it. But in-home buyers were also less concerned with finding or paying for parking, with walking, and carrying packages. On all other items in-home buyers' attitudes did not differ from other shoppers.

In-home buyers rated in-home shopping sources much closer to retail stores on a number of shopping advantages than did other respondents. While stores were preferred by most respondents on twelve of the fourteen shopping factors, the heavier spending in-home buyers were significantly more likely to rate the two sources as equivalent or to prefer in-home shopping sources.

Demographic and socioeconomic profiles of the three in-home shopper types, telephone, catalog and mail-order, were generally quite similar, reflecting the considerable influence of multiple buyers who were included in the several subsamples. As a shopper type, the multiple buyers represent higher socioeconomic levels than in-home buyers ordering from one source only. As already noted, telephone and direct mail buyers have higher average family incomes than catalog buyers, but the differences were significant only when multiple buyers were excluded.

Telephone shoppers also tend to be older women without families, while catalog and direct mail shoppers are closer to the sample average on family life cycle characteristics.

The heavier spending in-home buyers are much more likely than other shoppers to own more than one general merchandise catalog and specialty catalog, suggesting that many in-home buyers shop by catalog from more than one source. As expected, telephone and direct mail buyers are much less likely than catalog buyers to own multiple catalogs.

Telephone and catalog shoppers apparently differ somewhat in their stated reasons for buying at home. Telephone shoppers are more often motivated by shopping convenience considerations than by merchandise factors, while merchandise availability, selection, price and quality were more important for catalog shoppers. Locked-in conditions accounted for just over 10 per cent of the last orders for both groups.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

Chapter V evaluates the Chapter IV research findings in terms of their implications for marketing research and decision making. The chapter first summarizes the research study and then evaluates the findings in terms of their ability to explain and predict in-home shopping behavior. Next, the chapter draws general conclusions concerning the nature and scope of the urban in-home market, according to the present findings. Marketing implications of the research findings are then examined, focusing on two interrelated questions: (1) to what extent can in-home shoppers be precisely identified as distinct market segments; and (2) what information does the study yield that may aid marketing managers interested in serving this type of buyer? Finally, the chapter suggests areas for further research.

General Summary of the Study

The present study was a cross-section analysis of certain demographic, socioeconomic and attitudinal

characteristics of urban female shoppers and their relationships to in-home shopping behavior. For purposes of the study, in-home shopping was defined as buying general merchandise from samples, advertisements or catalogs, either by placing a mail or telephone order from the home, or by ordering in person from a catalog store or catalog counter of a retail store. Three sources of in-home shopping were measured: telephone shopping, catalog ordering and direct mail buying. The research hypotheses focused on total in-home spending--purchasing from all three in-home shopping sources.

The research was primarily exploratory in nature, with the objective of establishing benchmark data concerning the in-home shopping behavior of urban females and examining possible relationships between in-home buying and certain economic and demographic variables and attitude differences. Some previous research findings on telephone shopping behavior in large metropolitan areas were also re-examined in a smaller urban environment.

Chapter II reviewed the literature on retail shopping and urban in-home shopping in particular and stated a number of assumptions concerning the trend toward in-home shopping by urban households. In summary, the review suggested that shopping convenience, particularly in terms of reducing shopping time and effort, was a central theme of the research and writing on the urban in-home shopping trends.

Retailing has responded to increased consumer demands for shopping conveniences in various ways, including self-service, planned shopping centers, longer store hours, and in-home shopping services and facilities. Telephone shopping studies and research of the locked-in shopper suggested that the modern urban in-home shopper has particular shopping convenience demands and is often unwilling to spend time and effort shopping in stores. The literature also assumed that the telephone shopper's attitudes toward shopping, reflecting her affluence, youth, and family status, differed significantly from non-telephone shoppers' attitudes.

The present research encompassed the following problem areas:

1. What is the nature and extent of in-home buying among different types of urban in-home shoppers from various in-home shopping sources?
2. To what extent is the urban in-home shopper "locked-in" at home or on the job and away from retail stores, restricting her shopping activities?
3. Are there measurable socioeconomic and demographic characteristics which discriminate intensive in-home buying?
4. Are intensive in-home shoppers particularly convenience-minded? How and to what extent do

their attitudes toward the shopping process and their attitude preferences for stores over in-home shopping sources relate to their in-home buying behavior?

5. Does income class discriminate shoppers in terms of the type of in-home shopping they prefer?

Several research hypotheses were formulated in each problem area and tested using data gathered from a survey sample of urban female shoppers.

Research design and methodology were discussed in detail in Chapter III. Data on in-home shopping behavior and shopper characteristics used to test the research hypotheses were obtained from personal interviews of selected female shoppers in Grand Rapids, Michigan. A quota sample of shoppers, stratified by average family income and racial characteristics into four subsample areas, yielded 210 eligible respondents. The subsamples, each of approximately 50 respondents, represented higher, average and lower income white families, and Negro families. Within each subsample area households were sequentially sampled from a random starting point until the quotas were filled.

The research hypotheses were tested for statistical significance using a variety of nonparametric statistical tests according to the measurement level of the data and

the data classifications by the research variables. The X^2, Kolmogorov-Smirnov, and Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance tests were all used where appropriate. The .05 probability level was utilized as the critical level of significance. The strength of associations between attitude scores and in-home buying intensity were also measured using product-moment correlation analysis, and tested for significance.

Results of the hypothesis tests and additional data related to the major problem areas, described in detail in Chapter IV, are evaluated in the following section of Chapter V. General conclusions from the research are then discussed, and implications of the findings for marketing management and further research are suggested.

Evaluation of the Hypotheses

Nature and Extent of "Locked-In" Shopping

Although the literature on in-home retailing suggests that women are especially likely to order by telephone or mail when they are unable to get to stores, there is little empirical evidence confirming what factors seriously restrict shopping or to just what extent "locked-in" shoppers substitute catalog or telephone buying. In exploring these questions, the research attempted to delineate several proxy measures of the

potential "locked-in" shopping situation which would effectively predict heavy in-home buying. The predictor variables were limited to more or less chronic or permanent environment factors; shopper illness, bad weather, and similar relatively transitory and unpredictable shopping barriers were not included even though they are known to be important barriers to store shopping. The six factors chosen were distance to stores, transportation availability, both private auto and public bus, children at home, shopper age, and shopper employment status.

The demographic and life style factors selected to represent potential shopping barriers did not differentiate the shopper sample on in-home buying intensity: the few shoppers whose situations were rated as difficult for shopping were no more likely to buy at home than other shoppers.

Similarly, shopper ratings of certain environmental and life style situations as barriers to their store shopping were not significantly associated with in-home buying intensity. In response to attitude items on Shopping Attitude Scale I, most shoppers felt that the environmental factors had little effect on their ability to get to stores. The minimal variance in perceived shopping difficulty apparently is a major reason for the lack of discriminatory power of the attitude scale.

The overall conclusions are confirmed in the more detailed evaluation of the factors below.

Transportation Availability

Lack of transportation was not associated with heavy in-home buying; in fact, the few shoppers without access to family automobiles tended to buy less at home than shoppers with transportation. The latter trend may reflect an income effect on in-home buying. Higher income families, the income group most likely to buy at home, are also most likely to own more than one automobile.

Public Transportation Accessibility

So few shoppers used the bus regularly for shopping that access to public transportation, measured in walking distance to the nearest bus stop, did not differentiate shoppers by in-home buying intensity. Almost 90 per cent of the shopping sample lived within three blocks of a bus stop, suggesting that the distance factor would have negligible effects on shopping patterns.

Travel Time to Stores

Apparently few women in the sample are inconvenienced by the time and distance involved in getting to stores. Over 80 per cent of the shoppers estimated their travel time as less than twenty minutes each way.

On the other hand, Rich's findings that suburban women in Cleveland and New York order by telephone more frequently than urban residents suggest that in-home buying is one means of surmounting the distance barrier. The different results may reflect the fact that many Cleveland and New York women traveled greater distances from stores than did Grand Rapids, Michigan shoppers. The Grand Rapids four subsample areas are all within three miles of suburban shopping centers and less than two miles from downtown shopping. The close proximity to stores plus Grand Rapids' expressway and interstate freeway system serving the downtown shopping district and almost all suburban shopping areas undoubtedly are reflected in the short travel times reported by most Grand Rapids shoppers.

Family Life Cycle

As Chapter II reported, findings concerning family life cycle influence on shopping behavior have not been conclusive. There is some evidence that compared to other women, women with younger children will shop by phone more frequently, postpone more shopping trips and stress the importance of shopping quickly. But the present research found no in-home buying differences among women with or without preschool children. The 20 per cent of shoppers with children at home who thought that children made their shopping difficult apparently did not differ from the other 80 per cent on in-home buying intensity.

Shopper Age

Shoppers sixty years of age and over were found no more likely to buy at home than younger women. The data did suggest that the elderly group was less likely to spend over $120 at home, perhaps reflecting elderly and retired families' lower incomes and reduced demands for general merchandise.[1] Elderly in-home shoppers, despite their relatively low incomes, are particularly likely to be telephone buyers, which suggests they are avoiding store shopping for small or infrequent orders.

Shopper Employment Status

Working women were not found to spend more at home than other shoppers. Further, none of the working women believed their employment made store shopping "almost impossible" or even "very difficult," and just 10 per cent felt their job made shopping "difficult." Since few Grand Rapids working women consider themselves locked-in by their jobs, it seems doubtful that they buy at home because their jobs prevent them from getting to stores when they want to shop. Apparently most working women are relatively flexible in their shopping schedules. Chapter II reported that working women shop less frequently during

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[1]The hypothesis apparently confirms Rich's finding that telephone shopping frequency varies only slightly with shopper age. See Rich, Shopping Behavior of Department Store Customers, p. 78.

evenings and weekends than housewives. Some women who work in or near stores also shop during lunch hours and to and from work.[1]

In summary, neither the demographic nor attitude measures of "locked-in" shoppers and shopping conditions were significantly related to in-home buying intensity, suggesting that Grand Rapids shoppers are seldom prevented from getting to stores and that in-home buying is not an important shopping alternative. Several speculations have been advanced in an attempt to help explain the findings. First, suburban and non-urban shoppers, who have been found to have more transportation problems and buy more at home than urban shoppers, were not included in the study. Second, temporary shopping barriers and their effects on buying at home were not included in the sample, for several reasons: first, the probable random effects of temporary barriers on individual shoppers would limit their predictive usefulness. In addition, it is likely that many shoppers who are locked-in for only a few shopping days will postpone or cancel shopping trips rather than substitute in-home shopping. But temporary shopping barriers, particularly illness and bad weather, do affect large numbers of shoppers at any given time, and may account for a majority of "locked-in" shopping situations.

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[1]See Chapter II, p. 48.

Finally, shoppers' answers to several other questions in the present study suggest that some women buy at home when they cannot get to stores:

(1) In response to a question asking shoppers what they would do if they wanted to buy but could not get to a store, approximately one-third of the respondents said they would buy by telephone, while about the same percentage said they would either postpone the purchase, pick it up at a neighborhood store, or do without the merchandise. Mail-order was the least frequently mentioned alternative.[1] The answers, of course, reflected only what shoppers said they would do in a locked-in shopping situation, and in no way confirm shopper responses to actual locked-in conditions. But the answers do suggest that a large proportion of shoppers consider telephone ordering a desirable alternative under locked-in conditions.

(2) Telephone and catalog shoppers were also asked what factor motivated their last orders. Twelve per cent of the telephone shoppers and 11 per cent of the catalog shoppers said their last catalog order resulted from their inability to get to a store.[2] The answers suggest

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[1]Rich's identical question asked of Cleveland and New York shoppers in an earlier study yielded similar results. See Rich, Shopping Behavior of Department Store Customers, p. 166.

[2]See Chapter IV, Table 38, p. 159.

that either temporary or permanent environmental constraints did trigger some in-home purchases.

Influence of Selected Demographic and Socioeconomic Variables on In-Home Buying

Annual family income level, shopper education, family size and race were all compared with in-home buying intensity. Of all the criterion variables examined in the study, family income level was probably the strongest predictor of in-home buying differences. Both family income level and shopper education level were significantly related to in-home buying in the predicted direction. Shoppers in higher income categories, especially above $15,000, and shoppers with at least some college education were much more likely to have bought at home, and to have spent $60 or more, than shoppers at lower income and education levels. The findings support several earlier studies showing that frequent telephone shoppers are relatively more affluent and better educated than non-telephone shoppers.

The research findings did not support a hypothesis that family size was positively related to in-home buying intensity. Apparently shoppers with several children are no more likely to shop at home than women in smaller families. But single-unit households appear much less likely to buy at home or to spend heavily than families of four or more members. The significantly lower incomes

of single-unit households may account in part for their lower level of in-home spending.

Negro-White Buying Differences

Negro and white shoppers of equivalent family incomes were compared on in-home buying differences. While both groups spent significantly less than the middle and upper income white subsamples, the hypotheses that white shoppers would buy more at home than Negro shoppers with equivalent family incomes was not accepted at the .05 level.[1] Catalog, telephone and direct mail buying differences also were not significant at the .05 level, although the magnitude of the direct mail buying differences suggests that whites may very likely buy more by direct mail than Negroes.[2]

The numbers of Negro and white shoppers in the two subsamples were quite small, making interpretation of the findings difficult. But the findings fail to support the assumption that Negro women substitute in-home buying for store shopping to a greater extent than white shoppers in order to avoid shopping in stores. In fact, the evidence suggests that Negro women may be less likely than whites to buy at home, particularly from direct mail sources.

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[1]See Chapter IV, Table 16 and the accompanying discussion. Maximum spending differences between the two samples were close to the .05 significance level. It is suggested that larger sample size might reveal significant differences at the extremes of the spending continuum.

[2]See Chapter IV, Table 19, and comments.

Relationship Between Selected Convenience Orientation Measures and In-Home Buying

The retailing literature generally agrees that the modern urban family is increasingly demanding and willing to pay for convenience in many areas of daily living. Shopping studies have also suggested that in-home buyers are especially convenience-motivated; for example, telephone shoppers have been found to own more charge accounts than non-telephone shoppers. To test the relationship between convenience-orientation and in-home buying intensity, five variables--number of telephones, newspapers, shelter magazines, credit cards and charge accounts in the family--were selected as proxy measures of convenience-mindedness. Each factor was found positively related to level of in-home buying at the .05 significance level. In summary, the in-home shopper household can be described as noticeably more likely to own and presumably use multiple units of the five selected items noted above.

Yet none of the convenience factors appears to explain much of the variance among shoppers on in-home buying intensity, for several reasons. First, none of the relationships were particularly strong, and second, as noted in Chapter IV, all of the five variables are positively related to level of family income, a variable also positively associated with in-home buying intensity. The interrelationships among the five predictor variables,

family income level and in-home buying is not surprising, of course, since higher income families can better afford to own and use multiple telephones, credit cards, etc. But the interrelationships do suggest that caution be exercised in attributing high convenience-orientation to shoppers owning multiple units of the five factors, since the relationship between shopper affluence and shopping convenience-mindedness must also necessarily be assumed.

Influence of Income Class on In-Home Buying

The influence of multiple in-home buyers, heavily represented in the two highest income categories, tended to reduce income differences among the three subsamples.[1] Thus approximately 40 per cent of all catalog buyers also ordered by phone, and nearly 30 per cent of telephone shoppers had also ordered from general merchandise catalogs. When multiple in-home buyers were excluded from the other telephone and catalog buyer groups, telephone and direct mail buyers were found to have significantly higher annual family incomes than other buyers, while catalog buyers did not differ from the total sample on family income.

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[1]Fifty-three per cent of multiple in-home buyers had family incomes over $10,000; 81 per cent earned at least $7,000 annually.

Although income averages differ among the three shopper types, each type includes significant numbers of shoppers from almost every income class. For example, 30 per cent of "telephone only" buyers had annual family incomes below $7,000, while 46 per cent of "catalog only" buyers earned $7,000 or more, even though the "catalog only" shoppers reported average family incomes lower than the total sample average and even slightly below the incomes of shoppers who did not buy at home.

Income class differences among the three in-home shopper types undoubtedly reflect the merchandising efforts of the retailers involved. Grand Rapids retail stores promoting telephone ordering as part of their full-service merchandising policies typically are department stores catering to middle and upper income shoppers. On the other hand, the large general merchandise catalog firms, Sears and Montgomery Ward in particular, have aimed their merchandising efforts at the upper-lower and middle class markets.

Attitudes Toward Shopping Convenience and In-Home Buying Differences

It was hypothesized that women who bought heavily at home would consider shopping convenience more important and rate certain store shopping situations as less convenient than would shoppers who spent little or nothing at home. But Shopping Attitude Scale II found little

relationship between attitudes toward store shopping convenience and importance, and in-home buying intensity. Surprisingly, four of the six items differentiated shoppers in the opposite direction from that predicted by the general hypothesis, suggesting that in-home buyers actually are the least concerned with finding or paying for downtown parking, walking or carrying packages while shopping. In-home buyers did express a greater dislike for crowds when shopping and claimed to be more willing to buy merchandise at home without first inspecting it.

The shopping attitude scale yielded a wide range of opinions concerning the difficulty or inconvenience of the shopping process. Many shopping activities such as waiting for salesclerk assistance were rated as difficult or unpleasant by more than half of the shoppers. But the perceived difficulty or unpleasantness of certain elements of store shopping is generally the same among all buyers. The fact that in-home buyers also tend to be frequent store shoppers suggests that in-home buyers are not abandoning regular store shopping.

Attitude Preferences for Store Versus In-Home Shopping and In-Home Buying Differences

Shopping Attitude Scale III measured relationships between attitude preferences for store versus in-home shopping sources and in-home buying intensity. The

shopping factors included in the attitude preference scale varied from delivery service, return and exchange features and merchandise information to comparisons on assortment, quality and price of the merchandise. It was hypothesized that in-home buyers would rate in-home shopping sources higher than other shoppers over the entire range of shopping factors.

Nine of the fourteen items yielded attitude differences which discriminated shoppers at below the .05 significance level, and three of the other five items were significant at less than .10, all in the predicted direction. Table 29 in Chapter IV shows that stores were preferred, generally by wide margins, over direct mail, catalog and telephone shopping on all factors except two; women felt that shopping at home was less tiring and less time-consuming than going to stores. On all other factors in-home shoppers tended to perceive less difference between the two shopping sources or preferred in-home shopping, compared with other respondents. The results are not surprising, since it is to be expected that shoppers would not continue buying at home if they did not rate it highly. But the fact that in-home buyers also tend to be frequent store shoppers suggests that women with more shopping information and experience perceive less difference in the shopping advantages of the two sources. Thus women who seldom shop by mail or

telephone may rate these alternatives higher as they gain information about the competitive shopping advantages of in-home shopping sources.

Summary of Hypotheses

The research hypotheses and the results of the significance tests are listed by number below. A complete description of the hypotheses can be found in Chapter IV. With the exception of Hypothesis 4, comparing catalog and telephone shoppers on family income level, the dependent variable in each hypothesis is amount spent on total in-home purchases. All were compared against the .05 level of significance.

	Hypothesis	Results	Observed Significance Level
1(A)	availability of private transportation	invalid	.10
1(B)	travel time to stores	invalid	.14
1(C)	distance to bus transportation	invalid	.95
1(D)	effect of preschool children at home	invalid	.17
1(E)	shopper age (elderly)	invalid	.40
1(F)	shopper employment status	invalid	.25

	Hypothesis	Results	Observed Significance Level
2(A)	family income class	valid	.0001
2(B)	shopper education level	valid	.002
2(C)	family size	invalid	.14
2(D)	race (Negro vs. white shoppers)	invalid	.20
3(A)	number of telephones	valid	.05
3(B)	number of shelter magazines	valid	.0003
3(C)	number of newspaper subscriptions	valid	.01
3(D)	number of credit cards	valid	.006
3(E)	number of charge accounts	valid	.0001
4	telephone vs. catalog shopping by family income class	valid	.05
5(A)	perceived inconvenience (locked-in circumstances) of own shopping situation (6 items in Attitude Scale I)	invalid	all 6 items above .60
5(B)	attitudes toward convenience of certain elements of the shopping process (16 items in Attitude Scale II)	invalid	2 items significant below .05
5(C)	attitudes toward retail stores vs. in-home shopping sources (14 items in Attitude Scale III)	valid	9 items significant below .05; 3 items below .10; other 2 items at .20 and .30

General Conclusions

Some Considerations in Segmenting the In-Home Market

Before attempting to synthesize the research findings, it should again be pointed out that even the heaviest spending in-home shopper encountered in the data did not buy a major proportion of her family's general merchandise by mail or phone. The average total purchase from all three in-home sources came to less than $60 in an eleven-month period. The largest total expenditure encountered was $700; very few exceeded $300. It seems safe to assume that the Christmas buying season would not drastically revise this figure upward. In Table 39, the in-home spending data are compared against estimates of total annual general merchandise expenditures for American families and single consumers.[1] In-home spending represents only a small fraction of total annual purchases, suggesting that for many families in-home buying is relatively incidental purchasing.

In addition, mail and phone shopping is quite widespread among urban shoppers. Only 30 per cent of the Grand Rapids sample reported buying nothing at all by

[1]Estimates from Fabian Linden, ed., Expenditure Patterns of the American Family (New York: National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1965). Since "general merchandise" is not defined in this source, general merchandise expenditures are estimated from selected categories. The estimates, based on 1960-61 data, would understate considerably 1967 spending levels.

TABLE 39.--Comparison of total in-home purchases against estimated annual general merchandise expenditures.

General Merchandise Category[a]	Average Annual Expenditure for General Merchandise	Average In-Home Shopping Expenditure
Household operations	$88.55	
House furnishings and equipment	268.79	
Clothing, materials	471.85	
Personal care supplies	80.99	
Recreation	118.08	
Total	$1,028.26	$57.61

[a]Services, food and other selected categories are not included.

mail or phone, and these non-shoppers were heavily represented among the lower income and elderly households which typically have little discretionary income, or in the case of the elderly, often less-than-average demand for general merchandise. Given the widespread in-home buying among the urban sample and the low average annual in-home expenditures among urban shoppers, it would be surprising indeed to find that the typical in-home shopper was markedly different from other shoppers on readily measurable demographic, socioeconomic and attitudinal characteristics.

Most of the research hypotheses compared the in-home buyer with her store shopping counterpart. As in-home buying totals are summations of telephone, catalog and direct mail purchases during the eleven-month period, describing the in-home buyer segment obscures to some extent the particular differences among the three in-home shopper types. For the researcher or marketer interested only in telephone, catalog or direct mail shopping the composite in-home buyer segment may be too broadly defined.

The nature of the dependent variable, dollars spent at home, undoubtedly accounts for some of the predominance of income-related characteristics of heavier spending in-home buyers. That is, aside from differences in buying methods, higher income families spend more dollars and often higher proportions of their income on general merchandise than do lower income families. The dependent variable thus measures shopper purchasing ability as well as some proclivity to spend at home versus in stores. Further confounding the issue is the possibility that proportionate measures of store versus in-home expenditures, while controlling for absolute differences in dollars spent, does not necessarily measure relative intensity of in-home buying in terms of the number of purchases or orders placed.

While the research did not measure in-home expenditures relative to total general merchandise purchases,

there is good reason to assume that the in-home buyer characteristics measure more than income effects. First, dichotomizing the respondents on an "in-home" versus "store only" shopper dimension using $1 spend at home as the classification rule would generally show significant differences between "in-home" and "store only" groups. For example, only 20 per cent of shoppers with family incomes of $10,000 and above and only 14 per cent of families above $15,000 did not buy at home, compared with 35 per cent of shoppers with family incomes below $10,000. While socioeconomic and demographic differences among respondents often widen with increases in dollars spent at home, the same factors would typically discriminate shoppers on an "in-home/store only" dimension.

The number of dollars spent on catalog and telephone orders also correlates at a high level of significance with number of orders placed by catalog and phone.[1] In addition, the telephone shopper group asked to estimate the proportion of their total general merchandise shopping expenditures made by phone indicated a significant relationship between dollars spent and percentage of general merchandise purchases made by phone. This type of recall data is undoubtedly subject to error from respondents who cannot accurately recall their total purchases, or express them meaningfully in percentages, or whose definitions of general merchandise differ.

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[1]See Chapter III, p. 65.

But the correlation appeared high enough (r = .55) to suggest that compared with other shoppers, intensive phone buyers spend significantly greater proportions of their general merchandise dollars at home.

Segmenting the In-Home Buyer

Although the in-home buyer does not stand out as a market segment of unique, precisely defined demographic and attitudinal characteristics, it is possible, based on the present research findings, to offer some broad guidelines for segmentation. The data show that of the 70 per cent of the sample who bought at home, the heaviest spenders tend to differ most markedly from the sample averages on behavioral characteristics. And since the marketer would most likely be interested in determining the potentially heaviest in-home spenders, it would seem useful to identify the shopper characteristics most representative of the heavy buying segment.

Demographic and Socioeconomic Attributes of the Intensive In-Home Buyer

The following outline of buyer characteristics assumes that shoppers spending above the in-home buying median of $58 are "intensive" in-home buyers. Combining the top two spending categories, $60-$119, and $120 and over, followed in the table data in Chapter IV allows the measurement of "intensive buyers" in terms of each

independent variable measured in the research. The list below identifies socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of approximately half or more of the 30 per cent of the total sample who qualify as intensive in-home buyers.

Shopper Characteristics	Per Cent of Shoppers Spending $60 or More In-Home
1. Women under 40 with no preschool children	41%
2. Shoppers employed part-time	39
3. Family income over $10,000	47
Family income over $15,000	76
4. 13 or more years of formal education ("some college")	50
5. Three or more phones in home	50
6. Subscribes to out-of-town newspaper	67
7. Four or more credit cards in family	68
8. Four or more charge accounts in family	60
9. Two or more general merchandise catalogs in home	61
10. Two or more specialty catalogs in home	63

The common factors underlying all of the shopper characteristics are shopper affluence and greater-than-average flexibility in shopping patterns, shopping innovativeness and a greater demand for convenience. These conclusions support similar assumptions concerning the nature of the in-home buyer held in the marketing literature. The intensive in-home buyer, then, enjoys shopping alternatives, and takes advantage of them. To a large extent in-home buying is discretionary shopping which is done not because the shopper has no other alternative, but because she sees advantages in buying by phone or mail for some of her general merchandise.

In-Home Buyer Attitudes and Motivations

In-home buyers are basically store shoppers; in fact, they buy in stores more frequently than shoppers who seldom or never buy at home. But the more affluent, innovative, convenience-oriented shopper also buys by mail or phone when she finds it more convenient than going to stores, or when duplicating the merchandise or prices available through in-home sources by shopping in stores is not worth the effort involved, or is not even thought possible. As will be explained below, in-home shopping in the Grand Rapids sample is seldom motivated out of necessity, but rather is a choice which seems

most satisfactory at the time when a purchase decision is desired or has been made.

According to the research data, shoppers buy at home for a variety of reasons, and the reasons differ among the several in-home shopper types. Telephone buying is motivated most frequently by the desire to avoid store shopping; shoppers in the sample placed phone orders when they needed only one item and did not want to make a special shopping trip to buy it. Telephone ordering also allows an immediacy of response to an impulse purchase decision that can seldom be matched by store shopping; newspaper ads and telephone solicitations from department store salesclerks, for example, also prompted a number of telephone orders. Some respondents place phone orders after first inspecting the merchandise in the store; thus telephone buying simply replaces the in-store purchase transaction function, which many shoppers find inefficient, while the important information seeking or search activities are conducted in person. Finally, some phone orders are placed by locked-in shoppers who cannot conveniently get out to shop in stores; locked-in shopping was equally important motivator in catalog and telephone buying.

By contrast, catalog buying is motivated more often by merchandise availability, assortment and low price considerations than by the desire to avoid the time and

effort of shopping trips. The difference is not particularly surprising, since the large general merchandise mail-order firms stress low price and full-line merchandise policies; the same retail policies also explain in large part why catalog buying attracts lower income shoppers.

Several basic assumptions concerning why shoppers buy at home were not supported by the data. Locked-in shopping, for example, which was assumed to be a major contributor to catalog and telephone sales, was a minor factor in the Grand Rapids sample. Few shoppers were rated as having high potential need for in-home buying in terms of environmental constraints on their store shopping flexibility, and equally few expressed any serious concern with store shopping flexibility because of their job, distance from stores, children to care for, advanced age, and similar potential store shopping barriers. Even where store shopping circumstances were rated as difficult, the shoppers involved were no more likely to buy at home than other shoppers.

Caution must be exercised in concluding that urban shoppers rarely experience difficulties in getting to stores that in-home sellers could exploit. Temporary shopping barriers such as illness in the family or bad weather may initiate more telephone and mail purchases than the permanent factors considered in the research:

unexpected cancellations of planned shopping trips, for example, certainly account for some telephone sales. But aside from the ummeasured effects of temporary shopping barriers, there are other reasons to assume that the sample design and Grand Rapids environmental characteristics favor the low incidence of locked-in shopping. Suburban families, suggested in previous research to be heavy phone users, were not treated in the Grand Rapids study. Actually it is unlikely that suburbs in the Grand Rapids area pose much more shopping difficulty than urban areas, given the efficient freeway system serving downtown as well as suburban shopping areas. A typical comment of respondents in the study was the quick accessibility of shopping from the most distant parts of the city. It may be that in smaller and medium-sized metropolitan areas like Grand Rapids, urban/suburban distinctions with respect to shopping ease are much less meaningful than in the larger cities in which in-home shopping studies have been conducted, such as Baltimore, New York, San Francisco and Cleveland.

The findings concerning working women and mothers with preschool children were especially surprising. Both groups were assumed to have especially great needs for in-home shopping, since both would appear to have less discretionary time for shopping than other women, or in the case of mothers with small children, more difficult

shopping. Yet both working women and young mothers are less inclined to buy at home than the average shopper. Again, neither group claimed any great difficulty in getting to stores because of their employment status or children. Women working in shopping areas or traveling near shopping areas to and from work have some opportunity to shop at noon or before or after work. Tracing the unexpected findings to any single conclusion is difficult; at the least, doubts must be cast on the uncomplicated notion that substantial numbers of urban American women, at least those in environments similar to Grand Rapids, today face chronic store shopping difficulties that cannot be resolved through evening and weekend shopping, babysitters, the second car, or simply postponing shopping trips.

In-home buyer attitudes toward store shopping were not found to vary from those of other shoppers to the extent that had been predicted. Intensive in-home buyers think no less of store shopping for its inconveniences of heavy traffic, crowds, waiting in lines, etc. than other shoppers; in fact, intensive in-home buyers are among the most frequent store shoppers, again suggesting that in-home buyers are quite flexible shoppers. But intensive in-home buyers are less inclined to believe that retail stores are superior to catalog and phone ordering in merchandise, price, services and shopping convenience.

For instance, among the heavier in-home spending shopper half, 62 per cent thought that buying at home was less time-consuming, versus 30 per cent of the lighter spending half. And while 79 per cent of the lighter spending half thought stores gave more value for the money, among the heavier spenders only 47 per cent agreed and 50 per cent saw no difference or were undecided. The differences in response patterns clearly indicate different attitudes toward phone and mail shopping. The fact that the heavy spending group also are the more frequent store shoppers suggests strongly that shopping experience narrows the perceived comparative advantages of store shopping.[1] One can conclude that in-home buyers have more complete and realistic notions of what telephone and mail ordering have to offer the urban shopper. Undoubtedly the intensive in-home buyer views phone and mail shopping with less trepidation than other women. Attitude toward shopping risk is also influenced by the higher income and education level of the typical in-home shopper, and reflects younger shoppers' greater willingness to experiment or innovate in shopping methods as well as products.

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[1] In view of the high proportion of catalog shoppers claiming their last catalog purchase was motivated by merchandise availability, assortment, or quality, surprisingly few of either group, in response to Item 3, Shopping Attitude Scale III, thought in-home shopping offered a greater variety of styles and sizes of merchandise. In-home buyers did rate in-home buying significantly higher on this factor than did other buyers, however.

Why Shoppers Do Not Buy at Home

While the research has focused on the in-home shopper with the aim of segmenting and explaining the motivations of the in-home shopper, an equally important question is why some shoppers do not buy at home. Overall impressions gained from the study are not based on convincing evidence; shoppers' open-end answers to direct questions on why they had not purchased by catalog or phone undoubtedly contain the usual share of rationalizations, hasty and incomplete responses that weaken validity. Nonetheless, certain conclusions seem warranted from the direct questions as well as from patterns of responses throughout the interviews.

As expected, the major deterrent to catalog and telephone buying was the inability to inspect merchandise style, size, fit, etc. before buying. The high perceived risk of buying merchandise in the absence of personal inspection was much more important among store-only shoppers than intensive in-home buyers. Interestingly, the risk of buying by sample or description prevented much more telephone buying than catalog buying. Many respondents also claimed they rejected catalog shopping because they did not like catalog merchandise or thought stores had more of what they wanted; telephone buying was not rejected because of merchandise considerations,

probably because the merchandise is ordered from retail store shelves. Catalog merchandise apparently has a lower quality, low-status image among many shoppers, reflecting the lower-class image of the major catalog firms.

Other reasons for not buying at home reflect the attitude on the part of some lower-income shoppers that non-store buying is discretionary or "extra" buying, which is not easily affordable. A number of shoppers said that they "couldn't afford to shop that way," or claimed that they always paid cash, again suggesting that some shoppers on low budgets buy only when cash is available. About 10 per cent of the respondents who had not bought at home declared that in-home buying was less convenient for them than buying from stores. It is not known just why the shoppers thought in-home buying was less convenient, or whether in fact other reasons were more basic.

But the most significant impression gained from the non-shoppers was that many had no well-thought-out reason for not buying at home; they expressed indifference to buying at home, stated that they never shopped that way, or said that they did not know why they never bought by mail or phone. These shoppers seem best described as traditional store shoppers, non-innovative, with little desire to experience in-home buying. It is of course

not known to what extent the responses of indifference or apathy conceal vague uncertainties or lack of confidence in getting the right merchandise, or lack of knowledge of how to order by phone or mail, dislike of catalog merchandise, lack of money to order merchandise, and so on. But the answers do suggest that in-home buying is not even considered by a sizeable portion of urban shoppers who may lack accurate, up-to-date information about in-home buying.

Socioeconomic and Demographic Differences Among Telephone, Catalog and Direct Mail Shoppers

Since the in-home buyer as defined identified in the research is a composite of catalog, telephone and direct mail buyers, an important question is posed: is the "in-home buyer" an artificial classification that unnecessarily submerges catalog, telephone and direct mail shopper types having distinctly unique and different motivations and environmental circumstances, or is the in-home buyer a behavioral type homogeneous enough to be useful for marketing purposes? It is suggested that both in-home buyers and catalog, telephone and direct mail buyers are useful classifications. Nearly half of all in-home shoppers buy from some combination of telephone, catalog and direct mail sources, while the

other half order from a single source, although they may buy from more than one firm. Most upper-income shoppers buy from more than one source; these multiple in-home buyers strongly influence the behavioral characteristics of the "intensive buyer" segment described earlier. The in-home buyer, then, is probably a relevant classification that accurately describes the multiple in-home buyer. But even with the dominating influence of multiple buyers on the behavioral characteristics of each in-home shopper type, the catalog, telephone and direct mail segments differ in some important respects, as discussed below.

Catalog Buyers

The average catalog buyer resembles the average store-only shopper more closely than other in-home buyers. Whereas telephone and direct mail buyers are above average in socioeconomic status, catalog buyers are no different from non-catalog buyers on average family income, shopper age, and family life cycle profile. The average education level of catalog buyers, however, is equally as high as for phone and direct mail segments. Catalog buyers and other in-home buyers are no more likely than other in-home buyers to be employed than women who do not buy at home. Catalog buyers are younger and more likely to have preschool children than direct mail and especially telephone buyers. Compared with telephone buying, catalog buying

also has a greater tendency to increase with family size, although the trend is not statistically significant.

Catalog buyers vary more widely on socioeconomic characteristics than do either phone or direct mail buyers. In fact, catalog buyers can usefully be divided into two distinct categories. One group, the more than 60 per cent of catalog buyers who also shop by phone or direct mail, display the higher socioeconomic status characteristics of the total sample of in-home shoppers. In contrast, the other catalog shopper group, women who shop at home by catalog only, are substantially lower than the in-home shopper average on family income, shopper education level and related characteristics. The wide variance in shopper types who buy by catalog helps explain the equally wide range of purchase motivations among catalog buyers. The lower-income catalog shoppers with larger families are buying by catalog from firms such as Sears and Montgomery Ward to take advantage of the traditionally moderate prices and wide assortments of merchandise found in their catalogs. Higher-income shoppers use catalogs for the wide variety and assortments of merchandise that are difficult to duplicate without extensive shopping in stores.

The wide variety of shopper types encountered in the catalog buyer sample would seem to evidence the success that the major mail-order retailers, particularly

Wards and Sears, are experiencing in their attempts to upgrade their merchandise lines, catalogs, catalog shopping services, retail stores and overall firm images to appeal to the tastes of the more affluent and discriminating urban shopper. Aggressive pricing, full-line merchandising, and continued catalog promotion policies seem to have kept many of the traditional lower-income customers, while upgrading the firms' market offers has undoubtedly made inroads into the department store's middle and upper-middle income market.

Telephone Buyers

Telephone shoppers are quite similar to multiple in-home buyers on family income and education level and on proxy measures of convenience-orientation. Telephone buyers do not differ significantly from other shoppers on family life cycle, with several exceptions. First, women below thirty years of age are less likely than older women to shop by phone, and younger phone shoppers typically do not have preschool children. Second, in-home shoppers sixty years old and over are especially likely to buy by phone. Not only do these findings differentiate phone shoppers from catalog shoppers, who tend to be somewhat younger and have larger families than the average in-home buyer, but the trends are opposite from those found in other telephone shopping studies. The typical telephone shopper has been described in

earlier studies as younger and particularly likely to have children. Part of the difference in findings may be attributed to the demographic characteristics of the Grand Rapids sample. Newer suburban areas were not sampled, and apartments only infrequently sampled since the four urban subsample areas were confined to older neighborhoods containing few apartments. To the extent that the more affluent younger women live in newer suburban neighborhoods or apartments and thus are undersampled in the present study, the socioeconomic characteristics of younger women may not be representative of urban areas in general. Beyond sample differences, the reason for differences in the findings may lie in the relatively easy accessibility of Grand Rapids store shopping compared with the larger metropolitan areas that have been studied.

Despite the number of catalog buyers also ordering from retail stores by phone, catalog shopping does not efficiently predict telephone buying, and vice versa. Thirty per cent of telephone buyers shopped through catalogs, but so did 30 per cent of non-telephone shoppers. Likewise, catalog shoppers spent no more by phone than did other shoppers.

Direct Mail Buyers

Since about 60 per cent of all telephone buyers in the sample also shopped by direct mail and 50 per cent

of direct mail buyers were also phone shoppers, the two groups were necessarily similar on most socioeconomic and demographic characteristics. Some differences were noted, however. Direct mail buyers were less likely to be lower-income shoppers over sixty years old, reinforcing the conclusion that elderly shoppers, particularly those with lower incomes such as retirees, will shop from local stores by phone to avoid shopping trips. Direct mail buying is otherwise a fairly good predictor of telephone buying intensity.

Direct mail buyers are motivated more by merchandise features than convenience considerations. Direct mail firms typically sell specialized merchandise often not found in retail stores. Specialty clothing items, books, records, magazines, film and film processing services, household specialty items, gift and novelty items are frequently sold by mail. Direct mail buying is largely discretionary buying, which helps explain the relatively high socioeconomic status of the average direct mail buyer in the sample. The motivations behind much direct mail selling and buying may help explain why so few Negro women bought by direct mail. Lower-income Negro women are apparently more serious shoppers than whites of equivalent incomes, and are somewhat more likely to mention lack of money as a major deterrent to buying; the discretionary nature of many direct mail purchases thus would be less attractive to Negroes than whites.

The apparent lack of Negro direct mail buying suggests several other hypotheses that may warrant further investigation. (1) Negroes may be more loyal neighborhood shoppers than whites, thus less likely to buy from direct mail firms than to order by phone from local stores or to shop from local catalog offices or catalog counters of local retail stores. (2) Negro shoppers are less likely to be exposed to direct mail information, either because they are less likely to seek such information from the mass media, or because they are less actively sought out by direct mail firms.

Summary

The in-home shopper identifies a set of attitudes as much as it does any particular socioeconomic type. As can be seen by subdividing in-home shoppers into their three components, women from all socioeconomic levels buy at home. It is true that the heavier-spending in-home buyers, particularly multiple in-home buyers, tend to be higher-income shoppers, somewhat younger than average; they are innovative shoppers who seek shopping convenience, as evidenced by their heavy use and multiple ownership of charge plates and other credit cards, for example. But some women are not seeking convenience when they buy at home, but low prices or merchandise which they cannot find in local stores. Some in-home shoppers are motivated by loyalty to the retail firm; a few respondents

in the study, for example, bought from J. C. Penney catalogs because there was no J. C. Penney retail store in Grand Rapids.

It should be noted that in-home shopper characteristics reflect not only a particular set of attitudes and shopping needs, but also the merchandising policies of retail institutions currently emphasizing in-home selling. For example, telephone shopping from local retail stores is promoted most heavily by department stores and other full-service retailers whose store customers are middle and above-average in socioeconomic status because they are attracted to particular merchandise, pricing, and service policies of the department store shoppers.

Similarly, the catalog shopper described in the research is most likely to be a customer of Sears, Montgomery Ward, Spiegel, or Alden's, who account for the bulk of catalog sales in Grand Rapids and nationally. Since the large general merchandise firms have for decades appealed to middle and lower-income groups, catalog shopper characteristics in the sample reflect the merchandising policies of these few firms. Indeed, the "lowbrow" image of the catalog giants is still inhibiting their acceptance among the higher socioeconomic classes, as evidenced especially by the non-catalog buyers in the sample who mentioned catalog merchandise as a primary deterrent to

buying from general merchandise catalogs. There is no strong reason why catalog buyers are necessarily lower-income shoppers because of the inherent nature of catalog buying, nor is catalog merchandise necessarily limited to lower-priced, "lowbrow" lines. Catalogs today are an accepted merchandising tool for many higher-status stores; the Nieman-Marcus Christmas catalog, for example, would appear to be an extremely effective promotional weapon for circulating the high-status image this department store enjoys. In the present sample, the substantial proportion of multiple in-home buyers in the "catalog buyer" group is above-average in socioeconomic status, and undoubtedly mirrors the department store shopper.

Direct mail customers in the sample also were above-average in socioeconomic status and generally displayed the same characteristics as phone shoppers; many, of course, shopped by phone, and were frequent store shoppers as well. Again, the socioeconomic average covers a fairly wide range of shopper types. Direct mail sellers handling a limited line of merchandise are well aware that convenience-oriented shoppers alone are not specific enough market segments to serve efficiently. Direct mail sellers must identify potential customers in terms of specific product needs, as well as some propensity to buy at home.

Implications of the Research Findings

The question as to whether or not in-home selling is an obsolete method of distributing general merchandise in large urban markets has long been irrelevant. In-home selling is not an old-fashioned method of reaching isolated buyers who have no store shopping alternatives, but is the ultimate expression of self-service retailing which retail stores cannot duplicate no matter how efficient stores may become at following the customer or providing pleasant, easy shopping. In-home marketers are selling a form of convenience in which the "store" is literally brought into the customer's home via catalogs or through newspaper, magazine, direct mail or other advertising media providing shopping information and often a vehicle for ordering. With the incorporation of today's highly efficient communications and transportation systems, in-home selling is a truly modern method of retailing. As such, in-home selling competes openly and directly with retail stores, with an inherent advantage: There are definite limits to which retail stores can go in eliminating the inconveniences of time and energy-consuming traveling to stores to shop, or the problem of shopping when one cannot leave the home to shop even if stores are close at hand.

Certainly store shopping offers social and recreational values which appeal just as strongly to intensive

in-home buyers as to other shoppers. There are also limits to which many shoppers are willing to buy merchandise by description or sample instead of by personal inspection, although marketers should never underestimate the fact that almost everything can and has been sold by mail or phone. Vast quantities of wearing apparel are sold every day through general merchandise catalogs. Both the recreational values of store shopping and the inherent risk of shopping by sample or description suggest that the potentially more convenient and efficient in-home buying methods will not entirely replace store shopping.

Assuming the legitimacy of urban in-home retailing, several more pertinent questions arise: (1) Should an individual retailer cultivate the in-home market? (2) If so, what is known about the modern urban in-home market that can guide merchandising strategy? (3) What is not yet known about the urban in-home market that would warrant further investigation? The present section dealing with implications of the research addresses the first two questions; question (3) forms the basis of discussion for the last section, some suggestions for further research.

Firms should recognize that in-home sales are not necessarily "extra" revenues nor profitable sales. It is difficult to generalize about either point from the present research findings, since the study did not examine

in-home selling costs and could measure only indirectly whether in-home purchases substituted for or complemented store sales. It has been argued that since department store telephone shoppers are frequent store shoppers, in-home sales are often "plus" sales for the firm.[1] Further, several studies have found that the department stores from which most telephone orders were placed frequently were not the telephone shoppers' favorite shopping store, suggesting that in-home selling services may attract customers from competing stores. In particular, discount store customers bought some items from department stores by phone since discount stores did not offer telephone shopping.[2] It should be pointed out, however, that frequent store shoppers may just as likely be substituting their in-home purchases for store sales; in fact, a store's in-home "plus" sales most logically should come from shoppers who have little other occasion to shop in the store.

The question as to whether in-home shopping sources are also favorite retail stores deserves further consideration; Sears or Wards retail stores, for example, include catalog counters offering thousands of items in their

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[1]Rich, Shopping Behavior of Department Store Customers, p. 79; Bell System, A Survey of Shopping, p. 10.

[2]Rich, Shopping Behavior of Department Store Customers, p. 226.

catalogs that are identical to store merchandise, and at lower prices. Shoppers often inspect the floor merchandise, then order it from the catalog. But while stores offering in-home shopping undoubtedly lose some store sales to their phone or mail customers, stores which do not offer in-home shopping services will lose in-home sales to competing firms.

The research findings offer a number of suggestions for merchandisers interested in identifying the in-home market. First, it should be remembered that in-home buyers, particularly those spending above-average amounts by mail or phone, are active store shoppers who are no less inclined to consider the store shopping process as difficult or unpleasant than are any other shoppers. The intensive in-home buyer, however, is particularly concerned with shopping convenience, and more aware than other women of the availability of useful in-home shopping alternatives under those circumstances in which store shopping is relatively less convenient or more expensive than buying at home. Further, the convenience-oriented shopper is quite likely to consider all three alternatives examined in the study--telephone ordering from retail stores, catalog buying from catalog counters or catalog stores, and direct mail--when faced with a purchase decision. And she is not always motivated by convenience; low price and particularly attractive merchandise trigger many in-home purchases.

Marketers who wish to identify the heaviest-spending in-home buyers for purposes of catalog distribution, merchandise selection, promotion and other merchandising tasks should consider the summary of socioeconomic and demographic characteristics found to be associated most frequently with in-home buyers spending above the sample mean (p. 189). The summary shows that the best prospects for in-home buying have high family incomes, particularly above $15,000. They are above-average in education, and tend to be under forty years of age. Other clues for market segmentation are the high propensity to own and use several retail store charge accounts and bank and gasoline credit cards. In-home buyers charge their purchases, and are heavy users of instalment credit. Out-of-town newspaper subscriptions are a good predictor, as are three or more telephone installations in the home. Multiple catalog ownership is a useful indicator of in-home buying intensity, particularly of catalog spending, as would be expected, but is not an especially good predictor of telephone or even direct mail buying propensity. Many catalog buyers owned and shopped from more than one general merchandise catalog, suggesting that present catalog customers are not tied to one major catalog supplier but remain excellent prospects for catalog distribution. The retail store management seeking to delineate intensive in-home buyers should consider their

present charge customers for in-home promotion efforts. In addition, charge account applications could be screened to indicate multiple ownership of other charge accounts, family income level and other pertinent information for delineation purposes.

Although the marketing literature often suggests that shoppers locked-in at home or at work are unusually good prospects for in-home buying, the present findings indicate that marketers may have difficulty identifying the locked-in segment of the in-home market. The following demographic variables selected to identify potential locked-in shopping are not useful predictors of in-home buying intensity in the Grand Rapids sample: shopper employment status, stage of family life cycle, shopper age, driving time to stores, availability of public and private transportation. The in-home merchandiser thus should not assume that the working wife automatically will be a good prospect for in-home shopping because she has fewer non-working hours for shopping than do many other women. Employed women in fact claim they seldom experience any shopping difficulties because of their job. Likewise, women with preschool children should be logical choices for in-home buying, as are elderly shoppers who find the store shopping process difficult. But again, life cycle is not useful in delineating the in-home market segment.

Perhaps urban shoppers who live long distances from stores are good prospects for in-home shopping; the Grand Rapids sample was uniformly close to major shopping areas, and driving times were too short to pose a shopping difficulty. It is suggested that these demographic measures of environmental factors might be more valid measures of store shopping inconvenience in much larger cities or in metropolitan areas less well served by urban freeway systems. But to the extent that the Grand Rapids area and its residents are typical of other urban markets, the present study has shown that the presumed "locked-in shopper" types find store shopping surprisingly convenient.

While store shopping barriers are not the major reason for buying at home, the research found that many catalog and phone orders result from locked-in shopping circumstances. Illness in the family, bad weather, and unexpected or temporary lack of transportation all cause cancellation of planned shopping trips which sometimes lead to in-home purchases. Since these events are likely to occur randomly among all types of shopper families, the marketer faces the unrealistic task of delineating in-home markets without useful predictor variables.

Although the in-home merchandiser may not be able to effectively identify locked-in shoppers, the firm should explore the possibility of using a reminder advertising campaign to promote the convenience of the

telephone as a locked-in shopping alternative. Timely reminder advertising aimed at broad general merchandise markets might reduce the high proportion of cancelled or postponed purchases that all buyers face when they cannot get to stores.

Firms selling specific types of products will of course need to segment their markets by product line; buyers' decisions concerning sources of supply and in-home versus store shopping methods are generally subordinate to the product decision. But in the absence of precise information on the consumer's product needs, a basic guideline from the research findings is that the seller of wide merchandise lines should avoid segmenting his in-home markets too narrowly in terms of their socioeconomic and demographic characteristics. While the intensive mail or telephone shopper, especially the multiple in-home shopper, is usually above-average in socioeconomic status, the in-home market will include a significant proportion of all types of customers.

The fairly broad appeal of in-home buying reflects the fact that the in-home buyer is basically a frequent store shopper who buys at home under particular circumstances; some order by phone to avoid an extra shopping trip to pick up an item forgotten on the last shopping trip; others need a single gift item, or are ordering a sale item on impulse after reading a newspaper ad or

receiving a telephone call from a retail salesclerk. Many in-home sales result from decisions to buy after comparison shopping in stores. Other in-home purchase decisions are less transitory; many catalog shoppers believe they cannot beat catalog prices, and are willing to forgo personal inspection of the merchandise to save the extra money.

The motivations for buying at home are many, and often reflect transitory environmental circumstances more than basically different attitudes concerning the importance of shopping or the pain or pleasure it entails. Marketers should recognize that in-home shopping services offer solutions for shoppers facing a wide variety of environmental and personal circumstances, by providing a wide variety of product, price and service alternatives. Too narrow segmentation, whether for catalog distribution purposes, designing in-home promotions, selecting merchandise for in-home selling or media for advertising and soliciting in-home orders can lose potential sales.

Firms interested in merchandising to the in-home market should not underestimate the high quality of products that can and have been sold this way, even through general merchandise catalogs. The successful entry of many higher-status department and specialty stores into the catalog market in recent years evidences the interest among shoppers from higher socioeconomic levels in the

type of products they also seek in retail stores. While the perceived risk of buying expensive merchandise, particularly style clothing and furniture, by mail or phone is a definite deterrent for many women, the risk varies widely with the shoppers' previous experiences with the merchandise, the firm, and with in-home shopping.

Comparative studies of telephone shopping in various cities have concluded that retailers' in-home selling policies are a major factor in the growth of telephone selling; cities in which telephone selling was actively supported and encouraged by department store management showed much higher telephone sales than cities where telephone ordering was only passively accepted by store executives. For the in-home merchandiser, the implication for his promotion policies is obvious; achieving successful sales and profits will require active promotion of all phases of in-home merchandising. Since in-home buying is typically a discretionary decision, the demand for in-home shopping services is in effect quite elastic. If the shopping costs are high, little in-home buying will result. In-home sellers can increase demand for in-home services by promoting the convenience and ease of shopping at home, and by minimizing the risk of ordering the wrong items by careful descriptions of merchandise, complete and easily understood instructions

on how to order merchandise at home, and so on. The multiple nature of in-home buying motivations also means that in-home sellers should not limit their promotional efforts to convenience factors alone. Enhancing the quality image of merchandise, careful attention to prices, and promoting the overall image of the firm are all necessary. The more "traditional" shoppers who concentrate their purchases with retail stores frequently generalize their dissatisfaction or apprehension with some aspect of in-home buying to a wide range of shopping features, compounding the in-home merchandiser's image problem.

Several more specific recommendations for promoting in-home buying are suggested by the findings:

(1) In-home shopping gains few customers by retail store default, as implied by the fact that intensive in-home buyers are among the better store customers, enjoy store shopping, and are no less bothered by store shopping inconveniences than store-only shoopers. Thus promotional appeals aimed at avoiding the unpleasantness of store shopping are not likely to be effective, since most buyers would selectively reject the messages.

(2) For the many unscheduled and relatively infrequent in-home purchases, a promotional campaign of reminder advertising would help insure awareness of the advantages of buying at home close to the critical shopping decision period.

(3) There is good reason to assume that much of in-home shopping's image weakness lies in the high perceived risk of ordering merchandise at home, rather than in strong beliefs that in-home sources offer inferior merchandise or customer services. The customer's perceived risk in getting what she wants by mail or phone must be reduced. Descriptive and truthful advertising can play a major role in risk reduction. Also, stores can improve the efficiency of telephone ordering and increase the customer's confidence in obtaining the merchandise she is trying to order by improving the manner in which telephone contacts are handled.

(4) Merchandise catalogs can serve multiple purposes for retail stores. Besides vehicles for generating catalog sales, they can be successfully used to draw store traffic. Some department stores issue catalogs primarily for store promotion.

(5) Finally, the significant relationship between in-home shopping experience and the competitive ratings given in-home merchandise and services suggests strongly that a large segment of the buying population is not aware of in-home buying advantages. While attitude change through promotional efforts is difficult to accomplish, an obviously large potential market segment remains to be convinced of the benefits of in-home buying.

In-home buying, particularly telephone ordering, is generally considered as the most convenient method of buying available to shoppers. But in-home buying is not necessarily convenient; in fact, over 10 per cent of all respondents who did not buy by catalog or phone thought that these shopping methods were less convenient than shopping in stores. The responses may reflect to some extent the easy access to stores in the Grand Rapids area, but the fact remains that in-home retailing is limited by the extent to which it satisfies the high convenience demands of its customers. The research findings concerning the attitudes and shopping characteristics of the intensive in-home buyer suggest several ways in which in-home merchandisers can more effectively serve their customers:

(1) Charge accounts and installment buying are a "must." In-home buyers are especially heavy users of these services.

(2) Catalog buyers are relatively more interested in price and less concerned with shopping conveniences than are shoppers ordering by phone from local stores. While the differences undoubtedly reflect the traditional merchandising strategies and comparative marketing strengths of catalog firms versus local full-service retailers, the burden of proof should rest on adding costly services, in the case of catalog firms, or in

reducing services for price advantages, in the case of department stores selling by phone.

(3) Fast, efficient delivery of merchandise or prompt customer pick-up service should be stressed. Convenience advantages of buying at home are easily lost if any one service area is perceived as inconvenient.

(4) In-home buyers frequently make buying decisions outside normal store shopping hours. Since in-home sellers are competing directly with retail stores for general merchandise orders, flexible telephone shopping via extensive phone ordering service offers impulse buying advantages which stores cannot match. The experience of Sears with twenty-four-hour and weekend telephone ordering in larger cities apparently confirms the assumption that shoppers will take advantage of extended shopping hours.

Summary

While the in-home buyer proved to be rather elusive to pin down in terms of traditional environmental or life style characteristics thought to be associated with more or less locked-in shopping conditions, an intensive in-home buyer can be fairly effectively identified in terms of socioeconomic status and certain proxy measures of convenience-orientation. The intensive in-home buyer is a frequent store shopper, but also one with the

confidence and experience necessary to seek out and use several other shopping alternatives to solve a wide range of individual shopping problems. She enjoys store shopping and is typically not a "captive" in-home buyer by either retail store default in providing shopping conveniences, or by necessity because she cannot get to stores. A more "traditional" shopper, somewhat older and lower in socio-economic status, buys little at home and finds in-home shopping sources generally inferior to retail stores over a wide range of merchandise, price and shopping service features.

Some general implications of the findings are that in-home merchandisers whose market offerings match the needs of a higher-income, convenience-oriented market segment is competing directly with stores as well as other in-home sellers for largely discretionary purchases. Accordingly, the in-home seller needs to develop comprehensive merchandising programs and actively promote in-home selling. Among the market of experienced in-home buyers, inefficient selling services present more serious barriers to success than the perceived risk involved in buying certain merchandise without personal inspection.

Suggested Areas for Further Research

The following section provides guidelines in undertaking further research on the in-home buyer and suggests

several methods for extending the present research to delineate and explain the motivations of the in-home market.

(1) Since the present exploratory study utilized a quota sample of female shoppers from a single metropolitan area, generalizations are limited to the sample itself. It would appear useful in future research to use larger samples so that various segments--for example, heavy spending in-home buyers--could be broken out for more intensive analysis. The present findings are also restricted to urban areas relatively close to both downtown and suburban shopping. Since there is some evidence that suburban and urban fringe area residents differ from urban residents with respect to in-home shopping, it would be useful to compare all residential types in a metropolitan area. A more complete cross-section analysis should also include several metropolitan areas featuring different shopping environments. Differences in the retail store mix, store hours and policies toward in-home selling, availability of telephone shopping, and extent of suburban shopping are only a few environmental factors which may produce variance in shopper attitudes and buyer habits. Cross-sectional surveys which compared different metropolitan shopping environments would help isolate environment effects on in-home buying.

(2) Longitudinal analysis would allow researchers to investigate shopping behavior changes over time as urban environments evolve. In the Grand Rapids metropolitan area, for example, two large suburban shopping centers were under construction during the interviewing period. One of the shopping centers is today dominated by a large Sears retail store. What effect would the emergence of a major new retailing area have on telephone and catalog shopping in Grand Rapids? Periodic investigations over time using consumer panels would help provide such answers.

(3) The nature and extent of "locked-in" shopping conditions and their effect on buying at home need to be more thoroughly investigated. Research has not yet established a definite link between locked-in shopping circumstances and the tendency to buy at home. The Bell Telephone study found that significant numbers of shoppers are locked-in away from department stores on any given shopping day, but provided no data on their in-home buying behavior. By comparison, few Grand Rapids shoppers were found to be locked-in more or less permanently away from stores, and these women were no more likely to buy at home than shoppers who did not face store shopping barriers. Yet the research also found that some catalog and telephone buying was triggered by store shopping difficulties. Further attention needs to

be directed toward the questions of just what factors are important barriers to store shopping, to what extent do these barriers differ among urban environments, and under what circumstances will shoppers turn to catalog, telephone, and direct mail ordering when faced with store shopping barriers.

Samples of in-home shoppers large enough to allow multivariate techniques of statistical analysis could prove useful in isolating shopper patterns more precisely than is possible with bivariate analysis. For example, it may be that within certain family income levels, wives with two or more children, who live in suburbs and work part-time away from shopping are highly likely to spend heavily at home. Multivariate techniques would allow the possibility of examining the more subtle inter-relationships among factors that may lead to better and more specific hypotheses, and delineate more precise market segments.

(4) Research on shopper attitudes suggested that heavy spending in-home buyers hold different images of in-home sources versus stores on a variety of shopping convenience features, merchandise, and shopping service factors. It would seem potentially useful for marketers to explore shopper images more fully. For example, how extensively and accurately do shopper images reflect actual competitive differences among the two types of

shopping? And to what extent are the different images reflecting different attitudes toward the in-home shopping process itself, versus shopper perceptions of the particular firms which sell at home, or of their products and services, or of their customers?

The attitude measures tested in the research were generally not effective in delineating heavy-spending in-home buyers. There is reason to assume, however, that consumer attitude, image, and motivation research offer much potential for understanding buying behavior. It is suggested, for example, that in-home spending patterns of Negroes compared with whites may reflect differences in perceived risk, preferences for neighborhood shopping, brand-consciousness, or social aspects of shopping. In order to compare different shopper types on attitude differences, larger samples will be needed. More intensive attitude research will demand more complex and subtle test instruments, pretested for reliability and validity.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PERSONAL INTERVIEW SCHEDULE, RECALL CHARTS AND TELEPHONE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

C. B.____ Time ____
C. B.____ Time____
Completed

SHOPPING HABITS STUDY

Case No. _____

Date of Int. _____ Time Interview Began _____

Good morning/afternoon/evening. My name is_____and I'm interviewing for a business research study at Michigan State University. We are conducting a survey among housewives of their shopping habits and I would like to talk with you a few minutes if I may.

First, a few questions about your shopping in stores that sell general merchandise, stores like Wurzburg's, Sears, Steketee's or Yankees.

1. Do you have any charge or credit accounts at any stores in the Grand Rapids area?

   Yes ☐ No ☐ In which stores? _____

   _____ _____

   _____ _____

   _____ _____

2. Do you have any charge or credit accounts at stores in other cities or towns?

   Yes ☐ No ☐ In which stores? Cities?

   _____ _____

   _____ _____

   _____ _____

3. How many times per month do you go to stores to shop for <u>general merchandise</u>, such as clothing, home furnishings, furniture and appliances, items you would find in department stores?

   Times per month _____

4. The <u>last</u> time you went shopping for general merchandise, did anyone accompany you?

   Yes ☐ No ☐

5. (IF YES) With whom did you go shopping?

   (READ) Friends ( ) Mother ( )

   Husband ( ) Other relatives ( )

   Children ( )

6. How long does it usually take you to get from your home to your favorite general merchandise stores?

(READ)

Less than 10 minutes	( )	½ to 1 hour	( )
10 to 20 minutes	( )	1 hr. or more	( )
20 min. to ½ hour	( )	Don't know	( )

7. Sometimes a difficulty arises so that you can't get to the stores to get something you want. Which <u>one</u> of these statements best describes what you would do when this happens?

(CARD 1) A_____ B_____ C_____ D_____ E_____ F_____

8. (a) (CARD 2)

Which of this year's general merchandise catalogs do you have in your home?

	Yes	No	
Sears	☐	☐	(P) Others _____
Montgomery Ward	☐	☐	_____
Spiegel	☐	☐	_____
J. C. Penney	☐	☐	_____
Alden's	☐	☐	_____

(b) How about supplementary catalog issues from these (above) companies, like sale catalogs or Christmas catalogs?

(NAME) _____ _____ _____

_____ _____ _____

(ALL RESPONDENTS)

9. Do you have any current gift or specialty catalogs in you home, such as, Spencer's, Sunset House, etc.? Yes ☐ No ☐

Which ones? _____ _____ _____

_____ _____ _____

SECTION A (ASK ALL RESPONDENTS)

Now a few questions about buying from catalogs like Sears or Wards, the catalogs listed on Card 2. We are concerned here only with purchases of general merchandise from catalogs, not merchandise you may have purchased from stock at the retail store, such as, Sears, Wards, Penney's. To get catalog merchandise you must place an order through the catalog.

10. Have you purchased through any of the mail order catalogs since January 1st of this year? Yes ☐ No ☐

(IF NO) Why not? _____

(Go to Section B)

11. Have you made any catalog purchases, since January 1st, 1967, from ---

	Yes	No
Sears	☐	☐
Wards	☐	☐
Spiegel	☐	☐
Penney	☐	☐
Alden	☐	☐
Other	☐	☐

	(Sears)		(Wards)		(Spiegel)		(Penney)		(Alden)		(Other)	
	No.	Amt.	No.	Amt.	No.	Amt.	No.	Amt.	No.	Amt.	No.	Amt.
By mailing in an order from home												
By phoning in a catalog order												
By ordering at the desk of retail store					X	X						
By ordering at a catalog store, that is, a store taking only catalog orders												

(FOR RESPONDENTS WHO HAVE SHOPPED BY CATALOG THIS YEAR)

12. Now, consider the last time you shopped from a catalog this year. What did you order?

_____ _____ _____

_____ _____ _____

13. What catalog did you order from? (NAME) _____

14. Approximately how long ago was this? _____

15. What was the total cost of your order? $ _____

16. Did you charge it or pay by check or cash? (Charge) ☐ (Check or cash) ☐

17. How did you happen to decide to order from a catalog rather than going to a store in person?

_____

_____

_____

SECTION B

18. Have you shopped by telephone from any department, clothing or other stores selling general merchandise, since January 1st, 1967?

Yes_____ No____ (IF NO) Why not?_____

_____

_____

(Go to Section C)

19. How often have you shopped by phone for clothing, home furnishings or other general merchandise, during the past year? How many times per --

Week☐ Month☐ Year☐

20. (a) About what percent of your totatl shopping for general merchandise items is done by telephone?_____%

(b) Approximately how much have you spent on these orders? $_____

21. Now, consider the last time you shopped from a store by phone. What did you order? _____ _____ _____

_____ _____ _____

22. From what store did you order by phone? (NAME) _____

23. Approximately how long a go was this?_____

24. What was the total cost of this phone order? $_____

25. Did you charge it or pay by check or cash? (Charge)☐ (Check or Cash)☐

26. How did you happen to decide to order from the store by phone instead of going to the store?_____

_____

_____

SECTION C

27. Have you shopped by mail from any department, clothing or other stores selling general merchandise, since January 1st, 1967?

Yes_____ No_____ (IF NO) Why not? _____

_____

_____

(Go to Section D)

28. How often have you shopped from stores by mail during the past year? How many per -- Week☐ Month☐ Year☐

29. About what percent of your total shopping for general merchandise items is done by mail?_____%

30. Now, consider the last time you shopped from a store by mail? What did you order? _____ _____ _____

_____ _____ _____

31. From what store did you order by mail? (NAME)_____

32. Approximately how long ago was this? _____

33. What was the total cost of this mail order? $_____

34. Did you charge it or pay by check or cash? (Charge)☐ (Check or cash)☐

35. How did you happen to decide to order by mail from this store rather than going to the store in person? _____

_____

_____

SECTION D

You can buy by mail from a lot of sources besides large catalogs or from local stores. For example, you might receive by mail such things as gift or specialty item catalogs, or special offers enclosed in bills from gasoline companies, or other ads or circulars asking you to send for something. Or, you could answer ads in magazines, newspapers, on T V or radio by sending in for general merchandise items.

36. Have you or any member of your family ordered any of the following items by mail, this year, from any of these sources?

	Yes	No	Amt. spent this year
membership in book or record clubs	( )	( )	( )
kitchen specialty items or appliances	( )	( )	( )
clothing or shoes	( )	( )	( )
outdoor or recreation equipment (sporting goods, etc.)	( )	( )	( )
film processing (by mail)	( )	( )	( )
gift and novelty items	( )	( )	( )
gift fruit, cheese, or special food products	( )	( )	( )
other (specify) _____	( )	( )	( )
_____			( )
_____			( )
_____			( )

37. Are you employed outside the home? Yes ☐ No ☐

38. Do you have children living at home? Yes ☐ No ☐

39. Have you used an automobile for shopping in the Grand Rapids area this year? Yes ☐ NO ☐

(CARD 3)

We would like to get your opinions on certain shopping conditions and different kinds of shopping. For each statement I read, please tell me the letter of the one that best describes your feelings. There aren't any right or wrong answers, it's just your opinion that we're looking for.

	Practically impossible (A)	Extremely difficult (B)	Difficult (C)	Slightly difficulty (D)	No trouble at all (E)
40. My situation is such that for me to get to an adequate shopping center or downtown is:	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
41. My hours available to shop are such that for me to get downtown or to a shopping center is:	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
42. My transportation is such that for me to get downtown or to a shopping center is:	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
43. The distance from my home to the stores I like to shop in around here is such that getting to them as often as I'd like is:	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

(ASK ONLY IF RESPONDENT IS EMPLOYED OUTSIDE THE HOME)

44. My job is such that for me to go shopping for items other than food is:	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

(ASK ONLY IF RESPONDENT HAS CHILDREN LIVING AT HOME)

45. My situation with children at home is such that for me to go shopping for clothes, furniture, etc. is:	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

(ASK NEXT TWO QUESTIONS ONLY IF ANSWER TO AUTOMOBILE USE IS "YES")

46. When I drive to go shopping, I find the traffic is:	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
47. When I go shopping by car, finding a place to park is:					
(Downtown)	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
(Shopping Center)	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

(ASK QUESTION # 48 IF PREVIOUS TWO QUESTIONS ON "DRIVING" WERE ASKED)

(CARD 4)

	Strongly agree (A)	Agree (B)	Undecided (C)	Disagree (D)	Strongly disagree (E)
48. As far as I'm concerned, the cost of parking downtown matters very much.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
49. Shopping in shopping centers, downtown, or in other stores is a pleasant change from everyday routine.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
50. When I go shopping in stores downtown or in shopping centers, I find the amount of walking is altogether too much.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
51. I go shopping in stores around here only when I cannot avoid it.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
52. When I want to go shopping for such things as clothing and furniture, the time it takes me matters very much.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
53. It really isn't necessary for me to look at furniture and home furnishings in stores before buying them.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
54. It really isn't necessary for me to see and try on clothing before I buy it.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
55. Before buying things at home by catalog or phone order, I need to see and compare them.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
56. I find that waiting for assistance from a salesclerk is very difficult and inconvenient.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
57. I find that waiting in line to pay for something is very difficult and inconvenient.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
58. I find that carrying packages while shopping is very difficult and inconvenient.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

(CARD 5)

	Hate them (A)	Dislike them (B)	Am in no way affected by them (C)	Like them (D)	Like them very much (E)
59. With regard to crowds when I shop, I can truly say that I:	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
60. With regard to the hustle and bustle downtown and in shopping centers, I can truly say that I:	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

(CARD 6)

For each of the next few statements I read, please tell me which you think has the advantage, shopping at home, or, shopping in stores. There are three other answer choices that may better describe your opinion.

(REPEAT FOR EACH QUESTION)

		(A) At home	(B) In store	(C) No diff.	(D) Unded.	(E) Doesn't matter
61.	I can get better delivery service	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
62.	Easier for me to return and exchange goods	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
63.	I can find a greater variety of styles and sizes	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
64.	I can find better bargain sales	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
65.	I can find better quality merchandise	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
66.	I find lower prices	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
67.	Shopping is more convenient for me	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
68.	I can get more dependable guarantees	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
69.	Less time-consuming for me	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
70.	Gives more information about what I'm buying	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
71.	I don't have to return merchandise as often	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
72.	Get more value for my money	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
73.	More enjoyable shopping	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
74.	Less tiring for me	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

(DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIOECONOMIC)

1. How many telephones are in your home? (CIRCLE) 0 1 2 3 (or more)

2. Do you subscribe to a Grand Rapids area newspaper? Yes☐ No☐
   Weekly ( ) Sunday ( ) Both ( )

3. Do you subscribe to any out-of-town newspapers? Yes☐ No☐

   Which ones? _____

   _____

   _____

4. Do you or other family members subscribe to any magazines, not including business or professional magazines? Yes☐ No☐

   Which magazines? (LIST) _____ _____ _____

   _____ _____ _____ _____

   _____ _____ _____ _____

5. Do you regularly purchase any other magazines? Yes☐ No☐

   Which ones? (LIST) _____ _____ _____

   _____ _____ _____ _____

6. Do you have a home freezer? Yes☐ No☐

7. Do you have a sewing machine in your home? Yes☐ No☐

8. Do you or anyone else in your family have any hotel, bank, restaurant, gasoline or other credit cards? Yes☐ No☐

   (NAME) _____ _____ _____ _____

   _____ _____ _____ _____

9. How many automobiles does the family have? (CIRCLE) 0 1 2 3 4 (or more)
   (IF "0", GO TO Q. 12)

10. Can you drive a car? Yes☐ No☐

11. Do you have use of a car during the day or evening? Yes☐ No☐

12. How many blocks is this residence from the nearest bus stop?

    (CIRCLE) 0 1 2 3 4 5 (or more) Don't know ( )

13. About what percent of the time do you use the bus to go shopping? _____ (%)

We would like some general information about your family.

14. Do you own or rent your home? Own ( ) Rent ( ) Other _____ (Specify)

(Single dwelling_____ Multi-unit___)

15. How long have you lived at this address?

More than 5 yrs. ( ) 1 to 5 yrs. ( ) Less than 1 yr. ( ) (IF LESS)

Where did you last move from? _____ (City) (State)

16. What is your marital status?

Married ( ) Single ( ) Divorced ( ) Widowed ( ) Sep. ( )

17. (IF MARRIED) How long have you been married?_____years

18. Do you have any children living at home? Yes☐ No☐ (Go to Q. 19)

(CIRCLE)

(IF YES) How many children of preschool age? (under 5 years old?) 0 1 2 3 4 5

How mnay children of grade school age? 0 1 2 3 4 5

How many of high school age? 0 1 2 3 4 5

How many over 18? 0 1 2 3 4 5

19. How many children not living at home? 0 1 2 3 4 5

20. How many people, including yourself, live at this address? (NUMBER) _____

21. Please tell me the last grade you completed in school. _____ (Wife)

(other than technical) _____ (Husband)

22. Who is the chief wage earner in this family? (Husband) ( ) (Wife) ( )
Other (specify) _____

23. What is his (her) occupation at the present time? _____

24. Are you employed outside the home? Yes☐ No☐ (Go to Q. 30)

25. Do you work more or less than 40 hours per week Yes☐ No☐
Less than 40 ( ) More than 40 ( )

26. Are you employed more or less than 48 weeks a year? Yes☐ No☐
Less than 48 ( ) More than 48 ( )

27. What are your usual working hours?
Morning ( ) Afternoon ( ) Eve. ( ) Night ( )
Other (specify) _____

28. Who do you work for? _____

29. In what area of the city is your employer located?_____

(CARD 7)

30. Into which of the following brackets would you say your (combined) family income would fall? A_____ B_____ C_____ D_____ E_____(est.)_____(ref.)_____

31. How many in the family contribute to this income? (NUMBER) _____

(CARD 8)

32. Which of the following brackets best describes your age? ( )(Wife) (ref.)

( ) (Husband) (ref.)

So that my office can check in case I've made any mistakes, what is your name?

(NAME) _____

(ADDRESS) _____

(PHONE) _____

(TIME INTERVIEW COMPLETED) _____

(INTERVIEWER) _____

W ( )
non-W ( )

Interview Response Cards

CARD 1

What Respondent Would Do When Locked In At Home

(A) Ask someone else to get what you want

(B) Pick up what you want from a local neighborhood store

(C) Telephone for what you want

(D) Do without it

(E) Postpone getting it until you can get out for a regular shopping trip

(F) Order by mail

CARD 2

Catalogs Currently in Home

Sears

Montgomery Ward

Spiegel

J. C. Penney

Alden's

Other

CARD 3

Attitude Responses 1-9

(A) Practically impossible

(B) Extremely difficult

(C) Difficult

(D) Slightly difficult

(E) No trouble at all

CARD 4

Attitude Responses 10-20

(A) Strongly agree
(B) Agree
(C) Undecided
(D) Disagree
(E) Strongly disagree

CARD 5

Attitude Responses 21-22

(A) Hate them
(B) Dislike them
(C) Am in no way affected by them
(D) Like them
(E) Like them very much

CARD 6

Responses to Attitude Scale III

(A) At home
(B) In store
(C) No difference
(D) Undecided
(E) Doesn't matter

CARD 7

Family Income Levels

(A) $0 to $3,999
(B) $4,000 to $6,999
(C) $7,000 to $9,999
(D) $10,000 to $14,999
(E) Over $15,000

CARD 8

Shopper Age Categories

(A) 20 to 29
(B) 30 to 39
(C) 40 to 49
(D) 50 to 59
(E) 60 to 69
(F) Over 70

Telephone Interview Schedule

Case No._____ Completed_____

Name_____ Date_____

Address_____

Phone_____

Hello. My name is _____ and I'm interviewing for a business research study at Michigan State University. We are conducting a telephone survey of housewives' shopping habits and I would like to talk with the housewife for a few minutes. Throughout the interview we'll be discussing only general merchandise, such as clothing, furniture and appliances . . . not food.

1. How many times per month do you go to stores to shop for general merchandise, such as clothing, home furnishings, furniture and appliances, items you would find in department stores?

   Times per month_____

2. Which of this year's general merchandise catalogs do you have in your home? (READ)

	Yes	No
Sears, Roebuck?	___	___
Montgomery Ward?	___	___
Spiegel?	___	___
J. C. Penney?	___	___
Alden's?	___	___

   Any others?_____
   _____
   _____

   How about supplementary catalog issues from these companies, like sale catalogs or Christmas catalogs?

   _____ _____ _____

3. Do you have any current gift or specialty catalogs in your home, such as Spencer's, Sunset House, etc.?
   Yes_____ No_____

   Which ones?_____ _____
   _____

4. Have you purchased through any of the mail order catalogs since January 1st of this year?
Yes_____ No_____

(IF YES) Approximately how much have you spent this year on catalog orders? $_____

5. Have you shopped by telephone from any department, clothing or other stores selling general merchandise, since January 1st?
Yes_____ No_____

(IF YES) Approximately how much have you spent this year on these telephone orders? $_____

6. Can you drive a car? Yes_____ No_____

7. Do you have use of a car during the day or evening?
Yes_____ No_____

8. What is your marital status?
Married_____ Single_____ Divorced_____
Widowed_____ Separated_____

(IF MARRIED) How long have you been married?
Years_____

9. Do you have any children living at home?
Yes_____ No_____

(IF YES) How many children of preschool age? (Under 5 yrs.)

0 1 2 3 4 5

10. What is the occupation of the household head at the present time?_____

11. Are you employed outside the home? Yes_____ No_____

(IF YES) Do you work 40 hours or more, or less than 40?
40 or more_____ less than 40 _____

Is it a permanent job, or one just for the holiday season?
permanent_____ holiday_____

12. What is the age of the household head? Years_____

13. Male_____ Female_____ (RESPONDENT)

Estimated family income_____
(letter)

APPENDIX B

SOCIOECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS AND IN-HOME SPENDING BEHAVIOR OF RESPONDENTS INTERVIEWED BY TELEPHONE

Socioeconomic Characteristics and In-Home Spending Behavior of Respondents Interviewed by Telephone

In order to obtain information on sample households in which the eligible female respondent could not be reached at home by personal contact, a brief telephone interview schedule was constructed and administered to a sample of eligible addresses. The sample represented households in which the eligible female respondent was not at home on the initial interview attempt and on the two followup attempts to secure personal interviews.

The twenty telephone interviews yielded nineteen completed questionnaires from which the socioeconomic and in-home spending data are presented in summary tables below. Compared with the personal interview sample, shoppers interviewed by telephone were somewhat older, less likely to have preschool children, and more likely to be employed outside the home. Both samples were similar in catalog and telephone buying.

TABLE B.--Summary of socioeconomic characteristics and in-home spending behavior of telephone sample versus total sample.

	Telephone Sample		Total Sample
	n	%	%
Estimated Family Income			
$0-3,999	2	10.5	13.3
4,000-6,999	5	26.3	27.1
7,000-9,999	5	26.3	28.6
10,000-14,999	5	26.3	20.5
15,000 and over	2	10.5	10.5
Total	19	100.0	100.0
Employment Status of Respondent			
Not Employed	8	42.1	73.0
Employed Full-time	5	26.3	12.0
Employed Part-time	6	31.6	15.0
Total	19	100.0	100.0
Age of Household Head			
20-29	1	5.3	21.4
30-39	2	10.5	22.8
40-49	5	26.3	23.3
50-59	4	21.1	11.7
60-69	4	21.1	12.6
70 and over	3	15.8	8.3
Total	19	100.0	100.1
Have Preschool Children at Home			
Yes	1	5.3	34.0
No	18	94.7	66.0
Total	19	100.0	100.0

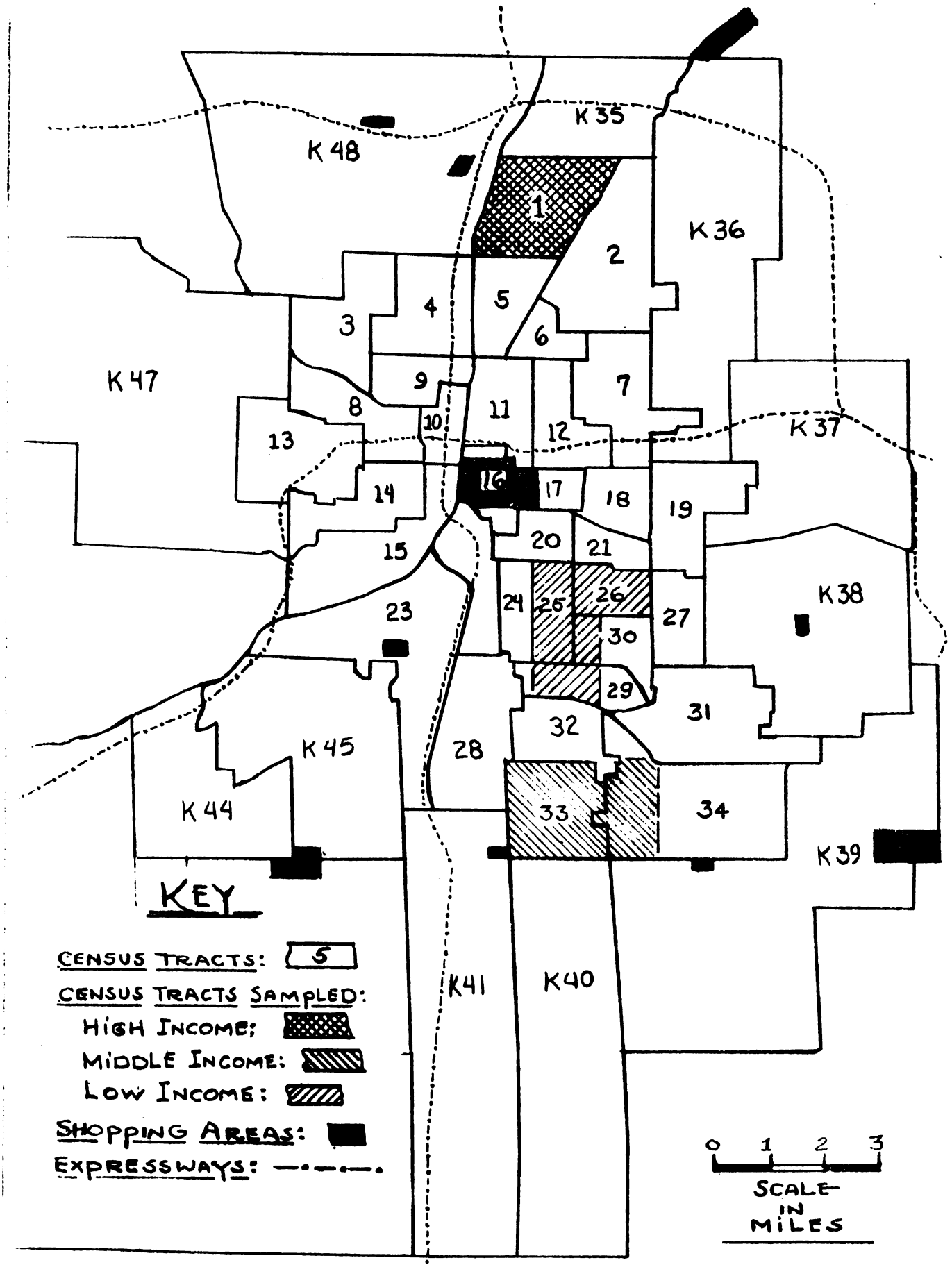
TABLE B.--Continued.

	Telephone Sample n	Telephone Sample %	Total Sample %
Dollars Spent by Catalog			
$0	13	68.4	71.0
1-14	1	5.3	7.0
15-29	2	10.5	7.0
30-59	1	5.3	6.0
60-119	1	5.3	7.0
120 and over	1	5.3	3.0
Total	19	100.0	101.0
Dollars Spent by Telephone			
$0	11	57.9	62.0
1-14	3	15.8	6.0
15-29	1	5.3	7.0
30-59	0	0.0	13.0
60-119	3	15.8	7.0
120 and over	1	5.3	5.0
Total	19	100.0	100.0
Number of General Merchandise Catalogs in Home			
0	11	57.9	47.4
1	6	31.6	32.9
2 or more	2	10.5	19.7
Total	19	100.0	100.0
Number of Specialty Catalogs in Home			
0	14	73.7	62.1
1	2	10.5	22.6
2 or more	3	15.8	15.3
Total	19	100.0	100.0

APPENDIX C

MAP OF GRAND RAPIDS CENSUS TRACT AREA, SHOWING RESIDENTIAL AREAS SAMPLED AND MAJOR SHOPPING LOCATIONS

MAP OF GRAND RAPIDS CENSUS TRACT AREA



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