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Professional women's catalog use and its relationships with their clothing involvement and lifestyle

Kim, Youn-Kyung, Ph.D.

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U·M·I
300 N. Zeeb Rd.
Ann Arbor, MI 48106

PROFESSIONAL WOMEN'S CATALOG USE AND ITS RELATIONSHIPS WITH THEIR CLOTHING INVOLVEMENT AND LIFESTYLE

by

Youn-Kyung Kim

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Betty L Feather
Dissertation Adviser

APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Dissertation Adviser _____

Committee Members _____

_____

_____

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A theoretical model was developed and tested which could be used to predict clothing catalog use by professional women employed as upper- or middle-management or educators. Survey questionnaires were mailed to a nationwide sample of 1,512 professional women who had used clothing catalogs. Questionnaires were returned by 601 (40.6%) and of those, 506 (34.2%) were usable. Consistent with the proposed model to predict catalog use: (1) consumers' demographic and lifestyle profiles with their involvement in specific clothing items were examined; (2) level of involvement with professional clothing versus nonprofessional clothing was tested; and (3) relationships were studied between involvement with specific clothing items and lifestyle.

The dependent variable, catalog use, was factored into three clothing categories ("street" clothes, "footwear," and "clothing for others"). Independent variables were composed of three measures: demographics, involvement, and lifestyle. Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) Involvement Profile was modified and used specifically for clothing items. The two selected items were "shoes for work" (professional clothing) perceived to be high in involvement and "casual clothes," (nonprofessional clothing) low in involvement. Facets of

involvement, Importance and Symbolic value, were evident for both professional and nonprofessional clothing; however, Hedonic value was evident only for nonprofessional clothing.

Light and heavy catalog shoppers were compared in terms of demographics, involvement, and lifestyle by each clothing category. Heavy users of "street" clothes were more likely to be not married, employed as upper- or middle-management rather than educator, and have higher personal and total incomes. They perceived more importance and symbolic value in "casual clothes." They were less price-conscious, yet used more credit cards. Heavy users of "footwear" had higher personal incomes, were more fashion-conscious, and had negative attitudes toward local shopping conditions. Heavy catalog users of "clothing for others" were more likely to be married, have children at home, and have higher total incomes.

No significant relationships existed between involvement and specific (professional and nonprofessional) clothing items. Nor were relationships significant between involvement and lifestyle.

Distinct market segments exist for specific clothing categories based on these findings. Lifestyle and involvement in clothing were and should be studied independently. This research revealed that involvement in clothing can best be studied in areas that contain freedom for expression rather than proscribed dress.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

Table | Page

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A growing percentage of consumers are buying merchandise in the home rather than at the retail store (Engel, Blackwell, & Miniard, 1986). This growth can be attributed to successful direct marketing such as mail-order purchasing, telephone shopping, direct in-home sales, and interactive video (Engel et al., 1986). Catalog purchasing, as one method of direct marketing, is represented by those who make purchases only from catalogs, not from direct mail or direct ads on radio/TV (Kono & Buatsi, 1984).

According to Schwartz (1986), direct purchases accounted for about 14% of the 1.4 trillion dollars in retail sales in 1985 and were predicted to increase up to one-third of all retail sales by 1995. More recently, the remarkable growth of the mail-order industry was noticed by Maxwell Sroge, president of Maxwell Sroge Publishing, a leading consultant to the mail-order industry:

> The total U.S. mail order business continues to grow at a substantial rate exceeding growth through traditional channels. Such consumer factors as totally employed households and working women are having a dramatic, positive effect on mail order marketing (Sroge & Highum, 1989).

The importance of catalog sales as a retail patronage mode increased during the 1970s (Lumpkin & Hawes, 1985). Previously, traditional stores were the primary distributors of retail products (Rosenberg & Hirschman, 1980). As Rosenberg and Hirschman noticed, nonstore retailing was hindered by the lack of adequate systems for displaying merchandise, payment and delivery of goods. According to the June 17, 1985 issue of Business Week, most mail-order shoppers rated the experience as fair to poor, rather than very good to excellent. Consumers were hesitant to purchase mail-order goods because of problems associated with returning merchandise (Mail-order shoppers, 1985). Lydon (1982) also mentioned consumers' hesitations to mail-order because they were not able to examine the merchandise at point of purchase.

Despite the problems consumers had with catalog shopping, catalog businesses grew at five times the rate of retail (Muldoon, 1984). The phenomenal growth of the mail-order catalog business resulted from several competitive, technological, marketing, and socioeconomic factors that occurred in the domestic economy. Competitive factors include inconvenient store hours, unsatisfactory in-store service, difficulty in parking, and the development of mail-order services by traditional retailers (Quelch & Takeuchi, 1981). Advances in transportation and communication systems are considered as technological factors for the growing

catalog business. Marketing factors include an increased integration of wholesaling and retailing, closer manufacturer-retailer relations, growth in the use of brand names and packaging, and proliferation of products (May, 1979). Quelch and Takeuchi (1981) mentioned such socioeconomic factors as a rising discretionary income, more women in the work force, more single households, growing percentage of older population, and growth of the "me" generation. In addition, they noted that mail-order business success was due to the rising cost of gasoline, the availability of WATTS 800 lines, expanded use of credit cards, and low cost of data processing via computerization. Among many different kinds of products purchased by mail, the largest purchase category is clothing and accessories ("Behavior and attitudes," 1987; "Mail-order shoppers," 1985). However, little research exists about in-home shopping behavior related to clothing (Shim & Drake, 1990).

Researchers (Seitz, 1987; Seitz & Massey, Jr., 1988; Shim & Drake, 1990; Smallwood & Wiener, 1987) who examined the profiles of clothing catalog shoppers indicated that those who tended to use more catalogs differ from the overall population. Those differences were explained by the variables of demographics (Seitz & Massey, Jr., 1988; Smallwood & Wiener, 1987), lifestyle (Seitz, 1987) and beliefs about and an attitude toward mail-order purchasing (Shim & Drake, 1990).

The amount and type of effort consumers put into shopping defines the level or type of involvement in consumer behavior theory (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985). The concept of involvement has been identified by numerous researchers as a useful variable in explaining consumer behavior (Bloch, 1981; Cohen, 1983; Higie & Feick, 1989; Laurent & Kapferer, 1985; Mitchell, 1979).

Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard (1982) postulated that retail patronage is dependent, to a great extent, on the level of consumer involvement. This relationship implies that consumer involvement affects the perceived retail store image which determines customer patronage behavior (Arora & Vaughn, 1980). Lumpkin and Hawes (1985) suggested that catalog shopping could be the selected retail patronage mode because the shopper can take as much time as needed to evaluate the described catalog products. In fact, Smallwood and Wiener (1987) found similarities between heavy retail store purchasers and heavy catalog purchasers in terms of fashion opinion leadership, clothing interest, importance of clothing attributes, and demographics. Therefore, it seems logical that a researcher could measure relationships between the level of consumer involvement and catalog usage.

Rationale and Purpose

Clothing has been identified as a major item purchased through catalogs (Behavior and attitudes, 1987; Mail-order shoppers, 1985). However, very little is known about "consumer involvement" in these purchases. Researchers have examined the demographic and lifestyle profile of catalog shoppers but have not attempted to examine internal motivating factors.

The research provides an understanding of consumers' motivation to use catalogs for clothing purchases and provides insights into target marketing strategies. These research findings could provide information for retailers to review and evaluate their marketing tactics. There could be successful catalog marketing techniques to be used in over-the-counter sales. Likewise for marketers who are contemplating entering or re-vitalizing their target markets, catalog sales could identify the type of product to market based on "involvement" strategies.

Objectives

This study is designed to investigate the following objectives.

1. To determine if a relationship exists between catalog use and specific demographics among professional women.

2. To ascertain if a relationship exists between catalog use and involvement in clothing and clothing purchases among professional women.
3. To ascertain if a relationship exists between catalog use and lifestyles of professional women.
4. To compare professional women's level of consumer involvement for perceived professional clothing items contrasted to nonprofessional clothing items.
5. To examine the strength of relationship between professional women's lifestyles and their consumer involvement in clothing and clothing purchases.

Assumptions

Investigating the relationship between catalog use and involvement is based on the acceptance of the following assumptions:

1. The mailing list which was purchased and used is a representative sample of the overall population of professional women who use catalogs to purchase clothing.
2. Respondents could understand and accurately interpret the questiontions asked.
3. Respondents provided their truthful opinions.
4. The Lifestyle Profile and Involvement Measures are appropriate and valid instruments to measure respondents' ways of life and their perceived

involvement.

Limitations of the Study

The scope of this study is limited by the following factors:

1. The sample is limited to female professional consumers whose names were part of a nationwide mailing list.
2. Professional occupations are very homogeneous with only three categories: upper-management (e.g., executive of a corporation, administrator, business owner), middle-management (e.g., manager, administrative assistant, supervisor), and educators (e.g., professor, teacher).
3. Examination of catalog use is limited to women's clothing items.
4. Investigation of the level of consumer involvement is limited to two clothing items, "shoes for work" and "casual clothes."

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

In Chapter 2, the theoretical framework of this proposed study is introduced. In the second section, the related literature on consumer involvement is reviewed under the subheadings of uses of the concept and antecedents and consequences of involvement. A third major section entitled catalog shopping is divided into demographics and lifestyles of catalog shoppers. Additional study was done on the market for professional women. In the final section, specific studies related to clothing catalog shoppers and involvement are reviewed.

Theoretical Framework

Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) "Involvement Profile" is the theoretical framework used for this study. These consumer behaviorists noted that involvement theorists had been predicting consumer behavior only with the level of involvement on a high/low basis. Laurent and Kapferer defined involvement as a motivation factor that is used to predict consequences of consumers' purchase and communication behavior by means of types of involvement as well as levels of involvement.

The roots of involvement theory proposed by Laurent and Kapferer can be traced to social psychology and semiology. In their early work on ego-involvement, Sherif and Cantril (1947) noticed that an individual is said to be "involved" when ego attitudes are present. They described ego-involved attitudes as "attitudes that have been learned, largely as social values; that the individual identifies himself with and makes a part of himself; and that have affective properties of varying degrees of intensity" (pp. 126-127). This "ego involvement" centered on the personal and emotional nature of involvement.

There has been widespread agreement that involvement related to the personal relevance of a message. Sherif and Hovland (1961) argued that high involvement occurs when the message under consideration has "intrinsic importance" to the recipient. Hupfer and Gardner (1971) measured involvement as "overall importance" of products and issues. They found that for many consumers certain products such as automobiles were almost uniformly more involving than other products such as paper towels or soft drinks; automobiles were chosen carefully, were important purchases, and were sometimes thought to reflect the owners' personalities.

Levy (1959) indicated that consumers' reasons for consumption of products often lay in the personal and social meanings carried by symbols of the products. French semiologist Baudrillard (1988) proposed that only a

semiological model is an appropriate way to interpret commodities. He suggested that consumer objects should be analyzed by use of linguistic sign function. The object has its effect when it is consumed by transferring its "meaning" to the individual consumer. The argument continues that each sign is not related to each object but consumer objects constitute a system of signs that have different meanings for different segments of the population. Essentially consumers purchase products because of what the product means or signifies to the buyer. It could be argued that those items that are maintained for an unusually longer period of time - ten, twenty, thirty years - have greater meaning or sign value than items that are discarded often after a shorter duration of time - six months or a year. The significance then is how can one determine the sign value - the involvement with the object to be purchased or not purchased?

Zimbardo (1960) demonstrated that the degree of involvement could be experimentally manipulated when he involved two groups on the subject of juvenile delinquency. Subjects in the "high involvement" condition were told that they would have to make a public stand on their opinion in front of a group of spectators. The subjects in the "low involvement" condition were led to believe that their opinions were inconsequential. The outcome revealed that "high involvement" subjects were significantly more

concerned with their judgement of the case study than were "low involvement" subjects. This is related to the two subfacets of the perceived risk: involvement was present whenever making a wrong decision might occur and whenever a wrong decision might produce important negative consequences (Antil, 1984; Arora, 1982; Cox, 1967; Chaffee & McLeod, 1973; Muncy & Hunt, 1984; Tyebjee, 1979).

Based on the observations that involvement as a hypothetical construct cannot be measured directly and that different conditions produce different types of involvement, Laurent and Kapferer used the term "antecedents" or "facets" to describe the determinants from which involvement is inferred. They insisted that researchers cease measuring involvement by a single indicator and use multiple facets to specify the nature of the relationship between a consumer and a product category.

The "Involvement Profile" proposed by Laurent and Kapferer is composed of four facets: (1) importance (personal meaning of the product), (2) perceived risk associated with the product purchase, which in turn has two subfacets, (a) risk importance (the perceived importance of negative consequences in case of a poor choice) and (b) risk probability (the perceived probability of making such a mistake), (3) sign (the symbolic value attributed to the product, its purchase, or its consumption), and (4) pleasure (the hedonic value of the product, its emotional appeal, its

ability to provide pleasure and affect).

Fourteen product categories were used representing contrasting profiles on the dimensions of four facets. These products are washing machines, vacuum cleaners, irons, TV sets, dresses, bras, detergents, shampoo, facial soaps, toothpaste, oil, yogurt, chocolate and champagne.

In Laurent and Kapferer's data analysis, "perceived importance of the product" and "perceived importance of negative consequences from a poor choice" did not display discriminant validity, but instead loaded on the same factor. These two items were merged to form a single scale, "imporisk," denoting that consumers who consider a product important tend to have the feeling that a mispurchase would have high negative consequences.

Regression analyses of Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) study indicated that the facets of involvement varied according to selected aspects of consumer behavior. As an example, comparing brands, spending time, and using multiple attributes in the decision process were strongly influenced by risk importance but were weakly influenced by pleasure value. On the other hand, the extent that the consumer was exposed to advertising was not affected by risk importance but was affected by the product's pleasure and sign values. These results led Laurent and Kapferer to conclude that no precise prediction could be made on the consequences of involvement unless all facets of the involvement profile

were specified.

Involvement

The study of involvement will be reviewed regarding how the concept has been used by researchers. In addition, the distinction will be discussed between antecedents and consequences of involvement.

Uses of the Concept

Involvement has been identified to be a significant mediator of consumer behavior. However, researchers have not reached a general agreement on definition and measurement of involvement (Mitchell, 1979). According to Homer and Kahle (1990), involvement may be one of the most researched concepts in the advertising and marketing disciplines, but it continues to be plagued by a lack of definitional and measurement consensus. They attributed this diversity to the application of the term "involvement" to a broad range of very different phenomena (e.g., media involvement, product class involvement, decision involvement, message response involvement).

Researchers have tended not to use the term "involvement" alone, but rather to imply a distinction between types of involvement. Three broad categories in different dimensions of the concept were identified for review: enduring vs. situational, state vs. process, and

product vs. purchase-decision involvement.

1. Enduring vs. Situational Involvement

Houston and Rothschild (1978) make a distinction between Enduring Involvement (EI) and Situational Involvement (SI) in their analysis of cognitive processes characterizing consumer decision making. This two dimensional involvement derives from Sherif and Cantril's (1947) experiments on various kinds of ego-involvements which influence shaping or modifying behavior. They observed that some ego-involvements resulted from the acceptance of "established" norms and values, whereas some ego-involvements resulted from the "momentary" demands of the actual experimental situation in which the individual found himself.

According to Houston and Rothschild (1978), enduring involvement is the ongoing concern with a product that the individual brings into the purchase situation. They suggest this is a function of past experience with the product and the strength of values to which the product is relevant. In conjunction with Sherif and Cantril's (1947) view, this perspective implies that where a product provides self-enhancement on an ongoing basis due to its favorable perceived image, then enduring involvement might be expected to exist.

Situational involvement, on the other hand, is due to factors particular to a time and place of observation which do not follow from the knowledge of personal and stimulus attributes. An example of situational involvement may be the concern surrounding the purchase or consumption of a product due to the social-psychological environment (Arora & Baer, 1985). For instance, situational involvement is heightened when the consumer perceives risk in a specific situation (Rothschild, 1977). A person may wear "average" type clothes to work such as a pair of slacks and sweater; the day an important visitor comes to the department, the person wears his or her professional best suit.

More recently, Bloch (1981, 1982), Bloch and Richins (1983), and Richins and Bloch (1986) extended Houston and Rothschild's conceptualization using two terms, enduring involvement and instrumental involvement. They proposed that enduring involvement is a stable trait that represents an individual's degree of interest or arousal for a product on a day-to-day basis, that is, an ongoing, long-term interest. Richins and Bloch (1986) suggested that an individual's level of enduring involvement is motivated by the degree to which the product relates to the self and/or the pleasure received from the product.

Instrumental involvement which corresponds to situational involvement was measured by the importance assigned to avoid negative consequences that might occur

from a wrong purchase decision (Bloch & Richins, 1983; Houston & Rothschild, 1978). Therefore, it is similar to Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) "risk importance," meaning the perceived importance of negative consequences in case of a poor choice.

Several researchers have studied enduring involvement in product categories such as cars (Bloch 1981, 1982; Richins & Bloch, 1986), clothing fashions (Tigert, Ring, & King, 1976), and personal computers and lawn mowers (Higie & Feick, 1989). Richins and Bloch (1986) demonstrated that consumers with enduring involvement were interested in product-related advertisements and magazines, and consulted with and provided others with information about products (automobiles) on an ongoing basis. Higie and Feick (1989) suggest that, because of the increased information search and provision, it is likely that these individuals are knowledgeable about the product category. Furthermore, they may influence others' opinions and purchases in the product category. Therefore, individuals exhibiting enduring involvement behaviors are likely to be opinion leaders in specific product categories.

2. State vs. Process Involvement

Houston and Rothschild's (1978) analysis of involvement in terms of cognitive processes provides different background for Andrew Mitchell's (1979) proposal that

involvement be defined as a state rather than a process. Mitchell (1979) classified most of the definitions/measures of involvement into one of two broad categories: "process" or "state" and viewed involvement as an individual level, internal state variable that indicates the amount of arousal, interest or drive evoked by a particular stimulus or situation.

"State" definitions of involvement have their roots in the social-psychological conception of ego-involvement (Sherif & Cantril, 1947). Sherif and Cantril described involvement as the state of an organism when presented with any stimulus which is ego central, or when any stimulus is either consciously or subconsciously related to the ego. Involving stimuli would be those that affect their sense of identity and how they represent themselves to the rest of the world.

In consumer behavior literature, Sherif and Cantril's (1947) ego-involvement has been used either directly or in its modified forms such as importance (Howard & Sheth, 1969), commitment (Freedman, 1964; Robertson, 1976), both importance and commitment (Lastovicka & Gardner, 1977), and interest (Bloch, 1982; Day, 1970).

More recently, Park and Mittal (1985) defined involvement as "a person's motivational state directed toward a goal object for accomplishing a specific goal." Despite differences in emphasis and preferences of the

construct among researchers, Rothschild (1984) declared that a consensus had formed around a definition of involvement as "an unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest."

"Process" definitions of involvement, on the other hand, usually involve information acquisition and evaluation, and decision-making processes. Krugman (1965) conceptualized involvement as "the number of conscious connections or personal references per minute that the viewer makes between his own life and the stimulus" (p. 355). Ray (1973) viewed involvement as a sequence of mental states culminating in behavior and occurring after exposure to incoming persuasive information. Houston and Rothschild's (1978) definition views the construct in terms of the "complexity of extensiveness of cognitive and behavioral processes, characterizing the overall consumer decision process." Leavitt, Greenwald, and Obermiller (1981) defined involvement in terms of depth of serial information processing and the extent of cognitive effort expended in processing incoming stimuli. In a similar mode, Batra and Ray (1983) conceptualized the construct of involvement as the "quality and depth of cognitive response."

3. Product vs. Purchase-decision Involvement

The concept of product involvement is based upon a recognition that certain product classes may be more or less

central to an individual's life, his attitudes about himself, his sense of identity, and his relationship to the rest of the world (Traylor, 1981). For example, Rahtz and Moore (1989) defined product-class involvement as "the certain nature of a given product class which, by its very nature and relationship to a defined population, causes a high or low level of thinking concerning the given product class to occur in a consistent pattern across the given population of interest" (p. 115). In an effort to examine the impact of product-class involvement on a cognitive consistency, stereos and jeans were used for predefined high product-class involvement and paper towels and bar soap for low product-class involvement. For Rahtz and Moore's subjects (college business majors), high-involvement product classes created more consistency in individuals than low-involvement product classes.

Howard and Sheth (1969) claimed that "importance" which refers to the saliency of one product class versus another is the label for "degree of involvement." Hupfer and Gardner (1971) also measured involvement as "overall importance" of products and issues. Later, Lastovicka and Gardner (1977) measured overall-importance, but their scale items captured both normative-importance meaning "how connected or engaged a product class is to an individual's values" and commitment to a brand. Bloch (1981) developed a scale which concerns enduring involvement with the

product. Traylor and Joseph (1984) presented a general scale of "involvement in products" which taps the extent that a product reflects a person's self-concept.

In an attempt to provide further evidence of the dimensionality of involvement, Jensen, Carlson, and Tripp (1989) confirmed that involvement may be multidimensional both between products and when collapsing across products. They conducted an empirical test with three products (shampoo, blue jeans, and athletic shoes), using Lastovicka and Gardner's (1977) involvement scale that consists of importance, knowledge, brand preference, and commitment. The "Familiarity" factor represented involvement across products while the other three factors appeared to be product specific. This finding led the researchers to suggest that involvement entails multiple dimensions and that it may be product specific.

Purchase-decision involvement can be interpreted differently from product involvement. For example, most consumers would have no enduring involvement in a washing machine, but more likely would have high purchase-decision involvement (Zaichkowsky, 1986).

Purchase-decision involvement was studied experimentally in the context of purchase situation by Clarke and Belk (1979). The researchers hypothesized the situation (purchase as a gift or for oneself) should motivate consumers to expend greater search effort and spend

more money. The experiment was conducted using two products identified as low involvement (bubble bath and blankets) and two products identified as high involvement (records and jeans). An interaction occurred between product involvement and the task of purchasing an item as a gift. Subjects reported they would spend more money, shop more stores and spend more time when shopping for a low-involvement product as a gift. On the other hand, the amount of search and money expended for high-involvement products was the same regardless of whether the product was for themselves or for a gift.

Antecedents and Consequences of Involvement

The behavioral consequences of involvement have been reviewed by several researchers (Engel et al., 1982; Krugman, 1965; Robertson, 1976). Depending on their level of involvement, individual consumers differ in the extent of their decision process, their search for information, and their communication behavior. Drawing from the literature, Engel et al. (1982) profiled that highly involved consumers

-seek to maximize expected satisfaction from their brand choice through an extensive choice process, e.g., comparing many brands, spending time, using multiple attributes,

-are information seekers, actively looking for information from alternative sources,

-are more likely to be influenced by reference groups

-are more likely to express their lifestyle and personality characteristics in their brand choice, and

-process communication cognitively by going through stages of awareness, comprehension, attitude, and behavior.

Antil (1984) noticed that the overwhelming majority of measures, which are in fact consequences of involvement, have been used as indicators of product involvement. For instance, Engel and Blackwell (1982) suggested measuring involvement by the time spent during product search, the energy spent, the number of brands examined, the extensiveness of the decision process. Robertson (1976) used brand commitment as an indicator of product involvement. Stone (1984) defined involvement as time and/or intensity of effort expended in the undertaking of behaviors.

Cohen (1983) insisted that the construct of involvement be kept separate from its antecedents and consequences. Cohen argued that an overly broad construct would result in making any investigation of relationships (among involvement and other consumer behavior variables) necessarily imprecise.

In line with these remarks, Laurent and Kapferer (1985) proposed that there is more than one kind of consumer involvement. Depending on the antecedents of involvement (importance, pleasure, sign, risk importance, risk probability), consequences on consumer behavior differ. The authors therefore recommended measuring an involvement profile, rather than a single involvement level.

These facets of the Involvement Profile were examined to see their correspondences with Houston and Rothschild's (1978) enduring and situational involvement. "Importance" and "pleasure" corresponded to enduring involvement. However, "risk" and "sign" were difficult to classify. Certain products (e.g., vacuum cleaner) entail a risk in all circumstances, whereas for other products (e.g., wine to be served for a dinner party) risk depends on the situation. The former case could be described as enduring involvement, the latter as situational involvement. In a similar way, certain products may have an enduring symbolic value, whereas other products may have a symbolic value only in the presence of relevant others.

Laurent and Kapferer's view of correspondences with Houston and Rothschild's enduring and situational involvement is not consistent with those of Mittal (1989c) and Higie and Feick (1989). In both of these studies, pleasure and sign-value in products evoked enduring involvement. Importance in products, however, could not be used in a measure of enduring involvement since utilitarian products could be important without being enduringly involving. For example, a heater could be important to a person but he might not have enduring involvement in it.

Mittal (1989c) also analyzed Laurent and Kapferer's scale in terms of product vs. purchase-decision involvement. Importance, pleasure, and sign value are factors of product

involvement; risk importance and risk probability are antecedents of purchase-decision involvement.

The necessity of thinking in terms of different types of involvement goes back to Lastovicka and Gardner (1977) who did empirical research measuring importance, commitment, and affect for fourteen products. Their analysis revealed three types of products: low involvement, high involvement, and special interest or enthusiast products expressing one's hobby. The difference between the two last types is in the presence of affect and hedonic character in the latter case.

Driven by a unidimensional conception of involvement, Zaichkowsky (1985) developed a scale to measure the construct of involvement. However, the content analysis of Zaichkowsky's Personal Involvement Inventory (PII) reveals that it contains three distinct constructs: (1) involvement proper, (2) a hedonic factor, and (3) an attitude-like construct (Mittal, 1989a).

Recognizing that attitude-like items in PII may not belong in a scale of involvement, McQuarrie and Munson (1986) presented a revised PII where the attitude-like items were discarded but they incorporated Laurent and Kapferer's multi-faceted perspective on involvement. They argued that only the "importance" factor in their revised PII must be deemed to represent involvement and that other factors, "risk," "pleasure," and "sign," must be considered to be antecedents of involvement.

In a similar way, Mittal (1989a) incorporated Laurent and Kapferer's multidimensional view and Zaichkowsky's unidimensional view of involvement. He generated a model where involvement is construed as a unidimensional construct and all of its antecedents may be categorized into two goals: utilitarian (functional) and psycho-social or (expressive). Laurent and Kapferer's pleasure and sign antecedents were placed in the "psycho-social goals" and risk importance and risk probability were placed in the "utilitarian goals." Mittal (1989a) also argued that Laurent and Kapferer's importance facet taps product involvement itself.

In another study, Mittal (1989b) tested the functional/ expressive distinction only for those products classified as "high" involvement. He revealed the conflicting result with the previous findings that greater consumer involvement will lead to more information seeking. In his study, information search was high only when the product was functional or utilitarian; when the product served psycho-social or expressive goals, a consumer would not seek much information despite of a high level of involvement. Mittal explained that expressive products tend to have reduced levels of information seeking because they are more likely to be assessed on personality or image associations.

Mittal and Lee (1987) operationalized Laurent and Kapferer's four facets separately at the product- and brand-

choice levels. The distinction between the two levels of involvement existed in three of the four facets. Importance of all essential items (e.g., salt, facial tissue) was obvious at the product level but not necessarily at the brand level. For many established products (e.g., appliance) brand-choice is risky but products themselves are not perceived to be risky. Finally, sign value can be associated with the product itself rather than the brand when the product is new or a luxury or both (e.g., video cameras or diamonds). Two levels of involvement were not discerned for the hedonic facet. The researchers suggested that if one finds a brand hedonic, the product would become hedonic inevitably.

Catalog Shopping

Catalog shoppers are reviewed from the literature in terms of their demographics and lifestyle. The findings that researchers have reported will be compared and discussed.

Demographics of Catalog Shoppers

Researchers have examined some of the apparent or easily observed variables to study consumer behavior related to catalog purchases. Variables cited in the literature include demographics such as income, age, sex, race, educational status, occupational status, and location of

residence.

Catalog shoppers are affluent consumers according to many researchers (Berkowitz, Walker, & Walton, 1979; Cunningham & Cunningham, 1973; Gillett, 1970; Kono & Buatsi, 1984; Korgaonkar, 1981; Lumpkin & Hawes, 1985; Reynolds, 1974; Thompson, 1971). Gillett (1970) found that in-home food shoppers had higher family income, education and occupational status (household head) than shoppers in general. Thompson (1971) suggested similar findings in that out-of-town and mail-order shoppers were among higher income classifications than lower income groups.

Cunningham and Cunningham (1973) investigated socioeconomic characteristics of active and inactive in-home shoppers. In-home shoppers tended to be affluent and socially upscaled consumers when compared to inactive in-home shoppers. Also higher status occupations were noted for in-home food shoppers by Berkowitz et al. (1979). Schwartz (1986) identified the typical mail-order customer as a college graduate who was married, between the ages of 35 and 44, earned more than $30,000 a year, lives outside a metropolitan area, and had at least one child living at home.

Race, a variable that few researchers have examined, plays a relatively minor role in identifying catalog users. Gillett (1970) found no significant racial difference in spending for in-home shopping.

"Locked-in" shoppers who experience unusual difficulty getting out to stores have been considered as an important source of in-home sales (May, 1979). This segment was identified as working wives, women with small children at home, surburban residents and the elderly who were more likely to be "locked-in" at home or on the job. Cox and Rich (1964) found women under 40 with children living at home were three times as likely to be high phone users in purchasing products as those without children. As for Reynolds (1974), catalog buying was more pronounced in families with children under 12 years of age.

Gillett (1970) reported no relationship between "locked-in" shoppers and in-home sales. In his study, "locked-in" shoppers such as working women, women with small children, and elderly women did not use in-home shopping resources more than those who had greater access to stores. Similarly, Thompson (1971) and Berkowitz et al. (1979) noticed that the occurrence of shopping by mail or out-of-town shopping failed to vary with the number of children living at home. In addition, Lumpkin and Hawes (1985) revealed no significant relationship between the age of the youngest child at home and catalog usage.

Older respondents reported more frequent shopping by catalog in the study of Lumpkin and Hawes (1985). On the contrary, Berkowitz et al. (1979) found in-home shoppers were younger than store shoppers and both Cunningham and

Cunningham (1973) and Gillett (1970) found no significant effect of age.

Whereas previous research examined the effect of each demographic characteristic on in-home shopping separately, Darian (1987) found that households with certain combinations of characteristics were most likely to be in-home shoppers. Mothers of preschool children were more likely than others to be in-home shoppers. However, this was only true for mothers who work part-time or not at all; full-time working mothers were not more likely than others to be in-home shoppers. This result led Darian to suggest that in-home shopping might be valued because of the flexibility of the timing rather than the reduced amount of time in shopping. Also, contrary to the earlier research findings, it was found that younger, better educated, and higher income households were no more likely than others to be in-home shoppers.

Lifestyle of Catalog Shoppers

A number of studies have been conducted on the relationship between catalog shoppers and their lifestyle. Lifestyle was studied on such variables as convenience, perceived risk, self-concept, fashion-consciousness, price-consciousness, attitude toward local shopping conditions, and credit usage.

Attitudes toward telephone and mail shopping reveal that consumers perceive greater risk as the major disadvantage (Darian, 1987). Cox and Rich (1964) found that the perceived risk varied considerably with the type of merchandise. For example, about 80 percent of respondents said they would not worry about ordering bed linens by phone, but only seven percent would not worry about buying kitchen tables and chairs. This variance was attributed to the lack of opportunity to personally inspect merchandise and compare product characteristics, prices, qualities, sizes, colors and styles.

Spence, Engel, and Blackwell (1970) reported that the risks involved with purchases made through mail-order catalog were greater than the risks associated with purchases made through traditional retail establishments. On the other hand, Gillett (1970) found that urban in-home shoppers perceived less-than-average risk in buying by mail or phone. The discrepancy in these findings is reflected in the contradicting findings observed by Reynolds (1974) and Korte (1977). Reynolds (1974) found catalog buyers to be more self-confident and venturesome; in Korte's (1977) study, mail-order shoppers showed less self-confidence, the reciprocal of perceived risk.

Conflicting research findings are evident in the literature regarding price orientation, brand orientation, and attitudes toward in-store shopping versus catalog

shopping. For example, Korgaonkar (1981) showed that catalog showroom patrons tended to be price- and brand-conscious consumers who did not consider in-store sales personnel important in store choice decisions. In a later study, however, Korgaonkar (1984) found that nonstore customers were convenience- and price-oriented consumers rather than brand-conscious consumers. On the contrary, Berkowitz et al. (1979) and Smallwood and Wiener (1987) found that in-home shoppers were less price-conscious.

Reynolds (1974) found that catalog buying was inversely related to attitudes toward local shopping conditions. Similarly, Quelch and Takeuchi (1981) suggested that the increased use of catalog shopping stemmed from competitive factors such as unsatisfactory in-store service, difficulty of parking, and inconvenient store hours. In the study of Berkowitz et al. (1979), in-home shoppers had negative attitudes toward in-store shopping activities.

On the other hand, Seitz, Wiener, & Massey, Jr. (1988) identified catalog users as active store shoppers who were satisfied with the in-store shopping experience. For these shoppers, catalogs may provide an alternative rather than a substitution for traditional outlets. However, in Gillett's (1970) study, heavy in-home shoppers were also active store shoppers, but were no less inclined to consider store shopping as difficult or unpleasant than did any other shoppers.

Quelch and Takeuchi (1981) stated that credit cards prompted the widespread use of catalogs. In the literature, frequent users of catalog shopping were frequent users of credit cards or charge accounts (Lumpkin & Hawes, 1985). Cunningham and Cunningham (1973) found active shoppers held more positive attitudes toward credit use compared to inactive shoppers. This finding is supported by Thompson (1971), Gillett (1970), and Berkowitz et al. (1979) who found that mail-order consumers favored credit card use and were users of more than one credit card.

The Market for Professional Women

As more women are entering those segments of the labor market traditionally associated with men, professional women have increased their purchasing power (Joyce & Guiltinan, 1978). According to Townsend (1985), those women who were employed in professional/managerial occupations accounted for 42% of all working women.

Solomon and Douglas (1983) contended that research into the role of women's clothing in the work environment had been neglected. They argued that the increased number of women in the executive work force and their aspirations to upper level positions imbued greater significance to appropriate career appearance.

Traditionally, research studies for market segmentation have distinguished only between working women and nonworking

women in assessing the impact of occupational status on buying behavior (Joyce & Guiltinan, 1978). Several researchers have shown that professional women are significantly different from nonprofessional women as well as housewives or homemakers in terms of a variety of shopping attitudes, activities, and behavior (Bartos, 1982; Brandi, 1981; Cassill, 1986; Joyce & Guiltinan, 1978; Hirschman, 1981).

Bartos (1982) argued that women's lifestyle was greatly influenced by their employment orientation which was conceptualized as four distinct groups: just-a-job working women, career-oriented working women, plan-to-work housewives, and stay-at-home housewives. Bartos found that career women were more likely to plan ahead, be cautious, and be brand-loyal than housewives or just-a-job working women.

Bartos' four groups of employment orientation were applied by Cassill (1986) who studied their lifestyle and criteria in selecting social apparel and employment apparel. Among four groups, career women were most self-confident, most satisfied with life, and least traditional concerning home, family relations, and housekeeping activities. When compared to just-a-job working women, working women were more likely to use credit in purchasing apparel and less price-conscious, and less dependent on advice from friends regarding purchases. In selecting social apparel, career

women were more likely to place importance on appropriateness (i.e., suitability to individual and good fit); just-a-job working women put more importance on economic criteria (i.e., good buy and price).

The research studies comparing housewives, professional working women, and nonprofessional working women were conducted by Joyce and Guiltinan (1978). They found professional women were least likely to adhere to clothing budgets and they were willing to change stores or brand names. A similar study was done by Hirschman (1981) who compared career women, working women, and homemakers in terms of retail patronage. The author reported that career women were most concerned with convenience and price in deciding where to shop for daywear clothing, followed by service and fashion. As for apparel information sources, wearing what coworkers or superiors wear were somewhat more important for career women than for homemakers or working women.

Clothing preferences of professional women were studied by Brandi (1981). Compared to other groups of working women, professional women preferred classically styled garments and desired quality and versatility rather than high fashion. Solomon and Douglas (1987) examined the factors influencing the diversity of clothing symbols associated with the female executive role. They proposed that products are consumed by two motivations: instrumental

orientation and self-expressive/hedonic orientation. As in the case of designer clothing, products with strong symbolic connotations may be consumed primarily because they are perceived as instrumental in achieving desired social goals. Consumption of some products may be associated with expressing the purchaser's aesthetic tastes rather than achieving social status. They argued that instrumental value of clothing in attaining professional goals may generate heightened interest in clothing and fashion in general. In other words, those who perceive dress as an important element in interaction with others and in their professional career also demonstrate an interest in being fashionably dressed. Especially those who have self-confidence in their role performance put emphasis on the instrumental value of clothing. On the other hand, interest in the self-expressive and aesthetic attributes of clothing may lead to acceptance of a wide range of clothing styles, because there are greater choices in terms of individual tastes or preferences.

Clothing-related Studies

Research relating to clothing catalog shoppers has been mostly conducted in the 1980s. Seitz (1984) examined selected clothing attributes influencing mail-order choices. The most important attributes were price and garment care (66%), followed by style and color (50%) and catalog name

(42%). On the other hand, only 18 percent of the respondents considered brand name in their mail-order purchase decisions. Seitz also found that fashion consciousness was significantly related to education and income.

Similarly, Smallwood and Wiener (1987) found that heavy users were more likely to be interested in clothing, have higher incomes, spend a greater portion of their income on clothing, attend more fashion shows, and enjoy wardrobe planning and clothing selection activities to a greater extent than light shoppers. In addition, garment care and fiber content were used in catalog purchase decisions. In Seitz's (1987) study, catalog shoppers were socially active, value conscious, more active in hobbies and leisure activities than noncatalog shoppers.

Shim and Drake (1990) found that consumers who had high intentions to use mail order for purchase of apparel showed positive beliefs about and favorable attitudes toward mail-order purchasing. Those who had high intentions to purchase apparel by mail order evaluated "convenience" the highest, followed by assortment, up-to-date fashionable item, quality, value for the price, and variety of brands. This group was more likely to have previous mail-order purchase experience and tended to be influenced by people who were important to them. In terms of a demographic profile, high intention consumers tended to have more preschool children,

have higher household income, and be younger married people. In terms of lifestyle, they were more likely to be self-confident and venturesome, time-conscious, price-conscious, dissatisfied with local shopping facilities, and were less likely to enjoy going to a large shopping center.

The acceptability of catalogs for apparel purchases were examined by Seitz and Massey, Jr. (1990). Although there were no significant main effects for education, age, income, or sex, significant interactions were found among these demographic variables, functional motives, and catalog acceptibility. Females reporting lower incomes tended to have high acceptability for catalogs and utilized functional shopping motives when evaluating outlet and product alternatives. The authors suggested that the interaction of sex and income affecting high catalog acceptability could be single parents who have children and have limited finances and time to make necessary apparel purchases. Another interaction between age and sex revealed that young males indicated a high level of catalog acceptability. These consumers were considered to benefit from the convenience and value offered by catalogs and more product information provided than in retail stores.

Involvement studies in the clothing area have been minimal. Sherif and Cantril (1947), in their early work, posited that involvement exists when any social object is related to the person's ego. They noted that an individual

becomes involved in clothing to "extend his self, to enhance his ego, to display his status" (p. 349).

Laurent and Kapferer (1985) confirmed dresses as a high involvement product after they examined how the product was related to their involvement facets. Dresses were considered as extremely ego-involving because of their symbolic meaning vis-a-vis relevant others, and their capacity to express one's lifestyle or personality (Levy, 1959), or their hedonic character (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). Dresses were found to be a high-risk product because the perceived importance of negative consequences is great in case of mispurchase. Further Fairhurst, Good, and Gentry (1989) contended that apparel can bring pleasure to a wearer by providing self-enhancement and psychological reinforcement.

In an effort to explore self-concept as a possible motivator of enduring involvement, Bloch (1982) reported that clothing was used as a vehicle for self-expression or enhancement carrying its symbolic meaning. Bloch measured clothing involvement by knowledge of clothing fashions, fashion dissemination, fashion magazine readership, and browsing frequency. This result was supported by Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) perspective that clothing is one of the most potent classes of product symbolism and possesses high sign value.

Summary

The concept of "involvement" has been demonstrated to be an important variable in explaining consumer behavior (Bloch, 1981; Cohen, 1983; Kassarjian, 1981; Laurent & Kapferer, 1985; Mitchell, 1979). Different views of involvement have been revealed by diverse definitions and measures of involvement. The literature reviewed indicates that researchers have used the term "involvement" in different dimensions: enduring vs. situational, state vs. process, product vs. purchase-decision.

Houston and Rothschild (1978) distinguished between two types of involvement: enduring involvement on a long term basis and situational involvement, a temporary involvement in purchasing a product. Enduring involvement exists when the product relates to one's self and/or the pleasure received from the product. Situational involvement is heightened when the consumer perceives risk in a specific situation.

Another dimension of involvement was proposed by Mitchell (1979) who viewed involvement in terms of a "state" rather than a "process". "State" definition of involvement derives from ego-involvement proposed by Sherif and Cantril (1947) and has reached a consensus on a definition of involvement as "an unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest" (Rothschild, 1984). "Process" definition of

involvement is usually associated with information acquisition and evaluation, and decision-making processes. For instance, Krugman (1965) conceptualized involvement as "the number of connections made by the person between the product being advertised and one's personal life during exposure to an advertisement."

A person can be involved with products or with purchase decisions. Consumers who have no enduring involvement in a product might have high purchase-decision involvement as in a case of washing machine. Sometimes an interaction can occur between product involvement and purchase-decision involvement when the product is purchased for someone other than the purchaser. Clarke and Belk (1979) found that a person can be highly involved when shopping for a low-involvement product when it is to be a gift.

Consumer behavior researchers noted that the level of involvement (high vs. low) has been broadly used to predict different consumer behavior. The level of involvement was measured by consequences of involvement such as time and energy spent in information searching, the number of brands examined, and the extensiveness of the decision process (Engel et al, 1982). However this type of measurement was found to cause imprecise investigation of relationships between involvement and other consumer behavior variables (Cohen, 1983).

Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) Involvement Profile, cited in the theoretical framework of this study, is based on the concept that different consumer behavior depends not only upon the level of involvement but upon the antecedents (facets) of involvement which produce different types of involvement. Laurent and Kapferer's Involvement Profile consists of four facets - importance, risk (risk importance and risk probability), sign, and pleasure. They revealed that different facets had different implications for specific consumer behaviors; the decision process was strongly influenced by risk importance, whereas the exposure to advertising depended mainly on the pleasure value of the product.

Studies on consumer involvement, together with lifestyle and demographics, can contribute to understanding and developing successful strategies for catalog marketing, one method of direct marketing. Direct marketing has been growing rapidly due to several factors: (1) problems encountered when shopping at retail stores (e.g., inadequate parking, inconvenient store hours, unsatisfactory in-store service), (2) new technology available to marketers, (3) improved marketing conditions (e.g., integration of wholesaling and retailing, manufacturer-retailer relations, use of brand names, packaging) and (4) changing socio-economic status of consumers (e.g., increasing number of working wives, higher income).

From the research reviewed, relationships between catalog shoppers and various demographic variables have been noted. Catalog shopping was positively related to income (Berkowitz et al, 1979; Cunningham & Cunningham, 1973; Gillett, 1970; Kono & Buatsi, 1984; Korgaonkar, 1981; Lumpkin & Hawes, 1985; Reynolds, 1974; Smallwood & Wiener, 1987; Thompson, 1971), occupation (Berkowitz et al, 1979; Cunningham & Cunningham, 1973; Gillett, 1970), education (Berkowitz et al, 1979; Cunningham & Cunningham, 1973; Lumpkin & Hawes, 1985; Seitz & Massey, Jr., 1988), and living with children (Cox & Rich, 1964; Darian, 1987; Lumpkin & Hawes, 1985; Reynolds, 1974).

From the literature, a profile of catalog shoppers can be drawn. It appears that catalog shoppers are likely to be convenience oriented (Korgaonkar, 1984; Shim & Drake, 1990), self-confident (Reynolds, 1974; Shim & Drake, 1990), fashion-conscious (Shim & Drake, 1990; Smallwood & Wiener, 1987), frequent credit users (Berkowitz et al, 1979; Gillett, 1970; Lumpkin & Hawes, 1985; Thompson, 1971), and have negative attitudes toward local shopping conditions (Berkowitz et al, 1979; Quelch & Takeuchi, 1981; Reynolds, 1974; Shim & Drake, 1990).

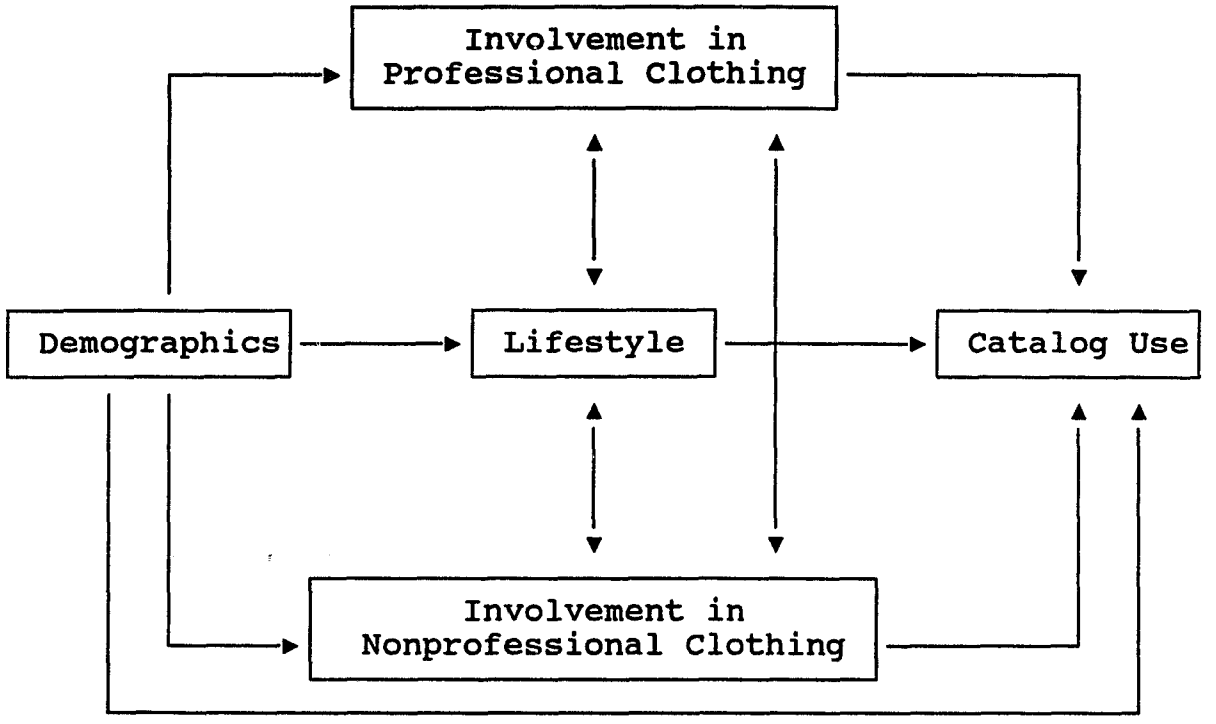
For market segmentation, the need to divide working women into professional and nonprofessional women has been mentioned by several researchers (Bartos, 1982; Brandi, 1981; Cassill, 1986; Joyce & Guiltinan, 1978; Hirschman,

1981). These researchers have shown that professional women are significantly different from nonprofessional women as well as housewives in terms of shopping behavior.

Clothing has been identified as a high-involvement product because of its ego-related character (Sherif & Cantril, 1947), its symbolic meaning vis-a-vis relevant others (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985), its capacity to express one's lifestyle (Levy, 1959), or its hedonic character (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). However, involvement studies in the clothing area have been limited considering the significance of clothing to be used as ego-involving product.

As a result of this review of literature, the researcher proposes the following model which clearly indicates the relationships between and among the variables. In the following chapter, methodology to test this model will be introduced.

Figure 1. Theoretical Model



CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The focus of this research was to investigate the relationships between clothing catalog use of professional women and their demographics, lifestyle, and involvement in clothing. A survey designed to measure use of, and attitudes toward clothing catalogs was mailed to a random, national sample of 1,512 professional women who were identified as clothing catalog shoppers. In this chapter, the development of the instrument, the pilot study, sample and data collection will be discussed. Then the hypotheses will be described and the statistical procedures used to test the hypotheses will be introduced.

Instrument

Based on the model presented at the conclusion of the review of related literature, three major variables were identified that were thought to predict catalog use. These three independent variables were demographics, lifestyle, and involvement with two types of clothing ("shoes for work" and "casual clothes"). The dependent variable was catalog use. In this section the operationalization of each variable is discussed and a comparison is made with how other researchers have measured the same variables.

Catalog Use

In this study, catalog use was divided into five segments: (1) specific clothing categories, (2) intended user (self, family members, or gift), (3) catalog order of name brand items, (4) reasons for using catalogs, and (5) identification of five most frequently used catalogs. Researchers have operationalized catalog use by frequency of use (Cunningham & Cunningham, 1973; Lumpkin & Hawes, 1985; Reynolds, 1974), by annual catalog expenditure (Smallwood & Wiener, 1987), and frequency of orders (Seitz, 1987). A major limitation in previous research is that clothing has been treated as a product class rather than clothing categories. Recent researchers, Seitz (1987) and Shim and Drake (1990) recommended using different types of clothing items to determine catalog use because clothing shopping behavior could vary according to its intended purpose and use.

Catalog use was operationalized as the number of specific types of clothing items purchased during the past 12-month period. The ten clothing categories were: (1) blouses/shirts (2) slacks/shorts (3) sweaters (4) bathing suits (5) underwear (6) dresses (7) nightwear (8) suits (9) jewelry (10) shoes/boots. Subjects were requested to indicate the number of items purchased for each category during the past 12-month period. In addition, respondents

were asked to identify the number of casual clothing items and shoes purchased specifically for work as these clothing categories directly related to the involvement measure.

The four most important reasons for using clothing catalogs were examined with a ranking system. Also respondents were asked to indicate how frequently they used name brands and unfamiliar brands in terms of "always," "frequently," "sometimes," "seldom," and "never." Further the five most frequently used clothing catalogs were listed by the respondents. This information was obtained for more descriptive profile of the respondents, but was not included in the hypothesis testing.

Involvement

The involvement measure was adapted from Laurent and Kapferer (1985) and Mittal and Lee (1987) who expanded Laurent and Kapferer's selected items into a full scale. Laurent and Kapferer proposed a four-faceted Consumer Involvement Profile as a way of operationalizing consumers' involvement in products. Their four facets consisted of importance, symbolic (sign), hedonic (pleasure), and risk which was subdivided into risk importance and risk probability. These facets were measured on a 5-point scale from "fully disagree" (1) to "fully agree" (5). Reliabilities reported by Laurent and Kapferer were satisfactory - importance .80, sign .90, pleasure .88, risk

importance .82, and risk probability .72. Further analyses indicated that "importance" and "risk importance" were loaded on the same factor and were therefore merged to form a single scale, "imporisk," resulting in a reliability of .87.

Shim and Kotsiopulos (1991) pointed out that the level of involvement and risk may vary with the type of clothing by referring to other researchers' findings. In the study conducted by Laurent and Kapferer (1985), two different types of clothing, dresses and bras, were perceived differently in terms of "pleasure" and "sign" values, even though they were similar in "imporisk" and "perceived risk" values. Kaplan, Szybillo, and Jacoby (1974) reported suits and winter coats as high risk items, and Katona and Mueller (1955) found sports shirts were low involvement items.

Based on these findings, involvement was measured for two types of clothing representing professional appearance and nonprofessional appearance. As professional clothing, "shoes for work" was chosen because of their role-related function and for non-professional clothing, "casual clothes" was chosen with its definition, "the clothes you might wear around the house or to run errands." Drawing from Laurent and Kapferer's and Mittal and Lee's instruments, 16 involvement statements were initially selected and modified. These statements were also measured by "strongly disagree"

(1) to "strongly agree" (5).

Lifestyle

The lifestyle measure was an adaptation of scales developed by Wells and Tigert (1971) and Reynolds (1974). Six scales were selected from Wells and Tigert's instrument which included: (1) price-conscious, (2) fashion-conscious, (3) credit user, (4) self-confident, (5) information seeker, and (6) new brand tryer. Two additional scales were drawn from Reynolds' instrument because of their applicability to catalog shopping: (1) time-conscious and (2) attitude toward local shopping conditions. From all of the above scales, 22 statements were selected, some of which were modified to either reflect current shopping of clothing or lifestyle practices. Responses were measured on a Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5).

Demographics

Based on the review of related literature, demographic characteristics were selected. These variables included: age, marital status, education, children living at home, personal income, household income, occupation, and race.

Open-ended questions were used for the age of respondents, ages of children living at home, occupation, and education. Respondents were asked to provide their

general job title (upper-management, middle-management, or educator) or occupational position. Marital status and race were treated as categorical variables. Income, both personal and total, was treated as an interval variable. For specific categories, see the instrument in Table 24, Appendix A.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted in July 1990 to examine the reliability of the potential research instrument. Because the major study was intended to sample professional women, the 1989-90 University of North Carolina at Greensboro Directory was used for the pilot study. One hundred and eighty names of professional women were randomly selected and the pilot instrument was mailed to these women. The response rate was 47.8%, providing 86 returned questionnaires. Only 68 questionnaires were completed and analyzed, providing a usable return rate of 35%. Of the 68 respondents, 18 were professors; 15, secretaries; 5, administrators; and the remainder were employed in a variety of campus positions.

In the pilot study, 12 clothing categories were identified and respondents were asked to indicate the number of their purchases during the year by checking the appropriate group (0, 1-2, 3-4, 5 or more). Because of the ambiguity in checking the appropriate group for each

clothing item and inability to record a specific number of items purchased, this item was changed into an open-ended response. Coats and handbags were deleted from the clothing categories because no one indicated purchasing these items through catalogs.

To obtain a more descriptive profile of professional women who use clothing catalogs, the following items were added to the final questionnaire: (1) the number of clothing items purchased as gifts for family members, gifts for other than family, and clothing for family members, (2) the extent to which name brands or unfamiliar brands of clothing items were purchased through catalogs, and (3) five names of catalogs used most frequently.

The second variable, involvement, utilized the same 16 statements for both professional and nonprofessional clothing, "shoes for work" and "casual clothes." Using Principal Components with Varimax Rotation, factor analysis was used to analyze the two types of clothing in terms of involvement. As a result of these analyses, five factors representative of Laurent and Kapferer's facets evolved. However, the same statements did not load on the same factors for two clothing types.

Two statements, "For me, shoes for work are a real pleasure," and "I choose my casual clothes very carefully," were eliminated from the final instrument due to low and cross loadings. The statement, "I just couldn't indulge

myself as much with other shoes for work (casual clothes) as with the shoes for work (casual clothes) I wear often," was deleted because of low factor loading. The results of the Kuder-Richardson reliability test indicated that the overall reliability of involvement was .80 for "shoes for work" and .74 for "casual clothes".

For the third variable, lifestyle was factor analyzed to reduce the 22 statements to conceptual groupings. The items loaded as predicted (corresponding to those of Wells and Tigert (1971) and Reynolds (1974)) with the exception of the "new brand tryer" scale which was collapsed into "fashion-conscious" scale. The statement, "I like to try new product brands just to see what they are," was eliminated because of low and cross loadings. The Kuder-Richardson reliability test yielded .70 for the entire lifestyle measure.

Hypotheses

Based on the purposes of this research and pertinent findings in the reported literature, the following hypotheses were formulated:

1. There is no significant relationship between clothing catalog use of professional women and their demographic variables defined as:

    a. age
    b. marital status
    c. living with children
    d. personal income
    e. total income

f. occupation
g. education
h. race

2. There is no relationship between clothing catalog use of professional women and involvement variables defined as:

   a. the importance of clothing
   b. the symbolic value of clothing
   c. the perceived risk importance of negative consequences of a mispurchase
   d. the perceived risk probability of a mispurchase
   e. the hedonic value of clothing

3. Professional women's catalog use will vary directly according to their lifestyle which is expressed by

   a. price-conscious
   b. fashion-conscious
   c. self-confident
   d. credit user
   e. information seeker
   f. time-conscious

4. Professional women's catalog use will vary inversely according to their lifestyle which is expressed by the attitude toward local shopping conditions.

5. There is no significant difference in involvement scores between a type of professional clothing and a type of nonprofessional clothing on the variables of

   a. the importance of clothing
   b. the symbolic value of clothing
   c. the perceived risk importance of negative consequences of a mispurchase
   d. the perceived risk probability of a mispurchase
   e. the hedonic value of clothing

6. There is no significant relationship between involvement variables and lifestyle variables for professional women.

Sample

Most research on catalog shopping has been based on geographically constrained samples, limiting the

generalizability of the results to population. The current study employed a national sample representing a cross-section of professional women who had been identified as catalog shoppers in the United States.

A Family Lifestyle Database mailing list was purchased from the Behavior Bank in New Jersey. The list contained 5,000 names and addresses of professional women employed as upper-management, middle-management, or educators who had used various mail-order clothing catalogs. The occupational groups were proportionately distributed. The researcher selected 1,512 names, drawing every third name on the list and giving attention to the representation of states throughout the United States.

Data Collection

The six-page questionnaire with a stamped, self-addressed envelope was sent to 1,512 professional women using clothing catalogs in November 1990 (Appendix A). A total of 136 questionnaires were returned as nondeliverables. The researcher mailed 103 questionnaires to additional subjects for whom mailing addresses were available. Completed questionnaires were returned by 601 subjects, yielding 40.6% response rate. This response rate was considered satisfactory and no follow-up procedure was used. Among completed questionnaires returned, 95 questionnaires were unusable. Hence 506 questionnaires were

used for data analysis, for a usable response rate of 34.2%.

The design of the questionnaire was based on Dillman's (1978) Total Design Method. Some factors recommended by Dillman were used by the researcher for a successful response rate. These included: (1) providing a stamped, self-addressed envelope for easier return of the completed questionnaire, (2) stressing affiliation with the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, (3) expressing appreciation for their effort in filling out the survey questionnaire, (4) having the questionnaire professionally typed and printed to provide an attractive format, and (5) keeping the questionnaire relatively brief.

The cover letter explained the purpose of the survey, encouraged subjects to participate in the survey, informed the participants how the results of the survey will contribute to the apparel industry, and ensured confidentiality of their identities. In addition, participants were asked to return the completed questionnaire within two weeks after they received it. Subjects were invited and did provide comments about clothing catalog use on the questionnaire.

Statistical Procedures

Statistical analyses were performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The principal methods employed to test hypotheses were Principal

Components Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation, Student's t-test, Pearson Correlation Coefficients, and Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha test for reliability of measures. For the analyses of the data not directly related to testing the hypotheses, measures of central tendency were used. Multiple regression analysis was utilized for additional findings beyond hypotheses testing. Statistical significance was set at the .05 level of probability.

In order to establish the basis for catalog use to test hypotheses 1, 2, 3, and 4, factor analysis was performed on 15 catalog use items. Five factors were created and named: (1) "street" - slacks/shorts, blouse/shirts, sweaters, casual clothes, (2) "footwear" - shoes/boots, shoes for work, (3) "clothing for others" - gifts for family, gifts for other than family, clothing for family, (4) "private" - underwear, nightwear, jewelry, and (5) "special" - bathing suits, suits, and dress. Cronbach's Alpha was employed to determine reliabilities for five factors: street .80, footwear .84, clothing for others .65, special .53, and private .52. Factors with reliability below .60 were eliminated in the analyses. Therefore only three factors (footwear, clothing for others, and street) were retained in data analyses. These three factors had eigenvalues above 1.0.

All purchases of nine or more clothing items were coded as a nine to simplify data entry. Of purchases greater than

nine but coded as nine, several were 10s, 20s, 30s, or up to 60 in some categories. Even though there were few of these heavy purchasers, their scores could affect the mean score of each factor.

A factor score was produced by the sum of the factor loading multiplied by the number of items purchased for each clothing item. As an example for the factor score of "street" clothes, it was necessary to obtain the individual factor score for slacks/shorts, casual clothes, blouses/shirts, and sweaters. If an individual purchased three slacks/shorts and two sweaters with corresponding factor loadings of .81 and .60 respectively), the individual factor score is sum of .81 times three and .60 times two.

Frequency distributions based on factor scores were skewed in the positive direction. Because this yielded very small frequencies in the very heavy use category, the data were collapsed into two levels of catalog use: light users and heavy users. The mean score was used to differentiate between the two groups. Accordingly, a score above the mean was considered a heavy user and a score below the mean was considered a light user.

For hypotheses 1 through 4, Student's t-test was utilized to examine the significant differences between light and heavy catalog users in terms of demographics, involvement, and lifestyle. Hypothesis 1 was designed to test the relationship between catalog use and demographics.

Based on the examination of the frequency distributions of demographic data, some items were grouped or regrouped to simplify the interpretation. Open-ended questions were used for age and education. Ages were grouped into 10-year intervals, 15-24, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64, and 65-78. The numbers of years subjects attended educational institutions were grouped as 10-12, 13-16, 17-18, and 19-23 reflecting the average number of years required to attend or complete high school, college, graduate work for Master's or Ph.D. degree, respectively.

The questions for personal income and household income originally had $10,000 intervals, but they were reduced by combining some categories which had too few respondents. Accordingly, personal income was regrouped as less than $20,000, $20,000-$29,999, $30,000-$49,999, and $50,000 or more. Total income was regrouped as less than $30,000, $30,000-$39,999, $40,000-$49,999, $50,000-$69,999, and $70,000 or more.

For marital status, 62.5% of respondents were married. Thus four other categories (single, separated or divorced, widowed, and not married but living with a significant other) were combined into one group and labeled "not married." Because the number of respondents living with children at home was small (26.7%) and the number of their children varied from one to four, this group of respondents were defined as: those who lived with children at home

(26.7%) and those who had no children at home (72.9%). As for race, a majority of the respondents (92.7%) were White. Due to its inability to be compared among races, this item was deleted in further analysis.

Hypothesis 2 was designed to test the relationship between involvement measures and catalog use. The involvement measures for "shoes for work" and "casual clothes" were factor analyzed to reduce the number of involvement statements into a few interpretable variables. Although Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) original Involvement Measure had been analyzed into five factors (Importance, Symbolic, Hedonic, Risk Importance, Risk Probability), the data for the current study resulted in four factors for each type of clothing: Importance, Symbolic, Hedonic, and Risk. For the type of "casual clothes," the statement "When I purchase casual clothes, it's not a big deal if I cannot wear them very often" was eliminated because the loading was not clearly on one factor but rather on two factors (-.49 on Importance and -.46 on Risk). Cronbach's Alpha reliabilities for "shoes for work" resulted in Importance .83, Symbolic .72, Hedonic .52, and Risk .27. Reliabilities for "casual clothes" were Importance .81, Symbolic .81, Hedonic .64, and Risk .52. Factors with a reliability above .60 were retained in data analyses. Thus, two factors (Importance and Symbolic) for "shoes for work" and three factors (Importance, Symbolic, and Hedonic) for

"casual clothes" were included in hypotheses testing. These factors also had eigenvalues above 1.0.

The lifestyle measures used in hypotheses 3 and 4 were factor analyzed to reduce the items into manageable constructs. Seven factors were identified and their reliabilities were: Price-Conscious (.83), Fashion-Conscious (.74), Self-Confident (.75), Credit User (.77), Information Seeker (.74), Attitude Toward Local Shopping Conditions (.72), and Time-Conscious (.61). All of the seven factors were included in data analyses because of moderate or high reliabilities and eigenvalues above 1.0.

Hypotheses 5 was tested using correlation coefficients of factor scores to identify significant relationships in involvement between professional clothing (shoes for work) and nonprofessional clothing (casual clothes). The correlation coefficient above .40 was used to suggest that a relationship could exist between two variables. Hypothesis 6 also utilized correlation coefficients of factor scores to determine the relationship between involvement for two clothing types and lifestyle: (1) involvement in "shoes for work" and lifestyle and (2) involvement in "casual clothes" and lifestyle.

Data analyses were extended to establish a profile of each catalog use group. Stepwise multiple regression was used to determine the contribution of independent variables to the variance in the dependent variables. All the

variables in the independent measures (demographics, involvement, and lifestyle) were included for each of three dependent variables ("street," "footwear," and "clothing for others") in the regression analysis. Significant indicators of each dependent variable were identified at .05 probability level.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

In this chapter, the results of the preliminary data analyses are presented which will be used for hypotheses testing. First, there is a description of the sample in terms of demographics, catalog use, involvement and lifestyle. Secondly, the results of factor analyses are presented and explained. Hypotheses are then presented and tested, followed by additional findings providing a profile of each catalog use group. A discussion of these results finalizes this chapter.

Characteristics of the Respondents

Demographics

Demographic variables are summarized and presented in Table 1, so that the reader has a profile of the respondents in this research. As depicted in the model at the end of chapter 3, demographics are thought to be important variables in catalog use. Therefore these demographic variables are used in hypothesis testing.

As described in chapter 3, demographic variables such as marital status, personal income, total income, and race were regrouped because they represented categories for which

Table 1

Demographic Chracteristics of the Respondents

Variable		Frequency	Percent
Age	15-24	33	6.6
	25-34	180	33.9
	35-44	153	30.4
	45-54	79	15.8
	55-64	45	9.0
	65-78	17	3.0
Marital status			
Married		316	62.5
Not married		188	37.1
Living with children			
Children living at home		135	26.7
No children living at home		369	72.9
Personal income			
Less than $20,000		114	22.5
$20,000 - $29,999		164	32.4
$30,000 - $49,999		157	31.0
$50,000 or more		49	9.8
Total income			
Less than $30,000		98	19.3
$30,000 - $39,999		78	15.4
$40,000 - $49,999		90	17.8
$50,000 - $69,999		109	21.5
$70,000 or more		109	21.5
Occupation			
Upper-management		144	28.5
Middle-management		187	37.0
Educators		175	34.6
Education			
High school graduate		54	10.7
College educated		247	48.7
Master's program		131	25.9
Ph.D.'s program		58	11.5
Race			
White		469	92.7
Other		31	6.2

Note. Totals differ due to missing data.

meaningful rationales could be developed. The detailed categories by frequency and percentage are listed in Table 24, Appendix B. The age of respondents showed a wide range from 15 to 78, with a mean age of 39. The largest percentage was in the 25-34 group (33.9%), followed by the 35-44 group (30.4%).

Married women were the largest proportion (62.5%) of catalog users by marital status, followed by single women (14.8%) and separated or divorced women (12.5%). The majority of the respondents (72.9%) had no children under 12 years of age living at home. Although not reported in Table 1, those with children under 12 living at home (n = 135) included 73 (54.1%) with one child; 50 (37.0%), two children; 10 (7.4%), three children; and two (1.5%), four children.

In this sample, personal income ranged from less than $20,000 to $50,000 or more with a median income in the $20,000 - $29,999 range. The respondents reported incomes less than $20,000 were 22.5%, while only 9.8% indicated incomes in excess of $50,000.

The range of total household income was from less than $30,000 to $70,000 or more with a median total income in the $40,000 - $49,999 range (17.8%). The respondents who had total income less than $30,000 comprised 19.3%, whereas 21.5% reported total income as $70,000 or more.

The response from the three occupational groups selected for the study were evenly distributed. Middle-management was represented by 37.0%; educators, 34.6%; and upper-management, 28.5%.

The level of education ranged from high school to the doctoral level. The largest percentage (48.7%) of the respondents were college educated. The second largest group did graduate work for the Master's degree (25.9%), followed by Ph.D. degree (11.5%). The smallest percentage (10.7%) of the respondents attended or completed high school.

The majority of respondents (92.7%) were White; only 6.2% were Asian, Hispanic, Black, or Other. Because of the uneven distribution, race was not included in further analysis.

Catalog Use

The great majority of the respondents (93.1%) used catalogs to purchase clothing. Table 2 shows the average number of clothing items purchased through catalogs within the 12-month period preceding the survey. In addition, the average number of clothing items purchased according to intended user and two clothing types related to the involvement measure ("shoes for work" and "casual clothes") were included.

Blouses/shirts were purchased most frequently through catalogs ($\underline{M}$ = 2.4), followed by underwear ($\underline{M}$ = 1.8), and

Table 2

Mean Scores for Catalog Purchases of Clothing

	M	SD
Clothing items		
blouses/shirts	2.4	2.4
underwear	1.8	3.0
slacks/shorts	1.7	2.0
dresses	1.5	2.1
jewelry	1.3	2.4
sweaters	1.2	1.8
shoes/boots	1.0	1.6
nightwear	0.7	1.5
bathing suits	0.4	0.9
suits	0.3	1.0
Intended user		
gifts for family members	2.6	2.9
clothing for family members	2.5	3.2
gifts for other than family	1.1	2.1
Other items		
casual clothes	2.5	1.9
shoes for work	0.7	1.1

slacks/shorts (M = 1.7). In terms of clothes purchased for others, most clothes were purchased for family, either as a gift (M = 2.6) or from necessity (M = 2.5), rather than as a gift for nonfamily members (M = 1.1). In terms of other items, "casual clothes" (M = 2.5) were purchased significantly more than "shoes for work" (M = 0.7).

Respondents were asked what were the four most important reasons they used clothing catalogs. In order to provide ordinal data which can be easily interpreted, ratings on four most important reasons were converted to an average rating as shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Average Rating of Four Most Important Reasons for Using Clothing Catalogs

Reason	Average rating
Less effort	3.1
Less time	3.0
Greater variety	2.6
Lower prices	2.4
Satisfaction with previous purchase	2.1
Better quality	2.1
Ease of return	1.8
Use of credit card	1.7

Note. Average rating was computed by multiplying the top rating by 4, second rating by 3, third by 2, and fourth by 1; summing the total and dividing by the total percentage for that reason.

To compute an average rating, the percentage of top rating was multiplied by 4, second rating by 3, third by 2, and fourth by 1. Then the total was summed for each reason and divided by the total percentage for that reason.

The most important reasons were less effort (3.1) and less time (3.0), followed by greater variety (2.6) and lower prices (2.4). A complete list of percentages of responses to the four most important reasons is given in Table 25, Appendix B.

Because consumers cannot personally evaluate catalog merchandise prior to purchase, use of brand names could be a substitute for quality evaluation. Therefore, respondents were asked how frequently they used name brands vs. unfamiliar brands. As shown in Table 4, there was no major difference in frequencies and percentanges of respondents using name brands and unfamiliar brands. For both cases, most respondents used "sometimes," followed by "frequently" and "seldom." Very few respondents used "never" or "always." For these shoppers brand names did not appear to be as influential factor as sometimes reported.

Table 4

Use of Name Brands or Unfamiliar Brands by Frequency and Percentage

Extent of use	Brand name Frequency (%)	Unfamiliar brand Frequency (%)
Sometimes	240 (47)	280 (55)
Frequently	119 (24)	105 (21)
Seldom	82 (16)	73 (14)
Never	19 (4)	7 (1)
Always	9 (2)	3 (1)

Respondents listed catalogs according to frequency of use. When all names listed were counted irrespective of the order, the most used catalog was J.C.Penney (n = 182), followed by Sears (n = 158), Spiegel (n = 148), Avon (n =

120), L.L.Bean (n = 98), Land's End (n = 94), Lane Bryant (n = 68), Chadwicks of Boston (n = 59), and Victoria's Secret (n = 40). When only one catalog used most frequently was examined, the order was Spiegel (n = 70), J.C.Penney (n = 67), Sears (n = 46), Land's End (n = 41) and Lane Bryant (n = 32). No further analysis will be reported of these data, for they are not related to the hypotheses of the study.

Involvement

The means and standard deviations for involvement statements are reported in Tables 5 and 6. Tables 26 and 27 in Appendix B provide a complete list including the statements not used in data analysis because of low reliability of the corresponding factors or cross loading in the factor.

As indicated in Table 5, respondents most strongly agreed with "shoes for work" being important. They reported being careful in their selection of shoes for work and being interested in shoes as a type of clothing. Should a pair of shoes not perform as intended, the respondent indicated this was troublesome.

The results in Table 6 suggest that "casual clothes" appear to bring enjoyment to the wearer. In fact, the two statements scored highest revealed the amount of enjoyment related to items worn most often. Casual clothes were important and interesting to them. They indicated casual

Table 5

Mean Scores of Involvement for "Shoes for Work"

Statement	M	SD
Shoes for work are very important to me.	4.50	0.85
I am very interested in the shoes that I wear to work.	4.32	1.04
I choose my shoes for work very carefully.	4.29	0.94
A purchase of shoes for work that doesn't perform well troubles me a great deal.	4.13	1.13
Which shoes I wear to work matters to me a lot.	4.03	1.03
It's really a problem if I buy shoes that are inappropriate for my job.	3.75	1.32
The type of shoes that I wear to work is compatible with how I like to think of myself.	3.54	1.13
Shoes that I wear to work help me express my personality.	3.36	1.22
I can really tell about a person by the shoe she/she selects for work.	3.17	1.07

Note. All scales range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

clothes were expressive of their personalities and compatible with how they liked to think of themselves.

Table 6

Mean Scores of Involvement for "Casual Clothes"

Statement	M	SD
The casual clothes I usually wear are the ones I enjoy most.	4.27	0.94
For me, casual clothes are a real pleasure.	4.13	0.92
Casual clothes are very important to me.	3.96	0.93
I am very interested in the casual clothes I wear.	3.94	0.94
Casual clothes that I wear help me express my personality.	3.86	0.93
The type of casual clothes that I wear is compatible with how I like to think of myself.	3.86	1.01
Which casual clothes I wear matters to me a lot.	3.79	0.98
I can really tell about a person by casual clothes he/she selects.	3.42	0.99
When purchasing casual clothes, I am never certain about my choice.	2.12	1.06
I can't say that I particularly like the type of casual clothes that I wear.	1.98	1.05

Note. All scales range from 1(strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Lifestyle

A summary of the means and standard deviations of lifestyle statements is presented in Table 7. Respondents were characterized as being independent, self-confident,

Table 7

Mean Scores of Lifestyle

Statement	M	SD
It is convenient to have credit cards.	4.18	0.99
I am more independent than most people.	4.12	0.94
I find myself checking the prices in the store even for small items.	4.01	1.11
I usually watch the ads for sales.	3.97	1.12
An important part of my life is dressing smartly.	3.90	1.00
I shop a lot for "special sales."	3.89	1.13
I usually shop where it saves me time.	3.77	1.08
I am considered a leader.	3.75	1.01
I try to save a lot of money by shopping around for sales.	3.69	1.16
I think I have more self-confidence than most people.	3.65	0.96
I like to try new and different things.	3.62	1.10
I usually have one or more outfits that are of the latest style.	3.45	1.20
Local stores are attractive places to shop.	3.39	1.11
I buy many things with a credit card or a charge card.	3.34	1.38
Local stores offer good quality for the price.	3.33	1.14

(Table 7 continued)

I usually buy at the most convenient store.	3.00	1.34
I usually pay cash for everything I buy.	2.98	1.30
I often try new brands before my friends and neighbors do.	2.73	1.22
When I must choose between fashion and comfort, I usually choose fashion.	2.30	1.14
My neighbors or friends usually give me good advice on what brands of clothes to buy.	2.22	1.10
I often seek out the advice of my friends regarding which brand to buy.	1.98	1.06

Note. All scales range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

leaders, and economically minded in time and money. In addition, they considered being well-dressed important, but could choose comfort rather than fashion if forced to make a choice. They intended to buy merchandise with credit or charge cards as a convenience. They were somewhat favorable toward local shopping conditions. However, they did not seem to depend on others for ideas about what to buy.

Factor Analyses of the Measures

Principal Components Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation was employed to reduce the items included in the measure to fewer identifiable constructs. Three measures

that had to be factor analyzed to test the hypotheses for the present study were Catalog Use, Involvement, and Lifestyle. Presented in this section are the results of the factor analyses of the three measures in preparation for subsequent analyses.

Catalog Use

The items in the Catalog Use Measure were factor analyzed and three factors ("street," "footwear," and "clothing for others") were used as the dependent variables to test the major hypotheses of the study. Table 8 illustrates the reliability, eigenvalue, and percentage of variance explained for each of three factors and factor loadings of each item in the corresponding factor. For the two factors ("special" and "private") that were eliminated due to low reliabilities, information can be found in Table 28, Appendix B.

Factor 1, "street" clothes, consisted of four items: slacks/shirts, "casual clothes", blouses/shirts, and sweaters. These items included clothes worn casually or informally. The "street" clothes factor accounted for 33.1% of the variance.

Factor 2 was identified as "footwear" which explained 8.9 % of the variance. Representative items were "shoes for work" and shoes/boots.

Table 8

Factor Loadings for Three Catalog Use Factors

Item	Alpha	Eig[a]	Var[b]	Loading
Factor 1: Street	.80	4.97	33.1	
Slacks/shorts				.81
Casual clothes				.76
Blouses/shirts				.69
Sweaters				.60
Factor 2: Footwear	.84	1.34	8.9	
Shoes for work				.89
Shoes/boots				.85
Factor 3: Clothing for others	.65	1.27	8.5	
Gifts for family members				.77
Gifts for other than family				.77
Clothing for family members				.66

[a]Eigenvalue
[b]Percent of variance explained.

Factor 3, "clothing for others," included three items according to intended user or occasion: gifts for family members, gifts for other than family, or clothing for family members. These three items accounted for 8.5% of the variance.

To test for significant differences between the two levels (light and heavy users) for each catalog use group, a mean of factor scores was determined. Factor scores were determined by summing factor loadings multiplied by the number of items purchased. The factor scores below the mean were designated as "light users" and those above the mean as

"heavy users." The means, ranges and standard deviations for three factors are included in Table 9. Because the number of items differed in all catalog use factors, the factor score range varied widely for each factor. The highest mean score was obtained from "street" (5.67), followed by "clothing for others" (4.48). "Footwear" had the lowest mean score (1.43).

Table 9

Factor Scores of Catalog Use

Factor	Score range	M	SD
Street	0 - 22.70	5.67	4.62
Clothing for others	0 - 19.76	4.48	4.58
Footwear	0 - 12.12	1.43	2.24

Involvement

Professional women catalog shoppers' perception of involvement was measured separately for "shoes for work" and "casual clothes." Based on factor analysis scores and reliabilities, two factors for "shoes for work" and three factors for "casual clothes" were included in the analyses. However, less than half of the statements did not load on the same factors as they did in the five factors originally identified by Laurent and Kapferer (1985) and Mittal and Lee (1987). Furthermore, the factor loading pattern for each

statement was somewhat different for both clothing types. Referring to Table 10, the reader can compare the involvement statements that clustered together in each factor for two clothing types compared to the original works (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985; Mittal & Lee, 1987).

For the most of the statements, the factor identified either by "shoes for work" or "casual clothes" turned out to be the same factor as in the original works. However, both statements 10 and 11 loaded on Importance for "casual clothes," whereas they loaded on Hedonic in the original works. Additionally, statement 12 loaded on the Hedonic factor for "casual clothes," but it loaded on Risk in the original works. The difference may be attributed to a difference in product category; in this study the product is specific clothing items whereas Laurent and Kapferer (1985) used 14 different products and Mittal and Lee (1987) used wine. The difference can still be found for two clothing types. For "shoes for work," the statement 4 loaded on Importance; for "casual clothes," the statement loaded on Symbolic. Statements 7, 8, and 9 turned out to be involvement factors only for "shoes for work; statements 10, 11, 12, and 13, only for "casual clothes." Therefore, different types of clothing warranted responses which related to distinct concepts. Also, factor analysis was deemed necessary for involvement both with "shoes for work" and "casual clothes."

Table 10

Involvement Factors for "Shoes for Work" and "Casual Clothes" and Those in the Original Works

Statement	Shoes for work	Casual clothes	Original works[a]
1. I can really tell about a person by the _____ she selects.	S	S	S
2. _____ that I wear help me express my personality.	S	S	S
3. The type of _____ that I wear is compatible with how I think of myself.	S	S	S
4. Which _____ I wear matters to me a lot.	I	S	I
5. _____ are very important to me.	I	I	I
6. I am very interested in the _____ I wear.	I	I	I
7. It's really a problem if I buy _____ that are inappropriate.	I	X	R
8. A purchase of _____ that doesn't perform well troubles me a great deal.	I	X	R
9. I choose my _____ very carefully.	I	X	I
10. The _____ I usually wear are the ones I enjoy most.	X	I	H
11. For me, _____ are a real pleasure.	X	I	H
12. When purchasing _____, I am never certain about my choice.	X	H	R
13. I can't say that I particularly like the type of _____ that I wear.	X	H	H

Note. S = Symbolic, I = Importance, H = Hedonic, R = Risk (Risk Importance or Risk Probability), X = Not included.
[a] Laurent and Kapferer (1985), Mittal and Lee (1987).

1. "Shoes for work"

Involvement in "shoes for work" was factor analyzed and two reliable factors were generated as shown in Table 11. Factor analyses that did not meet the criterion and were therefore excluded are located in Table 29, Appendix B.

Factor 1, labeled Importance, appeared most meaningful and accounted for 28.4% of the variance. This factor consisted of six statements representing the perceived importance of "shoes for work" and high negative consequences from making a poor purchase decision.

Factor 2 was identified as Symbolic value attributed by respondents to "shoes for work." Three statements were retained on this factor and explained 14.9% of the variance.

2. "Casual Clothes"

Involvement in "casual clothes" was factor analyzed and three reliable factors were extracted as listed in Table 12. An additional analysis of Risk factor that was not included in the analyses can be found in Table 30, Appendix B.

Factor 1 included four statements suggesting Importance perceived in "casual clothes." This factor appeared to be the most meaningful factor, explaining 33.7% of the variance.

Factor 2 was composed of four statements associated with Symbolic value in "casual clothes." This factor

Table 11

Factor Loadings for Two Involvement Factors for "Shoes for Work"

Statement	Alpha	Eig[a]	Var[b]	Loading
Factor 1: Importance	.83	3.98	28.4	
I am very interested in the shoes I wear to work.				.78
Which shoes I wear to work matters to me a lot.				.76
A purchase of shoes for work that doesn't perform well troubles me a great deal.				.74
I choose my shoes for work very carefully.				.74
Shoes for work are very important to me.				.72
It's really a problem if I buy shoes that are inappropriate for my job.				.67
Factor 2: Symbolic	.72	2.08	14.9	
Shoes that I wear to work help me express my personality.				.82
I can really tell about a person by the shoes he/she selects for work.				.71
The type of shoes that I wear to work is compatible with how I like to think of myself.				.68

[a]Eigenvalue
[b]Percent of variance explained.

Table 12

Factor Loadings for Three Involvement Factors for "Casual Clothes"

Statement	Alpha	Eig[a]	Var[b]	Loading
Factor 1: Importance	.81	4.72	33.7	
For me, casual clothes are a real pleasure.				.82
Casual clothes are very important to me.				.75
I am very interested in the casual clothes I wear.				.70
The casual clothes I usually wear are the ones I enjoy most.				.67
Factor 2: Symbolic	.64	1.82	13.0	
Casual clothes that I wear help me express my personality.				.78
The type of casual clothes that I wear is compatible with how I like to think of myself.				.74
I can really tell about a person by casual clothes he/she selects.				.68
Which casual clothes I wear matters to me a lot.				.62
Factor 3: Hedonic	.64	1.04	7.4	
When purchasing casual clothes, I am never certain about my choice.				.86
I can't say that I particularly like the type of casual clothes that I wear.				.81

[a]Eigenvalue
[b]Percent of variance explained.

accounted for 13.0% of the variance.

Factor 3 contained two statements with 7.4% of the variance explained. The two statements were identified as Hedonic value attributed to "casual clothes."

Lifestyle

Factor Analysis using Varimax Rotation was employed to factor analyze the twenty-one lifestyle statements as shown in Table 13. Seven factors, altogether explaining 67.1% of the variance, represented seven major dimensions of female consumers' clothing-related lifestyle.

Factor 1, interpreted as Price-Conscious, showed high positive loadings for four statements explaining 15.4% of the variance. Factor 2 included five statements reflecting Fashion-Conscious and accounted for 13.1% of the variance.

Three statements in Factor 3 explained 10.7% of the variance and were identified as Self-Confident. Factor 4, labeled Credit User, included three statements, accounting for 8.6% of the variance. The statement which loaded second highest on this factor had a negative factor loading indicating that respondents disagreed with the statement. Respondents who scored high on this factor used more credit cards than cash for purchasing merchandise.

Factor 5, accounting for 8.2% of the variance, included two statements suggesting respondents' seeking advice of their friends or neighbors on what to buy. This factor was

Table 13

Factor Loadings for Seven Lifestyle Factors

Statement	Alpha	Eig[a]	Var[b]	Load[c]
Factor 1: Price-Conscious	.83	3.24	15.4	
I shop a lot for "special sales."				.86
I try to save a lot of money by shopping around for sales.				.83
I usually watch the ads for sales.				.80
I find myself checking the prices in the store even for small items.				.76
Factor 2: Fashion-Conscious	.74	2.75	13.1	
I usually have one or more outfits that are of the latest style.				.77
I often try new brands before my friends and neighbors do.				.73
When I must choose between fashion and comfort, I usually choose fashion.				.68
I like to try new and different things.				.65
An important part of my life is dressing smartly.				.61
Factor 3: Self-Confident	.75	2.24	10.7	
I am considered a leader.				.82
I think I have more self-confidence than most people.				.79
I am more independent than most people.				.77

(Table 13 continued)

Factor 4: Credit User	.77	1.81	8.6	
I buy many things with a credit card or a charge card.				.88
I usually pay cash for everything I buy.				-.84
It is convenient to have credit cards.				.75
Factor 5: Information Seeker	.74	1.71	8.2	
I often seek out the advice of my friends regarding which brand to buy.				.87
My neighbors or friends usually give me good advice on what brands of clothes to buy.				.87
Factor 6: Attitudes Toward Local Shopping	.72	1.21	5.7	
Local stores are attractive places to shop.				.87
Local stores offer good quality for the price.				.86
Factor 7: Time-Conscious	.61	1.14	5.4	
I usually shop where it saves me time.				.85
I usually buy at the most convenient store.				.79

[a]Eigenvalue
[b]Percent of variance explained.
[c]Factor loading

named Information Seeker. Factor 6, labeled Attitudes Toward Local Shopping had two statements with 5.7% of the

variance explained. Factor 7 consisted of two statements suggesting Time-Consciousness and accounted for 5.4% of the variance.

Hypotheses Testing

Six hypotheses originally proposed were modified after examining the responses from respondents and factor analyses of the measures. Hypotheses were tested following the procedures detailed in chapter 3 and their analytical results are reported in this section.

> Hypothesis 1. There is no significant relationship between clothing catalog use of professional women and their demographic variables defined as age, marital status, children living at home, personal income, total income, occupation, and education.

The t-test was utilized to examine the significant differences between light and heavy catalog users in terms of demographic variables. Table 14 summarizes the differences in demographic variables between light and heavy catalog users of each of the three clothing categories. A complete listing including two other categories ("special" and "private") is presented in Tables 31 through 35 in Appendix B. The relationships between catalog use and demographics are reported for each of the three clothing categories obtained in the factor analyses.

Table 14

Significant Differences Between Light and Heavy Catalog Users on Demographic Variables

Variable	Street	Footwear	Clothing for Others
Age	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Marital status[a]	.016	n.s.	.049(-)
Living with children[b]	n.s.	n.s.	.000(-)
Personal income	.000	.003	n.s.
Total income	.017	n.s.	.001
Occupation[c]	.015(-)	n.s.	n.s.
Education	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.

Note. n.s. Not significant at .05 probability level.
(-) Inverse relationship.
[a]The lower value is associated with being married; the higher value, not married.
[b]The lower value is associated with living with children; The higher value, not living with children.
[c]The lower value is associated is upper-management or, to a lesser extent, middle-management; the higher value is associated with educator.

1. "Street" Clothes

"Street" clothes contained such clothing items as slacks/shorts, casual clothes, blouses/shirts, and sweaters. Four out of seven demographic variables were significantly related to catalog use for "street" clothes. There was an inverse relationship between catalog use for "street" clothes and occupation ($p = .015$). The group who purchased

most "street" clothing via catalogs was upper-management, followed by middle-management; educators were the lowest purchasers of "street" clothes. Three variables, marital status ($p = .016$), personal income ($p = .000$), and total income ($p = .017$), were positively related to catalog use for "street" clothes. Heavy users had more incomes, both personal and total. Respondents who were not married purchased more "street" clothes through catalogs than married respondents. No significant differences were found for age, living with children, or education by level of catalog use. Hypothesis 1 was partially supported for "street" clothes.

2. "Footwear"

The clothing category of "footwear" consisted of shoes for work and shoes/boots. Only one variable, personal income ($p = .003$), emerged to effectively discriminate between light and heavy catalog users. Individuals who had greater incomes made greater use of catalog use of "footwear." There was a trend toward a possible relationship ($p = .062$) between marital status and catalog use. Unmarried compared to married respondents tended to use catalogs more to purchase footwear. Other demographic variables such as age, living with children, total income, occupation, and education did not significantly relate use of catalogs for footwear purchases. Therefore, hypothesis 1

was partially supported for "footwear."

3. "Clothing for Others"

"Clothing for others" was purchased as a gift for family members, a gift for other than family, or clothing for family members. Three demographic variables were significant for catalog use of "clothing for others"; living with children ($p = .000$), total income ($p = .001$), and marital status ($p = .049$). Respondents who purchased more clothing for others tended to be married, live with children under 12 years of age, and have greater total household incomes. No statistically significant differences were found for catalog use related to "clothing for others" when data were analyzed by occupation, age, personal income, and education. Hypothesis 1 was partially supported for "clothing for others."

> Hypothesis 2. There is no significant relationship between clothing catalog use of professional women and involvement variables defined as the importance of clothing, the symbolic value of clothing, and the hedonic value of clothing.

Involvement variables were specified as "shoes for work" (professional clothing) and "casual clothes" (nonprofessional clothing). Significant differences between light and heavy users were determined by t-tests. The results from testing hypothesis 2 are summarized by the clothing categories as shown in Table 15. A detailed list

of testing hypothesis 2 is given in Tables 36 through 40, Appendix B.

Table 15

Significant Differences Between Light and Heavy Catalog Users on Involvement Variables

Variable	Street	Footwear	Clothing for Others
"Shoes for work"			
Importance	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Symbolic	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
"Casual clothes"			
Importance	.000	n.s.	n.s.
Symbolic	.012	n.s.	n.s.
Hedonic	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.

1. "Street" Clothes

Two involvement factors in "casual clothes" yielded significant differences between light and heavy users of "street" clothes which consist of slacks/shorts, casual clothes, blouses/shirts, and sweaters. The importance factor in "casual clothes" appeared to be the most effective factor in distinguishing between light and heavy catalog users of "street" clothes ($p = .000$). Respondents who attribute Importance value on "casual clothes" were more

likely to be heavy purchasers of "street" clothes through catalogs. Also heavy users of "street" clothes place more Symbolic value on "casual clothes" ($p = .012$). Hypothesis 2 was partially supported for "street" clothes.

2. "Footwear"

There were no significant differences between light and heavy catalog users of "footwear" as measured by the two types of involvement, "shoes for work" or "casual clothes." Hypothesis 2 was supported for "footwear."

3. "Clothing for Others"

There was no significant difference between light and heavy catalog users of "clothing for others" on any of the involvement variables. Hypothesis 2 was supported for "clothing for others."

> Hypothesis 3: Professional women's catalog use will vary directly according to their lifestyle which is expressed by price-conscious, fashion-conscious, self-confident, credit user, information seeker, and time-conscious.

The relationships between catalog use and lifestyle variables are summarized in Table 16. The differences in mean scores on the six lifestyle variables between light and heavy users were determined by t-tests. A complete list is presented in Tables 41 through 45 in Appendix B.

Table 16

Significant Differences Between Light and Heavy Catalog Users on Six Lifestyle Variables

Variable	Street	Footwear	Clothing for Others
Price-Conscious	.006(-)	n.s.	n.s.
Fashion-Conscious	n.s.	.004	n.s.
Self-Confident	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Credit User	.002	n.s.	n.s.
Information Seeker	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Time-Conscious	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.

(-) Inverse relationship.

1. "Street" Clothes

The level of catalog use for "street" clothes (slacks/shorts, casual clothes, blouse/shirts, and sweaters) was most easily distinguished when lifestyle variables were examined. Highly significant differences existed between light and heavy users of "street" clothes regarding two lifestyle factors at the .01 level; Price-Conscious ($p = .006$) and Credit User ($p = .002$). Price-Consciousness was negatively related, whereas Credit User was positively related. Heavy purchasers of "street" clothes were less price-conscious but used credit cards more often than light purchasers. Hypothesis 3 was partially supported for

"street" clothes.

2. "Footwear"

For catalog users of "footwear," only one lifestyle factor differentiated between heavy users and light users: Fashion-Conscious ($p = .004$). Heavy catalog users for purchasing "footwear" were significantly more fashion-conscious than light catalog users of "footwear." Although not statistically significant, there was a trend between Self-Confident and catalog use for purchasing "footwear" ($p = .072$). More self-confident respondents tended to purchase more "footwear" through catalogs. Hypothesis 3 was partially supported for "footwear."

3. "Clothing for Others"

There was no significant difference between two levels of catalog use in any of the six lifestyle factors. Hypothesis 3 was supported for "clothing for others."

> Hypothesis 4. Professional women's catalog use will vary inversely according to their lifestyle which is expressed by the attitude toward local shopping conditions.

A summary of the relationship between catalog use and Attitude Toward Local Shopping Conditions is given in Table 17. Significant differences between light and heavy users of catalog use categories were determined by the t-test.

Additional data for "special" and "private" clothes which are not included in the analyses are provided in Table 46, Appendix B.

Table 17

Significant Differences Between Light and Heavy Catalog Users on Attitude Toward Local Shopping Conditions

Catalog use	n	M	SD	t	p
Street					
Light	286	5.76	1.65	0.24	.807
Heavy	214	5.73	1.48		
Footwear					
Light	319	5.85	1.54	1.97	.049
Heavy	181	5.56	1.64		
Clothing for others					
Light	294	5.85	1.53	1.76	.080
Heavy	206	5.60	1.64		

Only one category, "footwear," out of three clothing categories could be differentiated between light and heavy users on Attitude Toward Local Shopping Conditions. Regarding this lifestyle variable, the mean score of light users of "footwear" was 5.85 and that of heavy users was 5.56, indicating inverse relationship between catalog use of "footwear" and Attitude Toward Local Shopping Conditions. The difference in the mean score produced statistical significance ($p = .049$). This suggests that heavy catalog usage for "footwear" was associated with more negative

attitudes toward local shopping conditions than light catalog users for "footwear."

Although not statistically significant at .05 level, the probability of "clothing for others" factor indicated a trend ($p = .080$). Heavy users of "clothing for others" tended to have more negative attitudes toward local shopping conditions than light users. Based on these results, Hypothesis 4 was supported for "footwear" and was rejected for the other two categories, "street" clothes and "clothing for others."

> Hypothesis 5. There is no significant relationship in involvement scores between a type of professional clothing and a type of nonprofessional clothing on variables of the importance of clothing, the symbolic value of clothing, and the hedonic value in clothing.

Pearson correlations were computed to test hypothesis 5. A correlation matrix was generated for two involvement factors for "shoes for work" (professional clothing) and three involvement factors for "casual clothes" (nonprofessional clothing). As shown in Table 18, very few significant correlations were found in involvement factors between "shoes for work" and "casual clothes." The largest correlation coefficient was between Symbolic factors in both "shoes for work" and "casual clothes" ($r = .45$). However this correlation coefficient is weak. In most cases, involvement factors in "shoes for work" were unrelated to any of involvement factor in "casual clothes." On this

basis, Hypothesis 5 was supported.

Table 18

Correlation Coefficients Between Involvement in "Shoes for Work" and Involvement in "Casual Clothes"

	Casual clothes		
Shoes for work	Importance	Symbolic	Hedonic
Importance	.18*	.28*	.05
Symbolic	.09*	.45*	.01

* $p < .05$

Hypothesis 6. There is no significant relationship between involvement variables and lifestyle variables for professional women.

A correlation matrix was examined to test Hypothesis 6. The correlation coefficients were examined to determine if seven lifestyle factors are related to two involvement factors in "shoes for work" (Table 19) and three involvement factors in "casual clothes" (Table 20). Although several variables were significant at .05 probability level, only one lifestyle factor, Fashion-Conscious, was weakly associated with the Symbolic factor in "shoes for work" ($r = .41$). The overall coefficients were extremely low. Thus, Hypothesis 6 was supported.

Table 19

Correlation Coefficients Between Involvement in "Shoes for Work" and Lifestyle

	Involvement	
Lifestyle	Importance	Symbolic
Price-Conscious	.12*	.01
Fashion-Conscious	.12*	.41*
Self-Confident	.10*	.20*
Credit User	-.01	-.01
Information Seeker	.00	.11*
Time-Conscious	.07	-.01
Local Shopping	.11*	.01

* $p < .05$

Table 20

Correlation Coefficients Between Involvement in "Casual Clothes" and Lifestyle

	Involvement		
Lifestyle	Importance	Symbolic	Hedonic
Price-Conscious	.11*	.07	.02
Fashion-Conscious	.14*	.30*	-.01
Self-Confident	.14*	.14*	-.16*
Credit User	.10*	.08*	-.02
Information Seeker	.07	.16*	.20*
Time-Conscious	.07	.09*	.07
Local Shopping	.04	.07	.02

* $p < .05$

Additional Findings

This study is geared toward providing catalog retailers with market strategies to target consumers by specific clothing categories. Therefore, further analysis was desired so that a profile of catalog users for each clothing category could be developed.

In order to determine what variables were important to predict heavy catalog users of each clothing category, stepwise multiple regression was applied by including all the independent variables in the analyses. The results are presented for each clothing category.

1. "Street" Clothes

Table 21 summarizes the results of stepwise multiple regression on "street" clothes. Four significant variables were produced as significant predictors of heavy catalog users of "street" clothes: personal income, Importance of "casual clothes," marital status, Price-Conscious. The R^2 value indicated that eight percent of the variance in catalog use of "street" clothes could be explained by the four independent variables in the final regression equation. Beta coefficients revealed that all of these four variables were highly significant ($F = 10.37$, $p = .001$).

Personal income was the first variable selected in the stepwise regression analysis and therefore was the most

Table 21

Stepwise Regression of "Street" Clothes on Independent Variables

Variable	B	SE B	Beta
Personal income	.00	.00	.15**
Importance of "casual clothes"	.04	.01	.18***
Marital status	.04	.02	.11*
Price-Conscious	-.02	.01	-.12*
Intercept	.93	.17	
F	10.37***		
R^2	.08		
Adjusted R^2	.07		

SE B: Standard error of B.
* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001.

significant predictor of catalog use of "street" clothes. Importance in "casual clothes" was the second most significant predictor; marital status, the third; and Price-Conscious, the fourth.

The variables of personal income, Importance of "casual clothes," and marital status had positive beta coefficients, whereas Price-Conscious had a negative beta coefficient. Accordingly, heavy catalog users of "street" clothes were likely to

(1) have high personal incomes,

(2) consider "casual clothes" as important,

(3) not be married, and

(4) be less price-conscious.

2. "Footwear"

Five of the independent variables were significantly related to catalog use of "footwear" as presented in Table 22: Fashion-Conscious, age, Attitude Toward Local Shopping Conditions, Time-Conscious, and personal income. They were significant variables in the prediction of catalog use of "footwear" ($F = 6.26$, $p = .000$), with six percent of variance explained.

Fashion-Conscious, the first variable selected in stepwise regression analysis, was the strongest predictor of catalog use of "footwear"; age, second; Attitude Toward Local Shopping Conditions, third; Time-Conscious, fourth; and personal income, fifth.

Beta coefficient of Attitude Toward Local Shopping Conditions was negative and those of the other four variables were positive. Thus, heavy catalog users of "footwear" tended to

(1) be fashion-conscious,

(2) be older,

(3) have negative attitudes toward local shopping conditions,

(4) be time-conscious, and

(5) have higher personal incomes.

Table 22

Stepwise Regression of "Footwear" on Independent Variables

Variable	B	SE B	Beta
Fashion-Conscious	.03	.01	.16***
Age	.00	.00	.11*
Local Shopping[a]	-.04	.01	-.13**
Time-Conscious	.03	.01	.11*
Personal income	.00	.00	.09*
Intercept	.82	.16	
F	6.26***		
R^2	.06		
Adjusted R^2	.05		

* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001.
[a]Attitude Toward Local Shopping Conditions.

3. "Clothing for Others"

As shown in Table 23, three variables appeared to be significant in predicting catalog use of "clothing for others" (F = 8.74, p = .000): living with children, total income, and Attitude Toward Local Shopping Conditions. These three independent variables explained 5.4% of the

variance in the dependent variable.

Table 23

Stepwise Regression of "Clothing for Others" on Independent Variables

Variable	B	SE B	Beta
Living with children	-.17	.05	-.16***
Total income	.00	.00	.13**
Local Shopping	-.03	.01	-.09*
Intercept	1.74	.13	
F	8.74***		
R^2	.05		
Adjusted R^2	.05		

* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001.

Living with children was the most important variable in identifying the heavy catalog users of "clothing for others." The next most important variable was total income,followed by Attitude Toward Local Shopping Conditions. Total income showed positive beta coefficient; on the contrary, both living with children and Attitude Toward Local Shopping Conditions showed negative beta coefficients. On this basis, it can be said that heavy catalog users of "clothing for others" were likely to have

(1) children under 12 years of age at home,

(2) higher total household incomes, and

(3) negative attitudes toward local shopping conditions.

Discussion

Results of the analyses yielded partial or complete support of the hypotheses tested. A discussion of the findings from hypotheses testing follows with references made to previous research efforts. In addition, a consumer profile of each catalog use group is described based on the findings of the regression analyses.

Differences Between Light and Heavy Users

Hypotheses 1 through 4 are the relationships between catalog use and the variables of demographics, involvement, and lifestyle. No consistent pattern emerged across three clothing categories regarding these relationships. The results of hypotheses 1 through 4 are discussed under the heading of each measure.

1. Demographics

Testing of the demographic variables indicated a number of significant relationships with catalog use. There was a significant relationship between marital status and catalog use of "street" and "clothing for others." People who bought more "street" clothes were less likely to be married.

On the contrary, married people purchased more "clothing for others" through catalogs.

Inconsistent with the widely held view that catalog users tended to have children at home (Darian, 1987; Lumpkin & Hawes, 1985; Reynolds, 1974), this study revealed no significant relationship between children living at home and catalog use with the exception of "clothing for others." Those who purchased "clothing for others" through catalogs were likely to have children under 12 years at home. This can lead to the interpretation that clothing items were mainly purchased for their children because these professional women had greater time pressures and thus had less time to shop for their children.

Personal income and total income were successful in distinguishing light from heavy users. Higher personal income was related to heavy catalog users of "street" and "footwear." These findings support the earlier researchers who found that in-home shoppers were affluent consumers (Berkowitz et al., 1979; Cunningham & Cunningham, 1973; Gillett, 1970; Kono & Buatsi, 1984; Korgaonkar, 1981; Lumpkin & Hawes, 1985; Reynolds, 1974; Smallwood & Wiener, 1987). Interestingly, these people who were heavy catalog users of "street" clothes and "footwear" were more likely to be not married even though marital status was not significant at .05 level for "footwear" ($p = .062$). This interaction of personal income and marital status suggests

that professional women who were not married and had high personal incomes purchased more "street" clothes and "footwear" through catalogs.

A significant relationship was indicated between total household income and the level of catalog use of "street" clothes and "clothing for others." Heavy catalog users of "street" clothes tended to have higher total incomes. The tendency of heavy catalog purchasers of "clothing for others" to have higher total incomes might be related to their being married, and living with children at home.

Occupation related to catalog use of "street" clothes. Heavy users of "street" clothes tended to be employed as upper-management or, to a lesser degree, middle-management rather than educators. Professional women working in the business arena might be more involved in social or outdoor activities that require more specialized clothing than educators. Also professional business women might have less time to shop for these clothes in stores.

The demographic variables such as age and education did not differentiate between light and heavy users on any of the clothing categories. The result of no significant relationship between age and the level of catalog use has supporting or contradicting evidence from previous research studies. Researchers reported no significant effect of age (Cunningham & Cunningham, 1973; Gillett, 1970), younger in-home shoppers (Berkowitz et al., 1979), or older in-home

shoppers (Darian, 1987; Lumpkin & Hawes, 1985; Smallwood & Wiener, 1987; Seitz, 1987). This inconsistency across studies, as indicated by Shim and Drake (1990), may be due to the difference in product type, in-home shopping method, or group of respondents. Furthermore, the age range of professional women may be narrower than the female population at large, which diminishes the significance of age as related to the level of catalog use. As for educational level, the majority of subjects in this study were college educated; results might differ in a sample with a wide variety of educational level.

Of the three clothing categories, "street" appeared to produce the greatest differences between light and heavy catalog users when their demographics were examined. In other words, light and heavy catalog users of "street" clothes have relatively distinct profiles in terms of demographic variables.

2. Involvement

Overall, "casual clothes" revealed greater involvement than did "shoes for work" which was thought to be the high involvement clothing item. In fact, involvement with "shoes for work" did not produce significance for any of the catalog use categories. Perhaps "casual clothes" permits greater opportunities for choice even though it was defined as "the clothes you might wear around the house or to run

errands." Professional women can take opportunities to express themselves by wearing/purchasing whatever they prefer. On the other hand, for "shoes for work," an item specified for work, there might be a much narrower range of choice even though the item is important to the performance of their social and career roles. In fact, Importance of "shoes for work" did not distinguish between light and heavy catalog users for any of the three clothing categories. Regardless of clothing category or level of catalog use, "shoes for work" were important to professional women for their work.

The significant difference between light and heavy catalog users could be found only for "street" clothes when involvement variables were examined. Importance and Symbolic value in "casual clothes" were significantly related to the level of catalog use for "street" clothes.

Heavy catalog users of "street" clothes perceived "casual clothes" as important, interesting, and enjoyable. Importance perceived in "casual clothes" was more likely to be related to psychological importance rather than utilitarian importance. This lends support to the notion that clothing can bring pleasure to a wearer by providing self-enhancement and psychological enhancement (Fairhurst, Good, & Gentry, 1989).

This finding is reflected in the Symbolic value in "casual clothes" perceived by heavy users of "street"

clothes. It can be assumed that respondents derived satisfaction from their interpretation of "casual clothes" as expressiveness rather than utilitarianism. As revealed by the items on Symbolic value in the instrument of this study, casual clothes were expressive of their personalities, compatible with their ideal self-images, and were used as a tool to judge people by. Thus casual clothes seemed to have greater sociopsychological importance rather than functional importance.

It is noteworthy that Hedonic value in "casual clothes" did not reveal any significance to any of the three clothing categories. Hedonic value was associated with confidence in purchasing and wearing the right clothing. It can be said that both groups of catalog use (light and heavy users) had strong confidence in choice of "casual clothes" and a wide range of tastes in "casual clothes." In fact, the variable of Self-Confident in lifestyle measure did not display significant difference between light and heavy catalog users for any clothing category.

3. Lifestyle

The lifestyle measure was less successful than the demographic measure but more successful than the involvement measure in distinguishing between light and heavy catalog users. Heavy catalog users of "street" clothes were less likely to be price-conscious. They might be more conscious

of symbolic value expressed by those clothing items as these relate to their career and social performance.

Heavy catalog users of "footwear" were likely to be fashion-conscious professional women. These clothing items are closely related to the respondents' impression and career management. This is consistent with the result reported by Smallwood and Wiener (1987) even though they did not study specific clothing categories. These researchers found that heavy catalog shoppers were more likely to be fashion opinion leaders than light catalog shoppers.

Heavy catalog users of "street" clothes tended to use more credit cards. The convenience factor of credit cards as a means of payment may be responsible for their greater use by professional women. This finding supports previous studies by Lumpkin and Hawes (1985) who found that frequent catalog shopping was positively related to use of credit cards.

The level of catalog use was not significantly related to Attitude Toward Local Shopping Conditions with only the exception of "footwear." Heavy catalog users of "footwear" tended to have negative attitudes toward local shopping conditions. This result is substantiated by those of Reynolds (1974) and Quelch and Takeuchi (1981). Reynolds reported that catalog shoppers had lower opinions of local shopping establishments than did store shoppers. Quelch and Takeuchi attributed increased catalog shopping to

unsatisfactory in-store service, difficulty in parking, and inconvenient store hours.

Contrary to the majority of the research findings reported regarding catalog patronge, Self-Confident, Information Seeker, and Time-Conscious did not distinguish between light and heavy users across three clothing categories. It is not surprising that the variables of Self-Confident and Time-Conscious did not contribute to significance in distinguishing between light and heavy catalog users. Because a professional occupation is highly valued in U.S. society, these professional women could have achieved self-confidence. In addition, most of these professional women would have time pressures regardless of the level of catalog use. However, this finding is not consistent with Reynolds (1974) who reported that frequent catalog shoppers had higher self-confidence than infrequent or nonusers of catalogs. Women in this study apparently have experiences or knowledge related to selecting appropriate clothing.

No significant relationship existed in any of the lifestyle variables for "clothing for others." This may be interpreted as related to other variables. Their being married and having children at home might have resulted in purchase of "clothing for others" not affected by their own lifestyle.

Relationship Between Variables

The results of the correlation matrix indicated the absence of any significant relationship between involvement with "shoes for work" and involvement with "casual clothes." The only exception was the relationship of the Symbolic values between two clothing types at .05 probability level ($r = .45$). Respondents somewhat perceived both of the clothing types as having symbolic value expressive of personality, ideal self-image, and cues by which people could be judged.

The lack of a relationship between other variables suggests that the nature of "shoes for work" and "casual clothes" should be interpreted in a work versus social context. In a work context, women are more concerned with the appropriateness of clothing for work (Solomon & Douglas, 1985). The manner in which one dresses for work can be interpreted as the seriousness with which a person views his/her position. In fact, some authors suggest that people dress for the job they desire rather than the job they have (Molloy, 1977). In a social context, on the other hand, women make personalized evaluations predominantly based on aesthetic criteria (Solomon & Douglas, 1985).

The only relationship between involvement and lifestyle can be found between Symbolic value in "shoes for work" and Fashion-Conscious at .05 probability level ($r = .41$). Since

professional women are primarily concerned with wearing appropriate clothing for professional success, their clothing for work may be used as an indicator of a goal-oriented career and as a means of enhancing attractiveness (Solomon & Douglas, 1985). This might motivate professional women to be fashion-conscious. Also, fashion-conscious professional women may respond toward "shoes for work" as symbols for the expression of the self. However, it should be interpreted with caution becuase the correlation coefficient is not high.

Consumer Profiles

The variables that were revealed as predictors of catalog use were not the same variables as were significant in hypotheses testing. The difference in these results relates to testing in a multivariate versus univariate context. Because people are complex with many variables operating simultaneously, the multivariate approach may be more realistic.

Heavy users of "street" clothes were more likely to have higher personal incomes, consider "casual clothes" as important, be not married, and be less price-conscious. The variables that were significant in the t-test such as occupation, total income, Symbolic value of "casual clothes," and Credit User were not predictors of catalog usage of "street" clothes.

Heavy catalog users of "footwear" tended to be fashion-conscious, older, have more negative attitudes toward local shopping conditions, be time-conscious, and have higher personal incomes. Regression analysis, compared to t-test, produced more variables that could describe heavy catalog users of "footwear." Being older and time-conscious were not significant in the t-test, but were predictors of heavy catalog usage of "footwear."

Heavy catalog users of "clothing for others" tended to live with children at home, have higher total incomes, and have negative attitudes toward local shopping conditions. Being married was significant in the t-test but not in regression analysis, whereas having negative attitudes toward local shopping conditions was not significant in the t-test, but was a predictor in regression analysis.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter five includes a summary of the research. Conclusions are presented based on the hypotheses tested. Finally, implications and recommendations for further research are discussed.

Summary

The purposes of the study were (1) to determine if catalog use of professional women is related to their demographics, involvement in clothing and clothing purchases, and lifestyle, (2) to compare the level of involvement for a professional clothing item contrasted with nonprofessional clothing item, and (3) to examine the relationship between professional women's lifestyle and their involvement in clothing and clothing purchases. The theoretical framework was based on the previous work of Laurent and Kapferer (1985) who proposed that prediction of consumer behaviors entails types as well as levels of involvement.

Data were collected from a nationwide sample of professional women who had used catalogs to purchase clothing. Of 1,512 questionnaires distributed, 601 were returned for a 40.6% response rate and 506 (34.2%) were

usable. Respondents' ages ranged from 15 to 78 years (M = 39); median personal income was between $20,000 and $29,999; 86.1% had attained a college education; 62.5% were married; and they were employed as upper-management, middle-management, or educator.

The dependent variable was catalog use which was measured by the number of clothing items respondents had purchased within a 12-month period. Catalog items were factored into three categories: (1) street (slacks/shorts, "casual clothes", blouses/shirts, sweaters), (2) footwear ("shoes for work", shoes/boots), and (3) clothing for others (gifts for family, gifts for other than family, clothing for family).

Three independent measures were demographics, involvement, and lifestyle. In order to attain a clearer understanding of the measures underlying dimensions, factor analysis using Varimax Rotation was used to reduce the several items for each measure into a few interpretable factors.

Based on the review of related literature, seven demographic variables were selected: age, marital status, children living at home, personal income, total income, occupation, and education. Involvement was measured separately for professional clothing ("shoes for work") and nonprofessional clothing ("casual clothes"). Two factors (Importance and Symbolic) for "shoes for work" and three

factors (Importance, Symbolic, and Hedonic) for "casual clothes" were generated. Seven lifestyle factors were derived from the scales developed by Wells and Tigert (1971) and Reynolds (1974): Price-Conscious, Fashion-Conscious, Self-Confident, Credit-User, Information Seeker, Time-Conscious, and Attitude Toward Local Shopping Conditions.

Four hypotheses were tested by t-tests at .05 significance level to compare between light and heavy catalog users of each of three clothing categories in terms of demographics, involvement, and lifestyle. No consistent pattern emerged across three clothing categories with respect to the relationship between catalog use and the three independent variables.

Heavy catalog users of "street" clothes were more likely to be not married, employed as upper- or, to a lesser extent, middle-management rather than educator and have higher personal and total incomes. They perceived more importance and symbolic value in "casual clothes." They were less price-conscious, yet tended to use more credit cards. Heavy catalog users, compared to light users, of "footwear" had higher personal incomes, were more fashion-conscious, and had negative attitudes toward local shopping conditions. Heavy catalog users of "clothing for others" were more likely to be married, live with children under 12 years, and have higher total incomes.

Additional findings beyond hypotheses testing were obtained on a profile of each catalog use group using stepwise multiple regression analyses. The variables that predicted (.05 level) catalog use of each clothing category were not consistent with the variables that were significant in hypotheses testing. Heavy catalog users of "street" clothes could be predicted best by higher personal incomes, followed by perceiving importance in "casual clothes," not being married, and being less price-conscious. For heavy catalog users of "footwear," the best predictor was Fashion-Consciousness, being older, having negative attitudes toward local shopping conditions, being time-conscious, and having greater personal incomes. Heavy catalog users of "clothing for others" were predicted best by living with children, having greater total incomes and expressing negative attitudes toward local shopping conditions.

Pearson Correlation Coefficients were used to test two other hypotheses. There were no significant nor strong relationships between involvement in professional clothing ("shoes for work") and involvement in nonprofessional clothing ("casual clothes"). Further, no significant nor strong relationships existed between involvement and lifestyle.

Conclusions

The findings of this study indicated that each clothing category comprises a distinct market segment because each category is influenced by a different combination of variables - demographics, involvement, and lifestyle. Therefore, it is not sufficient to measure the level of catalog use by the dollar amount spent or the total clothing items per year. Measurement of catalog use by different clothing categories seems to be the most logical approach.

The result of this study supports Laurent and Kapferer's proposition that the full profile of involvement must be known because different facets influence specific aspects of consumption behavior. T-test results indicated that some facets influence catalog use of specific clothing categories but not other categories. Accordingly, no precise prediction on the consequences of involvement can be made unless the multiple facets of involvement are specified.

There is clear evidence that involvement with "shoes for work" is different from involvement with "casual clothes." Above all, there was no relationship between two clothing types in involvement. Further, the involvement variables that were significantly related to catalog use of three clothing categories ("street," "footwear," and "clothing for others") were not same for those two clothing

types ("shoes for work" and "casual clothes").

Involvement was more pronounced for "casual clothes" than "shoes for work." This indicates that professional women really think of work clothing as being more proscribed clothing. Individuals actually express themselves in their casual clothing because they set their own parameters. Therefore, involvement is best measured in areas or clothing items that have fewer sanctions. Finally, involvement and lifestyle should be measured independently to examine catalog use as they showed no relationship with each other.

Implications

This research can contribute to the successful catalog marketing by identifying target markets and developing effective marketing strategies for each target market. Light/heavy catalog user segmentation is frequently used by retailers in targeting the clothing catalog market. The findings of this study indicate that clothing can and should be segmented into distinct categories, each with its own demographics, involvement, or lifestyle profile. Therefore, marketers can formulate strategies targeted to the consumers of distinct clothing categories based on these characteristics.

"Street" Clothes

The most lucrative catalog shopping occurs with "street" clothes. This key group is very important barometer in catalog retailing. Fortunately this group can be most effectively identified through demographic variables. Accordingly, catalog marketers must be sensitive to variations in demographic characteristics for consumers of "street" clothes.

They tend to be not married but have higher personal and total incomes and be employed in upper- or middle-management rather than education. Also, they are less likely to be price-conscious. Thus the products for this group should be congruent with their active and affluent lifestyles. Promotion of merchandise to this group might stress high quality merchandise from moderate to high price.

In addition, heavy users of this group used credit cards more often to purchase merchandise than light users. Catalog marketers should consider implementing a credit program that allows for optimal credit use for purchases of clothing through catalogs. Heavy catalog users of "street" clothes perceived more importance and symbolic values in "casual clothes." Catalog merchandisers could market "street" clothes that emphasize casual clothes being important and symbolic of the lifestyle, values, or individual characteristics of professional women.

"Footwear"

Catalogs directed to the consumers of "footwear" should include potential buyers from higher personal incomes and fashion-conscious people. The higher income of this group might reflect their ability to purchase clothing fashions appropriate for their status and lifestyle. Thus the products targeted to this group should emphasize fashionability but not extremely "trendy" as these consumers tend to be older. Promotional appeals to this group should be aimed at avoiding the unpleasantness of store shopping, since catalog buyers of "footwear" have negative attitudes toward stores.

"Clothing for others"

The target market for this group should be drawn from professional women who are married, live with children at home, and have higher total incomes. Retailers of this group can increase catalog sales of "clothing for others" by promoting the convenience and ease of ordering. Ordering procedures should be quick and simple, and instructions on ordering merchandise should be complete and easily understood.

Recommendations

Since factors of involvement varied in reliability from .64 to .83, further refinement of the involvement measure is recommended to increase the reliability of the measure. These refinements may take the form of changes in the number of response categories or specific statements used. Since the original instrument of involvement was developed for several different product types, the involvement measure which examines only clothing could be pilot tested to decide appropriate statements for involvement in clothing.

A clearer definition of "casual clothes" should be given. "Casual clothes" may have been interpreted by some respondents as casual social wear instead of casual clothes to wear around the house or to run errands. Appropriate professional and nonprofessional clothing for the study can be identified after conducting an independent study.

As analyzed by Mittal (1989c), the three facets of involvement (Importance, Symbolic, and Hedonic) are product-related involvement. In order to accurately predict the type of purchase behavior that might occur, separate studies should be conducted to measure both product involvement and purchasing involvement. Another interesting area for future research would be the interactive effect of product involvement and situation involvement tested by Clarke and Belk (1979).

The price range is very wide across and within clothing categories. Thus light/heavy catalog use can be measured more effectively by combining the number of items purchased and the total dollar amount spent. In addition, the proportion of catalog purchases compared to total clothing purchases could be examined to better meet the needs of catalog shoppers.

Seitz (1987) reported that consumers of some catalog shoppers have strong preferences for certain brands. This research did not support that finding. However, it could be that the catalog represented specific brands, thereby reducing the specific brand emphasis. Thus, additional research is needed at the levels of brand as well as product. In addition, research is needed on different types of catalog sources. Department store catalogs (Sears and Penney's), specialty catalogs (Talbot's), and non-store catalogs (Spiegel) may be used by unique groups of consumers, thus providing different consumer profiles.

While the researcher examined the influence of demographics, involvement, and lifestyle on the level of catalog use, additional consumer characteristic variables are recommended to be included, such as personality, clothing interests, and social and personal reasons underlying catalog shopping. These will meet the needs of consumers and will further help consumers attain greater satisfaction from clothing purchases.

Professional women employed as upper- or middle-management, or educator may be somewhat homogeneous, which could have led to nonsignificant results on the variables employed. Further research is needed to expand the range of professional women to doctors, lawyers, accountants, and other professional group. In addition, the comparison could be made between professional women and nonprofessional women on catalog shopping behavior. This study could be extended and adapted for male catalog shoppers since they also comprise a large segment of catalog consumers.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

School of Human Environmental Sciences

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA AT GREENSBORO

Department of Clothing and Textiles

242 Stone Building, UNCG
Greensboro, NC 27412-5001
(919) 334 5250

November 1990

Dear Professional Woman,

You are invited to participate in a survey that is designed to study professional women's use of catalogs for purchasing clothing. Your responses will be part of a study of consumer behavior being conducted in the Department of Clothing and Textiles at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

This survey is being mailed to professional women throughout the United States. Your responses are very important to the total project. They will help us to better understand professional women and also will help apparel industries better serve the needs of their clientele.

Please return the completed questionnaire within two weeks. It will take only 15-20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. A business reply envelope has been provided for your convenience. Your responses will be kept confidential.

We hope you will find the questionnaire interesting and will enjoy being an important part of the study. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Betty Feather

Betty Feather, Ph.D.
Professor in Clothing and Textiles
Dissertation Advisor

Youn K. Kim

Youn-Kyung Kim
Graduate Student

SECTION I: RESPONDENTS' CATALOG USE

Please complete the questions by circling the letter or writing in the responses that best describe your catalog use.

1. Do you use catalogs to purchase clothing (include shoes and jewelry)?

a. NO ——→ (Go to SECTION II, p.4)
b. YES
↓
(Proceed)

2. How many items have you purchased for yourself through catalogs in the following categories during the past 12 months?

_____ blouses/shirts	_____ slacks/shorts	_____ sweaters
_____ bathing suits	_____ underwear	_____ dresses
_____ nightwear	_____ suits	_____ jewelry
_____ shoes/boots		

3. If you have used catalogs other than for yourself, how many items of clothing have you purchased for the following during the past 12 months?

_____ Gifts for family members
_____ Gifts for other than family
_____ Clothing for family members

4. Why do you use catalogs? Rank your four top reasons. Use 1 for THE MOST IMPORTANT and 4 for THE LEAST IMPORTANT of your four reasons.

_____ Lower prices
_____ Less effort than shopping from stores
_____ Better quality
_____ Greater variety of choices
_____ Ease of returning merchandise
_____ Less time than shopping from stores
_____ Satisfaction with previous merchandise
_____ Use of credit card

5. To what extent do you purchase name brands of clothing items in catalogs?

   a. NEVER
   b. SELDOM
   c. SOMETIMES
   d. FREQUENTLY
   e. ALWAYS

6. To what extent are you likely to purchase unfamiliar brands of clothing items in catalogs?

   a. NEVER
   b. SELDOM
   c. SOMETIMES
   d. FREQUENTLY
   e. ALWAYS

7. Please list the names of five catalogs that you use most frequently to purchase clothing items. List them in order of use.

   1) _____

   2) _____

   3) _____

   4) _____

   5) _____

We are particularly interested in comparing two types of clothing for research purposes, shoes for work and casual clothes.

8. How many pairs of shoes for work have you purchased for yourself through catalogs during the past 12 months?

   a. 0 PAIR
   b. 1-2 PAIRS
   c. 3-4 PAIRS
   d. 5 PAIRS OR MORE

9. How many items of casual clothes have you purchased for yourself through catalogs during the past 12 months? (Casual clothes are the clothes you might wear around the house or to run errands)

   a. 0 ITEM
   b. 1-2 ITEMS
   c. 3-4 ITEMS
   d. 5 ITEMS OR MORE

Please answer all the questions in the following sections whether you do or do not use catalogs to purchase clothing.

SECTION II: OPINIONS ABOUT SPECIFIC CLOTHING

The following statements focus on how you might feel or think about shoes for work. Please circle the number that indicates the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neutral	somewhat agree	strongly agree
1. Shoes for work are very important to me.....	1	2	3	4	5
2. When I purchase shoes for work, it's not a big deal if I cannot wear them very often.....	1	2	3	4	5
3. I can really tell about a person by the shoes he/she selects for work.....	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am very interested in the shoes I wear to work.....	1	2	3	4	5
5. It's really a problem if I buy shoes that are inappropriate for my job.....	1	2	3	4	5
6. A purchase of shoes for work that doesn't perform well troubles me a great deal.....	1	2	3	4	5
7. When I buy shoes for work, it's difficult to make a bad choice.....	1	2	3	4	5
8. Shoes that I wear to work help me express my personality.....	1	2	3	4	5
9. When purchasing shoes for work, I am never certain about my choice.....	1	2	3	4	5
10. I choose my shoes for work very carefully.....	1	2	3	4	5
11. I can't say that I particularly like the type of shoes that I wear to work.....	1	2	3	4	5
12. The shoes I usually wear to work are the ones I enjoy most.....	1	2	3	4	5
13. Which shoes I wear to work matters to me a lot.....	1	2	3	4	5
14. The type of shoes that I wear to work is compatible with how I like to think of myself.....	1	2	3	4	5

The following statements focus on how you might feel or think about casual clothes. For this study, casual clothes are defined as the clothes you might wear around the house or to run errands. Please circle the number that indicates the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neutral	somewhat agree	strongly agree
1. Casual clothes are very important to me.....	1	2	3	4	5
2. When I purchase casual clothes, it's not a big deal if I cannot wear them very often.....	1	2	3	4	5
3. For me, casual clothes are a real pleasure.....	1	2	3	4	5
4. I can really tell about a person by casual clothes he/she selects.....	1	2	3	4	5
5. I am very interested in the casual clothes I wear....	1	2	3	4	5
6. It's really a problem if I buy casual clothes that are inappropriate	1	2	3	4	5
7. A purchase of casual clothes that doesn't perform well troubles me a great deal.....	1	2	3	4	5
8. When I purchase casual clothes, it's difficult to make a bad choice.....	1	2	3	4	5
9. Casual clothes that I wear help me express my personality.....	1	2	3	4	5
10. When purchasing casual clothes, I am never certain about my choice.....	1	2	3	4	5
11. I can't say that I particularly like the type of casual clothes that I wear.....	1	2	3	4	5
12. The casual clothes I usually wear are the ones I enjoy most.....	1	2	3	4	5
13. Which casual clothes I wear matters to me a lot.....	1	2	3	4	5
14. The type of casual clothes that I wear is compatible with how I like to think of myself.....	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION III: RESPONDENTS' LIFESTYLE

This section includes statements concerning lifestyle. Please circle the number that indicates the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	strongly disagree		neutral		strongly agree
		somewhat disagree		somewhat agree	
1. I usually pay cash for everything I buy.....	1	2	3	4	5
2. An important part of my life is dressing smartly.....	1	2	3	4	5
3. I usually buy at the most convenient store.....	1	2	3	4	5
4. I think I have more self-confidence than most people....	1	2	3	4	5
5. I often seek out the advice of my friends regarding which brand to buy.....	1	2	3	4	5
6. I find myself checking the prices in the store even for small items.....	1	2	3	4	5
7. Local stores offer good quality for the price.....	1	2	3	4	5
8. When I must choose between fashion and comfort, I usually choose fashion.....	1	2	3	4	5
9. I shop a lot for "special sales".....	1	2	3	4	5
10. I usually have one or more outfits that are of the latest style.....	1	2	3	4	5
11. I often try new brands before my friends and neighbors do.....	1	2	3	4	5
12. I usually watch the ads for sales.....	1	2	3	4	5
13. I usually shop where it saves me time.....	1	2	3	4	5
14. I buy many things with a credit card or a charge card..	1	2	3	4	5
15. Local stores are attractive places to shop.....	1	2	3	4	5
16. It is convenient to have credit cards.....	1	2	3	4	5
17. My neighbors or friends usually give me good advice on what brands of clothes to buy.....	1	2	3	4	5
18. I like to try new and different things.....	1	2	3	4	5
19. I am more independent than most people.....	1	2	3	4	5
20. I try to save a lot of money by shopping around for sales.....	1	2	3	4	5
21. I am considered a leader.....	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION IV: RESPONDENTS' PROFILE

The following questions will be used for classification purposes only. Please circle the letter or write in the answer that comes closest to your own.

1. What is your marital status?

   a. MARRIED
   b. SEPARATED OR DIVORCED
   c. NOT MARRIED, BUT LIVING WITH A SIGNIFICANT OTHER
   d. SINGLE, NEVER MARRIED
   e. WIDOWED

2. Do you have children living with you under 12 years of age?

   a. YES → What are their ages? _____ _____ _____ _____
   b. NO

3. What is your age? _____

4. How many years have you attended educational institutions? _____

5. What is your general job title or position? (Examples could be educator, business manager, health professional, etc.)

   _____

6. What was your personal income last year? (before tax)

   a. BELOW $10,000
   b. $10,000 - $19,999
   c. $20,000 - $29,999
   d. $30,000 - $39,999
   e. $40,000 - $49,999
   f. $50,000 - $59,999
   g. $60,000 - $69,999
   h. $70,000 - $79,999
   i. $80,000 - $89,999
   j. $90,000 OR MORE

7. What was your total household income last year? (before tax)

   a. BELOW $10,000
   b. $10,000 - $19,999
   c. $20,000 - $29,999
   d. $30,000 - $39,999
   e. $40,000 - $49,999
   f. $50,000 - $59,999
   g. $60,000 - $69,999
   h. $70,000 - $79,999
   i. $80,000 - $89,999
   j. $90,000 - $99,999
   k. $100,000 - $109,999
   l. $110,000 OR MORE

8. What is your race?

   a. WHITE
   b. ASIAN
   c. HISPANIC
   d. BLACK
   e. OTHER (specify) _____

If you want to make any comments about catalog purchase of clothing items or anything related to this survey, please use the back of this booklet.

THANK YOU !! Please mail your completed questionnaire back to me in the enclosed business reply envelope within two weeks.

APPENDIX B

TABLES

Table 24

Demographic Chracteristics of the Respondents

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Age		
15-24	33	6.6
25-34	180	33.9
35-44	153	30.4
45-54	79	15.8
55-64	45	9.0
65-78	17	3.0
Marital status		
Married	316	62.5
Separated or divorced	63	12.5
Widowed	22	4.3
Not married but living with a significant other	28	5.5
Single, not married	75	14.8
Living with children		
Children living at home	135	26.7
No children living at home	369	72.9
Personal income		
Less than $10,000	34	6.7
$10,000 - $19,999	80	15.8
$20,000 - $29,999	164	32.4
$30,000 - $39,999	107	21.1
$40,000 - $49,999	50	9.9
$50,000 - $59,999	21	4.2
$60,000 - $69,999	11	2.2
$70,000 - $79,999	7	1.4
$80,000 - $89,999	1	0.2
$90,000 or more	9	1.8
Total income		
Less than $10,000	4	0.8
$10,000 - $19,999	30	5.9
$20,000 - $29,999	64	12.6
$30,000 - $39,999	78	15.4
$40,000 - $49,999	90	17.8
$50,000 - $59,999	68	13.4
$60,000 - $69,999	41	8.1
$70,000 - $79,999	43	8.5
$80,000 - $89,999	23	4.5
$90,000 - $99,999	10	2.0

(Table 24 continued)

$100,000 - $109,999	11	2.2
$110,000 or more	22	4.3
Occupation		
Upper-management	144	28.5
Middle-management	187	37.0
Educators	175	34.6
Education		
High school graduate	54	10.7
College educated	247	48.7
Master's program	131	25.9
Ph.D.'s program	58	11.5
Race		
White	469	92.7
Asian	4	0.8
Hispanic	5	1.0
Black	13	2.6
Other	9	1.8

Note. Totals differ due to missing data.

Table 25

Percentages of Responses to the Four Most Important Reasons for Using Clothing Catalogs[a]

Reason	First	Second	Third	Fourth
Less effort	32	19	10	8
Less time	24	28	13	8
Greater variety	13	11	14	9
Satisfaction with previous purchase	9	10	25	21
Lower prices	8	8	10	10
Use of credit card	2	2	4	12
Better quality	2	4	3	6
Ease of return	0	5	7	10

[a] Percentages are rounded to the nearest integer.

Table 26

Mean Scores of Involvement for "Shoes for Work"

Statement	M	SD
Shoes for work are very important to me.	4.50	0.85
I am very interested in the shoes that I wear to work.	4.32	1.04
I choose my shoes for work very carefully.	4.29	0.94
A purchase of shoes for work that doesn't perform well troubles me a great deal.	4.13	1.13
Which shoes I wear to work matters to me a lot.	4.03	1.03
It's really a problem if I buy shoes that are inappropriate for my job.	3.75	1.32
The type of shoes that I wear to work is compatible with how I like to think of myself.	3.54	1.13
Shoes that I wear to work help me express my personality.	3.36	1.22
I can really tell about a person by the shoeshe/she selects for work.	3.17	1.07
The shoes I usually wear to work are the ones I enjoy most.	2.35	1.21
I can't say that I particularly like the type of shoes that I wear to work.	2.09	1.15
When purchasing shoes for work, I am never certain about my choice.	1.95	1.07

Note. All scales range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Table 27

Mean Scores of Involvement for "Casual Clothes"

Statement	M	SD
The casual clothes I usually wear are the ones I enjoy most.	4.27	0.94
For me, casual clothes are a real pleasure.	4.13	0.92
Casual clothes are very important to me.	3.96	0.93
I am very interested in the casual clothes I wear.	3.94	0.94
Casual clothes that I wear help me expres my personality.	3.86	0.93
The type of casual clothes that I wear is compatible with how I like to think of myself.	3.86	1.01
Which casual clothes I wear matters to me a lot.	3.79	0.98
A purchase of casual clothes that doesn't perform well troubles me a great deal.	3.59	1.21
I can really tell about a person by casual clothes he/she selects.	3.42	0.99
It's really a problem if I buy casual clothes that are inappropriate.	3.25	1.19
When I purchase casual clothes, it's difficult to make a bad choice.	3.13	1.14
When purchasing casual clothes, I am never certain about my choice.	2.12	1.06
I can't say that I particularly like the type of casual clothes that I wear.	1.98	1.05

Note. All scales range from 1(strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Table 28

Factor Loadings for Five Catalog Use Factors

Item	Alpha	% Variance explained	Loading
Factor 1: Street	.80	33.1	
Slacks/shorts			.81
Casual clothes			.76
Blouses/shirts			.69
Sweaters			.60
Factor 2: Footwear	.84	8.9	
Shoes for work			.89
Shoes/boots			.85
Factor 3: Clothing for others	.65	8.5	
Gifts for family members			.77
Gifts for other than family			.77
Clothing for family members			.66
Factor 4: Private	.52	7.4	
Nightwear			.75
Underwear			.68
Jewelry			.55
Factor 5: Special	.53	6.2	
Suits			.81
Bathing suits			.75
Dress			.50

Table 29

Factor Loadings for Three Involvement Factors for "Shoes for Work"

Statement	Alpha	% Variance explained	Loading
Factor 1: Importance	.83	28.4	
I am very interested in the shoes I wear to work.			.78
Which shoes I wear to work matters to me a lot.			.76
A purchase of shoes for work that doesn't perform well troubles me a great deal.			.74
I choose my shoes for work very carefully.			.74
Shoes for work are very important to me.			.72
It's really a problem if I buy shoes that are inappropriate for my job.			.67
Factor 2: Symbolic	.72	14.9	
Shoes that I wear to work help me express my personality.			.82
I can really tell about a person by the shoes he/she selects for work.			.71
The type of shoes that I wear to work is compatible with how I like to think of myself.			.68
Factor 3: Hedonic	.52	9.2	
I can't say that I particularly like the type of shoes that I wear to work.			.78

(Table 29 continued)

When purchasing shoes for work, I am never certain about my choice.	.68
The shoes that I usually wear to work are the ones I enjoy most.	-.57

Table 30

Factor Loadings for Four Involvement Factors for "Casual Clothes"

Statement	Alpha	% Variance explained	Loading
Factor 1: Importance	.81	33.7	
For me, casual clothes are a real pleasure.			.82
Casual clothes are very important to me.			.75
I am very interested in the casual clothes I wear.			.70
The casual clothes I usually wear are the ones I enjoy most.			.67
Factor 2: Symbolic	.64	13.0	
Casual clothes that I wear help me express my personality.			.78
The type of casual clothes that I wear is compatible with how I like to think of myself.			.74
I can really tell about a person by casual clothes he/she selects.			.68
Which casual clothes I wear matters to me a lot.			.62
Factor 3: Hedonic	.64	7.4	
When purchasing casual clothes, I am never certain about my choice.			.86
I can't say that I particularly like the type of casual clothes that I wear.			.81

(Table 30 continued)

Factor 4: Risk	.52	9.1	
It's really a problem if I buy casual clothes that are inappropriate.			.75
A purchase of casual clothes that doesn't perform well troubles me a great deal.			.72
When I purchase casual clothes, it's difficult to make a bad choice.			-.46

Table 31

Differences Between Light and Heavy Catalog Users of "Street" Clothes on Demographic Variables

Variable	n	M	SD	t	p
Age					
Light	283	38.66	11.10	-1.59	.113
Heavy	215	40.28	11.45		
Marital status					
Light	288	1.99	1.41	-2.43	.016
Heavy	218	2.31	1.49		
Living with children					
Light	287	1.72	0.45	-0.84	.400
Heavy	217	1.75	0.43		
Personal income					
Light	288	29718	13468	-3.58	.000
Heavy	218	34298	14808		
Total income					
Light	288	49607	22602	-2.40	.017
Heavy	218	54633	23914		
Occupation					
Light	288	2.14	0.79	2.43	.015
Heavy	218	1.96	0.79		
Education					
Light	288	16.63	2.14	-0.80	.423
Heavy	218	16.78	2.16		

Table 32

Differences Between Light and Heavy Catalog Users of "Footwear" on Demographic Variables

Variable	n	M	SD	t	p
Age					
Light	316	38.61	10.89	-1.92	.056
Heavy	182	40.66	11.82		
Marital status[a]					
Light	322	2.03	1.43	-1.87	.062
Heavy	184	2.28	1.49		
Living with children[b]					
Light	320	1.73	0.44	0.15	.882
Heavy	184	1.73	0.45		
Personal income					
Light	322	30285	14257	-2.98	.003
Heavy	184	34152	13878		
Total income					
Light	322	50586	23485	-1.53	.127
Heavy	184	53847	22853		
Occupation[c]					
Light	322	2.08	0.81	0.74	.458
Heavy	184	2.02	0.76		
Education[d]					
Light	322	16.69	2.14	-0.03	.975
Heavy	184	16.70	2.16		

[a] 1 = married, 4 = not married (single, divorced or separated, widowed, living with a significant other).
[b] 1 = living with chilren, 2 = not living with children.
[c] 1 = upper-management, 2 = middle-management, 3 = educators.
[d] The number of years respondents attended educational institutions.

Table 33

Differences Between Light and Heavy Catalog Users of "Clothing for Others" on Demographic Variables

Variable	n	M	SD	t	p
Age					
Light	291	39.08	11.46	-0.66	.511
Heavy	207	39.75	11.01		
Marital status					
Light	297	2.23	1.48	1.97	.049
Heavy	209	1.98	1.41		
Living with children					
Light	296	1.79	0.41	3.67	.000
Heavy	208	1.64	0.48		
Personal income					
Light	297	31114	14393	-1.09	.275
Heavy	209	32512	13986		
Total income					
Light	297	48838	22932	-3.41	.001
Heavy	209	55942	23205		
Occupation					
Light	297	2.09	0.77	1.11	.269
Heavy	209	2.01	0.82		
Education					
Light	297	16.66	2.13	-0.39	.693
Heavy	209	16.74	2.18		

Table 34

Differences Between Light and Heavy Catalog Users of "Special" Clothes on Demographic Variables

Variable	n	M	SD	t	p
Age					
Light	327	40.52	11.49	3.31	.001
Heavy	171	37.13	10.52		
Marital status					
Light	332	2.11	1.45	-0.32	.749
Heavy	174	2.16	1.46		
Living with children					
Light	332	1.75	0.43	1.23	.218
Heavy	172	1.70	0.46		
Personal income					
Light	332	31087	14090	-1.31	.191
Heavy	174	32845	14463		
Total income					
Light	332	50533	23342	-1.66	.097
Heavy	174	54137	23064		
Occupation					
Light	332	2.13	0.81	2.77	.006
Heavy	174	1.93	0.74		
Education					
Light	332	16.74	2.21	0.73	.465
Heavy	174	16.60	2.03		

Table 35

Differences Between Light and Heavy Catalog Users of "Private" Clothes on Demographic Variables

Variable	n	M	SD	t	p
Age					
Light	327	39.18	11.31	-0.49	.628
Heavy	171	39.70	11.22		
Marital status					
Light	333	1.98	1.41	-3.07	.002
Heavy	173	2.40	1.50		
Live with children					
Light	332	1.73	0.44	0.20	.845
Heavy	172	1.73	0.45		
Personal income					
Light	333	30675	14144	-2.23	.026
Heavy	173	33647	14228		
Total income					
Light	333	51429	23071	-0.46	.649
Heavy	173	52434	23750		
Occupation					
Light	333	2.08	0.79	0.66	.511
Heavy	173	2.03	0.80		
Education					
Light	333	16.64	2.15	-0.71	.477
Heavy	173	16.79	2.15		

Table 36

Differences Between Light and Heavy Catalog Users of "Street" Clothes on Involvement Variables

Variable	n	M	SD	t	p
Involvement in "shoes for work"					
Importance					
Light	281	18.37	3.27	0.15	.880
Heavy	216	18.32	3.45		
Symbolic					
Light	286	7.32	2.02	-0.65	.515
Heavy	217	7.44	1.93		
Hedonic					
Light	287	4.29	1.55	0.52	.603
Heavy	216	4.21	1.70		
Involvement in "casual clothes"					
Importance					
Light	286	11.67	2.18	-3.85	.000
Heavy	217	12.40	2.05		
Symbolic					
Light	287	10.33	2.22	-2.53	.012
Heavy	218	10.82	2.14		
Hedonic					
Light	286	3.46	1.46	1.07	.285
Heavy	218	3.32	1.43		
Risk					
Light	287	6.34	1.62	-1.56	.119
Heavy	217	6.58	1.76		

Table 37

Differences Between Light and Heavy Catalog Users of "Footwear" on Involvement Variables

Variable	n	M	SD	t	p
Involvement in "shoes for work"					
Importance					
Light	314	18.38	3.27	0.29	.773
Heavy	183	18.29	3.48		
Symbolic					
Light	320	7.33	2.00	-0.66	.512
Heavy	183	7.45	1.95		
Hedonic					
Light	320	4.25	1.59	-0.17	.863
Heavy	183	4.27	1.66		
Involvement in "casual clothes"					
Importance					
Light	319	11.99	2.11	0.02	.987
Heavy	184	11.98	2.24		
Symbolic					
Light	321	10.53	2.24	-0.14	.890
Heavy	184	10.56	2.12		
Hedonic					
Light	320	3.39	1.44	-0.19	.851
Heavy	184	3.42	1.47		
Risk					
Light	320	6.33	1.64	-1.95	.052
Heavy	184	6.64	1.75		

Table 38

Differences Between Light and Heavy Catalog Users of "Clothing for Others" on Involvement Variables

Variable	n	M	SD	t	p
Involvement in "shoes for work"					
Importance					
Light	289	18.48	3.37	1.01	.313
Heavy	208	18.17	3.30		
Symbolic					
Light	295	7.45	1.95	1.07	.283
Heavy	208	7.26	2.03		
Hedonic					
Light	295	4.39	1.60	2.21	.028
Heavy	208	4.07	1.62		
Involvement in "casual clothes"					
Importance					
Light	294	11.90	2.16	-1.10	.270
Heavy	209	12.11	2.15		
Symbolic					
Light	296	10.55	2.25	0.05	.958
Heavy	209	10.54	2.14		
Hedonic					
Light	295	3.47	1.43	1.28	.199
Heavy	209	3.30	1.47		
Risk					
Light	295	6.43	1.62	-0.18	.858
Heavy	209	6.46	1.78		

Table 39

Differences Between Light and Heavy Catalog Users of "Special" Clothes on Involvement Variables

Variable	n	M	SD	t	p
Involvement in "shoes for work"					
Importance					
Light	327	18.45	3.23	0.90	.370
Heavy	170	18.16	3.46		
Symbolic					
Light	330	7.24	1.95	-2.05	.042
Heavy	173	7.63	2.03		
Hedonic					
Light	331	4.34	1.58	1.51	.133
Heavy	172	4.10	1.68		
Involvement in "casual clothes"					
Importance					
Light	329	11.92	2.18	-0.96	.337
Heavy	174	12.11	2.10		
Symbolic					
Light	331	10.40	2.31	-2.14	.033
Heavy	174	10.82	1.94		
Hedonic					
Light	331	3.40	1.43	-0.05	.957
Heavy	173	3.41	1.49		
Risk					
Light	330	6.33	1.71	-2.05	.041
Heavy	174	6.65	1.62		

Table 40

Differences Between Light and Heavy Catalog Users of "Private" Clothes on Involvement Variables

Variable	n	M	SD	t	p
Involvement in "shoes for work"					
Importance					
Light	325	18.30	7.38	-0.49	.625
Heavy	172	18.45	3.36		
Symbolic					
Light	330	7.38	2.01	0.05	.959
Heavy	173	7.37	1.92		
Hedonic					
Light	331	4.26	1.56	-0.03	.975
Heavy	172	4.26	1.72		
Involvement in "casual clothes"					
Importance					
Light	330	11.81	2.19	-2.57	.010
Heavy	173	12.32	2.04		
Symbolic					
Light	332	10.40	2.21	-2.11	.036
Heavy	173	10.82	2.16		
Hedonic					
Light	331	3.43	1.39	0.57	.567
Heavy	173	3.35	1.56		
Risk					
Light	333	6.31	1.63	-2.36	.019
Heavy	171	6.70	1.76		

Table 41

Differences Between Light and Heavy Catalog Users of "Street" Clothes on Six Lifestyle Variables

Variable	n	M	SD	t	p
Price-Conscious					
Light	288	12.98	2.81	2.77	.006
Heavy	218	12.22	3.22		
Fashion-Conscious					
Light	287	10.85	2.83	-0.68	.497
Heavy	216	11.02	2.59		
Self-Confident					
Light	288	9.10	1.83	-0.83	.409
Heavy	217	9.24	1.92		
Credit User					
Light	287	8.24	2.58	-3.07	.002
Heavy	217	8.93	2.42		
Information Seeker					
Light	287	3.62	1.62	-0.54	.592
Heavy	218	3.70	1.68		
Time-Conscious					
Light	285	5.52	1.64	0.07	.948
Heavy	216	5.51	1.53		

Table 42

Differences Between Light and Heavy Catalog Users of "Footwear" on Six Lifestyle Variables

Variable	n	M	SD	t	p
Price-Conscious					
Light	322	12.80	2.95	1.38	.169
Heavy	184	12.41	3.12		
Fashion-Conscious					
Light	321	10.66	2.76	-2.91	.004
Heavy	182	11.38	2.62		
Self-Confident					
Light	322	9.05	1.89	-1.80	.072
Heavy	183	9.35	1.82		
Credit User					
Light	321	8.58	2.72	0.44	.660
Heavy	183	8.48	2.19		
Information Seeker					
Light	321	3.65	1.59	0.02	.980
Heavy	184	3.65	1.73		
Time-Conscious					
Light	317	5.43	1.62	-1.69	.092
Heavy	184	5.68	1.54		

Table 43

Differences Between Light and Heavy Catalog Users of "Clothing for Others" on Six Lifestyle Variables

Variable	n	M	SD	t	p
Price-Conscious					
Light	297	12.75	3.05	0.87	.384
Heavy	209	12.52	2.97		
Fashion-Conscious					
Light	296	10.86	2.85	-0.59	.554
Heavy	207	11.01	2.55		
Self-Confident					
Light	296	9.05	1.88	-1.57	.116
Heavy	209	9.31	1.85		
Credit User					
Light	297	8.43	2.63	-1.18	.237
Heavy	207	8.70	2.39		
Information Seeker					
Light	296	3.72	1.70	1.08	.281
Heavy	209	3.56	1.56		
Time-Conscious					
Light	292	5.43	1.56	-1.50	.134
Heavy	209	5.65	1.63		

Table 44

Differences Between Light and Heavy Catalog Users of "Special" Clothes on Six Lifestyle Variables

Variable	n	M	SD	t	p
Price-Conscious					
Light	332	12.87	2.94	2.13	.034
Heavy	174	12.26	3.14		
Fashion-Conscious					
Light	331	10.59	2.70	-3.87	.000
Heavy	172	11.56	2.68		
Self-Confident					
Light	331	9.04	1.86	-1.98	.048
Heavy	174	9.38	1.87		
Credit User					
Light	332	8.37	2.58	-2.21	.028
Heavy	172	8.88	2.42		
Information Seeker					
Light	331	3.58	1.64	-1.31	.191
Heavy	174	3.78	1.65		
Time-Conscious					
Light	328	5.43	1.58	-1.79	.074
Heavy	173	5.70	1.61		

Table 45

Differences Between Light and Heavy Catalog Users of "Private" Clothes on Six Lifestyle Variables

Variable	n	M	SD	t	p
Price-Conscious					
Light	333	12.64	3.04	-0.16	.871
Heavy	173	12.69	2.98		
Fashion-Conscious					
Light	331	10.81	2.82	-1.31	.191
Heavy	172	11.14	2.54		
Self-Confident					
Light	333	9.07	1.86	-1.52	.130
Heavy	172	9.33	1.88		
Credit User					
Light	331	8.51	2.53	-0.41	.679
Heavy	173	8.61	2.55		
Information Seeker					
Light	332	3.63	1.63	-0.37	.711
Heavy	173	3.69	1.67		
Time-Conscious					
Light	328	5.44	1.61	-1.50	.135
Heavy	173	5.67	1.56		

Table 46

Differences Between Light and Heavy Catalog Users on Attitude Toward Local Shopping Conditions

Catalog use	n	M	SD	t	p
Footwear					
Light	319	5.85	1.54	1.97	.049
Heavy	181	5.56	1.64		
Clothing for others					
Light	294	5.85	1.53	1.76	.080
Heavy	206	5.60	1.64		
Special					
Light	329	5.81	1.62	1.26	.209
Heavy	171	5.63	1.49		
Street					
Light	286	5.76	1.65	0.24	.807
Heavy	214	5.73	1.48		
Private					
Light	329	5.74	1.54	-0.16	.874
Heavy	171	5.76	1.66		