FEMALE APPAREL SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR WITHIN A MULTI-CULTURAL CONSUMER SOCIETY: VARIABLES, MARKET SEGMENTS, PROFILES AND IMPLICATIONS

BY

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this dissertation is my own original work and that I have not previously submitted it in its entirety or in part at any university for a degree.

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ABSTRACT

Female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society is a complex phenomenon. This study set out to identify the variables that influence female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society and to determine whether distinct clusters of female apparel shoppers could be identified.

Three theoretical models from the two study disciplines, Consumer Behaviour and Clothing and Textiles, were investigated, i.e. the Sproles Model of Fashion Adoption, the Engel-Blackwell-Miniard Model of Consumer Decision-Process Behaviour and De Klerk's Clothing Consumer Decision-making Model. These models were synthesised and developed further into a new conceptual theoretical model of variables influencing female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society. The Macro conceptual theoretical model presented the variables under market dominated variables, market and consumer interaction variables and consumer dominated variables. The scope of the study was delimited by the choice of two primary variables under each classification, for further investigation. The variables investigated were: the place of distribution, the apparel product, shopping orientation, patronage behaviour, socio-cultural influences (family, lifestyle and culture) and demographics. An overview of the South African apparel industry was provided and future trends in retailing were highlighted. Literature on shopping orientation as a variable was extensively studied, resulting in a proposed new classification system. Lifestyle and cultural consciousness, i.e. the individualist and collectivist orientation, and the impact thereof on female apparel shopping behaviour were investigated.

Data for this exploratory study were generated by means of a store-intercept research method. A questionnaire was developed and trained fieldworkers undertook in-store interviews with approximately eight hundred female apparel shoppers representative of three population groups, African/black, coloured and white. The data analysis yielded acceptable questionnaire reliability and multivariate statistics showed shopping orientation and lifestyle to be multi-dimensional constructs with three components each. The three shopping orientation components were labelled shopping self-confidence and enjoyment; credit-prone, brand-conscious and fashion innovator and local store patronage. A Yuppie lifestyle, apparel-orientated lifestyle and a traditional lifestyle were the three labels ascribed to the lifestyle components.

Three clusters of female apparel shoppers were formed by means of cluster analysis, according to the three components of lifestyle and shopping orientation respectively, the two cultural consciousness scales and eleven patronage behaviour items. A demographic profile of each cluster completed the typology of the three female apparel shopper groups. Group one was the largest (49%) and was labelled Actualisers. Group two (28%) was labelled Strugglers and group three (22%) Aspirationals. The female apparel shopper could therefore be successfully segmented into distinct market segments with statistically significant differences in profiles. The profiles showed similarities to international and South African typology research. The results are presented in a conceptual model.

The following main implications for manufacturers, marketers, retailers, researchers, educators and students can be stated:

- Knowledge regarding consumers will be of paramount importance for survival in the competitive and more globally orientated 21st century.
- The female apparel market is not homogeneous. Different groups of consumers require different types of products and will evaluate them differently. Modern technology such as CAD, EDI, QR and CIM should be implemented to assist stakeholders in this regard. Fashion changes rapidly and if the window of opportunity is not seized, it is lost.
- Different advertising and marketing strategies are necessary to reach the various female apparel shopper groups. Special attention should be given to advertising approaches and media vehicles that will gain the attention of the various groups.
- Electronic retailing and marketing will form a large part of future retailing and marketing activities. Stakeholders should be geared towards seizing these opportunities for growth.

- Researchers, educators and students will benefit from the application of the Conceptual Theoretical Model – a Macro perspective. It could provide a conceptual framework for curriculum development, be used as an evaluation tool and assist in the understanding of the complexities of variables impacting on female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society.

Recommendations for future research were made in order to encourage researchers to research the complex nature of female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society scientifically.

OPSOMMING

Vroueklere aankoopgedrag in 'n multi-kulturele verbruikersgemeenskap is 'n komplekse fenomeen. Hierdie studie poog om die veranderlikes wat vroueklere aankoopgedrag in 'n multi-kulturele verbruikersgemeenskap beïnvloed, te identifiseer en om te bepaal of onderskeibare groepe vroulike verbruikers geïdentifiseer kan word.

Drie teoretiese modelle vanuit die twee dissiplines, naamlik Verbruikersgedrag en Kleding en Tekstiele, is ondersoek, naamlik: die Sproles Model van Modeaanvaarding *(Sproles Model of Fashion Adoption)*, die Engel-Blackwell-Miniard model van Verbruikersbesluitnemingsproses-gedrag *(Engel-Blackwell-Miniard Model of Consumer Decision-Process Behaviour)* asook De Klerk se Kledingverbruikerbesluitnemingsmodel. (*De Klerk's Clothing Consumer Decision-making Model).* Hierdie modelle is gesintetiseer en verder ontwikkel tot 'n nuwe konseptuele teoretiese model van veranderlikes wat vroueklere-aankoopgedrag in 'n multi-kulturele verbruikers-gemeenskap beïnvloed. Die Makro konseptuele teoretiese model orden veranderlikes onder mark-gedomineerde veranderlikes, mark- en verbruiker-interaksie-veranderlikes en verbruiker-gedomineerde veranderlikes. Die omvang van die studie is begrens deur die keuse van twee primêre veranderlikes onder elke groepering vir verdere studie. Die bestudeerde veranderlikes sluit die volgende in: plek van distribusie, die klere-produk, aankooporiëntasie, winkelvoorkeurgedrag, sosio-kulturele invloede (familie, lewenstyl en kultuur) asook demografie. 'n Oorsig van die Suid-Afrikaanse kleding-industrie word gegee en toekomstige tendense in die kleinhandel word uitgelig. Literatuur rakende aankooporiëntasie as veranderlike is breedvoerig bestudeer en resulteer in 'n nuwe klassifikasie stelsel. Lewenstyl en kulturele bewustheid, nl. die individualistiese versus kollektivistiese oriëntasie, en die impak daarvan op vroue se klere-aankoopgedrag is ondersoek.

Data vir hierdie verkennende navorsing is verkry deur respondente in winkels te nader (*store-intercept research method*). Vir hierdie eksploratiewe studie is 'n vraelys ontwikkel en opgeleide veldwerkers het onderhoude (binne winkels) met ongeveer aghonderd vroue klereverbruikers, verteenwoordigend van drie populasie groepe, nl. Swart, Kleurling en Blank gevoer. Die data ontleding dui op aanvaarbare vraelys betroubaarheid. Die meervoudige veranderlike statistiek resultate toon aan dat

aankooporiëntasie en lewenstyl multi-dimensionele konstrukte is, met onderskeidelik drie komponente elk. Die drie aankooporiëntasie komponente is benoem as aankoop selfvertroue en genot (*shopping self-confidence and enjoyment*); krediet geneigdheid, handelsmerk bewustheid sowel as mode innoveerder (*credit prone, brand conscious and fashion innovator*) en plaaslike winkelvoorkeur (*local store patronage*). Die Yuppie lewenstyl (*Yuppie lifestyle*); klere georienteerde lewenstyl (*apparel orientated lifestyle*) en tradisionele lewenstyl (*traditional lifestyle*) was die drie name wat aan die lewenstyle komponente toegeskryf is.

Drie groepe vroulike klere aankopers is gevorm met behulp van trosanalise. Die trosanalise is gedoen op grond van die drie komponente van lewenstyl en aankooporiëntasie onderskeidelik, die twee kulturele bewustheid skale en die elf winkelvoorkeur gedrag items. Die tipering van die drie groepe is aangevul deur 'n demografiese profiel. Groep een was die grootste (49%) en is genoem Aktualiseerders *(Actualisers)*. Groep twee (28%) is genoem Sukkelaars *(Strugglers)* en groep drie (22%) Aspireerders *(Aspirationals).* Die vroulike klere aankoper kon derhalwe suksesvol gesegmenteer word in duidelik onderskeibare segmente met statisties beduidende verskille in die profiele. Die profiele toon ooreenkomste met internasionale en Suid-Afrikaanse tipologie navorsing. Die resultate word aangetoon in 'n konseptuele model.

Die volgende hoof implikasies vir vervaardigers, bemarkers, kleinhandelaars, navorsers, opvoedkundiges en studente kan gestel word:

- Kennis rakende verbruikers sal krities wees vir oorlewing in die kompeterende en globaal georiënteerde 21ste eeu.
- Die vroue klere mark is nie homogeen nie. Verskillende groepe verbruikers vereis verskillende tipes produkte en sal dit derhalwe verskillende evalueer. Moderne tegnologie soos rekenaar gesteunde ontwerp, elektroniese data interaksie, vinnige respons en rekenaar geintegreerde vervaardiging moet geïmplimenteer word ten einde alle belanghebbendes te ondersteun in hierdie verband. Mode verander vinnig en indien geleenthede nie aangegryp word nie, is dit verlore.
- Verskillende bemarking en reklame strategieë is nodig ten einde die verskillende groepe vroue klere verbruikers te bereik. Spesifieke aandag moet geskenk word

aan die advertensie aanslag en media voertuie wat die aandag van die onderskeie groepe sal trek.

- Elektroniese kleinhandel en bemarking sal 'n groot komponent van die toekomstige kleinhandel en bemarkingsaktiwiteite beslaan. Belanghebbendes moet ingestel wees om hierdie geleenthede vir groei aan te gryp.

- Navorsers, opvoeders en studente sal voordeel trek uit die toepassing van die Konseptuele Teoretiese Model – 'n Makro Perspektief. Hierdie model kan dien as 'n konseptuele raamwerk waarbinne kurrikulering kan plaasvind, asook aangewend word as evaluasie instrument. Die model kan ook hulp verleen ten einde die komplekse aard van die veranderlikes wat vroue klere aankoopgedrag beïnvloed in 'n multi-kulturele verbruikergemeenskap, te verstaan.

Aanbevelings vir verdere navorsing word gemaak ten einde toekomstige navorsers aan te moedig om op 'n wetenskaplik verantwoordbare wyse die komplekse aard van vroueklere-aankoopgedrag binne 'n multi-kulturele verbruikersgemeenskap, na te vors.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

Consumer Behaviour and Clothing and Textiles are two disciplines in their own right and they have developed over time from various root disciplines, including Psychology, Sociology and Marketing. This study can be classified as an inter-disciplinary study, as both the fields of Consumer Behaviour and Clothing and Textiles are incorporated (Viljoen & Visser, 1991). De Klerk (1999), Damhorst (1991), Kaiser (1983-1984), Nagasawa, Kaiser and Hutton, (1989) and Shim (1998) urged researchers in the field of textiles and clothing to synthesise concepts from root disciplines in a way that would promote an integrative approach to the study of dress. As far back as 1979, South African academics emphasised the importance of studying clothing behaviour in a social and cultural context in order to assist in the understanding of clothing behaviour in South Africa (Botha, 1979). This study will take up the challenge to incorporate the fields of Consumer Behaviour and Clothing and Textiles, to such an extent that knowledge will be gained regarding the variables influencing female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society.

Various consumer behaviour models (Engel, Blackwell & Miniard, 1995; Schiffman & Kanuk,·2000) as well as consumer behaviour models with an apparel perspective (De Klerk, 1999, Eckman, Damhorst & Kadolph, 1990; Sproles, 1979) have been documented in the past. These models will be used as a point of departure for this study, as no integrated female apparel shopping behaviour model, with the emphasis on the process variables, could be identified for the South African apparel consumer functioning in a multi-cultural society. This study will attempt to fill this void.

"Apparel is a non-durable commodity that is purchased consistently by consumers regardless of the economy. Clothing consumption greatly interests manufacturers, retailers, marketers and educators" (Harps-Logan, 1997, p. 16). In South Africa similar interest abounds notwithstanding the harsh economic climate and changing profile of the South African consumer. To complicate matters further, consumer behaviour does not take place in isolation. The apparel business, and apparel as a product category, is one of the most change-intensive phenomena, as a combination of fashion change and seasonal changes exist (Glock & Kunz, 2000). The stakeholders in the apparel industry must make every effort to gain knowledge regarding the consumers of apparel products and how their needs can be met. Since the introduction of the African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA) in October 2000, a window of opportunity exists that cannot be neglected (Textile Statistics & Economic Review 1999/2000, 2000). The present study is therefore timely. The apparel industry in South Africa is large and capital- and people-intensive; thus warranting research to gain knowledge about the end user of the products in order to sustain growth and prosperity.

This study is further motivated by the gap in knowledge in South Africa and the necessity for manufacturers, retailers, marketers and researchers to gain scientific knowledge regarding variables influencing female apparel shopping behaviour. Female apparel shoppers were chosen as they represent a growing market segment and are the predominant purchasers of apparel for themselves and family members. Women's roles are showing increased change, in that women are economically more active, they marry later in life, they have fewer children, they have more decision-making powers and they are becoming a lucrative market segment/target market (Bartos, 1994; Bruce & Parkinson-Hill, 1999; Cassill, 1990; Du Plessis & Rousseau, 1999; Erasmus & van Zyl, 1994; Nelson, 1994; Schaninger, Nelson & Danko, 1993; Shim & Drake, 1988). No research could be identified that profiled female apparel shoppers in South Africa, and very little research in the broad field of study included respondents from a variety of South African ethnic and cultural environments. In South Africa today, researchers cannot afford to ignore the previously disadvantaged communities. Africans/blacks are the majority in South Africa and have a huge amount of spending power, especially the Aspirational market as described by Alleman (2000a). Shim and Kotsiopulos (1993) stated that multi-cultural studies could be a source of interesting patterns and results, as apparel shopping could differ with different cultural backgrounds.

The cognitive, symbolic interactionist and cultural perspectives toward the social psychology of clothing will be combined in the present research project. This combination is strongly supported as it provides a contextual approach to the study of clothing behaviour and supports the theory building initiatives in the field of Clothing (Abraham-Murali & Littrell, 1985; Damhorst, 1991; Nagasawa, et al., 1989; Oliver & Mahoney, 1991; Pannabecker, 1997; Rudd, 1991). The cultural orientation of individuals within a multi-cultural consumer society should be studied further to gain a better understanding of market segments and the possible effects it could have on consumer behaviour and a marketing strategy.

Knowledge will be the key to survival in the increasingly competitive retail environment and changing South African society. This research study will attempt to enlarge the body of knowledge regarding variables impacting on female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society.

1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM AND OBJECTIVES

The research problem that will direct this research project is: **What are the variables influencing female apparel shopping behaviour within a multi-cultural consumer society and can distinct clusters of female apparel shoppers be identified?**

The broad research objective of this exploratory study was to expand the existing body of knowledge with regard to the variables that could influence female apparel shopping behaviour within a multi-cultural society.

In order to achieve this broad objective, specific aims were set that included the following literature-related objectives:

1. To identify, from a macro perspective, the broad spectrum of variables that may influence female apparel shopping behaviour within a multi-cultural consumer society.
2. To follow a micro perspective toward variables influencing female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural society, by selecting a number of primary variables for further investigation in order to delineate the scope of the study.

3. To investigate, from literature, the multi-dimensional nature of the selected primary variables that influence female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society.

Once these objectives are met, the empirical study will focus on the following objectives:

4. To determine the multi-dimensional nature of selected primary variables influencing female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society empirically.
5. To investigate whether distinct clusters of female apparel shoppers exist.
6. To determine which of the variables attribute to differences between clusters.
7. To determine between which clusters these differences occur.
8. To profile different clusters of female apparel shoppers that share the same characteristics according to the differentiation variables.
9. To examine and formulate the implications of the conceptual model and the different cluster profiles for apparel manufacturers, retailers, marketers and educators.
10. To make recommendations for future research.
11. To make a contribution to the theory building process in both Consumer Behaviour and Clothing fields of study.

1.3 DEFINING TERMS RELATED TO THE APPAREL INDUSTRY

Many definitions with subtle differences are given in the field of Clothing and Textiles. The most relevant definitions for the scope of this study, are presented as Appendix 1.

1.4 METHODOLOGY

Based on the objectives of the research it was decided to conduct a survey. This research strategy has many unique features and deals with phenomena as they exist. The store-intercept method of data collection will be used to gather data in order to reach the empirical research objectives. A questionnaire will be developed including the selected variables identified through the literature review documented in Chapter two. Respondents (according to the screening and profile requirements) will be intercepted within the retail environment. Relevant days of the week and time of the day for data collection will be specified. The questionnaire will be administered, by means of an in-store interview and by a trained fieldworker. The data will be subjected to various statistical analyses, including reliability analysis, factor analysis, cluster analysis, one-way MANOVA, one-way ANOVA and Bonferroni analysis. This research methodology will provide the framework within which the data will be gathered and analysed, resulting in conclusions regarding the research objectives.

1.5 ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS

Chapter 1 provides an introduction to the research problem, the research objectives and a delineation of the research project. Chapter two is the literature review and attempts to answer the first three objectives of the study. Chapter two will therefore identify, from a macro perspective, the broad spectrum of variables that may influence female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society. In order to make a contribution to the body of knowledge with regard to the fields of Consumer Behaviour and Clothing, a conceptual theoretical model will be developed to synthesise the vast amount of variables that could impact on female apparel shopping behaviour. Once this is achieved, a micro perspective will be followed, by selecting a number of primary variables for further discussion. These variables will also be presented in a conceptual theoretical model. The multi-dimensional nature of the selected variables will be further investigated by means of empirical work.

Chapter three describes the research methodology and aims at providing a reasoned argument as to the appropriateness of the research methodology applied to reach research objectives four to eight. Chapter four states the results of the study and the discussion of it is given. Chapter five addresses research objectives nine to eleven by presenting the conclusions and implications of this research project.

1.6 DELIMITATIONS OF SCOPE OF THE STUDY

This study will take place within certain boundaries so as to delineate the scope of the study. The researcher controls the delimitations of the scope of the study. The following delimitations are applicable:

- The geographical areas of data collection: Two towns in the Western Cape, i.e. Bellville and Stellenbosch, as well as two towns in the North West, i.e. Potchefstroom and Klerksdorp, were chosen for data collection. These towns were selected as they include various sub-cultures as defined by race (i.e. African/black, white, coloured), as well as African ethnic groups such as the Xhosa and Tswana (Statistics SA, 2000b). This was done in order to reflect to a certain extent the multi-cultural facets of the South African consumer society in a semi-rural and semi-urban and urban environment.

- The sample population: The sample population included all female consumers between the ages of 18 and 55, browsing for or buying clothes for themselves and/or family members in a discount, chain speciality and department store. Females were chosen as they are primarily responsible for apparel purchases in a family (Bruce & Parkinson-Hill, 1999; Fuller & Blackwell, 1992; Lavin, 1993). The age group of between 18 and 55 was chosen, as they are the adult buyers of apparel. The youth market (13 to 17 years) as well as the mature market (55 plus) are considered separate market segments, specifically with regard to apparel purchases (Huddelston, Ford & Mahoney, 1990; Huddleston, Ford & Bickle, 1993; Lumpkin & Greenberg, 1982; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993; Visser & Du Preez, 1998). Browsing as well as buying behaviour were included in the definition of shoppers. Browsers are actively seeking product information that could influence the buying decision and it was therefore deemed appropriate to include both browsing and buying behaviour. This approach is supported by Bloch, Ridgeway and Sherrell (1989) and Darden and Dorsch (1990). The three types of stores included in this study represent the major groups of retail outlets where apparel items can be bought. The classification of stores was made according to the research of Shim and Kotsiopulos (1992a). The same retail stores should also be situated in both areas of data collection. Other forms of retail outlets, i.e. boutiques, Internet shopping, home industries, hawkers, flea markets and catalogues were not included in the scope of this study.

It is within these boundaries that the researcher sets out to reach the objectives of this research project.

1.7 CONCLUSION: CHAPTER ONE

This chapter laid the foundations of this dissertation. The broad field within which this research project will take place, was outlined and justification was given for the study. The research problem, together with the objectives of this exploratory study, was stated. The envisaged methodological approach was briefly described. The outline of the study was stated and the delimitations were introduced in order to delineate the scope of the study. From these foundations, the report can proceed with a detailed description of the different components of this research project.

CHAPTER 2

VARIABLES INFLUENCING APPAREL SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR – A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

It is imperative for any research project to have a sound theoretical base and to use this as a point of departure in order to develop and justify the research initiative. The present chapter will:

- Firstly, argue the importance of a theoretical base, the necessity of theory building for the sustainability and growth of knowledge, and the applicability of theoretical models in the fields of Consumer Behaviour and Consumer Sciences and Clothing.
- Secondly, present a macro perspective for the identification of variables that influence female apparel shopping behaviour from various theoretical models.
- Thirdly, present a micro perspective presenting selected primary variables pertinent to this research project. Each of these variables will be discussed through a literature review.

This approach will assist the researcher in organising the literature review logically and to give theoretical support to the research design and empirical study (refer to Chapter 3).

2.2 THEORY AND MODELS IN THE STUDY OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR AND APPAREL STUDIES

Consumers will drive the market in the 21^{st} century while the retail-driven 20^{th} century and manufacturing-driven 19^{th} century will forever belong to history (Blackwell in Shim, 1998). Consumers exert their spending power within a marketplace, thereby influencing the success of all stakeholders in that marketplace. It is therefore crucial that manufacturers, retailers and marketers understand consumers in order to survive and be profitable in the highly competitive and fast changing 21st century (Sproles & Burns, 1994). It is only through sound research and theory that the knowledge about, and understanding of, consumer behaviour will be attained.

The need for a theoretical base for research and the importance of contributing to theory building in the fields of Consumer Behaviour and Clothing have been emphasised by several practitioners. De Klerk (1999), Damhorst (1991) and Shim (1998) stated that researchers should place issues and concepts in the context of a theoretical framework in order to contribute to the understanding of markets, consumers, and marketing dynamics. As early as the 1980s, Kaiser (1983-84) stressed the need in the field of Textiles and Clothing to synthesise concepts from root disciplines in a manner that would promote an integrative approach to the study of dress. Cowels and Crosby (1986) emphasised the renewed interest by consumer behaviourists in the role of research in theory development and stresses that theory development requires the testing of theory. The issue of theory building was further emphasised by the work of Eckman, et al., (1990, p. 13) with the following statement: "Too few attempts at theory testing and model building appear among apparel purchase studies." This statement reinforces the urgent need for a more scientific approach to research within the field of apparel purchases, rather than "...simple lists of what consumers checked as important or conclusions that a criterion was or was not used significantly for apparel product evaluation...".

Apparel purchase studies have been largely explanatory and descriptive in nature. The aim should be to move away from purely descriptive studies toward the development of models and theories in order to provide optimal applicability to retailers and manufacturers as well as set the groundwork for future theoretically based research. Nagasawa, et al., (1989) supported this statement. They addressed the need for more abstract theoretical development in Clothing and Textiles and presented a model of scientific inquiry, including the concrete and abstract, to guide future development and ordering of knowledge. The integration of knowledge and theories is encouraged, either from within Clothing and Textiles or from another field. "Knowledge is cumulative regardless of disciplinary boundaries. We may borrow and integrate ideas from other disciplines, but as we synthesize and use them they become unique to the body of knowledge known as clothing and textiles " (Nagasawa, et al., 1989, p. 26). Rudd (1991) stated that Textiles and Clothing as an emerging discipline should draw from theory in social and natural sciences, but should move away and form its own distinct theory as the discipline develops.

Lennon and Burns (2000, p. 213) hold an alternative approach to the development of knowledge and theory, or the "what we know and how we know" in the fields of textiles, clothing and human behaviour. The statement is made that research in the above fields does not take place in isolation. The way in which researchers approach scholarly work, is influenced by their ethnicity, age, educational training, gender and background. The whole research process is therefore influenced by personal and environmental factors, thus influencing the selection of research questions, methodological techniques, data analysis tools and the interpretations and conclusions. These views are supported by Kaiser and Damhorst (1991, p. 11) stating that "...theory in textiles and clothing, as in the sciences or humanities in general, is inseparable from the self-concepts and beliefs of those who develop, use, and apply it ...". Lennon and Burns (2000) urge researchers to consider critically the implications of, for example a dominant research technique on the findings in that particular field of study. Five dimensions are employed to present research and to aid other researchers to understand and recognise research and knowledge gaps, i.e. strategies to gather data, time frame, origin of data elicited, technique of data elicitation and quantitative and qualitative treatment of data. With this as background Lennon and Burns (2000) urge researchers to engage in a healthy scepticism by continually questioning the theoretical basis or frameworks, validity of own work, data collection and processing methods and other influences in order to provide scientific validity to research.

Sheth (1983) indicated several benefits that are associated with theory development. The context of Sheth's study was theory development of patronage behaviour, but the underlying principles and motivation for theory building are applicable in all domains of science. Firstly, the development of theory will highlight areas of empirical research that have previously been neglected. Sheth states that the neglect can be attributed to either methodological reasons or lack of data. Secondly, it will provide researchers and practitioners with a common vocabulary and framework to work in, thus improving the communication between different stakeholders of theory development. As the study of consumer behaviour phenomena often leads to the broadening of the study field, a third benefit associated with theory development is that of delimitation. Through this the researcher can more successfully limit the scope of attempted research and contribute to theory building in a specific manner. Lastly, Sheth holds the opinion that theory development will encourage deductive research that is more theory-driven. This will increase the cost-benefit ratio of doing empirical research. The increase in deductive-theoretic research, rather than inductive-observational research, indicates the development of a discipline.

Shim also addressed the issue of theory development and testing. "I challenge all of us to develop research programs that can address issues either by testing existing theories or developing new ones. In this way, we can strengthen our understanding of the theoretical underpinnings of the marketplace and consumer behaviour" (Shim, 1998, p. 445). This is further substantiated by Engel and Blackwell (1982, p. 689) as "Models are an absolute necessity, and the lack of definite empirical verification does not invalidate them if the constructs and hypotheses, taken by themselves, are consistent with present knowledge of the behaviour process. The heuristic value, in itself, warrants the whole effort." The researcher will attempt to respond to this challenge in the present research project by making use of existing models in order to build a conceptual theoretical model (refer to Section 2.3 and 2.4). A further aim is to propose a new conceptual model of selected variables influencing female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society (refer to Chapter 5).

2.3 THEORETICAL MODELS

The question can be asked as to why one should use existing theoretical models as point of departure in order to develop new theoretical frameworks or models and to build theory and new research initiatives in the field of Consumer Behaviour and Clothing.

Damhorst (1991, p. 196) is of the opinion that models and theories are equally important to scientific progress: "Without models of the process or system under investigation, theory development will be, at best, haphazard and inefficient." *Theory* is a set of related or internally consistent propositions which explain, interpret, describe and/or predict a phenomenon in a highly simplified manner in order to be applied to a large number of phenomena (Damhorst, 1991; Winakor, 1988).

A *model* is also a set of internally consistent propositions, but maps out the components of a system or process. Relationships among the components are indicated and are usually presented visually. Models give perspective to the researcher in order to focus a study for data selection. This characteristic of models is important for the present research project, as the different models will assist the researcher in building a new theoretical model. Models serve as a map of what makes up a specific phenomenon, whereas theories explain the why and how the parts of a system or process interact and function in the manner they do (Damhorst, 1991; Engel & Blackwell, 1982; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993).

Assael (1992, p.59) emphasised the importance of using a consumer behaviour model that describes the sequence of factors that lead to purchase behaviour. Motivation for this can be found in the following:

- A model encourages a total and integrative view of consumer behaviour. Marketers and managers are exponentially attempting to understand the processes and variables affecting their customers' consumer behaviour (Engel, et al., 1995). A model of variables influencing female apparel shopping (macro perspective) will assist the stakeholders in the apparel industry in the understanding of the total process of apparel shopping behaviour and the variables influencing behaviour. It would be irresponsible for stakeholders to attempt to understand the purchasing behaviour of their clientele without having a holistic framework of all the possible variables that influence consumer behaviour, as no one variable will be the sole factor influencing consumer behaviour. Unfortunately, as these variables are numerous, the scope of this research project will be limited to selected primary variables as presented in the micro perspective (refer to Figure 2.5).

- A model provides a basis for developing marketing strategies. Once marketers have an understanding of a model of consumer behaviour, marketing strategies can be developed to attempt to influence the outcome of consumer behaviour. If, for example, the lifestyle of a consumer is related to shopping behaviour, then a study of lifestyle and the adaptation of the marketing strategy in order to be in accordance with the consumer's lifestyle, will undoubtedly have an impact on consumer behaviour. Consumers with different lifestyles have varying consumer needs, therefore an understanding of lifestyles will equip the marketer better to supply in these needs, thus increasing, for example, consumer satisfaction, brand loyalty, market share and sales volume.

- A model assists in the evaluation of marketing strategies. A model gives guidelines as to what information needs to be gathered in order to evaluate marketing strategies. For example, if lifestyle influences shopping behaviour, then information needs to be gathered with regard to the different lifestyles of the target market to evaluate to what extent these lifestyles are provided for in the marketing strategy (Engel, et al., 1995).

- A model encourages quantification of the variables. Relationships between variables in a model must be demonstrated in a statistically reliable manner.

❖ A model provides a basis for segmenting markets. Different lifestyles can, for example, be used to segment markets, as consumers that share the same lifestyle are likely to have the same consumer needs.

❖ A model provides a frame for reference of research and assists the researcher to identify gaps in knowledge and understanding. Research priorities and the interrelation between research projects can be facilitated by the application of a model (Engel, et al., 1995).

Assael (1992) expanded the argument further by indicating that the usefulness of consumer models in marketing management is hampered by four limitations:

❖ Model components may not be equally important or relevant to all product categories. All variables in decision-making models will not have the same weight, as the product under investigation impacts on the importance or relevance of the model component.

❖ All the components of a general model of consumer behaviour may not be equally important for all usage situations.

❖ No two individuals are the same, as they differ with regard to variables in a model. This results in model components having different values, weights and importance for individuals in the same market.

❖ All purchase decisions are not equally complex. The complexity of the decision-making process will have an impact on the importance with which consumers will, for example, search for information, evaluate and choose products.

Assael (1992) emphasised that the limitations should not restrict the usage of decision-making models, but warns that there need not be only one model and that models will differ, for example, with regard to complexity and consumer involvement. The degree of involvement in the decision-making process depends more on the individual's attitude to the product than to the product characteristics (Assael, 1992). For some individuals, the purchase of apparel items can thus be very involved as they experience high involvement, while others will experience the purchase of apparel as near routine. Therefore a general model for apparel shopping behaviour will make provision for these varying levels.

Durvasula, Lysonski and Andrews (1993) emphasised that researchers need to respond to criticism that the United States developed data and models which cannot be accepted as valid in other countries. This point of criticism is addressed in the present research project by using universal consumer behaviour models and applying them to a South African context.

Various models from the study fields of Consumer Behaviour and Clothing were studied. Special attention was given to the following models in order to determine the variables that influence apparel shopping behaviour:

- The Consumer's Fashion Adoption Process - a general model (Sproles, 1979, p. 197). This model is widely accepted in the apparel field as a general, very inclusive model for fashion adoption. Although fashion is not the focus of the present study, the model can still be applied as a basic model for the understanding of apparel purchases and related variables. In further discussions this model will be referred to as the Sproles model of fashion adoption or abbreviated as the Sproles model.
- The Engel-Blackwell-Miniard Model of Decision-Process Behaviour (EBM-Model) (Engel, et al., 1995, p. 154). The EBM-Model is widely regarded as a comprehensive model of consumer decision-making in the field of Consumer Behaviour. The model provides an overview of variables influencing the decision-making process as well as of the process itself.
- The Clothing Consumer Decision-Making Model (De Klerk, 1999, p. 127). This is the only South African developed model that is apparel-related.
- Model of In-Store Apparel Purchase Decision-Process (Eckman et al., 1990, p. 20). This model is a very simplified model, focussing on the three stages of the in-store decision-making process, i.e. interest, trial, and buy or reject.
- The Simple Model of Consumer Decision-Making (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000, p. 443). A simple model of consumer behaviour is often used by researchers and students. It is easy to follow and combines numerous variables in a simple manner. Three stages are identified, i.e.:
  - input (socio-cultural environment and marketing efforts as external variables);
  - process (the decision-making stage consisting of need recognition, pre-purchase search and evaluation of alternatives). The psychological field and experience are also incorporated here;
  - output (post-decision behaviour, i.e. purchase and post-purchase evaluation).

The first three models will be discussed in full as they form the basis of the proposed conceptual theoretical model, i.e. the Sproles Model of Fashion Adoption, the Engel-Blackwell-Miniard model, and De Klerk's Clothing Consumer Decision-Making Model.

These three models were selected as they are widely accepted and can be applied fruitfully as point of departure for the present study. The other two models as well as others (Dardens Model in Darden, Erdem & Darden, 1983; Howard-Sheth Model of Buyer Behaviour and Sheth Family Decision-Making Model in Schiffman & Kanuk, 1987), were studied and ideas gained were incorporated in the development of a new conceptual model. Why then was it necessary to develop a new conceptual model if models already exist? The following reasons can be cited:

- No existing integrated model of female apparel shopping behaviour, emphasising the variables influencing shopping behaviour, could be identified for the South African apparel consumer. This increased the importance of developing a new conceptual theoretical model in this regard.
- Some of the models lacked the comprehensiveness needed (for example Eckman et al., 1990; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000) in order to identify all the variables affecting the purchase decision-making process for apparel products. These models, however, contributed to the understanding and approach to building a theoretical model.
- De Klerk's Model (1999) was not fully appropriate, as it was not comprehensive enough with regard to the influencing variables. It was, however, apparel-specific and South African, and was therefore included.
- To make a contribution to the plea for building a model and/or a theory, especially as the South African research in this field is limited.
- To combine two fields of study underlying this study, i.e. Consumer Psychology and Clothing, in such a way as to strengthen the inter-disciplinary nature of research. More and more researchers advocate a more interdisciplinary approach to the study of phenomena. The present research project is an attempt in that direction. An interdisciplinary approach to investigate phenomena in these fields of study is underscored by Kaiser and Damhorst (1991) and Nagasawa et al., (1989).

This section concludes with a synthesis of the various models into a conceptual model of the variables influencing apparel shopping behaviour, thus attempting to make a contribution to theory building in the domain of apparel shopping behaviour. Apparel shopping behaviour is not the result of a single variable, but rather a phenomenon that is influenced by a very large number of variables. Some variables can be classified as conscious and others as sub-conscious, some as market dominated and others consumer dominated and some a fusion between the two, thus increasing the complexity thereof. The apparel consumer must be studied in his/her own right as the decisions regarding apparel cannot be equalised to decision-making with regard to other products (De Klerk, 1999). The present study strives to contribute to theory building by attempting to identify the categories of variables that influence apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural society and synthesise these in a conceptual theoretical model of female apparel shopping.

2.3.1 THE SPROLES MODEL OF FASHION ADOPTION

The Sproles Model of Fashion Adoption (1979, p. 197) can assist in the identification of variables that influence the decision-making process with regard to apparel. This model was originally developed to provide a conceptual framework of the variables influencing fashion adoption and the relationship between these variables suggests how different variables relate to one another. The model focuses on the consumer decision-making process with regard to fashion products (Forsythe, Butler & Kim, 1991; Sproles, 1979). The decision-making process forms an integral part of fashion adoption. It is therefore justifiable to use Sproles model as a basis for this research project.

Sproles (1979) identified three pre-existing conditions that influence the adoption process, i.e. the fashion object, the current level of acceptance of a style and the potential adopter (age, sex, socio-economic characteristics, and physical profile). The directing influences on the fashion process are identified as influences from the adopter's environment, motivations and communications. Environmental influences included lifestyles, socio-cultural change and the fashion marketing system. Communications come from the consumer's environment and reference group interaction. These directing influences have their origin in the adopter's psychosocial motivations, namely:

- The adopter's cognitive orientations toward dress (awareness, interest, knowledge, innovativeness, perceived risk, expectations, attitudes and values);
- The adopters psychological identity (self-concept, personality and individuality-conformity);
- The social influences of the adopter (collective behaviour, socialisation, reference groups, social communications and opinion leadership).

The central channel of decision-making was described by Sproles (1979) as awareness of the object, interest, evaluation, identification of alternatives (store selection, identification of available styles, purposeful seeking of information, in-store evaluation, narrowing of choice) and the decision which in turn gives rise to post-purchase

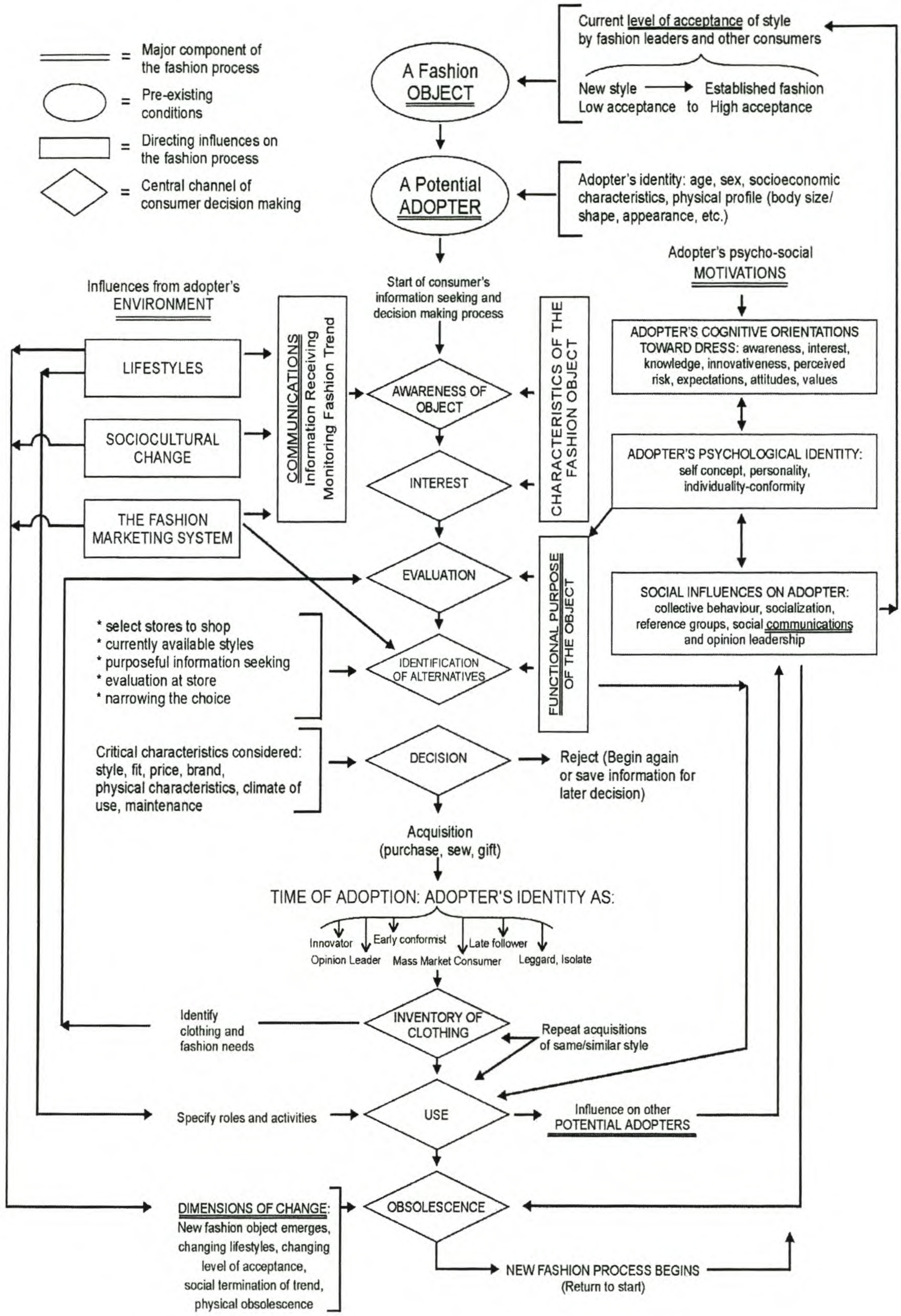

FIGURE 2.1: THE SPROLES MODEL OF FASHION ADOPTION

(Sproles, 1979, p. 197)

behaviour, i.e. rejection or acquisition. Sproles (1979) included the classification of the adopter into adoption categories. The remainder of the model focussed on the use of fashion up to the point of obsolescence (i.e. inventory of clothing, use and obsolescence).

2.3.2 THE ENGEL-BLACKWELL-MINIARD MODEL OF CONSUMER DECISION-PROCESS BEHAVIOUR

The Engel-Blackwell-Miniard Model of Consumer Decision-Process Behaviour has gone through many revisions and combinations of authors over the years (Engel & Blackwell, 1982; Engel, Blackwell & Miniard, 1986). The model has been used as conceptual model in a wide variety of studies (Booher, 1996; Cassill, 1986; Cassill, 1990; Shim & Drake, 1990).

This model supports the cognitive approach of consumer decision-making as many factors influence the decision-making process. Some consumer decisions will be dominated by rational decisions while others will be dominated by hedonic decisions. However, all will encompass need-satisfying behaviour (Engel, et al., 1995). The variables shaping decision-making fall into three categories, i.e.:

- individual differences (consumer resources, knowledge, attitudes, motivation and personality, lifestyle and values);
- environmental influences (culture, social class, personal influence, family and situation);
- psychological processes (information processing, learning and behaviour and attitude change).

The process of decision-making is initiated with the need recognition phase, followed by search for information. This search is initially internal if in the memory, and external if additional information is needed. The propensity to search externally will be affected by individual and environmental influences. Information processing is the next step including exposure, attention, comprehension, acceptance and retention. All the information gathered is examined in the pre-purchase alternative evaluation phase according to evaluative criteria. This will lead to purchasing (different types of retail outlets and the increasing e-commerce trade), consumption, and post-purchase evaluation culminating in satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The last stage is labelled divestment where the consumer can dispose, recycle or re-market the product (Engel, et al., 1995).

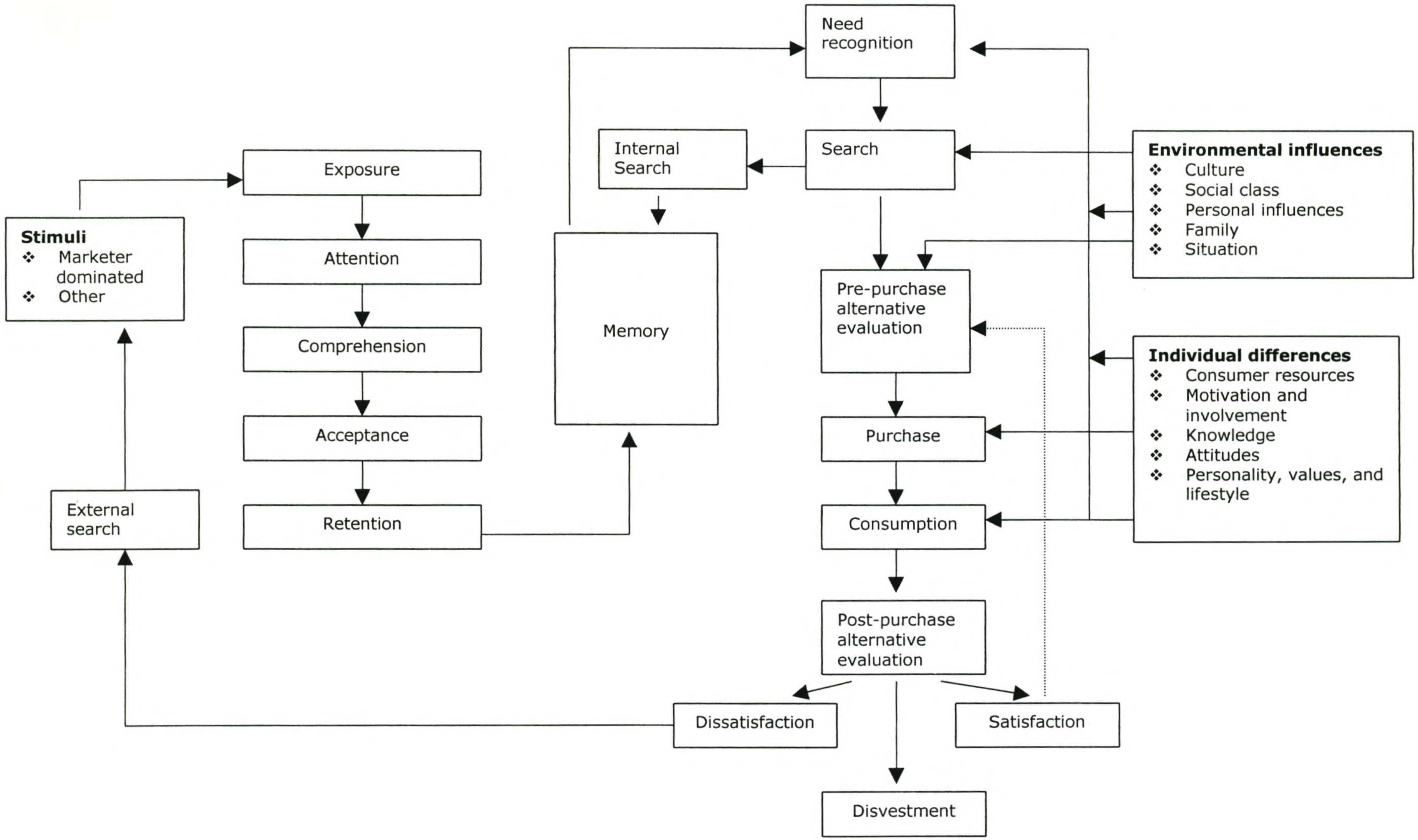

FIGURE 2.2: THE ENGEL-BLACKWELL-MINIARD MODEL OF DECISION-PROCESS BEHAVIOUR

(Engel, Blackwell and Miniard, 1995, p. 154)

As the Engel-Blackwell-Miniard Model of Decision-Process Behaviour supports the cognitive processes in consumer behaviour as well as the fact that many variables influence the process, it is ideally suited to be used as input to this study.

2.3.3 THE DE KLERK CLOTHING CONSUMER DECISION-MAKING MODEL

As previously stated, this model is the only South African developed model available that was specifically developed for clothing consumer decision-making and therefore warrants attention and inclusion in the proposed conceptual theoretical model. The symbolic-interactionist and the cognitive perspectives were combined to form a socio-psychological and cognitive framework for the Clothing Consumer Decision-Making Model, developed by De Klerk (1999). Appendix 2 summarises the three perspectives toward the social psychology of clothing. The shaded components of the table are of importance for the present study. The cultural perspective that was excluded by De Klerk's model, is included. The cultural perspective as presented by Kaiser (1990) will be discussed in section 2.8.2.3.6.

Central to De Klerk's model is the clothing consumer's decision-making process in six stages, i.e. problem recognition or awareness; defence mechanisms; search and processing (interest); expected outcome (evaluation); response (trial) and post-purchase response (acceptance). The influencing variables are grouped according to the self (needs, motives and personality), perceptions, learning, attitudes, economic factors, reference group and significant others, generalised others and the environment.

If this model is studied from a pure or exclusively consumer behaviour perspective (and compared to the Engel-Blackwell-Miniard model), the variables identified do not cover all the variables that could influence shopping behaviour. For example, the role of culture is omitted and variables such as demographics and shopping orientation are not explicitly incorporated. The marketing and market environment in which the consumer functions (Sproles, 1979), is also not emphasised. For a study with a social psychology perspective toward apparel, De Klerk's model will be sufficient, but for studies incorporating the cultural perspective, it is not (Kaiser 1997). This enhances the necessity to combine De Klerk's model (with the underlying principles of the symbolic interactionist and cognitive perspective), together with the cultural perspective, as well as other models in the field of Consumer Psychology/Behaviour and Clothing and Textiles, for a study of this nature.

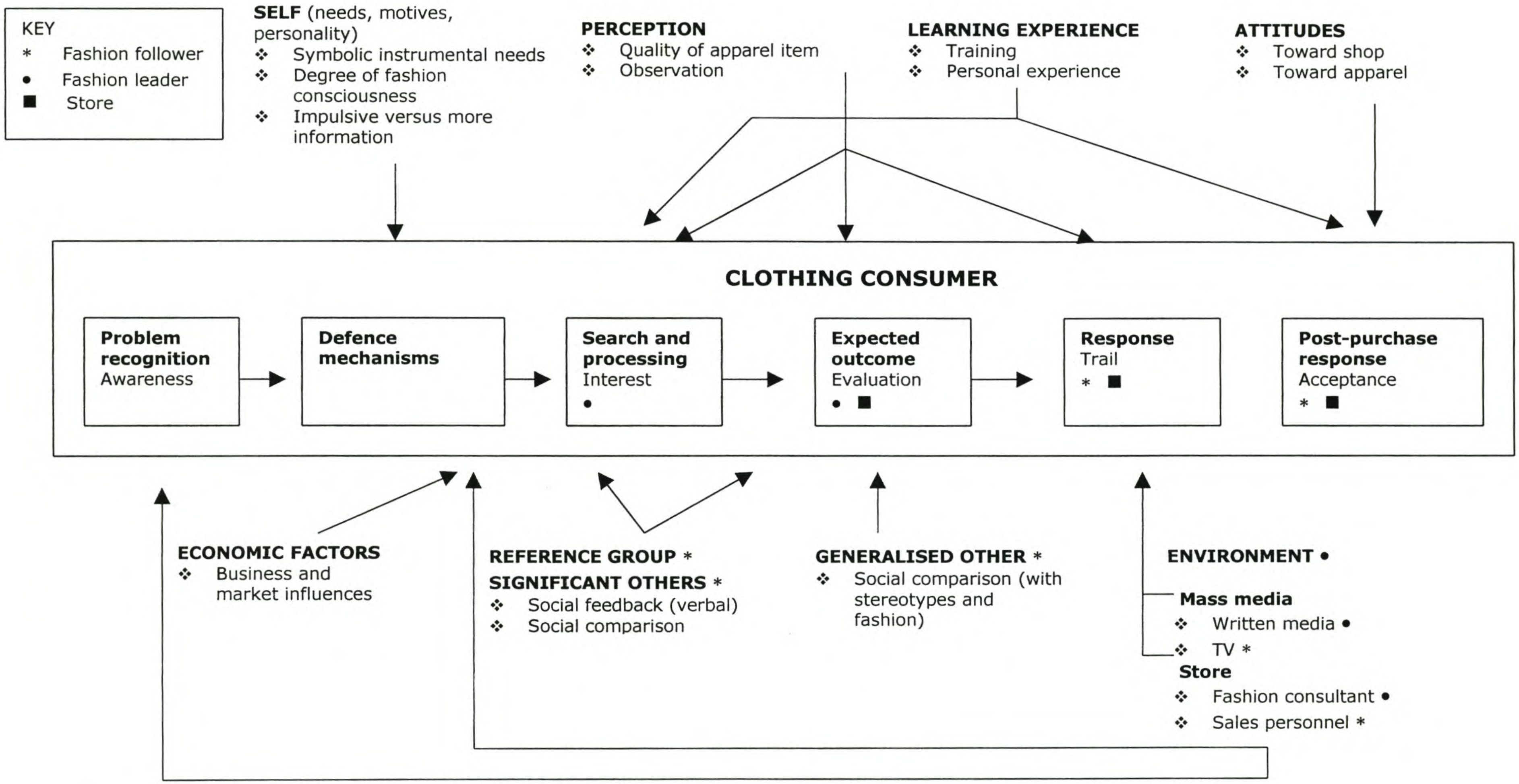

FIGURE 2.3: THE DE KLERK CLOTHING CONSUMER DECISION-MAKING MODEL

(De Klerk, 1999, p. 127)

In accordance with objective one, five models were presented of which three were discussed in some detail. These models, together with others were synthesised to develop a conceptual theoretical model of all the variables influencing female apparel shopping behaviour. This model is presented in the next section and can be seen as the attainment of research objective one.

2.4 CONCEPTUAL THEORETICAL MODEL: A MACRO PERSPECTIVE OF VARIABLES INFLUENCING FEMALE APPAREL SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR

The aim of the development of a conceptual theoretical model was to:

- incorporate the cognitive, cultural and symbolic-interactionist perspectives toward studying clothing behaviour of individuals and groups;
- incorporate as many as possible variables that could influence female apparel shopping behaviour, as identified from the previously discussed models;
- be as inclusive as possible and to assist the researcher and future researchers in identifying possible variables that influence apparel shopping behaviour;
- encourage an integrative and multi-disciplinary view of variables influencing female apparel shopping behaviour;
- assert that apparel shopping behaviour is not a simple phenomenon, but a complex process with numerous variables influencing the outcome thereof;
- demarcate the scope of the study;
- and to contribute to theory building and model representation in the study field of Consumer Psychology/Behaviour and Clothing and Textiles.

The macro conceptual model (refer to Figure 2.4) was not developed to be:

- a predictive model;
- nor a model to show all the relationships among different variables that could influence female apparel shopping behaviour;
- nor a model claiming to be the all-inclusive model of all possible variables impacting on female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural society.

The variables in the model are categorised into three groups, i.e. market dominated variables and consumer dominated variables as well as variables pertaining to market

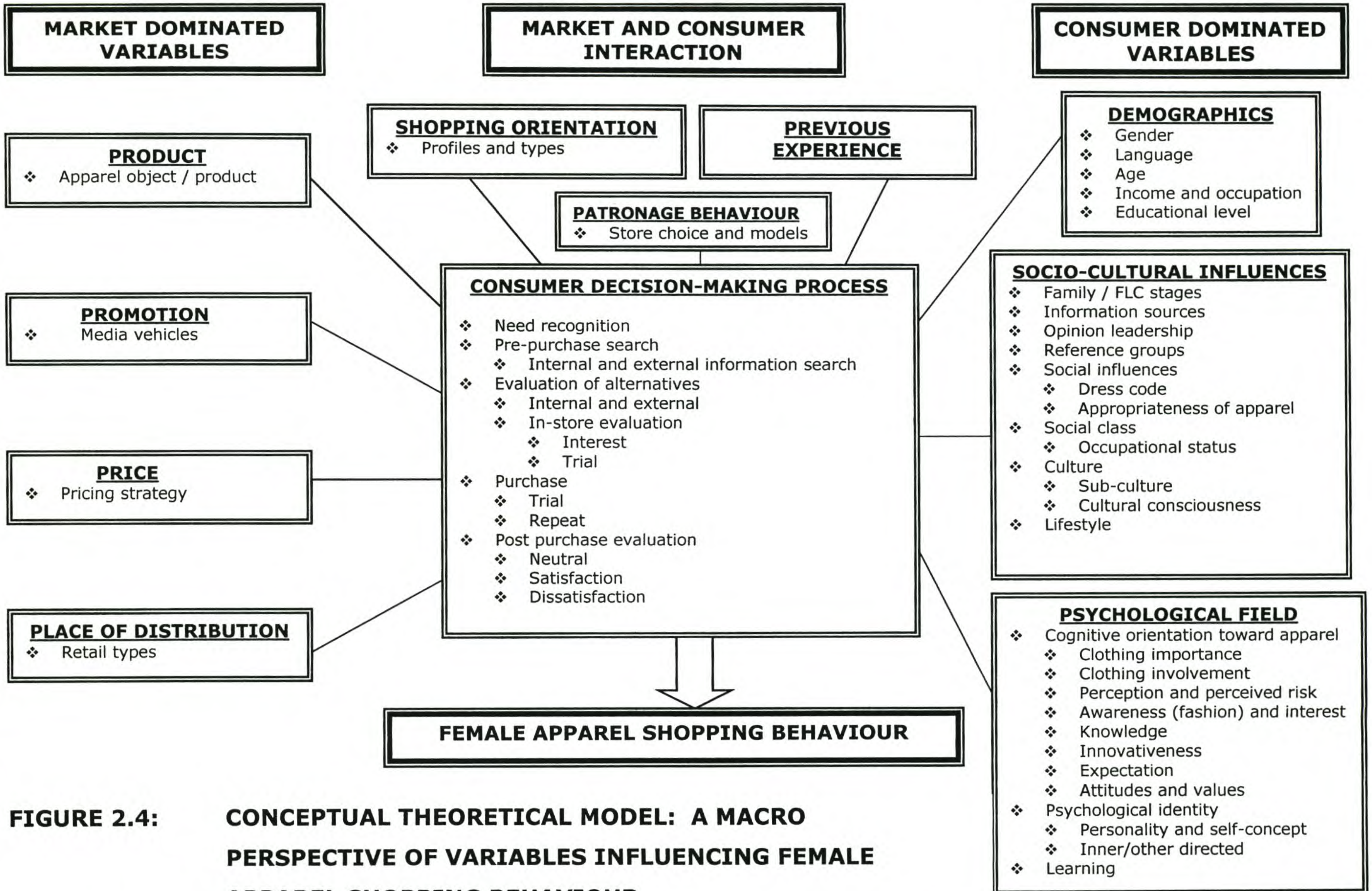

FIGURE 2.4: CONCEPTUAL THEORETICAL MODEL: A MACRO PERSPECTIVE OF VARIABLES INFLUENCING FEMALE APPAREL SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR

Compiled from: (De Klerk, 1999; Eckman et al., 1990; Engel et al., 1986; Sproles, 1979; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000) and consumer interaction, as it cannot be said that either the consumer or the market is dominant. These variables, in turn, influence the consumer decision-making process that results in specific apparel shopping behaviour.

As previously mentioned, and as is apparent from Figure 2.4, not all these variables could be investigated in the present research project. This resulted in the choice of variables that are presented in the next section.

2.5 CONCEPTUAL THEORETICAL MODEL: A MICRO PERSPECTIVE OF SELECTED VARIABLES INFLUENCING FEMALE APPAREL SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR

Figure 2.5 represents a conceptual theoretical model of the selected primary variables influencing female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural society. These variables were chosen as to:

- represent at least two variables under each classification, i.e. the product and place of distribution under market dominated variables, shopping orientation and patronage behaviour under market and consumer interaction variables and demographics and socio-cultural influences under consumer dominated variables;
- include primary variables that need to be included in order to answer the research problem, and
- thirdly, to include variables representative of all three perspectives toward the study of apparel behaviour, i.e. symbolic-interactionist, cognitive and cultural perspectives.

This conceptual model does not include all the variables that influence decision-making and ultimately female apparel shopping behaviour. Literature was scrutinised to gain clarity regarding the selected variables. The conceptual theoretical model (micro perspective) visually presents the chosen variables that will be discussed in the literature review to follow.

2.6 MARKET DOMINATED VARIABLES

The apparel product and the place of distribution, and specifically retailing formats, will be discussed in this section and are schematically presented in Figure 2.6.

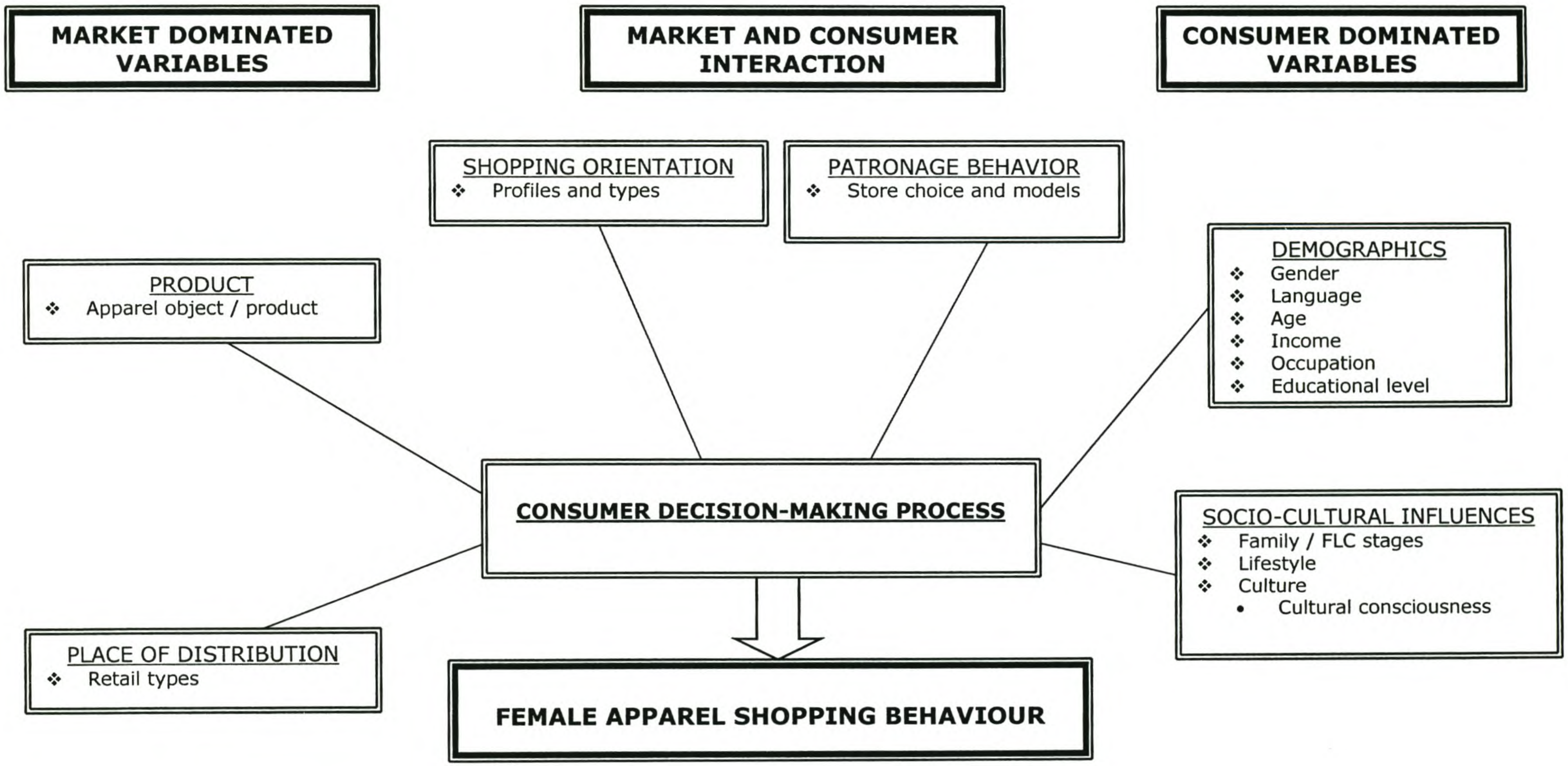

FIGURE 2.5: CONCEPTUAL THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: A MICRO PERSPECTIVE OF SELECTED VARIABLES INFLUENCING FEMALE APPAREL SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR

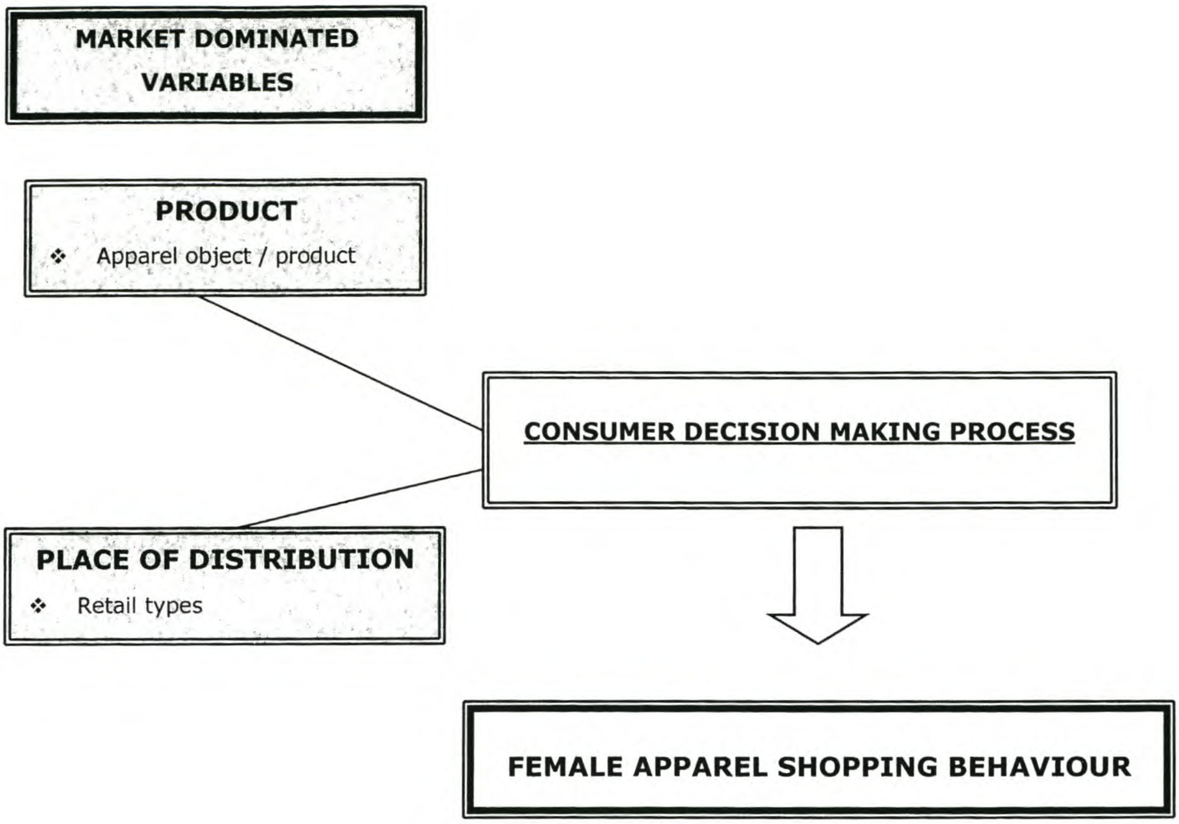

FIGURE 2.6: MARKET DOMINATED VARIABLES INFLUENCING FEMALE APPAREL SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR

Market dominated variables will play a role in all consumer behaviour, as consumers are influenced to use their spending power in a market dominated environment. "The firm's marketing activities are a direct attempt to reach, inform, and persuade consumers to buy and use its products" (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000, p. 444). The marketing mix strategies, i.e. product, price, promotion and channels of distribution serve as inputs to the decision-making process. Consumers' perception of these efforts is of great importance, as it will influence the outcome of the decision-making process and shopping behaviour.

Marketers who try to stay ahead in the competitive apparel market should attempt to gather as much information as possible regarding the consumers' perception of their efforts. By doing this, marketers will get insight into the reasons for consumers' behaviour toward their products and will have the opportunity to adapt the marketing mix strategies, if necessary.

Two market dominated marketing mix variables were selected for inclusion and further investigation, i.e. the product and the place of distribution. Prior to discussing these and in order to understand the context of the product (apparel) in the South African textile and clothing industry fully, it is deemed important to refer to some background and statistics regarding the South African textile and apparel industry. Given the reality of globalisation (refer to section 2.6.3.2.7), manufacturers and retailers embarking on expanding their horizons into the South African apparel market, should take cognisance of the profile of the South African textile and apparel industry.

2.6.1 THE SOUTH AFRICAN TEXTILE AND APPAREL INDUSTRY

The apparel and textile industry in South Africa is a large, capital- and people-intensive industry, thus warranting research in order to sustain growth for all stakeholders. The industry has a formal and informal structure. The Clothing Federation of South Africa (CloFed) represents the organised apparel industry and functions as the national body with associations in all the major production centres in South Africa of which the Western Cape (53%) and KwaZulu-Natal (27%) are the largest. CloFed is also a member of the International Apparel Federation (Van Zyl, 2001).

The apparel industry of South Africa is characterised by a number of key characteristics (Van Zyl, 2001):

- To date the industry has had more imports than exports. This could change in future if the opportunities of the Africa Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA) are seized.
- The formal output of the industry in volume of sales has increased from approximately 2% to 4% of GNP.
- Bargaining councils and trade unions, for example the South African Clothing and Textiles Workers' Union (SACTWU), regulate the social and working conditions in urban areas.
- South African consumers spend an average of 6 – 7% of their income on clothing. These percentages are, however, changing due to an increase in unemployment, an increase in expenditure on other consumer goods and recreational activities, such as cellular phones, the lottery and gambling.
- 16% of South African clothing manufacturers produce approximately 80% of the domestically produced garments.

- The cost structure includes approximately 50% in raw fabric and materials and 16 – 25% labour costs, depending on the product.
- The tax structure and labour market policies do not encourage labour-intensive policies.
- South Africa is an attractive manufacturing nerve centre. Five factors are AGOA, the European Community Agreement, the SADC Trade Agreement, a strong domestic textile industry and a supportive policy framework (Riches, 2001).

However, the textiles and apparel manufacturing industry provides employment for a relatively large number of citizens of South Africa. The official statistics are reported in Table 2.1. Note that leather and leather products and footwear are not included.

TABLE 2.1

EMPLOYMENT AND SALARIES AND WAGES IN THE TEXTILES AND APPAREL MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY

YEAR	TEXTILES		APPAREL	
	Employment	Salaries and wages	Employment	Salaries and wages
1990	97 300	R 1 322 120 000	126 600	R 1 278 225 000
1995	67 892	R 1 702 896 000	134 945	R 2 404 997 000
1999	53 197	R 2 292 125 000	131 491	R 3 872 110 000

(Statistics SA, 2000b, p.7.14)

A reverse trend with regard to employment in both the textile and clothing manufacturing industries is apparent. This could possibly be attributed to the economic situation in South Africa, labour policies, improved productivity, technological upgrades and the extensive downsizing of many large companies due to the decline in the economy. A growth in employment will only take place if there is a growth in the economy coupled with market expansion in South Africa and internationally (Theron, 1998; Theron, 1999). AGOA might provide the necessary motivation in this regard. The total value of sales according to manufacturing groups for the total "wearing apparel" for 1999 is R10,951 billion. Of this R4 713 931 000 was in the sub-group *women's, girls and* *infants' clothing* (Statistics SA, 2000b, p. 12.23; Textile Statistics and Economic Review 1999/2000, 2000, p.5).

The South African Textiles and Apparel Industry also engages in imports and exports. The following figures have been reported for the period January to June 1999 (Clofed Handbook, 2000/2001, p. 2). Refer to Table 2.2.

TABLE 2.2

TEXTILE AND APPAREL IMPORTS AND EXPORTS: JANUARY TO JUNE 1999

TOTAL	PERIOD	AMOUNT	MAJOR COUNTRIES
Exports	January to June 1999	R456 million	USA: R229 m
Growth in exports: 50%	January to June 1998	R304 million	UK: R135 m
Imports	January to June 1999	R415 million	China: R123 m
Growth in imports: -5%	January to June 1998	R435 million	Malawi: R103 m
			India: R33 m
			Hong Kong: R29 m
			Italy: R20 m

(CloFed Handbook, 2000/2001, p. 2)

The major export categories are men's knitted trousers and other textiles, women's knitted cotton blouses, and men's woven cotton trousers. Major imports include men's woven trousers in cotton, men's woven shirts in cotton and men's woven shirts in other textiles.

The import and export portfolio of the South African Textile and Apparel Industry will be influenced by AGOA that came into effect on 1 October 2000 and will run for eight years till 30 September 2008. This bill extends the most beneficial USA trade and investment programme to Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), and one of the aims of the USA is to build a long-term textile industry in Sub-Saharan Africa (Claassens, 2000). The Bill makes provision for preferential treatment of certain textiles and apparel with the elimination of tariffs on imports into the USA. However, certain conditions apply as to the percentage of fibres formed in various countries (Salinger, 2001; Van Zyl, 2001). The quota-free access of apparel made from USA fabrics, from Sub-Saharan countries with eligibility status into the USA, is a big opportunity for countries to develop their industries, however very few are ready to take up this challenge (Auld, 2001). Imports into the USA from SSA countries on the eligibility list, would also benefit if the garments are manufactured from fabrics produced in these countries. This could further lead to growth in yarn and fabric manufacturing in South Africa. Thirty-four countries have been listed on the eligibility list, including South Africa (Russel, 2000).

South Africa does, however, face a number of challenges with regard to seizing the AGOA opportunities. Firstly, a change of mindset of the South African apparel industry to think globally and secondly, the low levels of productivity. The third challenge is a relatively unskilled workforce when compared to international standards, and lastly, the competition from Mexico, the Caribbean and Asia (Salinger, 2001; Traore & Kim, 2001).

This industry is a major contributor to the South African economy. The foreseen growth of the industry will contribute to job creation and prosperity in South Africa. It is critical that textiles and apparel manufacturers make a concerted effort to gain knowledge of the needs of their consumer base. Given the economic restraints of consumers and of the economy as a whole, it is even more important to satisfy the needs of the consumer market in order to sustain growth and profitability in this highly competitive market.

2.6.2 THE APPAREL PRODUCT

Apparel was chosen as product category for this research project. The phenomenon of apparel consumer behaviour is challenging, very dynamic, complex and inter-disciplinary in nature. Glock and Kunz (2000) stated that the combination of fashion change and seasonal change makes the apparel business the most change-intensive business in the world. Sproles (1981) emphasised that apparel and fashion apparel is under-researched in comparison with other major consumer products. The textile and apparel industry as a whole could also benefit from a greater understanding of this phenomenon, and research combining Consumer Psychology and Textiles and Clothing could contribute in his field. From a marketing and retailing perspective, the product decisions are most challenging, as one would attempt to meet consumer preferences and needs with regard to the type, variety and depth of the product assortments (Terblanché, 1998). Refer to Appendix 1 for definitions applied in the field of clothing and textiles.

Consumers' product knowledge can be classified into three types, i.e. bundles of attributes, benefits and value satisfaction. These levels of product knowledge are combined in a means-end chain as a simple knowledge structure containing interconnected meanings about attributes, consequences and values. The means-end structures for each product are created by the consumer and are unique to each consumer as it is based on personal characteristics. The same would therefore apply for apparel products. Marketers could benefit from means-end chain models as they provide a deeper understanding of consumers' product knowledge (Peter & Olson, 1990). Apparel consumers make use of product attributes in order to evaluate apparel items. These attributes could be categorised into four themes, i.e. physical appearance, physical performance, expressive, and extrinsic, and include abstract and concrete features (Abraham-Murali & Littrell, 1995). It was evident from the latter study that evaluation of multidimensional attributes required more complex thinking from apparel consumers. This high level of evaluation occurred more often than unidimensional attribute evaluation. The latter study again emphasised the complexity of the apparel purchase process.

Products can be classified according to the consumer behaviour displayed when purchasing products. Four distinctive product classes exist (Terblanché, 1998):

❖ Convenience products: These products are relatively inexpensive and consumers do not engage into information search, comparisons, and extensive decision-making. Convenience items can be classified into three types, i.e. staples (for example, bread, cigarettes, milk), impulse goods (for example, sweets, magazines, lighters) and emergency goods (for example, suntan lotion, headache tablets).
❖ Shopping products: Consumers engage in comparisons of criteria such as style, pricing, quality, product characteristics and variety before buying. These items are more expensive and are purchased less frequently. Products are differentiated between different stores, therefore the consumer tends to shop around and engage in pre-purchase search activities. Items such as apparel (clothing/clothes), furniture and appliances are examples.
❖ Speciality products: Consumers buying speciality goods are well informed about the product characteristics and engage into much effort to acquire the needed product. Substitute products are not easily accepted. Computer equipment, designer apparel and photographic equipment can be cited as examples of speciality products. Speciality stores carry these products.
❖ Unsought products: Any products that are unknown to the consumer or that are not usually bought, can be classified here, for example funeral insurance.

This classification of merchandise has vast implications for retailers, as it will influence store location, store layout, staffing, advertising and marketing. Apparel products are classified by Terblanché (1998) as shopping and/or speciality goods, thus the consumer is involved, recognises needs, engages in pre-purchase search and evaluation, purchase and post-purchase evaluation. The consumer therefore engages in extended and complex decision-making processes and is influenced by many variables (Assael, 1992; Thomas, Cassill & Forsythe, 1991). The apparel retailer has unique opportunities for store layout, grouping of apparel merchandise by supplier and building a store image with the type of merchandise carried. These decisions will all impact on the consumer market segment that would patronise the store as different segments of consumers evaluate groups of attributes differently (Birtwistle, Clarke & Freathy, 1999).

The traditional marketing chain of textiles from apparel manufacturers to retailers to consumers is no longer as clearly defined as in the past. This chain flowed from fibers, yarns, fabrics, apparel and accessories to retailers, to consumers. There is a very strong movement toward vertical merchandising where companies are combining the production of fabrics with apparel manufacturing or combining manufacturing with retailing. This trend results in an increase in profits by cutting out the so-called middleman and reduced prices (Frings, 1999). Vertical merchandising yields great challenges and opportunities for companies as they control the supply-demand-production-marketing chain. Furthermore, the increased importance of consumer research and knowledge cannot be ignored, as consumers' needs must be seen to. Quick Response (QR), as an attempt to speed ordering and distribution between all levels of the industry via electronic data interchange, has been one of the results of vertical merchandising (Burns & Bryant, 1997; Frings, 1999).

Apparel shopping behaviour is unique and complex. Apparel is a study domain in its own right and adds to the complexity of research when a product of this nature is chosen as product category for consumer behaviour research. This is supported by Sproles and Burns (1994, p. 1) who stated that "... fashion-orientated consumer behaviour results from a multitude of behavioural processes and is among the most complex acts of consumer behaviour ...". This is also true for apparel as a whole. Apparel and fashion are also part of human behaviour and is an integral part of our personal identity and lifestyle and reflect our culture and society (Sproles & Burns, 1994; Kaiser, 1997). It is therefore even more important to attempt to synthesise these complexities into a conceptual theoretical model (refer to section 2.4). The model as such could simplify the understanding of the complex phenomenon, *apparel shopping behaviour*. In South Africa, the emerging black middle class is extremely status-conscious and believes that status is reflected in the use of a certain product. Apparel is regarded as the third highest status item (8.2%), after cars (65.3%) and cellphones (10.2%) and therefore apparel worn is seen as a reflection of an individual's status in society (The Status Society, 1999, p. 12).

2.6.2.1 THE FASHION CHANGE AND ADOPTION PROCESS

In order to understand the influence of fashion (of apparel items) on the individual, an understanding of the fashion process and the fashion adoption process is important, as the two processes are interchangeably linked. Fashion adoption is individually focussed whereas the fashion diffusion process is group-orientated (Frings, 1999; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). The fashion process is a dynamic mechanism of change through which a potentially new fashion is created and transmitted from its introduction, discernible public acceptance, and eventual obsolescence. The fashion process is cyclical in nature and could also be depicted as a bell-shaped curve with five stages, i.e. introduction, increase in popularity, peak, decline in popularity and rejection (Diamond & Diamond, 1997; Frings, 1999). However, sources vary with regard to the number of phases in the process as well as the naming of the phases (Diamond & Diamond, 1997; Frings, 1999; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000).

The process constitutes six stages, i.e.:

- **Stage 1: Creation or introduction**: new styles are invented that are different from current fashions.
- **Stage 2: Fashion leadership or early acceptance**: the invented fashion is introduced to the market and adopted by fashion leaders. Fashion leaders may come from various groups, for example celebrities, members of high social classes and groups noted for good taste.
- **Stage 3: Increasing social visibility**: a greater number of fashion leaders and early adopters wear the new fashion with high social visibility. More stores promote the product and, if successful, this stage could lead to mass acceptance.
- **Stage 4: Conformity or peak**: in this stage the majority of people from different social groups adopt the fashion object or apparel item. The social acceptance and legitimation influence group conformity to the socially accepted style of dress.
- **Stage 5: Saturation**: fashion is here at the highest level of social acceptance with most consumers being aware of the fashion, and having decided to accept or

reject it. The fashion is worn by the majority of people in everyday situations resulting in the fashion losing its novelty.

- ❖ **Stage 6: Decline and obsolescence**: the social saturation is the end of fashion as it has lost its appeal and individuals start wearing new styles. The introduction of new fashions ultimately initiates a new fashion process.

Most consumers view apparel as a high-involvement product. According to the theory of consumer involvement, high-involvement products lead to extended decision-making, however, if a low-involvement product is involved, the information search will be limited (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). Hawkins, Best and Coney (1998), Schiffman and Kanuk (2000), Sproles and Burns (1994), Rogers (in Wells & Prensky, 1996) all present variations on the adoption process, i.e. the stages through which an individual consumer moves to arrive at a decision to purchase or reject a new product (in this case an apparel item). The adoption process is also used to describe extended decision-making involving new products. Not all innovations will require extended decision-making (Wells & Prensky, 1996). Central to the fashion process is the individual who decides to adopt the fashion innovation. The general adoption process consists of five stages:

- ❖ **Stage 1: Awareness**: the consumer is first exposed to the product innovation and becomes aware of it.
- ❖ **Stage 2: Interest**: consumer interest and the search for additional information follows.
- ❖ **Stage 3**: **Evaluation**: the consumer evaluates whether the innovation will satisfy the need, and whether the product has a relative advantage above others. This stage is a mental trial and the product has not been bought yet.
- ❖ **Stage 4: Trial:** the consumer will use the product on a limited basis.
- ❖ **Stage 5: Adoption (Rejection)**: adoption takes place if the consumer is satisfied with the outcome of the trial. If the outcome of the trial was negative, rejection will take place (Hawkins et al., 1998; Shiffman & Kanuk, 2000; Sproles & Burns, 1994; Rogers in Wells & Prensky, 1996).

Various other models of adoption are discussed in literature (Frings, 1999; Sproles, 1979, Rogers in Wells and Prensky, 1996). Forsythe et al. (1991) made use of the Sproles Model of Fashion Adoption (refer to section 2.3). The objectives included measuring the adoption of a women's clothing style (short skirt), profiling adopters with regard to their identity and motivations and to determine adopter identity and motivation variables that explain or predict the adoption of the short skirt. The results indicated that a large percentage of the sample were classified as non-adopters (87%) while the remaining 13% were classified as adopters. The adopters differed significantly from the non-adopters with regard to age and perceived appropriateness of the short skirt for work. These two variables further significantly determined the probability that an individual would adopt the short skirt. Younger individuals were more likely to adopt, however the major reason for non-adoption was the inappropriateness for work. The utilitarian dimension of fashion adoption thus influenced the adoption process in the latter study. Limitations of the study firstly indicated a lack of previous research, secondly, the exclusion of the vast number of variables that could influence fashion adoption and thirdly, the fact that the acceptance of products may vary according product categories.

Fashion is influenced by environmental forces and needs or problems of consumers, and therefore does not take place in isolation. It is further influenced by information sources as well as personal and social motives and motivations (Sproles & Burns, 1994).

The previous discussion is visually presented in Figure 2.7.

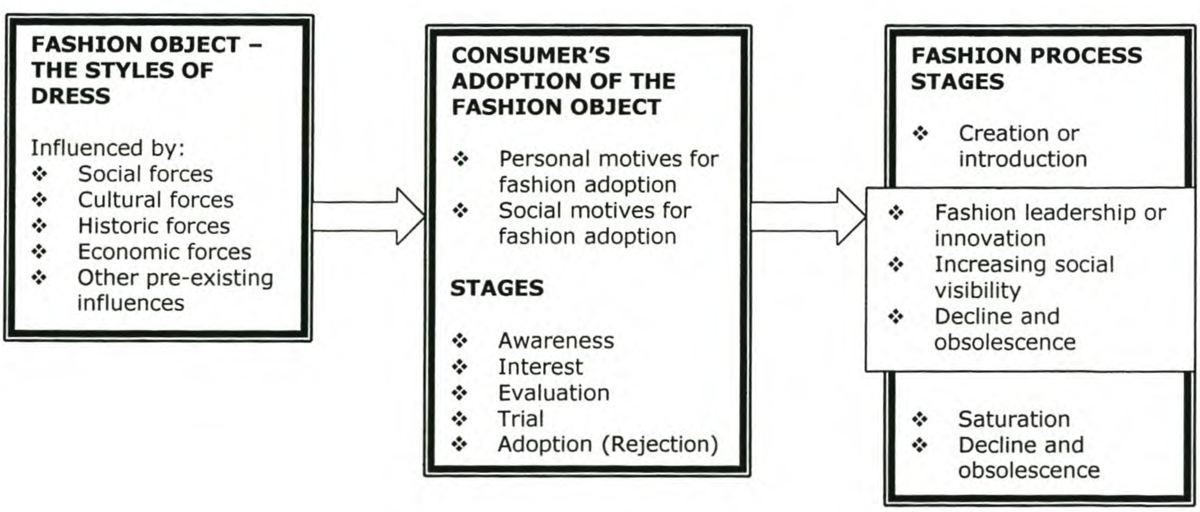

FIGURE 2.7: THE FASHION PROCESS AND FASHION ADOPTION BY CONSUMERS

(Compiled from Sproles & Burns, 1994, p. 18 and Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000, p. 424)

The success of the adoption and diffusion of an apparel item relies on the perception of the characteristics of the innovation, i.e. the relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, trialability, observability and perceived risk of the (apparel) product (Sproles & Burns, 1994).

In the previous section the focus was placed on apparel as product against the backdrop of the South African apparel industry. Apparel is fashion-bound and changes rapidly. The phases of the fashion process, stages in fashion adoption as well as the theories regarding fashion diffusion, were discussed. The following section deals with the second market dominated variable, i.e. the place of distribution.

2.6.3 PLACE OF DISTRIBUTION

South Africa has a very dynamic retail environment, thus making the choices for manufacturers and consumers more challenging. Manufacturers have a choice as to which stores they will sell their merchandise to. The buyer of the store has the choice of which merchandise to buy and display, and the consumer has a choice of which apparel store he will patronise. However, this choice will be influenced by several variables. The choice consumers will make with regard to the specific retail outlet and general type of outlet, will be influenced by the shopping orientations of the consumer. In turn, shopping orientation will be determined by a very large number of variables, which will be discussed in the next section. The challenge is for manufacturers to distribute their merchandise to the correct stores or retailers, so that consumers in the target market will patronise those stores, with the resulting sales and profits for all stakeholders. As place of distribution will not be measured in detail in the present study, only an overview of the relevant literature will be given in the following section.

2.6.3.1 RETAIL FORMATS

South Africa boasts a wide variety of retail environments, ranging form the South African spaza to sophisticated hypermarkets and malls. The apartheid laws kept retailers and consumers from different races apart, thus black townships have a shortfall of retailers while traditionally white areas have an oversupply (Terblanché, 1998). Retailers will have to develop innovative strategies in order to gain access to new markets in South Africa and to deal with the increasing competition in this economic sector.

Retail environments can be classified according to three principle bases, i.e.:

- Descriptive classifications, e.g., type of ownership, type of merchandise sold, location, type of service provided, size of market area, non-shop direct selling, relationship with other businesses, and size of market area.
- Strategic classifications include margin and turnover, retail price and service strategy, strategic groups and gross margin or merchandise sold.
- Service classifications include tangible and intangible classifications (Terblanché, 1998).

As apparel as a product category was the main focus of the present research project, further discussion will be limited to the classification of retailers by the type of merchandise sold and method of operation. Special attention will be given to South African and international trends in apparel retailing.

Department stores present a wide variety of merchandise, but with shallow stock, in defined areas or departments. A department store operates from a flagship store with expansion to branches. A trend has emerged where department stores compete with speciality stores by offering a narrowed down assortment of merchandise, often referred to as a *twig store* (Antonides & Van Raaij, 1998; Mueller & Smiley, 1995). Space within the department store is leased to independents offering specialised goods and services. These departments often include jewellery and cosmetics. These are particularly suited to consumers that prefer a more intimate shopping experience. This trend is also apparent in South African department stores and could extend the maturity phase of the store (Diamond & Diamond, 1997; Terblanché, 1998).

International department stores, such as Macy's and Bloomingdales in the USA, Harrods in London, together with the South African Woolworths, Edgars, Stuttafords and Ackermans, have large budgets for advertising and promotion, especially for apparel goods, as the profitability in this department is high. The principle aim of the promotional activity is to capture the consumers' attention and to introduce them to new merchandise. Unfortunately, department stores in South Africa have been unable to compete with speciality and discount stores. According to Terblanché (1998) there are a number of reasons for this:

- consumers are more price-sensitive, thus discount retailers appeal to them;
- department stores have lost their attractiveness, as speciality stores in shopping centres offer similar opportunities for shopping;
- department stores no longer offer exclusive brands;

- department stores find it extremely difficult to react to changes in the marketplace timely;
- little price competitiveness due to the size and costly inventory levels;
- costly selling space, and
- cost of sales staff due to the high numbers needed.

Speciality stores are a major force in retailing, especially in the apparel market. These stores carry a highly defined merchandise line and merchandise is restricted to a narrowly defined product mix with deep assortment. The service component offered by these stores is an advantage as sales personnel can be highly trained in a specific product line and would have the expertise to explain the product features and, in the case of apparel, could possibly adjust the garment to fit the needs of the consumer. A second advantage is that these stores have a wide assortment and shopping is faster and more convenient. Apparel speciality stores can be a chain or single store such as The Limited and Victoria's Secret in the USA or Foschini, Milady's, Queenspark, Truworths and Topics in South Africa.

Speciality stores are very successful in the apparel industry, resulting in a number of designers and manufacturers opening retail speciality stores that feature their own designs, such as Liz Claiborne, Ralph Lauren and Chanel. In South Africa, Jenny Button and Hip Hop followed this trend by opening speciality stores under their own names.

Discount stores, such as Game and Dion in South Africa, offer brand names at low prices in order to achieve sales volume. Soft goods, such as apparel, were not initially included in the product mix, but this has changed. These stores often offer goods at special low prices to draw the consumer into the store, resulting in possible additional sales once the consumer is in store (Terblanché, 1998). In the apparel retailing industry, PEP Stores, Smiley's Wearhouse and Mr Price can also be classified as discount stores, as brand items are offered at discount prices.

Boutiques are a variation of the speciality store and feature upmarket and fashionable items. Limited numbers of each item are carried, and customers visit these stores as they get custom-made and fashionable apparel, personal attention and assistance from trained personnel.

Sub-speciality stores are also impacting on consumers and other retailers. These stores specialise even further by offering one type of merchandise, such as The Tie Shop, offering ties and scarves. Again, this is a retail trend on the increase as it offers highly specialised goods and a wide variety of merchandise to the consumer (Diamond & Diamond, 1997).

Off-Price retailers, such as T.J. Maxx, offer fashion bargains with prestigious labels. They acquire their merchandise late in the season when manufacturers are already initiating new lines, thus they are forced to sell at lower prices to off-price retailers. This retail format is not yet available in South Africa. Another retail format that has not yet taken off in South Africa is the concept of power centres which groups together a number of large hypermarkets (Hahn, 2000).

Factory shops, in the true sense, are outlets that are manufacturer-owned and located next to the manufacturing site, thus offering goods such as overruns, cancelled orders, samples and imperfect goods. Manufacturers gain some advantages from the operation of these shops as they have limited operating costs, are a further outlet to re-gain lost revenue and are an effective way to control discontinued merchandise (Terblanché, 1998). The factory shops are gaining popularity in the United States as they are grouped together to form value centres (Diamond & Diamond, 1997; Frings, 1999). In the Western Cape the N1 Value Centre is frequented by many consumers.

Direct retailers are also on the increase as many women work full-time and therefore have less time to do in-store shopping. This form of retailing includes catalogues, electronic on-line shopping, such as ordering via the Internet, and television shopping. A large amount of airtime in South Africa is given to "home-shopping", but these programmes do not often feature apparel products as do their American Cable counterparts. On-line shopping services have been growing in South Africa, and the trend is that it will keep on growing as consumers become more knowledgeable and used to this new way of acquiring goods and services (refer to sections 2.6.3.2.6 and 2.6.3.3).

Waterfront retailing is a new development in retailing in South Africa. Retail is mixed with water-centred leisure activities and this format has proved to be very successful in South Africa (Terblanché, 1998). This could partly be attributed to incorporating leisure activities for the whole family into the shopping experience.

A variety of the previously mentioned retailing types, especially the speciality, sub-speciality, department, boutique and discount stores can be situated within a **shopping mall** (Frings, 1999). Frings (1999) further emphasised that traditional malls are under pressure to keep up with the changes in consumer spending patterns and mall alternatives. As shopping malls are on the increase in South Africa, this form of retailing deserves attention. The USA is on the forefront of studies in this regard and boasts a *Journal of Shopping Center Research* which is the annual publication of the *International Council of Shopping Centers*. Retailers need to ask questions regarding the profile of mall shoppers, their shopping behaviour, and values that drive and underlie mall visits. However, Woolworths research director, Venetia Amato, warns that the South African retailer must be aware of the future trend of moving away from malls (Von Bormann, 1999). This future change could be influenced by consumers' need for time-economic shopping as they have less time to shop and seek convenience at all costs. Hahn (2000) introduced a new power centres concept, that is defined as an agglomeration of big box retailers. Differences exist between traditional shopping centres and power centres. Swinyard (1998) reported that respondents with higher needs for security, a sense of belonging, and warm relationships with others (all List of Value (LOV) scale values), were more likely than others to be frequent mall visitors. Excitement, fun and enjoyment of life showed a positive correlation with mall visits. The hypothesis that self-fulfillment, self-respect and a sense of accomplishment would be negatively related to mall visit frequency was partially supported by the results of Swinyard's study.

The informal sector is estimated to capture at least 30% of all apparel manufacturing and sales in South Africa (Baker in Smit, 1996, p. 78). This could partly be attributed to the large-scale retrenchments in the formal apparel sector, relaxation of restrictions on hawking, unlawful "dumping" of apparel items and the growing unemployment level. Flea markets are another retail category that is on the increase in South Africa and, according to Smit (1996), there is even a possibility of segmenting this market. Stall holders work on low mark-ups as the operating costs are low. Many buy their goods from factory stores and re-sell at flea markets. Many home industries also make use of stalls at flea markets to market their goods, especially apparel items. Flea markets are held in open spaces or in enclosed areas, such as indoor sport stadiums, over weekends. Many consumers view shopping at flea markets as a leisure activity and often the whole family will partake in the shopping trip. Hawkers are also on the increase in the informal apparel market, together with party sales catering especially for working women. A market increase in home production of apparel items is also noted. Products are manufactured on a small scale and are tailor-made to consumer specifications (Smit, 1996; Terblanché, 1998).

Antonides and Van Raaij (1998) speculated that more retailers will become involved in the final stage of the consumption cycle in future. This will give scope for the development and increase of other retail formats, such as second-hand shops for apparel and appliances, antique stores and stores recycling used materials. According to

Williams and Windebank (2000) the acquisition of general goods and services through formal firms is less widespread than expected in the United Kingdom and using the informal sector to acquire goods, albeit as a result of economic necessity, is on the increase. Similar patterns can be expected for South Africa.

Time will tell which of these retail environments will best supply in the needs of the South African apparel consumer in the twenty-first century. For retailers it is imperative to gain knowledge of future trends in retailing and the needs of consumers, in order to sustain their growth and profitability in the highly competitive apparel industry (Williams & Windebank, 2000).

2.6.3.2 FUTURE TRENDS IN RETAILING

In order for apparel retailers to keep up with changes in the retailing industry, globalisation, new technologies and new emerging consumer markets, as much information as possible should be gained to assist in strategically sound decisions. Six future trends, as identified by Roberts (1998, pp. 217-240) will be presented in short in the following section.

2.6.3.2.1 Trend 1: Fewer, clearly differentiated retail chains will survive

Globalisation has a profound impact on retailing as large retailers pursue growth and market share in many countries. The competition and economic climate will result in fewer retailers, but those that survive will have the ability to differentiate their stores clearly from others. Consumers must be able to perceive the relative advantage of one retailer above the others. Large retail stores will continue to divert their focus toward their strengths, for example, by building their private-label brands such as Fresh Produce (apparel) of Pick 'n Pay. Speciality retail stores will have a bright future if they offer a good selection of goods of better quality, differentiate themselves well and clearly show consumers the advantages of shopping in their store. These advantages could include, for example, lowest prices, widest range of merchandise, unique merchandise, specialised service and the most personalised service.

Consumers will also change their patronage behaviour. They will visit stores less often, and if they do, they will shop with a purpose - mostly to replace basic merchandise. Gifford (in Roberts, 1998, p. 222) estimated that 65% of consumers' shopping time will be spent on the above-mentioned "speed replenishment", and the remaining 35% on browsing, trying on clothes and looking for new products and ideas. Basic merchandise will be bought at large stores and consumers will expect low prices and little service. For specialised goods, speciality stores will be frequented, more time will be allocated to the shopping experience, fair prices will be expected as well as service and advice. Time will be of the essence and consumers will display varying motivations and intentions to shop (Bellenger, Robertson & Greenberg, 1997; Evans, Christiansen & Gill, 1996; Forsythe & Bailey, 1996).

"Big box retailers", like hypermarkets, therefore need to continue focussing on prices and range of basic merchandise together with fast and efficient facilities. Retailers will put more pressure on prices paid to suppliers for merchandise, especially in the basic foodstuff and basic apparel categories. Speciality retailers should move away from basic merchandise and differentiate themselves in various ways. Consumers must be studied and research must be done on their satisfaction and dissatisfaction. This could be done with qualitative research techniques, such as focus groups.

2.6.3.2.2 Trend 2: Local community retailers will grow

Modern pressures will drive consumers to return to neighbourhood stores, while retailers will move away from malls. Retailers will get to know their consumers personally and will be able to provide for their product needs. The local speciality stores will become more successful as they will be able to customise their products to the needs of the community and will offer a unique product range, something that is difficult for large retailers (Frings, 1999). This trend is also supported by Faith Popcorn in the "99 lives and egonomics" trends, whereby consumers will express a need for convenience, personal attention and customisation (Von Bormann, 1999).

As a result of consumers' increase in knowledge, consumers' expectations of all retailers will rise in, for example, the following: personal attention, shopping closer to home and better quality merchandise. Local community retailers would be better equipped to come up to these expectations. Consumers will increasingly look for stores offering, for example, clothes and footwear in sizes and styles that are not easily available.

Examples of local community retailers include the Welgemoed shopping centre with community retailers and two anchor stores, i.e. Woolworths and Pick 'n Pay. The centre is situated in a higher social class residential area and offers a selection of commodities and services. This trend is on the increase in South Africa.

2.6.3.2.3 Trend 3: Non-store retail environments will grow

Computers and the World-Wide Web will have a profound impact on retailing. Consumers buy a large variety of goods over the web, but retailers must be geared toward this, as it requires additional infrastructure for the large amounts of returned goods and individual shipping. Non-store retailing alternatives include mail order, party-plan, electronic retailing, television shopping and on-line shopping (Frings, 1999).

In the United States catalogue direct sales or mail order/catalogue shopping is on the increase with many large retailers having catalogues on CD-ROM. Cybermalls are also becoming a shopping option. Television home shopping is still an option for consumers. Virtual stores where direct shipping takes place from the manufacturer to the consumer are also on the increase. However, the growth in all non-store retailing forms will depend, to a large extent, on the ability to handle orders, returns and individual shippings.

Fashion, intimate apparel, footwear, and jewellery will continue to be bought at speciality retail stores. Staple goods will be bought at retail stores until the consumer is knowledgeable about on-line alternatives that provide quick delivery inexpensively. Electronic sales of basic apparel items, where perfect fit is not essential, will increase. In order to compete, retailers will have to make changes to the merchandise mix by offering goods, in their stores, that are usually bought in a store environment. Consumers should not be exposed to in-store situations that will drive them to an electronic alternative, such as long lines, or out of stock items. Manufacturers will have to align their packaging and marketing strategically as the product name and features, appearance, price and distribution become increasingly important in e-retailing (Roberts, 1998).

2.6.3.2.4 Trend 4: The lines of competition between types of retailers will continue to blur

As retailers are competing for larger market shares, more and more one-stop shopping opportunities are provided for consumers. This results in retailers selling each other's merchandise. Food stores are selling liquor and apparel items, coffee shops are entering the restaurant market with meals, restaurants are selling foodstuffs, and predominant apparel retailers are selling coffee, cakes and light meals, such as Woolworths and Edgars with in-house coffee shops. With specialisation and sub-letting the blurring of lines becomes even more apparent as department stores sell nearly all types of merchandise from telephones to restaurant meals (for example, Stuttafords and Woolworths). PEP Stores, a discount apparel store in South Africa, is moving into banking with PEP Bank, while Woolworths offers unit trusts and other financial services.

The blurring of lines will intensify the competition between retailers, minimise profits and consumers will engage in one-stop shopping. Consumers will have trouble differentiating between different retailers; therefore, it is imperative that retailers differentiate themselves again from their competition. Knowledge on how consumers perceive a retailer will assist them in developing a unique selling proposition and to make consumers constantly aware of this.

2.6.3.2.5 Trend 5: The lines of competition between retailers and manufacturers will increasingly blur

To improve profit margins and to differentiate themselves, retailers will create and promote private label products or house brands. In South Africa, Pick 'n Pay, Shoprite-Checkers and Woolworths all offer goods under private labels. Consumers are no longer willing to pay more for branded items if they are of the opinion that private label goods are on a par with the value and quality of branded goods. The trend to buy private label goods is further strengthened by the belief held by consumers that the private brand goods are in many cases being manufactured by the national brand manufacturers (Terblanché, 1998). Manufacturers are also selling directly to consumers through the Internet, catalogues, television shopping and their own outlets, thereby decreasing the segmentation between retailers and manufacturers and increasing the competition (Engel, et al., 1995; Hill, 2000). Fowler and Clodfelter (2001, p. 57) studied the comparison of price and quality of identical designer brand apparel sold in department stores and manufacturers own outlet stores. No significant differences were found in the quality of apparel sold in the two retail formats, but prices differed significantly. The department store merchandise was 31% more expensive than the exact same item sold in the outlet store.

Consumers will evaluate private label brands as they do other brands. Consumers no longer see private label brands as inferior to manufacturer brands. Basic apparel items will increasingly be manufactured by retailers under their private label, thus forcing manufacturers to make strategic decisions on which brands to continue.

Thomas, Cassill and Herr (1999, p. 47) confirmed the trend that retailers are increasingly offering private brands to provide exclusivity and to set themselves apart from competitors. One of the outcomes of this strategy is referred to as "backward integration techniques" whereby retailers manufacture their own private label products. Manufacturers respond by selling directly to the public and opening retail stores.

2.6.3.2.6 Trend 6: Technological advances will allow retailing to become truly consumer-driven

There is an increase of quick response (QR) business approaches in the apparel industry. This approach is a combination of techniques that businesses use to produce products from raw materials to the delivery of the finished product in order to reduce production time, lower inventories and increase profitability (Weldon, 2000). Operational techniques that are applied in QR include electronic data interchange (EDI), unit production systems (UPS), point of sale data (POS), computer-aided design (CAD), computer integrated manufacturing (CIM), garment dying and bar coding (Kincade & Cassill, 1993). These researchers identified three concepts regarding implementation of QR, i.e. communication between customers and suppliers, responsiveness to consumers' demands and the reduction of time between receiving the order and final production. Questions arose as to whether company demographics influence the adoption of QR. The results indicated five QR factors that grouped the operational technologies (Kincade & Cassill, 1993, p. 26), i.e. inventory control, information sharing, bar coding, shade sorting, and product planning.

Bar code scanning is providing retailers with immediate data with regard to products consumers buy and it can also assist retailers to have the right products in the right stores. Point of sale data (POS) is also applied in this manner (Terblanché, 1998). Electronic stock inventory systems will also become more standardised, as retailers' stock level of items will be conveyed electronically to the manufacturer, enabling both parties to maintain agreed stock levels (Diamond & Diamond, 1997). Database marketing will encourage relationship marketing, as retailers will have insight into purchase history and would better be able to supply for the specific needs of a consumer. This will be of particular interest to smaller speciality apparel retailers as they would be able to contact clientele when they have items that could fit their particular size or styles suitable for a specific customer. Loyalty programmes to keep existing consumers and to reward them for purchases are also on the increase, for example, Edgars offering 25% off the purchase price if you buy for more than a certain amount, or special store times for card holders (www.edgars.co.za). The Clicks Clubcard allows consumers to bank points that would allow discounts in the form of cash-back vouchers on future purchases. All this is in support of value-directed retailing as consumers continue to seek value, convenience and fair prices (Frings, 1999). Another development, called self-scanning will allow customers to scan their purchases themselves, thereby saving shopping time.

2.6.3.2.7 Trend 7: Globalisation

Five economic forces will shape the future of world markets according to Thurow (in Shim, 1998). They are firstly, the end of communism, secondly, demographic shifts such as a larger and older population and thirdly, a technological shift to man-made brainpower industries. A multipolar world with no dominant power and a global economy make up the remaining of the five factors. The same applies for the South African clothing and textile industry (refer to section 2.6.1). Social and governmental factors, together with shifts in technology, transportation and communication are accelerating the creation of a global economy. This is especially true in the USA as they are the largest mass market in the developed world and they are over-traded, thus many retailers see internationalisation and globalisation as viable strategic decisions (Sternquist, 1997). Thurow (in Shim, 1998, p. 446) states that "... we are living in a world where anything can be made anywhere on the face of the earth and sold anywhere on the face of the earth ...". This notion is supported by Newcomb (1999, p. 14) who writes that "... chances are, your customer of the future may be wearing shoes manufactured in Europe; apparel assembled in Mexico or Latin America; and driving a car made in Asia ...". Unfortunately, the enormous choice leads to choice being exhausting for some consumers, rather than liberating. The increase in companies competing in a global economy will intensify competition to produce products at lower manufacturing costs in order to keep prices low. The five factors will, individually or collectively, have an impact on the demand perspective (consumers and consumption behaviour) and the supply perspective (suppliers, channel and industry structures). How the five economic forces will influence the global marketplace and the emerging research questions that can stem from these changes are summarised in the Table 2.3. These trends are supported by Engel et. al., (1995), Sternquist (1997) and Jones (1998) who focussed on the influence of technology, i.e. improved communications, economies of scale and the discovery of technologically advanced ways to meet the old needs and wants of consumers. The necessity and importance of theoretical underpinnings for the research questions cannot be understated.

A global perspective in the field of consumer studies is important, as people become more concerned with the effect of their consumption and production on other cultures, the environment and future generations. McGregor (1998) argued that consumer decisions cannot adequately be explained by economic theory alone and that a global perspective needs to be taken into account. This author then challenges all to study consumer behaviour from a global perspective in order to increase human and social capital.

With the increased globalisation comes increased interest in global branding or mega-brands. Brands such as Nike, Reebok and Adidas supports and facilitates the global trend and "...harness the power of global homogeneity in an increasingly casual/leisurewear-dominated market ..." (Lea-Greenwood, 1999, p. 269). Trade expansion will open new markets and consumers will have increasing buying options (Roberts, 1998). Many companies see globalisation as an opportunity in international markets and an investment in brand equity. Thakor and Kohli (1996) stated that brand heritage is bound to brand origin, and that a global brand often provides a country association for a brand that is established in one country, and for which the country association is part of the essence of the brand, e.g. Levi jeans in the United States. The development of a global consumer culture is visible, as consumers world-wide share the same affiliation toward consumer goods with brand names. In future cultures will influence one another even more (Roberts, 1998). This phenomenon can have both advantages and disadvantages for manufacturers, retailers and consumers (Solomon, 1999).

It is hotly debated as to which strategy and marketing plan organisations should use – global or local, standardised or localised? The etic perspectives in the standardised strategy focus on the commonalities across cultures and are objective in their approach. It is argued that consumers are becoming homogeneous to such an extent that the same marketing approach would work in various cultures. This approach therefore advocates generalisation and focuses on issues that are universal to all cultures. On the other hand, the emic perspective focuses on the variations in cultures and thus supports the localised strategy to marketing. This approach tries to explain culture and sometimes involves modifying a product to suit the unique needs and wants of a specific sub-cultural group. The focus is therefore on within-culture investigations and states that theorising should be culture-specific and inductive (Maheswaran & Shavitt, 2000; Solomon, 1999). Maheswaran and Shavitt (2000) acknowledged the emic and etic approaches in cross-cultural research, but stressed that the debate as to which of these approaches are more acceptable, has discouraged research work in this field. This is unfortunate, as culture shapes consumer behaviour and an understanding of the influences, such as globalisation on consumer behaviour, is imperative.

TABLE 2.3

CHANGES INFLUENCING THE GLOBAL MARKETPLACE AND NEW RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES

CHANGES	IMPLICATIONS	RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES
Changes in consumers		
❖ Borderless and increasingly homogeneous global consumers	❖ More demanding and knowledgeable consumers ❖ Internet as retail format increases ❖ Interactive relationship between consumers and suppliers, i.e. Fashion Internet ❖ Cultural homogeneity – global village	Global consumers' patronage behaviours and decision-making processess ❖ Changes in consumer behaviour? ❖ Impact of the Internet on traditional decision-making processes? ❖ Where will future shopping take place?
❖ Newly emerging consumers	❖ New consumer markets and consumption patterns ❖ Purchase power differentials; new retail formats ❖ Increased choice – Eastern markets ❖ Age increase/rise in expenditure	❖ Increased complexity of patronage behaviour ❖ Other countries than USA? ❖ Changes in consumer values? ❖ Understanding older consumers across cultures
Shifts in production and distribution		
❖ Rapid shifting of production power to newly emerging economies	❖ Production shifts to emerging economies	❖ Global expansion: management, decision-making styles
❖ Shifting of channel power from manufacturers to retailers and increasing partnership within the channel	❖ Private branding increases ❖ Global sourcing: technologies for effective communication ❖ Consumer acceptance of the quality of private retail brands	❖ Multi-channel options as a marketing strategy: How to decide? ❖ Testing of retail life-cycle theory ❖ Testing of retail wheel theory
❖ Borderless marketing and changing partnerships within the distribution channel	❖ Increase in merging between retailing and manufacturing ❖ Diminished distance between suppliers and customers	
❖ Globalisation	❖ Complex retail systems due to mergers: increase in financial and market power ❖ Saturated markets; growth in opportunities abroad	

(Compiled from Shim, 1998, pp. 444-461)

Cosmopolitan magazine, for example, is published in twelve languages and the editorial content is adapted for each country (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). Marketers should not think that either global or local strategy would always be successful. Different products, cultures and market segments require different marketing strategies. It is clear that various consumers differ from each another and that global strategies would most probably be most successful in the youth market (tastes of fashion and music are strongly influenced by the same media) and the affluent market that has been exposed to various cultures across the world. Many companies opt for a combination between the two strategies by augmenting a global marketing strategy with local executions (Easy, 1995; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000).

Retailers should use the new technology to gain insight into the needs and wants of consumers. They should further move beyond category management toward customer management, by ensuring that consumers' needs are met in the retail environment (Nasser & Vivier, 1993). The benefit retailers will get, is consumers that spend more money, as they get products that are tailor-made to their needs and retailers that value their patronage.

Globalisation holds specific implications for apparel manufacturing and retailing. Governments are involved once organisations produce and export or import goods. Most governments have measures in place to protect their own industry, especially if goods sold are manufactured in off-shore countries. This results in the establishment of quotas, duties and trade agreements (Diamond & Diamond, 1997; Traore & Kim, 2001). The USA is a member of the General Agreement of Tariffs and Trade (GATT), now managed by the World Trade Organisation, an organisation that has as its goal the organisation of international trade. This agreement makes provision for tariff cuts of up to one third on international trade. Many retailers of fashion merchandise rely on these cuts in order to provide lower costs to the consumer. The tariffs will be reduced over time, leading to concerns in the textiles and apparel industry, as they have been heavily protected by the tariff and quota structure. An open and free world trading system will reinforce global economic growth (Mueller & Smiley, 1995; Taylor, 1997).

The impact of globalisation on consumer behaviour and the South African clothing and textile industry through manufacturing and retailing, is unquestionable. Forecasts show that by the year 2015 40% of retail sales will be going through approximately 25 retailers in the world (Johnson, 2001, p. 30). Industry will have to adapt to these trends and the ever-increasing competition, in order to comply with the needs and wants of an extremely knowledgeable and technologically advanced consumer in the 21st century.

2.6.3.3 ELECTRONIC MERCHANDISING AND RETAILING: THE WAY FORWARD?

Knowledge of electronic merchandising and retailing practices in the field of clothing and textiles is one tool to assist all the stakeholders in the industry to stay abreast of the changes in the retailing and consumer environment. South African e-commerce was valued at R6.6 billion in 1999 (Reid, 2000, p. 24).

Roberts (1998, pp.85-103) identified five technology trends that will have the most profound impact on consumers and spending habits in future. They are:

- ❖ The inseparable bond that will form between humans and the microprocessor (computer chip). CAD (computer-aided design) will enable the consumer to order a custom-made product for example, Levi Jeans offering a service where a consumer can order personalised jeans based on 440 sample pairs stored in memory. Consumers will be extremely knowledgeable about consumer goods and prices, resulting in a change in the information gathering process. Word of mouth communication will become technological.
- ❖ Digital networks will drive disintermediation (a term used to describe the cutting out of the intermediary steps for example, the middleman). EDI (electronic data interchange) will be used to send orders to manufacturers electronically. Only intermediate services or people that can give value to consumers will survive.
- ❖ Technological change and global competition will shorten the life cycles of products. New product innovations will increase, resulting in higher quality and consumer satisfaction.
- ❖ Technologies will converge. CIM (computer-integrated manufacturing) will quicken the manufacturing process. The United States government has approved full digital TV standards resulting in current television sets being worthless after 2006. The television will become a two-way communication device merging with the Internet and the World-Wide Web. Marketers will have to find alternative methods of reaching consumers as mass marketing will diminish. Clothing marketers can, for example, make use of websites targeted at fashion innovators and opinion leaders, which will be more effective.
- ❖ Wireless technological advances will increase access to information. Wireless telephones with the ability to go on the Internet will make information gathering easier, resulting in consumers having more knowledge. The spread of word of mouth communication will be rapid.

The electronic retail and merchandising environment, as previously mentioned in the discussion of retail types and trends, deserves closer investigation as it has become clear that no retailer or manufacturer can negate the influence of it, on future marketing and retailing practices in South Africa. Rowley (1996) investigated the challenges that shopping on the Internet held for the retail industry and consumers. These included: comparative shopping, security, locating the shops and the shopping experience. Each of these challenges will have to be overcome in the increasing e-retailing world.

Donthu and Garcia (1999) reports that many of the problems defined by Rowley (1996) have been confronted and solutions are in process. Developments such as better technology in navigating systems, search engines, increased quantity and quality of information, and secure monetary transactions are developing the Internet market. As shopping is one of the primary uses of the Internet in the USA, Donthu and Garcia profiled Internet shoppers in an attempt to differentiate them from Internet users and Internet non-shoppers. The profile indicated that Internet shoppers are older and have a higher income than Internet non-shoppers. They are less brand- and price-conscious and perceive less risk. Internet shoppers are more likely to be convenience seekers, innovative, impulsive, variety seeking and they have a more positive attitude toward advertising and direct marketing than non-Internet shoppers. Researchers are encouraged to do further research on understanding the Internet shopper.

Charels (1996) profiled the average South African Internet user as male, young, well-educated and in a high-income bracket. This is in line with the hypothesis by Donthu and Garcia's (1999) that the Internet shopper and the Internet user will have different profiles on certain variables. Most of the Internet users in South Africa use the Internet to gather information about products, rather than purchasing the products on-line. Internet purchases are most often made for books, CD's, computer software and hardware, travel, flowers and entertainment (Marsland, 2000).

Even though the average South African consumer is not yet a sophisticated Internet user and shopper, marketers and retailers use the Internet to build brands and relationships with future customers, as a marketing vehicle and to familiarise consumers with technology (Reid, 2000). Websites could be used for other purposes than pure electronic commerce, such as the empowerment of consumers with regard to products, directing them to other sites and the update of account information. Grocery retailing has made the biggest advances in on-line shopping in South Africa with websites such as www.clicknpay.net, www.inthebag.co.za, www.megashopper.co.za and www.webshop.co.za. However, clothing-related sites are not yet that successful in South

Africa. Sites such as www.edgars.co.za, www.habits.co.za, www.polo-sa.co.za and www.woolworths.co.za offer on-line apparel shopping in South Africa. Sites focussing on store and fashion information and trends include www.diesel.co.za, www.exact.co.za, www.foschini.co.za, www.rjl.co.za and www.truworths.co.za. Some problems related to these sites include slow Internet times, limited product range, problems with stock, colour and style, leaving the consumer no alternative but to visit stores (Marsland, 2000). This author further stated that on-line offerings in South Africa are not exploring all the opportunities as they attempt to offer exactly the same things as the offline retailers - and this will always lead to the off-line alternative being more attractive. Penstone (1999, p. 44) stated that Popcorn predicted that by the year 2010 90% of all consumer products will be home delivered, but many believe that supermarkets will still exist as consumers value shopping entertainment. Internet penetration is also still relatively low at ten percent in the White market and 1% in the black market (Penstone, 1999, p. 44). The convenience factor is the predominant reason as to why consumers opt for electronic retail, but very slow Internet access eliminates this advantage together with retailers being slow to develop electronic retail infrastructure.

Reasons for the slow start-up and growth in the e-commerce with regard to apparel could possibly be attributed to the following:

- apparel being a product with high risk perception,
- consumers not being educated enough in the purchasing and return policies for web-purchases,
- the relatively small percentage of consumers having access to the Internet in South Africa,
- the security factor related to Internet purchases and
- the wait-and-see attitude of many apparel retailers in South Africa.

Changes in consumers' attitudes are expected, as the Internet is one of the fastest changing environments. Damhorst, Johnson, Lee and Yoh (2001, p. 29) refer to research done in the USA by Forrester Research and Cyberatlas, stating that by the year 2001, 50% of all USA households will be on-line. In the USA apparel shopping via the Internet has grown substantially. The knowledge of Internet shopper profiles will assist retailers and advertisers in providing in the needs of these consumers (Cook & Dunn, 1996).

Dancausse (2000) studied innovators of consumer-directed Internet electronic commerce for apparel products. Attention were given to firstly determine what constitutes an effective e-commerce web site with on-line diagnostic tools, and secondly to determine what constitutes an effective e-commerce web site according to subjective evaluation of web sites by recommended industry standards. The third objective was, to determine the future direction of electronic commerce business plans of companies. Results showed that not all web site's programming and features were adequate for apparel shopping and that there is disagreement between the objective evaluation by the researcher and consumers' ratings of web stores. The apparel companies implementing consumer direct Internet electronic commerce were labelled innovators. The latter study further enhanced the importance of companies involved in the apparel sector to understand the use of e-commerce and the Internet as a business strategy, to understand what constitutes an effective web site and to understand how Web sites can be evaluated. Research by Murphy (1998) focussed on the clothing retailers that make use of the Internet. She found that most retailers saw accessibility to clients, and clients finding retailers, the main advantages of being on the Internet. Retailers saw the Internet mostly being used as informational rather than as a transactional tool. Emphasis was placed on providing consumers with information, rather than generating sales or retrieving information. This trend is a confirmation of previous research.

The future of retailing will change. Mass-retailing will not survive as technological advances will assist retailers to treat consumers as individuals. Speciality local community retailers will sell directly to consumers with differentiated needs. The key to success in this changing environment lies in consumer knowledge and understanding of the dynamics influencing shopping behaviour. This study strives to contribute in this regard.

2.6.4 CONCLUSION: MARKET-DOMINATED VARIABLES

This section dealt with two market-dominated variables influencing apparel shopping behaviour. The South African Textile and Apparel Industry was introduced as well as apparel as a product category. The place of distribution and especially retail types and future trends were discussed. Attention was given to electronic merchandising and the possible impact thereof on future consumer behaviour. Market-dominated variables are extremely important to marketers and retailers alike, because they can control most of them. The marketing and retailing strategy, together with the product mix, are in the hands of the market stakeholders. These input variables into consumer decision-making can therefore be manipulated. It is through these variables that marketers and retailers can thus attempt to influence decision-making by a consumer in such a way that it leads to consumer satisfaction and consequent growth in the apparel industry.

2.7 MARKET AND CONSUMER INTERACTION

The second main component of the conceptual theoretical framework of selected variables influencing female apparel shopping behaviour is the market and consumer interaction component (refer to the shaded areas in Figure 2.8). Patronage behaviour and shopping orientation, the two variables classified here, are mutually influenced by market- and consumer-dominated variables.

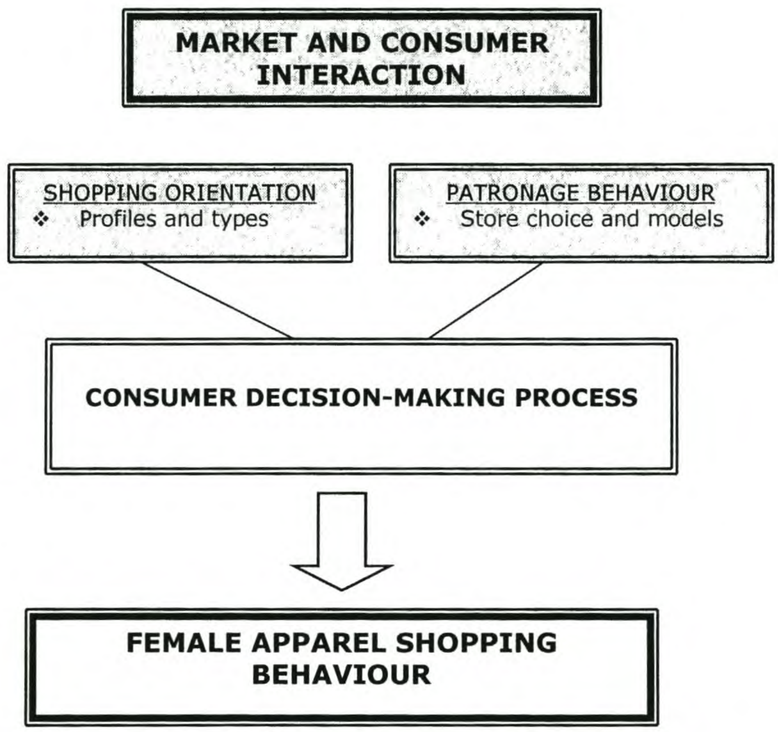

FIGURE 2.8: MARKET AND CONSUMER INTERACTION VARIABLES INFLUENCING FEMALE APPAREL SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR

2.7.1 PATRONAGE BEHAVIOUR

Store patronage behaviour refers to, inter alia, which stores or malls consumers prefer, how far will they travel, what will they buy, how much will they spend and were they prefer to shop. According to Howell and Rogers (1980) patronage includes purchases, frequency of visits, amount spent and time since last purchase. Gautshi (1981) argued strongly that existing retail patronage models should be extended to include retail centre characteristics and transportation variables as these variables could significantly contribute to the explanation of patronage. For the purposes of this study, a brief discussion of models of patronage behaviour and research investigating relevant variables will be presented.

Assael (1992) and Loudon and Della Bitta (1993) emphasised that store choice is very similar to the choice of brands and that the decision process will incorporate problem recognition, internal and external search, evaluation of alternatives and applying decision-making rules for final selection. Darden et al., (1983) contended that store choice behaviour is as important to retailers as brand choice is to manufacturers, and should therefore be of interest in the study of consumer behaviour, rather than focussing on brand choice alone. Reasons cited include:

- Consumers making shopping trips without a specific product in mind. Patronage choice is therefore prior to brand choice.
- Consumers shop for more than one product per trip; therefore they choose the store and then make a selection from the brands the store carries.
- Consumers often use the reputation of the store to reduce perceived risk.
- Private brand success suggests that consumers could choose a store and then select what is available.
- Some consumers see the shopping trip as an opportunity for social interaction rather than to only purchase products.

Sheth (1983) developed an integrative theory of patronage preference and behaviour, consisting of two distinct sub-theories, i.e. the shopping preference theory and the patronage behaviour theory. These theories are focussed on individual levels of patronage and make use of psychological foundations. He argued that a shopping-buying discrepancy exists and that the two processes are different and cannot therefore be combined in a single conceptual framework. This is different from the social psychology perspective which states that attitudes lead to behaviour, such as in the store choice model of Assael (1992) and Loudon and Della Bitta (1993) indicating that attitudes toward stores leads to store choice, that will ultimately lead toward product and brand purchases. The model by Sheth (1983) is presented here as the psychological approach, incorporating the buying-shopping discrepancy and the various determinants, as applicable to the present research project. This approach is supported by the work of Darden and Dorsch (1990).

The fist sub-theory focussed on shopping preference for an outlet, whereas the second focussed on actual buying behaviour from the store. The shopping preference theory is depicted in Figure 2.9.

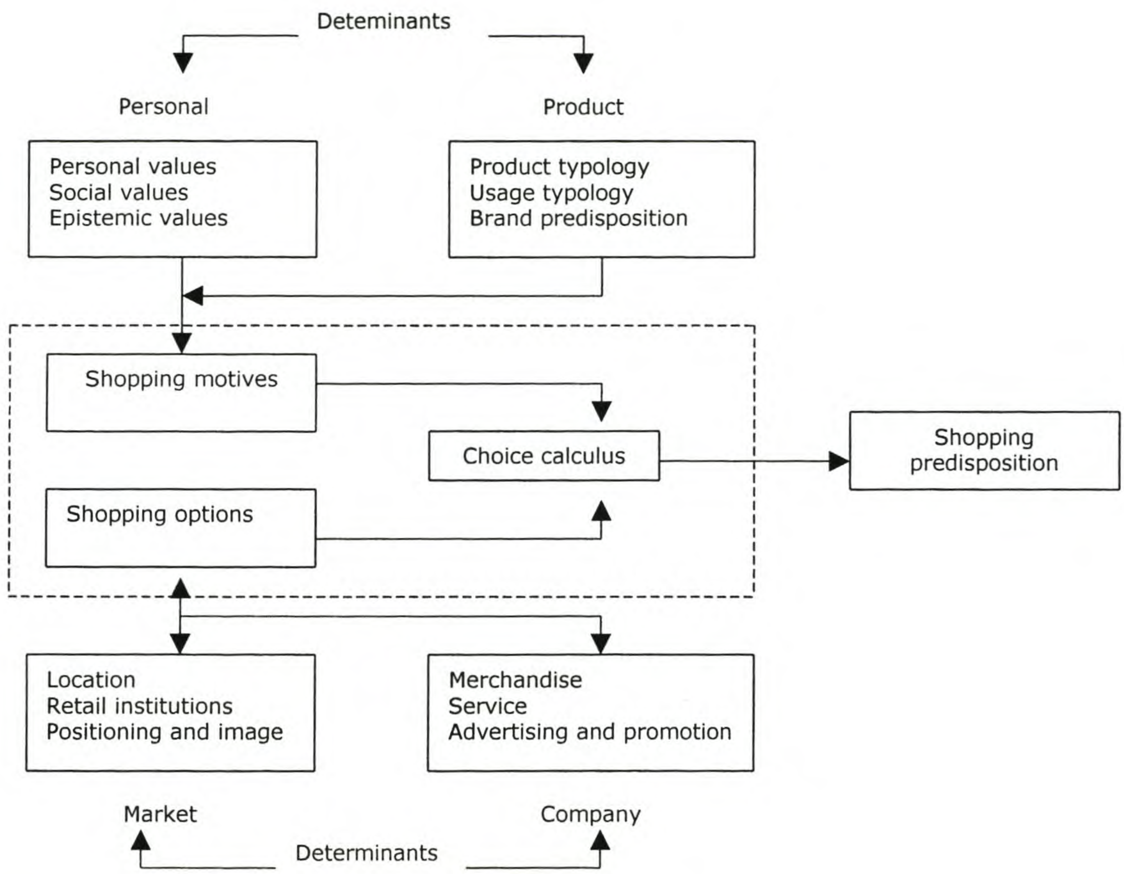

FIGURE 2.9: AN INTEGRATIVE THEORY OF SHOPPING PREFERENCE

(Sheth, 1983, p. 12)

Sheth (1983) highlighted the four basic constructs and their determinants that make up the shopping preference theory, i.e. shopping predisposition, choice calculus, shopping motive, and shopping options. Four determinants of shopping preference were presented (refer to Figure 2.9).

Patronage behaviour theory is the second sub-theory presented by Sheth (1983). A strong argument is made regarding the discrepancy between preference and behaviour. "Patronage behaviour refers to the purchase behaviour with respect to a specific product from an outlet and consists of a vector of four behavioural outcomes: planned purchase, no purchase, forgone purchase and unplanned purchase ..." (Sheth, 1983, p. 26). Four types of unexpected events have an inducement effect, an inhibition effect or no effect on the shopping preferences of consumers and thus influence patronage behaviour. These include the socio-economic, personal and product settings as well as in-store marketing.

This theory is schematically presented in Figure 2.10.

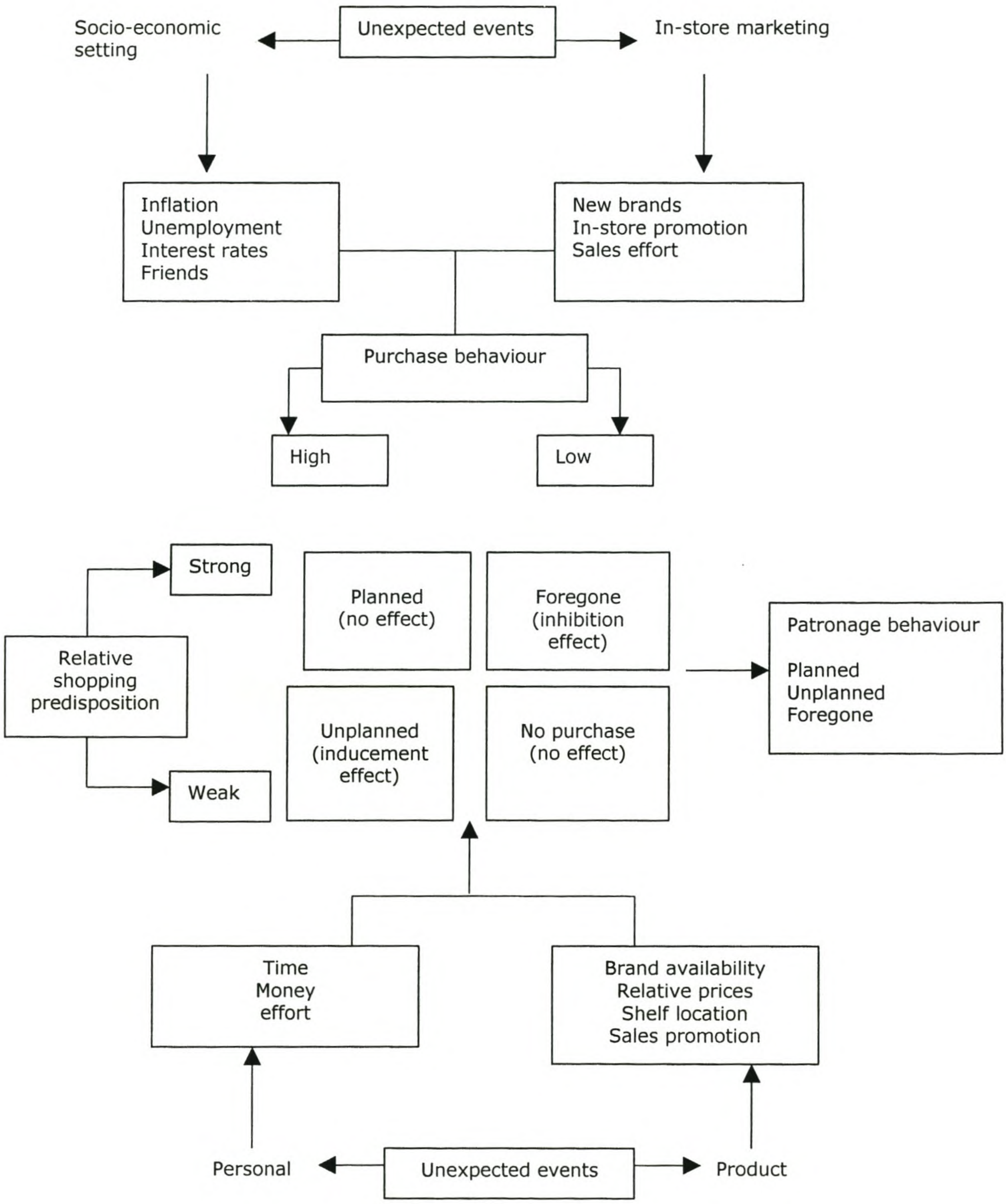

FIGURE 2.10: AN INTEGRATIVE THEORY OF PATRONAGE BEHAVIOUR

(Sheth, 1983, p. 26)

Sheth (1983) concluded the presentation of his theory of patronage preference and behaviour by cautioning researchers not to attempt to test the full theory in a single study or to apply the constructs of individual behaviour to product-market relationships. The generic use of the model was stressed rather than the descriptive use. As previously mentioned, other authors take a more economic or social perspective to store choice and patronage behaviour, focussing on criteria of store selection (example, location, design and facilities, merchandise, personnel, price, promotion), store image, store atmosphere, store loyalty, store contact, store environment, consumer characteristics, and factors that influence store choice and in-store consumer behaviour (Assael, 1992, Engel, et.al., 1995, Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993; Peter & Olson, 1990, Terblanché, 1998). Sheth (1983) does not disagree with this approach, but stressed that his theory based on psychological foundations in order to explain individual patronage behaviour, is a radical departure from traditional thinking in social psychology, i.e. that attitudes lead to behaviour.

In more recent apparel-specific research, Darden's Patronage model of Consumer Behaviour was used by Shim and Kotsiopulos (1992a) in order to investigate the relationships among major variables impacting on patronage behaviour. Relationships between variables such as personal characteristics, information sources, shopping orientations, importance of store attributes and patronage behaviour were investigated and tested (Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1992b). Results indicated that shopping orientations and the importance of store attributes were more important in explaining patronage behaviour of apparel shopping than information sources and personal characteristics. Profiles of apparel shopping patronage were developed. The results are tabulated in Table 2.4. It is clear that these patronage profiles of consumers each presents a distinct consumer market segment and that retailers should take cognisance of all the factors that influence the patronage behaviour of consumers.

Sproles and Burns (1994) emphasised that apparel purchases are different from the purchase of home appliances, as most consumers do not formally gather product information prior to the purchase, but rather make most of their decisions in-store. The choice of a store to patronise is therefore of great importance as apparel consumers will often gather information, evaluate alternatives and decide at the point of purchase. This is supported by De Klerk, Velleman and Malherbe (1998) who found that the storefront and the appearance of sales ladies influence apparel shopping and impulsive buying behaviour.

TABLE 2.4

PROFILES OF APPAREL SHOPPING PATRONAGE

	Discount stores	Speciality stores	Department stores	Catalogue shopping
Consumers are more likely to:	Place importance on prices, return policies, sale prices Be economic shoppers Use information from media Be in lower social classes	Place importance on clothing quality and variety of style Concerned with brand names and new fashion items Appearance managers Fashion -conscious Highly engaged in grooming activities	Be mall shoppers Be in the first stages of the family life cycle (FLC)	Have a catalogue shopping orientation
Consumers are more likely not to:	Be concerned with variety of style and clothing quality Be appearance managers Use credit cards Read fashion magazines In the first stage of the FLC Engage in cultural activities	Be concerned with sales prices, price levels and return policies To be economic shoppers		Be concerned with easy access to stores Be fashion-conscious To be mall shoppers To be local store shoppers
Marketing implications	Consumers are motivated by economic factors Offer basic apparel items	Profile is a niche market for apparel speciality stores Direct attention toward product image, selection and management Unique product assortment and service	Mature consumers find mall shopping increasingly difficult	May become more fashion-conscious with technological advances More supportive of products produced in the USA

(Compiled from Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1992b)

In the previous section the first of the market- and consumer-dominated variables was discussed, namely patronage behaviour. Shopping orientation, as the second variable, will be discussed in the following section.

2.7.2 SHOPPING ORIENTATION

Shopping orientation is the second market and consumer interaction variable presented in Figure 2.8, and will be discussed in some detail in the next section.

2.7.2.1 INTRODUCTION

The overall consensus of previous research is that to maximise consumer satisfaction and retail sales, retailers must understand the psychographics and shopping orientations of consumers (Shim & Bickle, 1994; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993). This view is in accordance with Lumpkin (1985) who stated that, in order for the study of shopping orientation to be beneficial to marketers in matching strategies to consumer needs, it is necessary to link the various shopping orientations to marketplace behaviour. Shim and Kotsiopulos (1992a) investigated the various relationships among factors influencing shopping orientation and patronage behaviour for apparel and stated that retailers should benefit from this knowledge for strategic planning. This is also true in the multi-cultural South Africa as different sub-cultural groups could hold different shopping orientations and retailers should take cognisance of the cultural profile of their target market.

Since Stone's seminal research in 1954 numerous researchers have investigated shopping orientations from different perspectives. However, limited attempts have been made to systematically examine the commonalities, differences, and relationships among major variables impacting on shopping orientations, also with regard to clothing as a product category. The need to investigate shopping orientations of apparel shoppers was emphasised by Shim and Kotsiopulos (1993). As a result of the desirability of studying marketplace behaviour with respect to specified product categories, and the importance of apparel as a product category, it was decided to include shopping orientation as a variable influencing apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural society.

Knowledge of apparel shopping orientations will advance and enhance efforts to develop more comprehensive theories of shopping behaviour and could guide future research. In addition to this the importance of knowledge regarding shopping orientations in planning and/or improving retail strategies has been confirmed by various researchers, such as Shim and Bickle (1994), Shim and Kotsiopulos (1992a & 1993) as well as Summers, Belleau and Wozniak (1992).

Shopping orientation is a complex and multi-dimensional concept. Defining shopping orientation is extremely difficult due to numerous interrelated variables. Shopping orientation could be defined as a shopper's style that places particular emphasis on a shopping-specific lifestyle encompassing shopping activities, interests and opinions, and reflecting a view of shopping as a complex social, recreational and economic phenomenon (Hawkins, Best & Coney, 1989; Korgaonkar, 1981; Lumpkin, Hawes & Darden, 1986; Shim & Bickle, 1994; Shim & Mahoney, 1992). The objective of this section is to compile and analyse research conducted on shopping orientation of female apparel consumers.

Darden and Howell (1987) stated that the complexity could be the reason why so much of the variation in shopping orientation still remains unexplained. To complicate matters further, shopping orientations are dependent on the product of choice and the retail store type (Solomon, 1999). Although the concept shopping orientation is described from various perspectives by researchers, certain major variables (or concepts) are repetitive in the different descriptions.

Stone introduced the concept *shopping orientation* in 1954. He referred to shopping lifestyles or shoppers' styles that place particular emphasis on certain activities. Darden and Howell (1987) viewed a consumer's shopping predisposition as his or her shopping orientation. Shopping orientation was conceptualised as lifestyle-specific to the shopping domain, encompassing shopping activities, interests and opinions. Hawkins, et al., (1989, 1998) supported the definition by Darden and Howell and emphasised the relatedness of shopping orientation to lifestyle and agreed that both constructs are subject to similar influences. Seven shopper types (Hawkins et. al., 1998 previously referred to these as *shopping orientations*) were identified and described according to age, gender, social class and family life cycle. The following labels were given: inactive, active, service, traditional, declined fringe, price and transitional. The benefits of segmenting markets according to *shopper types* were highlighted. Kwon, Paek and Arzeni (1991) add to the support of the notion that shopping orientation are closely related to general lifestyle. Darden and Howell (1987) found in their research that household life cycle, retail work experience and income could be used to predict shopping orientation. These same variables could surely also be used to predict lifestyle; thus support is found for the statement that lifestyle and shopping orientations are closely related and influenced by similar influences. Shim and Kotsiopulos (1992a) viewed shopping orientation as a key construct in the study of patronage behaviour. Lifestyle activities, together with information sources, family life cycle and social class are listed as variables influencing shopping orientation.

Shoppers with different shopping orientations have different consumer characteristics and market behaviour, including different needs and preferences for information sources, store preferences and store attributes (Gutman & Mills, 1982; Lumpkin, 1985; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1992a & b). Jarboe and McDaniel (1987) emphasised that a consumer's shopping orientations refer to his/her general approach to acquiring goods and services and to the non-purchase satisfactions derived from shopping at retail stores and shopping centres. It may be a function of a variety of non-purchase motives, such as the need for social interaction, diversion from routine activities, the need for sensory stimulation, exercise, and the exertion of social power (Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980). Shopping orientations of today's generation differ from orientations of past generations due to constant social, cultural, and economic changes in society (Stoltman, Gentry & Anglin, 1991; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993). Shopping orientation therefore varies among individuals and different products, within individuals over time, and as situations change.

Goff and Walters (1995) took an alternative approach and defined shopping orientation as the general approach taken to acquire both brands and non-purchase satisfactions from various forms of retail outlets. These researchers investigated the susceptibility to the influence by salespersons and the shopping orientations of consumers, specifically the recreational and economic shopping orientations. Results indicated that no evidence could be found that showed a relationship between susceptibility to the influence by salespersons and economic shopping.

Concepts related to shopping orientation are not necessarily included in the above-mentioned definitions. Some of the authors refer to concepts such as shopping attitudes (Fuller & Blackwell, 1992); shopping behaviour (Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980), and shopping motives (Lee & Seo, 2001; Stoltman et al., 1991; Westbrook & Black, 1985). One of the major difficulties encountered in the identification of relevant research on shopping orientation is the fact that some researchers use the term *shopping orientation* in general, while actually referring to other variables, such as perceptions of fashion and perceptions of apparel shopping (Summers et al., 1992).

2.7.2.2 SHOPPING ORIENTATION AND OTHER VARIABLES INVESTIGATED

The literature was scrutinised in order to identify the related variables and to reveal the multi-dimensional nature of apparel shopping orientation. Not all the variables listed in Table 2.5 have a specific relationship with shopping orientation. It should also be taken into account that the researchers listed in Table 2.5 did not necessarily investigate statistical relationships between these variables and shopping orientations. However, certain important tendencies emerged from the analysis of the research articles that will be highlighted below.

2.7.2.2.1 Personal characteristics

Almost all the researchers included personal characteristics in their studies. Personal characteristics refer to lifestyle, social class, family life cycle, income, and demographics. Only Stoltman et al., (1991) investigated shopping motives and excluded personal characteristics as a variable. With regard to demographics it is interesting to note that although male shoppers were not excluded, the investigations were mainly focussed on female shoppers. This can be explained by the fact that women are perceived as the predominant and "traditional" purchasing agents of apparel for themselves and family members (Fuller & Blackwell, 1992).

2.7.2.2.2 Fashion orientation

Seven apparel–fashion lifestyle segments, i.e. Leaders, Followers, Independents, Neutrals, Uninvolveds, Negatives and Rejectors, were identified by Gutman and Mills (1982). Self-concept meaningfully related to fashion orientation whereas demographics had limited importance as a segmentation tool. The fashion segments differed significantly with regard to the store where members shopped most often. The patterns of scores on shopping orientation revealed that those on the high fashion-involvement side of the spectrum (Leaders, Independents, Followers) enjoyed shopping. The Neutrals felt, as the name implies, neutral towards shopping. On the low fashion involvement side (Uninvolveds, Negatives, Rejectors), reported shopping enjoyment as low. The Negatives and Rejectors scored high on cost consciousness.

TABLE 2.5
SHOPPING ORIENTATION AND OTHER VARIABLES INCLUDED IN INVESTIGATIONS

Author(s) and date	Sample	Measurements and response rate (if reported)	Personal characteristics	Shopping motives	Fashion orientation	Product attributes	Retail patronage	Store attributes and -image	Clothing involvement	Information/ media search and sources	Catalogue and in-home shopping
Gutman and Mills (1982)	6261 females	Questionnaire – Mail survey (30.5%)	✓		✓		✓				
Huddleston, Ford and Bickle (1993)	711 males and females (readers of 50 Plus Magazine)	Questionnaire – Mail survey (35%)	✓		✓						
Kwon, Paek and Arzeni (1991)	97 catalogue shoppers ; 34 non-catalogue shoppers	Questionnaire	✓								✓
Lumpkin and Greenberg (1982)	1741 females 1113 males	Questionnaire – Mail survey (65%)	✓			✓	✓	✓		✓	
Lumpkin (1985)	373 mature consumers	Questionnaire – Mail survey (65%)	✓			✓	✓	✓		✓	
Lumpkin, Allen and Greenberg (1981)	2676 respondents	Questionnaire – Mail survey (61%)	✓				✓			✓	
Shim and Bickle (1994)	610 females aged 18 and older	Questionnaire – Mail survey (62%)	✓				✓				
Shim and Kotsiopulos (1992 a and b)	482 females aged 18 and older	Questionnaire – Mail survey (37%)	✓				✓	✓		✓	
Shim and Kotsiopulos (1993)	482 females aged 18 and older	Questionnaire – Mail survey (37%)	✓				✓	✓		✓	
Stoltman, Gentry and Anglin (1991)	289 rural and urban consumers	Questionnaire – Drop-off/mail-back survey (29%)		✓			✓	✓			
Visser, Du Preez and Du Toit (1996)	212 females aged 55 and older	Questionnaire – Drop off/collect (58%)	✓			✓		✓	✓		

Huddleston et al., (1993) studied demographic and lifestyle characteristics as predictors of fashion opinion leadership among mature consumers. Lifestyle characteristics of the positive thinker, shopper, credit-prone and socially active were all significant predictors of fashion opinion leadership, with the positive thinker the most significant. The hypothesis that shopping orientation (presented as a lifestyle characteristic), would serve as a predictor of fashion opinion leadership in mature consumers, was accepted. Demographics and the education-oriented lifestyle characteristic were not significant predictors of fashion opinion leadership.

2.7.2.2.3 Market segmentation

Shopping orientation is regarded as a viable basis for segmentation of apparel shoppers (Lumpkin, 1985; Schiffman & Kanuk, 1998). It is often used as a variable in profiling sub-segments of shoppers (Lumpkin, 1985; Lumpkin, et al., 1981; Lumpkin & Greenberg, 1982; Schiffman & Kanuk, 1998; Shim & Bickle, 1994; Visser et al., 1996).

To distinguish between heavy and light users of a product, shopping orientation has been used to contrast heavy and light users of wearing apparel. Heavy users were more often characterised as fashion innovators and fashion opinion leaders. However, they were not general opinion leaders (opinion leaders across all product categories). They tended to buy apparel before it was worn out or out of style. This group also bought clothes for a specific situation or season. The heavy user group further were shopping opinion leaders, influencing friends to patronise the speciality and department stores where they themselves shop (Lumpkin et al., 1981).

Shim and Bickle (1994) identified three sub-segments of female apparel consumers based on the descriptive benefits sought from apparel products. The groups were labelled as symbolic/instrumental users of clothing, practical/conservative users of clothing and apathetic users of clothing. Shopping orientation differed across these three benefit segments with regard to three shopping orientation factors, i.e., shopping enjoyment, fashion-oriented shopper and credit user.

Visser and Du Preez (1996) divided mature female clothing consumers into three segments, i.e. the clothing enthusiasts, the clothing moderates and the clothing unconcerned. The three segments significantly differed on the following variables:

clothing involvement, clothing orientation, activities, interests, opinions, family orientation, needs and media usage. No significant differences were found among the three groups regarding evaluative criteria for clothing and clothing store attributes.

2.7.2.2.4 Prediction value of shopping orientation

According to Shim & Kotsiopulos (1992a) shopping orientation, store attributes, information sources, and personal characteristics showed predictability of patronage behaviour for apparel, but shopping orientation and store attributes were deemed more important. These two researchers revised Darden's Patronage Model of Consumer Behaviour and found a direct relationship between shopping orientations and patronage behaviour. This finding was consistent with findings by previous researchers (Engel et al., 1995, Darden & Howell, 1987). Shopping frequency and multi-purpose shopping contributed to patronage behaviour with special reference to mall choice in a study conducted by Stoltman et al., (1991).

2.7.2.2.5 Mall shopping, catalogue shopping and non-catalogue shopping

A strong argument is made for the contextualisation of studies regarding patronage, as shoppers make decisions and evaluations within a context. Shopping for apparel would ask different decisions from consumers, than shopping for electrical appliances. The choice of mall shopping and other forms of retail patronage will therefore be influenced by the product or the context of the decision (Stoltman et al., 1991). Mall choice is significantly related to several shopping orientations, such as frequency of shopping, browsing and time consciousness (Stoltman et al., 1991). Kwon et al., (1991) found that the shopping orientation of catalogue and non-catalogue shoppers do not differ.

2.7.2.3 CLASSIFICATION OF SHOPPING ORIENTATIONS

According to the literature review, the underlying factorial structure of shopping orientation can be postulated by making use of synthesis and logical organisation of existing knowledge. Analysing and evaluating existing literature enable researchers to postulate the underlying factorial structure, which should be tested empirically. The appropriateness of this approach lies in the objective, i.e. to identify variables that may influence apparel shopping orientation from existing research. There is little consensus with regard to the underlying structure or dimensionality of apparel shopping orientation as each researcher adapted the measurement of the construct to the nature of the particular study.

Factor analysis was reported in a number of studies resulting in the classification of shopping orientations into a factorial structure with each factor being labelled according to the items loading on that specific factor. In some cases researchers only listed shopping orientations included in their studies without performing any form of factor analysis.

TABLE 2.6

CLASSIFICATION OF SHOPPING ORIENTATIONS

Proposed category	Original labels	Researchers
Enjoyment	Shopping enjoyment	Lumpkin, 1985
		Lumpkin and Greenberg, 1982
		Gutman and Mills, 1982
		Shim and Bickle, 1994
	Shopping propensity	Lumpkin, 1985
		Lumpkin and Greenberg, 1982
Interests and activities	Personalising shopper	Lumpkin, 1985
		Lumpkin and Greenberg, 1982
	Appearance manager	Shim and Kotsiopulos, 1992 a and b
		Shim and Kotsiopulos, 1993
	Socially active	Lumpkin, 1985
	Sports enthusiast	Lumpkin, 1985
	Art enthusiast	Lumpkin, 1985
	Clothing interest	Lumpkin, 1985
Confidence	Confident shopper	Shim and Kotsiopolus, 1992 a and b
		Shim and Kotsiopolus, 1993
	Shopping self-confidence	Lumpkin, 1985
		Lumpkin and Greenberg, 1982
	Confident/efficient	Shim and Bickle, 1994

Opinion leadership	Generalised opinion leader	Lumpkin, 1985
	Shopping opinion leader	Lumpkin, 1985
		Lumpkin and Greenberg, 1982
	Innovator	Lumpkin, 1985
	Opinion leader	Lumpkin, 1985
Fashion orientation	Fashion-oriented shopper	Shim and Bickle, 1994
	Fashion-conscious	Shim and Kotsiopulos, 1992 a and b
		Shim and Kotsiopolus, 1993
	Traditionalism	Gutman and Mills, 1982
	Following	Gutman and Mills, 1982
	Conformity	Lumpkin, 1985
Shopping convenience	Energy-conscious	Lumpkin, 1885
		Lumpkin and Greenberg, 1982
	Practicality	Gutman and Mills, 1982
	Planning	Gutman and Mills, 1982
Time	My-time-oriented	Lumpkin, 1985
		Lumpkin and Greenberg, 1982
	Convenience/time-conscious	Shim and Kotsiopulos, 1992 a and b
		Shim and Kotsiopolus, 1993
	Time manager	Lumpkin, 1985
Finance	Credit user	Lumpkin, 1985
		Lumpkin and Greenberg, 1982
		Shim and Bickle, 1994
	Credit-oriented	Shim and Kotsiopulos, 1993
	Economic shopper	Shim and Kotsiopulos, 1992 a and b
	Economic/price-conscious	Shim and Kotsiopulos, 1993
	Financial optimism	Lumpkin, 1985
	Advertising special shopper	Lumpkin, 1985
		Lumpkin and Greenberg 1982
	Inflation-conscious	Lumpkin, 1985
	Cost consciousness	Gutman and Mills, 1982
Brand conscious	Brand-conscious	Shim and Kotsiopulos, 1992 a and b
	Brand-conscious/loyal	Shim and Kotsiopulos, 1993
	Apathetic toward "made in USA"	Shim and Kotsiopulos, 1992 a and b
		Shim and Kotsiopulos, 1993

Patronage	Mall shopper	Shim and Kotsiopulos, 1992 a and b
		Shim and Kotsiopulos, 1993
	Catalogue shopper	Shim and Kotsiopulos, 1992 a and b
		Shim and Kotsiopulos, 1993
	Local store shopper	Shim and Kotsiopulos, 1992 a and b
		Shim and Kotsiopulos, 1993
	Dissatisfaction with local shopping	Shim and Bickle, 1994

Table 2.6 gives the newly proposed categories for the classification of shopping orientations as well as the original labels of shopping orientations reported by the respective researchers. The new shopping orientation categories are: enjoyment, interests and activities, confidence, opinion leadership, fashion orientation, shopping convenience, time, finance, brand consciousness and patronage. Stoltman et al., (1991) listed research-specific shopping orientations that do no fit into the proposed classification framework. Lumpkin et al., (1981) was omitted due to the integration of lifestyle and shopping orientation.

This classification synthesises the large number of shopping orientation labels or types into more manageable categories to aid future research, for example when compiling questionnaires and interview schedules.

2.7.2.4 APPAREL SHOPPING ORIENTATION TYPOLOGIES

Typologies are frequently a result of shopping orientation studies as shoppers possessing different shopping orientations have different profiles. Only two out of eleven studies identified apparel shopping orientation typologies.

Lumpkin (1985) distinguished among elderly uninvolved or apathetic shoppers (24%), economic shoppers (42%) and active shoppers (35%). The shopping orientation profiles of the cluster groups give information on fashion orientation, activities, as well as financial and shopping specific aspects. Shim and Kotsiopulos (1993) described highly involved shoppers (46%), apathetic shoppers (34%) and convenience-oriented catalogue shoppers (20%). The profiles of apparel shopping orientation clusters give extensive information on patronage behaviour, information usage, demographics, lifestyle and store attributes.

It might be that apparel shoppers could be placed on a continuum with apathetic or uninvolved consumers on the one end, and active or highly involved consumers on the other end. The economic and/or convenience-oriented consumers could be concerned with other variables, such as finance and convenience. Typologies will always hold several advantages for both theory and practice. Comprehensive theory building, an enrichment of the body of knowledge, and an encompassing understanding of consumer behaviour will result from ongoing typology studies. In practice these typologies "... improve retail strategy decision-making by enabling retailers to differentiate and target their offerings, locations, and promotional efforts according to the varying patronage responses of the basic shopper types ..." (Westbrook & Black, 1985).

2.7.3 CONCLUSION: MARKET AND CONSUMER INTERACTION

Section 2.7 dealt with the second market and consumer interaction variable, i.e. shopping orientation. This concludes the literature review on the two variables included in the conceptual theoretical framework under the section Market and Consumer Interaction, namely patronage behaviour and shopping orientation. The following section will deal with the last group of variables, labelled the consumer-dominated variables.

2.8 CONSUMER-DOMINATED VARIABLES

This is the third, and the last, section of the conceptual theoretical model on variables influencing female apparel shopping behaviour. Refer to the shaded section of Figure 2.11. The previous two sections dealt with the market-dominated variables and the market and consumer interaction variables. Demographics of the South African consumer as well as socio-cultural influences on shopping behaviour will be discussed. A further aim of this section is to give a South African orientation to the literature review as little information regarding the South African consumer, and more specifically the South African apparel consumer, is available.

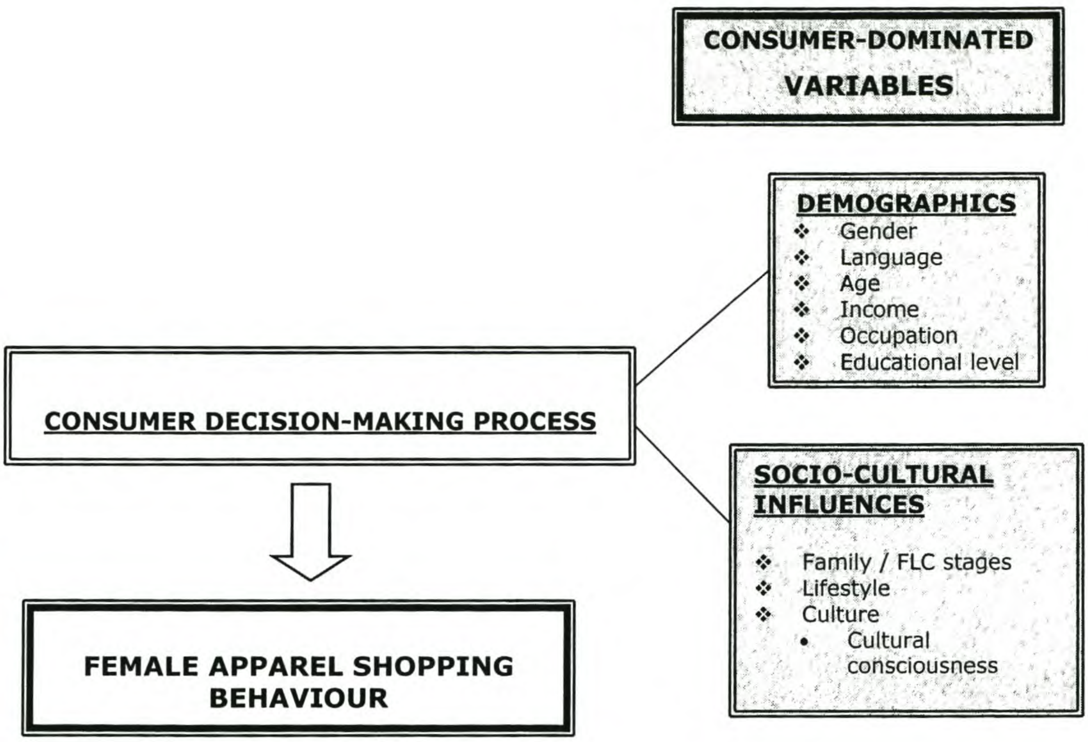

FIGURE 2.11: CONSUMER-DOMINATED VARIABLES INFLUENCING FEMALE APPAREL SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR

2.8.1 A DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONSUMER

South Africa has changed rapidly over the last ten years. Retailers cannot continue to use dated methods of servicing and segmenting the South African consumer. Academics and stakeholders in industry should take cognisance of the ever-changing profile of the South African consumer. It is only through gaining knowledge in this regard, that appropriate strategic plans can be put into place to contribute to company and national prosperity. The South African apparel consumer must be studied within the context of the South African consumer population.

2.8.1.1 SOUTH AFRICAN POPULATION STATISTICS

Total population

Population estimates of South Africa are not accurate, as the 1996 estimates differ substantially among the Central Statistical Services (CSS), Research Surveys (RS) and the Bureau of Market Research (BMR). These estimates vary from 37,858 million (CSS) to 41,766 million (BMR) and 44,4 million (RS) (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 1999, p. 42).

The midyear estimates for the population of South Africa for the year 2000 is estimated at 43,68 million by the Central Statistical Services. As South Africa is currently dealing with a pandemic of HIV/AIDS-infected individuals, this number has been adjusted to 43,29 million; thereby taking the additional deaths into account (Statistics SA, 2000a). The RSA population groups are given in Tabel 2.7.

TABLE 2.7

RSA POPULATION GROUPS WITHOUT ADDITIONAL DEATHS DUE TO HIV/AIDS – MID 2000 ESTIMATES

POPULATION GROUP	MID 2000 ESTIMATES (m)
African/black	33 879 852
Coloured	3 796 858
Indian/Asian	1 092 522
White	4 521 664
Other and Unspecified	394 803
TOTAL	**43 685 699**

(Statistics SA, 2000a, p. 5)

Language

South Africa boasts eleven official languages. While English is the language most often used in official and business communication, it is not the language most widely spoken as a first language in South Africa. IsiZulu is the most commonly spoken first home language

(22.9%), followed by IsiXhosa (17.9%), Afrikaans (14.4%), Sepedi (9.2) and English (8.6%). The other six languages all have a percentage lower than 8.5% (Census in Brief, 1996). The All Media Product Survey (AMPS) 1999 data recorded the top three languages as 6 million Zulu speakers, followed by 5.9 million Afrikaans speakers and 3 million English speakers (Ives, 1999b, p. 41).

The Afrikaans-speaking population group is the wealthiest in South Africa. The AMPS found them to have more than 32% of the purchase power in South Africa, they are the biggest group to invest on the Johannesburg Stock Exchange (44.6%), they own the most houses in the high income bracket and have regular holidays. Of vehicle owners, 43.5% are Afrikaans-speaking, they have the most credit cards, cheque books and auto-bank cards. This group further has the highest incidence of buying sewing machines and video machines. In the highest income brackets, they are also the biggest buyers and consumers of children's clothing (Eyles, 2000, p. 5; Ives, 1999b).

It is essential for researchers, marketers and retailers that function or intend to operate in the South African consumer market to be informed regarding the language issues in South Africa. It has implications for advertising copy, advertising content, research methods and research questions and various marketing applications. Many companies have been isolated because of to not having the "correct" languages on packaging, manuals and advertising materials. Afrikaans consumers prefer to be addressed in their own language and this group cannot be reached only through the English media as there is only a 14% reader duplication (Ives, 1999b, p. 40; Williams, 1998, p. 39). Research and data gathering initiatives can be negatively influenced if respondents do not understand the language used. It must be remembered that English is the language of business, but it is only the second or third language for the majority of the South African population. Misinterpretation of research questions can lead to invalid interpretation of data.

Age

The age profile of the total population is shown in Table 2.8.

TABLE 2.8

AGE PROFILE OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN POPULATION: 1996

AGE	PERCENTAGE
Children under 6 years	15%
Children 6 to 13 years	20%
Children 14-17 years	9%
Total adults 18 years +	56%

(Du Plessis & Rousseau, 1999, p. 47)

The age profile can further be broken down into population groups. Refer to Table 2.9.

TABLE 2.9

PERCENTAGE BREAKDOWN OF THE POPULATION WITH REGARD TO THE VARIOUS AGE GROUPS (16 AND OVER): 1996

AGE GROUP	TOTAL	BLACK	WHITE	ASIAN	COLOURED
16-24	28%	80%	10%	3%	7%
25-34	25%	74%	14%	2%	10%
35-49	26%	70%	17%	3%	10%
50 +	21%	67%	24%	2%	7%

(Du Plessis & Rousseau, 1999, p. 48)

From the above table it can be deduced that the white population group is ageing. The reverse is true for the black/african population group. These trends hold a wide variety of implications for manufacturers, marketers and retailers in the apparel industry.

Educational level

From the 1996 census data it is clear that the white population group has the highest educational qualifications and the black population group has the lowest. For example, of the 40 053 individuals with a matric (grade 12), bachelors degree and diploma, 22 287 are white and 9 488 are black (SA Statistics, 2000b, p. 1.11). This situation could partly be attributed to the legacy of apartheid in South Africa.

Unemployment and economically active population

South Africa has a very high unemployment rate of 44% of the economically active population between the ages of 15 and 65 for 1999 (Statistics SA, 2000b, p.7.62). The economically active and the not economically active population statistics are reported in Table 2.10.

TABLE 2.10

ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE AND ECONOMICALLY NOT ACTIVE POPULATON BY POPULATION GROUP - OCTOBER 1999

1 000

Population group	Total	Not economically active	Economically active			
			Total	Workers	Unemployed	Rate %
African/ black	19 944	8 041	11 903	6 668	5 235	44.0
Coloured	2 427	741	1 685	1 288	397	23.6
Indian/ Asian	765	273	492	392	99	20.2
White	3 107	957	2 150	2 004	146	6.8

(Statistics SA, 2000b, p. 7.62)

Males have a relatively small majority (54%) in the economically active group with females at 46% (Statistics SA, 2000b, p. 7.6). Changes in the role of women, high divorce rates and the economic situation in South Africa could be cited as possible reasons for the sharp increase in working and therefore economically active females. Together with the increased economic activity, females are regarded as having higher discretionary incomes to spend on consumer goods. Females are seen as the dominant purchaser of apparel for themselves and the family with the result that this market segment is enjoying increasing interest from marketers and retailers.

To summarise: South Africa is a true "rainbow nation" with varying levels of education and income. The black population is by far the majority, but unfortunately also has the highest unemployment rates, lowest educational levels and income. HIV/AIDS will have a profound influence on the South African economy as a whole, the population statistics and the economically active population. On the positive side, South Africa is a country with many opportunities for growth and prosperity. As South African is slowly becoming more globally-orientated and competitive, even more marketing and retailing opportunities will emerge. It is within this scenario that the South African apparel consumer should be studied.

2.8.2 SOCIO-CULTURAL INFLUENCES

The socio-cultural influences are the second group of variables discussed under the label consumer-dominated variables (refer to Figure 2.11). These variables will have a profound impact on consumer behaviour in a multi-cultural society. As South Africa is a nation consisting of emerging Third World markets and traditional First World markets, knowledge of socio-cultural influences on consumer behaviour is a necessity. This knowledge will give South African companies the competitive edge in the increasingly competitive market, as the increasing effects of globalisation is felt in the 21st century within the South African manufacturing and retailing market.

2.8.2.1 THE FAMILY AS FORCE IN CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

2.8.2.1.1 Socialisation and consumer socialisation

The family is an important reference group with high levels of interaction among members. Socialisation is a major responsibility, and includes transfer of values and behaviour consistent with the culture. Clothing behaviour and grooming form part of the socialisation process. These skills are often acquired through direct learning, observation and in later years, comparison with others, especially shopping groups. Consumer goods are also being used by parents to alter children's behaviour by offering it as a reward or withholding it as a form of punishment. Apparel is often included. Sproles (1979) explained that children are also being socialised in dressing, styles and functional purposes of dress and aesthetic dress skills. By observation and learning, children acquire a cognitive orientation toward dress that is carried forward into adulthood. During the pre-teenager years children learn that dress has a symbolic meaning and conforming to dress standards of friends often result.

Children are consulted on purchases of apparel items. Fashion orientation becomes central to the teenager's socialisation process with peers and friends. These are carried over to adulthood and combined with new social experiences and norms of dress, such as work dress codes. Engel et al., (1995) and Loudon and Della Bitta (1993) stated that children can also influence clothing purchases of parents. Children expect their parents to "fit in" with other children's parents – thus not be a "social embarrassment" to them (Kaiser, 1990). In South Africa, Botha and Blignault (1998) and Blignault and Botha (1994) studied the clothing needs of teenage girls. Teenagers favour uniqueness of their clothing and choosing their own clothing from modern selections. The respondent's clothing needs were classified as self- and other-directed and related to internal and external aspects of development.

2.8.2.1.2 Family life cycle

The family life cycle (FLC) is a concept that describes the various changes, ranging from four to ten, in families over time: bachelorhood, honeymooners, parenthood, post-parenthood and dissolution (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). The eight-stage FLC as proposed by Assael (1992) included young singles, newly married, full nest I, II, III, empty nest I and II, and solitary survivor (Assael, 1992; Peter & Olson, 1990). This FLC is not only a function of age, but also reflects changes in family income, disposable income, marital status, size of family, employment status, family roles, purchase behaviour and spending patterns. Various stages in the FLC has been proposed, ranging from four to ten. Other non-traditional stages of the FLC representing modern society include: divorced individuals, childless couples, single household adoptions, unmarried couples, couples that marry later in life, gay couples, dual-income families and extended families (Engel et.al., 1995, Peter & Olson, 1990, Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000).

All these changes, especially in the role of women in the consumer society, warrant the attention of all the stakeholders in the apparel industry. Women are, and will be, a consumer segment with unique needs, motives and decision-making styles. This will demand a thorough knowledge of the motives, needs, roles and lifestyle of women in order to:

- ❖ provide for their product needs,
- ❖ provide for their retailing needs,
- ❖ advertise in such a way that reaches all the female consumer segments.

2.8.2.1.3 Family decision-making and roles

Families exhibit instrumental and expressive role behaviours, whereby the first refers to functional and economic roles and the second to family support during decision-making (Parsons in Engel et.al., 1995). Marketers recognise the family as a decision-making unit, but frequently focus their attention on one member of the family who is the decision-maker, the buyer or the user of the product. Marketers should however also be sensitive to the family structure and consumption circumstances before embarking on an advertising strategy (Childers & Rao, 1992).

Family members have roles to perform. A role is defined as a "... prescribed pattern of behaviour expected of a person in a given situation by virtue of a person's position in that situation ..." (Hawkins et.al., 1998, p. 227). The execution of the role should take place within the role parameters (i.e. that which is acceptable for the role) in order to avoid sanctions. Role overload often occurs when individuals attempt to fulfil more roles that can be managed given the situational variables. When role expectations are different in two roles and demand different behaviours, role conflict is the result. Individuals also acquire new roles and drop current ones through role acquisition and role deletion (Engel et.al., 1995; Hawkins et.al., 1998; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993).

Family decision-making includes different roles that will vary according to the product and dominance of the husband or wife. Most academics and researchers include variations of eight roles, i.e. influencers, gatekeepers, deciders, buyers, preparers, users, maintainers and disposers (Wells & Prensky, 1996). For the marketer it is essential to distinguish between who fulfils which roles and to apply the knowledge to the development of appropriate marketing strategy.

The marital roles of wife-dominant, husband-dominant, autonomous and joint decision-making and purchasing roles could also be an influencing factor. Clothing for women and children is dominantly purchased by women, whereas men's leisure and business clothing is autonomous, according to Putman and Davidson (in Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993). The applicability of these traditional roles to the American Baby Boom generation was questioned by Lavin (1993). Female members of this generation postponed marriage in order to build a career and continued to be employed outside the home, after marriage. This resulted in the Women's Movement questioning the gender-based division of marital responsibilities. The responsibility of marketers are to be aware of the influence of these social changes and to respond appropriately in their marketing efforts. The results of the study were interesting as members of the Baby Boom generation sample were not willing to take sole purchase responsibility for items previously classified under the "role" of the other party. The results suggested that the traditional marketing classification of products according to the expected spousal purchaser, continues to be valid even in the Baby Boom generation. Members were also not prepared to show a willingness to allow spouses to shop alone for products classified as husband-dominant or wife-dominant. They, however, were willing to shop jointly for products previously classified under separate control depending on the price and frequency of purchase. Attitudes are slowly changing and consequently marketers should be sensitive to social trends and should re-evaluate the trends periodically.

Assael (1992) referred to a 1990 study by Yandelovich, Clancy and Schulman that showed that own clothes are the product purchase that will be mostly influenced by children, followed by toys. Roles are subject to evolution. The change of women's roles in the family structure and consumption-related behaviour deserves exploration as it holds implications for marketers, retailers and manufacturers alike. Women are the primary purchasers of apparel items for themselves and their children and this has been recognised by various researchers in the field (Cassill, 1990). It was therefore decided that the determinants of female apparel shopping behaviour would be the focus of the present study.

2.8.2.1.4 The role evolution of women

The changing role of women in the family is one of the major changes in countries world-wide. Women constitute a large percentage of the labour force, resulting in more women taking the financial responsibilities of the family, but consequently experiencing time shortages. Time shortage will impact on consumer behaviour and consumers could be segmented accordingly (Darian & Cohen, 1995). A blurring of family roles is also evident due to the high divorce rate and the increase of single parent households. These changes in lifestyle and attitudes of women demand changes in services, products and marketing (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 1999; Von Bormann, 1999). Employed women showed different information search patterns (Shim & Drake, 1988) and catalogue usage patterns (Kim, Feather & McEnally, 1996).

Loudon and Della Bitta (1993) suggested segmenting the market into the traditionalist/feminist orientation and working women. There were variations along demographic and lifestyle characteristics of these groups. Many homemakers saw their role differently and more modern by spending own time outside of the home, changing the way they manage the household and spend time with their children. Marketers should, however, not discard the market segment that prefers marriages that are more traditional. The other market segment was working women - a segment that has increased exponentially over the last few years in South Africa. Employment status of married women impacted on the perceptions of message appeals for durable goods and should be taken into active consideration in the design of advertising strategies (Widgery, Angur & Nataraajan, 1997). Working women have significantly less leisure time than home-makers with increased time pressures and role overload. Marketers and retailers should cater for this (Engel et al., 1995).

The Bartos model (Bartos, 1994; Schaninger et al., 1993) subdivided women according to their employment orientation. Bartos argued that this orientation would have an impact on the consumer decision-process. Working women were subdivided into career-oriented working women and just-a-job working women. Non-working women were divided into plan-to-work housewives and stay-at-home housewives. Schaninger et al., (1993) demonstrated that the Bartos classification scheme is a viable basis for segmenting married couple households and that it can be used to predict consumption differences. Results of the study showed highly significant differences between the four segments with regards to wives' values and work and time pressures. The four segments also differed significantly regarding shopping behaviour, before and after adjusting for the number of children and family income. Career wives and just-a-job wives were least price-sensitive and deal-prone with little effort shown in shopping. Plan-to-work wives looked at prices and engaged in information searches about sales and comparison shopping behaviour. Strong differences were found with regards to convenience and junk foods and meals prepared away from home. From this Gestalt approach, including norms and values, consumption and shopping behaviour, it was clear that the working and non-working wives are not a homogeneous market and should be segmented. Implications for advertisers included that a career theme should not be directed at stay-at-home wives and visa versa.

Cassill (1990) used employment orientation of women as a segmentation variable for apparel decisions and evaluation of imported apparel. The employment orientation categories of Bartos were used, as independent variable and apparel decisions were the dependent variable. Results further supported the hypothesis that employment orientation had a significant influence of apparel decisions. The four employment orientation groups differed significantly with regard to the apparel decision variables, brand, fibre content, care and origin. This study confirmed the segmentation of the employment orientations into four profiles that have implications for consumer behaviour. Employment orientation also significantly influenced lifestyle and evaluative criteria used for selecting social apparel (Cassill & Drake, 1987a, 1987b).

"Marketers and consumer researchers are becoming more interested in employed women because the increasing number of women in the labour force has nurtured new market opportunities " (Shim & Drake, 1988, p. 1). These authors identified five different search patterns used by employed women to search for apparel-related information, i.e. print-oriented, audio-visual, store-intensive, professional advice and pal-advice searchers, as far back as 1988. The consumers characteristics, the product and the situation significantly influenced these search patterns. This study was developed further by Shim and Drake (1989) in order to synthesise two theories of the consumer search process with information search strategies used by employed women for the purchase of employment apparel. The systematic or heuristic information processing theory and the active vs. passive search theory were applied to the study by Shim and Drake (1988) resulted in relationships between patterns of information search and the two theories being highlighted. Fashion opinion leadership among working and non-working women were studied by MacGillivray, Koch and Domina (1998). Results indicated that fashion opinion leadership among working and non-working women, is independent of education and income. Fashion leadership was a strong determinant of apparel leadership.

The non-employed female apparel consumer is not ignored by researchers, as a substantial number of women are not employed due to various reasons, for example caring for children at home. This market cannot be ignored. Shim and Drake (1990) investigated the influence of lifestyle and evaluative criteria for apparel on information search in apparel purchasing decisions among non-employed female consumers. Four information search patterns in terms of lifestyle and evaluative criteria could be identified. These were labelled mass-media searcher, professional searcher, store-intensive searcher and pal-advice searcher. If these search profiles are compared to the five identified for employed women (Shim & Drake, 1988), several similarities are evident. The print-oriented searcher and audio-visual searcher profiles for employed women showed similarities with the mass-media searcher of the non-employed group. The professional searcher profile, the store-intensive searcher profile and the pal-advice profile were represented in both employed and non-employed female apparel shoppers.

In South Africa role evolution of women is also recognised. Du Plessis and Rousseau (1999) stated that urban black families are showing a tendency to move away from the extended family structure as it is financially straining. A move toward the nuclear family is evident. Women's roles in black families are also changing because women need to contribute financially to the household income. The family is becoming more price-conscious and practical in their taste of clothing. All these changes are also impacting on the FLC of a traditional family structure of black South African families.

The numerous changes in the role structure and family decision-making of the family unit, impact on marketing to women. Marketers cannot ignore these changes and challenges.

2.8.2.1.5 Marketing to women

Nelson (1994) stated that the total marketing strategy to women is changing as women are making independent buying decisions and have their own discretionary income. Lifestyles and product needs of women no longer reflect their ages and marketers should rather de-age products and focus on the stages of a women's life. Nelson (1994) proposed only two stages, i.e. under thirty is preparation for life, and over thirty is living life. The following guidelines and insights are given to marketers:

- Change products to suit women of the 21st century. Marketers should identify niche markets and must know how to reach their target market in the most persuasive way possible.
- Women no longer shop for fun, they travel more and have less time. To make provision for these changes, make orders easy, have longer shopping times, send sales information to the office, use persuasive communication, be aware of diversity and use words carefully to connect to your target audience.
- Working women often make use of surrogates to do shopping and shopping is becoming a shared responsibility.
- Women have more disposable income. Show product benefits and persuade the target audience to respond. Be credible in your advertising.
- Gain knowledge on the changes in different stages of a women's life and adapt the advertising message.
- Make use of rapport-building by writing advertising copy in a appropriate way. Women are increasingly the decision-makers and need to be portrayed as such.
- Price for some products will become less important than convenience, availability, time savings and service (Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993; Nelson, 1994).

Although these guidelines are general in nature, marketers need to adhere to them, and be sensitive toward the changes in the market place by adapting marketing and message strategies to reach female consumers.

2.8.2.2 LIFESTYLE

The second socio-cultural variable influencing female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural society, is lifestyle. The two previous sections discussed the demographic characteristics of the South Africa consumer and the family as socio-cultural variable. The principle aim of this section on lifestyle is, firstly, to describe the concept in short, secondly, to reflect on the profile measurements of lifestyle and thirdly, to give an overview of apparel-and lifestyle-related literature.

2.8.2.2.1 Defining lifestyle

Lifestyle and psychographic analysis address the way in which consumers express themselves in a social and cultural environment. Many researchers use these terms interchangeably, but the focus of the two constructs is different. Lifestyle analysis emphasises values and actions in a social and cultural context, whereas psychographic analysis focuses on the psychological basis of opinions and attitudes. Psychographics is defined by Loudon and Della Bitta (1993, p. 60) as: "...the systematic use of relevant activity, interest, and opinion constructs to quantitatively explore and explain the communicating, purchasing, and consuming behaviours of persons for brands, products, and clusters of products ...". Lifestyle and psychographics reflect various dimensions such as cultural, demographic, economic and psychological dimensions. These culminate in the expression of the consumer through activities, interests and opinions (Wells & Prensky, 1996). Assael (1992) supported the incorporation of the psychologically-orientated variables, i.e. attitudes, interests and opinions in the definition of lifestyle. Hawkins et al., (1998) focussed on the interaction of variables such as culture, values, demographics, sub-culture, social class, reference groups, family, motives, emotions and personality on lifestyle. *Lifestyle* is described as influencing all aspects of life and consumption behaviour. Michman (1991) defined psychographics as including social class, lifestyle and personality variables. *Lifestyle* is described as how individuals spend their time and what they consider important about their surroundings, interests and opinions. This definition therefore sees lifestyle as part of psychographics. This viewpoint is not supported, as lifestyle is a more encompassing construct than pure psychographics or activity, interest and opinion (AIO) research.

Lifestyle is further defined by Engel et al., (1995) as a summary construct referring to patterns in which people live and spend money and time. This is a construct in flux, making constant emphasis on flexible research methods and marketing strategies a necessity. Loudon and Della Bitta (1993) stated that lifestyle can be seen as a unique pattern of living that influences and reflects in consumption behaviour. Fox (1989) proposed that lifestyle is a composite of perceptible and non-perceptible variables that culminates in a person's daily living. The lifestyle component model is presented in Figure 2.12.

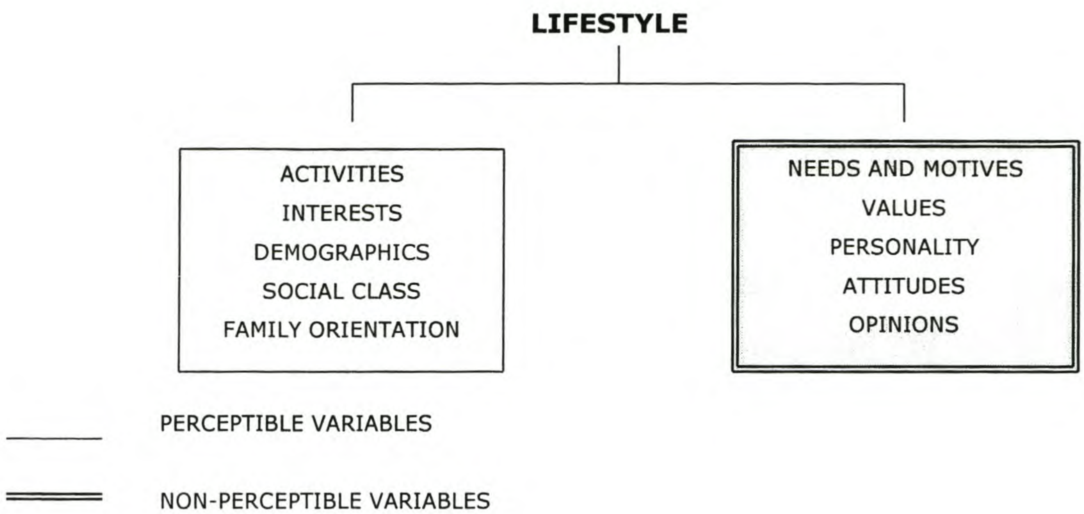

FIGURE 2.12: THE LIFESTYLE COMPONENT MODEL

(Fox, 1989, p. 81)

It is clear that there is no consensus on the definition of psychographics and lifestyle. From the various approaches to the definition of lifestyle it can, however, be concluded that lifestyle:

- is a complex and multidimensional construct
- is subject to change
- has perceptible and non-perceptible components
- incorporates psychographics and has more depth as a result
- influences all aspects of consumption behaviour.

2.8.2.2.2 Profiling consumer lifestyles

Lifestyle research often focuses on trend analysis, general lifestyle research and product-specific lifestyle studies. The latter two will be discussed in the following sections as it provides general lifestyle typologies that assist in the understanding of consumer lifestyles and behaviour. These instruments are not product-specific, but reference to product class usage is made in them. The data is usually gathered by survey questionnaires comprising of various questions, including the basic AIO items. Three lifestyle research instruments and their typologies will be presented in this section, i.e. Values and Lifestyles (VALS)2, The

Sociomonitor, and the Living Standards Measure. The last two are South African and focus on the South African consumer.

2.8.2.2.2.1 The VALS2 lifestyle system

SRI International developed the VALS programme to measure lifestyle and psychographics of American consumers. The VALS system divides adult Americans into nine value and lifestyle patterns according to the needs that motivate consumers and their orientation to life. This system was criticised extensively due to the reflection of personality differences, rather than cultural and demographic differences. Beatty, Homer and Kahle (1988) suggested that the VALS could not be used to study cross-cultural values and that the List of Values should rather be applied. The instrument was difficult to implement and it classified two-thirds of the population into two groups, leaving the other seven groups too small to capture marketers' interest. This critique lead to the development of VALS2 in 1989, focussing more explicitly on explaining consumer purchase behaviour (Hawkins et al., 1998; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000; Wells & Prensky, 1996)

VALS2 uses 35 attitudinal and four demographic questions to classify the American population into eight segments. These groups differ with regard to their self-orientation and resources. Three self-orientations were identified:

- Principle-oriented: these individuals' choices are motivated and guided by their beliefs and principles, rather than by the desire for approval, feelings or events;
- Status-oriented: members of this group are highly influenced by the approval, actions and opinions of others;
- Action-oriented: these individuals desire activity, risk-taking and variety in their social and physical activities.

The three different self-orientations impact on distinct attitudes, lifestyles, decision-making styles, goals and behaviours individuals pursue.

The second dimension, on which the VALS2 segments are based, is resources. Resources refer to the ability of individuals to pursue their dominant self-orientation. It therefore refers to the full range of physical, psychological and demographic means that consumers can utilise and draw upon. This includes income, education, health, self-confidence, energy levels and eagerness to buy. The availability of these resources changes over time and generally reaches its peak in middle age. The eight VALS segments are presented in Figure 2.13. A brief description of each follows (Hawkins et al., 1998; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000):

Actualisers: This group have the most resources and enjoy the finer things in life. Members are active, sophisticated and successful in life. They are receptive to new products, distribution systems and technologies. They are sceptical of advertising, are light viewers of television, but reads a wide variety of publications. Image is important to them, not as a reflection of status but rather as an expression of taste, independence and character.

Strugglers: Members of this group are chronically poor with low educational levels. They are often passive with their main concerns being safety and security. This is a brand loyal group that makes use of coupons and are always on the lookout for sales due to little resources available. They trust advertising, watch television often and read tabloids and women's magazines.

Fulfilleds: This group shows little interest in image or prestige and is above-average consumers of products for the home. They are mature, satisfied, comfortable and knowledgeable. Fulfilleds are well-educated and hold professional occupations. They enjoy their homes and leisure activities centre around the family and home. They base their decisions on principles, therefore they are conservative and practical consumers. They read often and widely and enjoy public affairs and educational programmes.

Believers: Believers are conservative with beliefs based on traditional codes, such as the family, church, community and nation. They buy American-made products and are slow to change habits. They look out for bargains and watch more television than the average person. They read home- and garden-related as well as general interest magazines.

Achievers: Achievers are status-oriented, thus making choices to enhance their position or support the move to another position in the social setting. Achievers are successful in career and family life and seek recognition in these fields. They are committed to their work, and family and social activities are a reflection thereof. They are attracted to premium products and are the prime target for a wide variety of products.

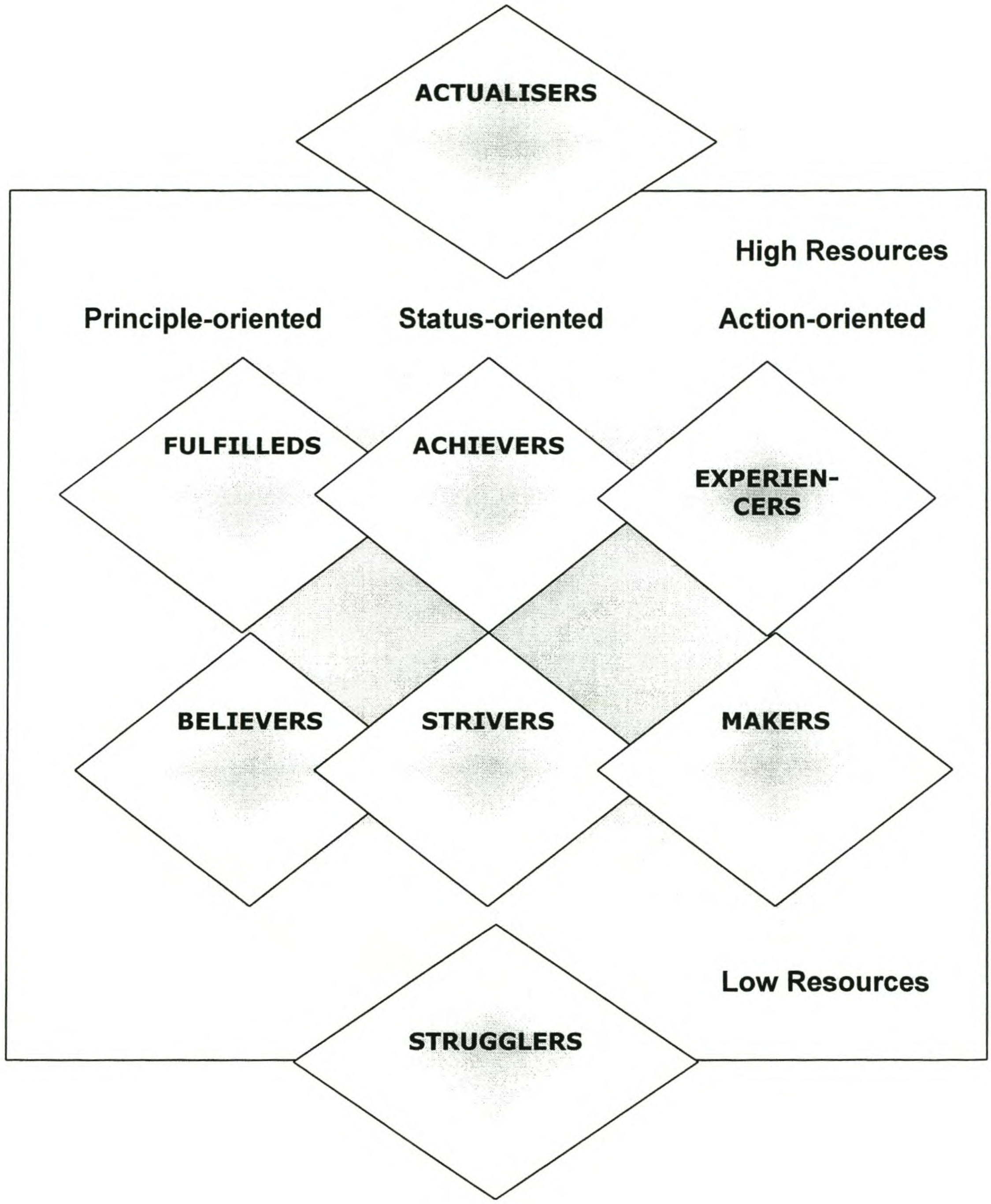

FIGURE 2.13: SRI VALS2 SEGMENTS

(Adapted from Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000, p. 55)

They read business news, news and self-help publications and are average television watchers.

Strivers: This group is image-conscious, but has limited discretionary incomes together with credit balances. They look toward others to indicate the way to go and seek approval from others. Money defines success. They spend on clothing and personal care products to emulate those that have, and prefer television to reading.

Experiencers: This group is action-oriented, young, vital, impulsive and follows fashion and fads. They spend most of their discretionary income on socialising and impulse buying. They attend to advertising and spend money on clothing, fast food, music, movies and videos.

Makers: The Makers shop for comfort, durability and value. They are unimpressed by luxuries, value self-sufficiency and buy basic items. They have the means and energy to carry out projects related to the home. They listen to the radio and read auto and outdoor magazines.

All these segments differ with regard to consumption-related habits and consumption. The VALS typology can benefit marketers to identify target markets and to uncover what the target group buys and does. It can further assist in geographically locating the target group, identifying how best to communicate with the target group and to gain insight into the reasons why the target group acts the way it does (Values and Lifestyles, 2001).

2.8.2.2.2.2 ACNielsen Marketing Research Africa (MRA) Sociomonitor 1999/2000 (ACNielsen, 1999)

The Sociomonitor is a marketing strategy and -tactics tool utilising psychographics, values, and motivation, and linking these variables to product positioning. The developers of the instrument emphasise the importance of values as it influences attitudes, which in turn impact on consumer behaviour. The instrument was originally developed in Switzerland, but has been utilised in South Africa since 1976. Previous editions of the Sociomonitor had different profiles for whites and blacks. This distinction was dropped and the new instrument makes provision for all adults of the four main race groups, both rural and urban.

The Sociomonitor further describes the market in terms of demographics, lifestyle activities and interests, media usage, socio-political views and selected products, services and brands used. This syndicated survey should assist marketers in various ways, i.e.:

- understanding of South African consumers' motivations, values and habits;
- knowing the profiles of various markets;
- aligning of persuasive communication;
- establishing synergy between brands, media titles and psychographic profiles;
- developing, improving and re-positioning of products.

As previously mentioned, the Sociomonitor is a commercial syndicated instrument. Subscribers pay large amounts to gain insight into the various modules that they find applicable to their product, service or environment. The Sociomonitor Value Groups discussed in the following section have been graciously provided, free of charge, by ACNielsen MRA (ACNielsen, 1999). Five Sociomonitor Value Groups were identified in the 1999/2000 Sociomonitor, namely Yesteryears, Belongers, Enhancers, Achievers and Todayers. Each of these groups differed with regards to psychographics, demographics, lifestyle, posessions and media usage.

Value group 1: Yesteryears (17.2% of adult population: 4.421 million adults)

Psychographics: This group is typified by drawing from the known, resisting changes from outside and a strong desire to keep culture, language and race intact. Traditions, religion and African family cultures and the preservation of it are paramount. As a result of the group orientation, the individuals focus less on themselves. They are price-sensitive and buy according to price rather than aesthetics in order to uphold their practical consumer needs. The group has a past orientation – life was better in the past. As a result members turn away from risk and feel more secure with the familiar. Because they are living in the past, they take little or no risk, do not live for the moment and are out of touch with modern technology. Members are not comfortable with issues of sexual liberty; men and women are not perceived as equal and there is little tolerance for other race groups. This group questions existing authority structures and displays a sense of aimlessness.

Demographics: The group has slightly more females (57%) and individuals in the thirty-five plus age group than the total population. Blacks make up 68%, with above average whites (20%) and coloureds (9%). An above average percentage speaks Afrikaans and Nguni. Low education levels exist and household incomes show average representation in the B and C income groups. There is a higher than average representation in the LSM 1 and 7-8 groups.

Lifestyle: The Yesteryears are one of the least active groups in terms of leisure activities. They prefer to stay at home with the family, engage in religious activities, gardening and community meetings. Hobbies are home-based and little interest is shown in sport. If they are interested, soccer and rugby are mentioned.

Possessions: This group has average or below average proportions of durables and appliances, but above average on homely, cocooning and security-related products.

Media usage: Yesteryear members show below average media use in especially print media. They are the smallest group and have the smallest reading of newspapers and magazines. The radio and television market is nearing saturation, but in this group still measures fewest users of television and radio.

Value group 2: Belongers (21.4% of adult population: 5.509 million adults)

Psychographics: This group displays a strong sense of embracing others and other race groups with the result that they are in favour of the one nation concept. Values are traditional, conforming and group-orientated with tolerance for others. Even though they are traditional they accept gender equality and ubuntu (respect for individuals). They easily empathise with others, go with the majority, do not question authority and are accorded status for socially acceptable behaviour rather than for materialistic reasons. As a result of their religious orientation, members are, however, not very comfortable with issues concerning sexual liberty. Belongers do not like too much novelty, risk or excitement and are therefore not comfortable with new products and technology. They need coaching to change brands they use, with price and usefulness the most important factors in purchasing decisions. Belongers are not very much in touch with technology and are not likely to improve themselves above the group.

Demographics: This group has the highest percentage of females and those in the 50 plus group. After the Todayers, they also have the highest proportion of blacks speaking Nguni and Sotho. They are less educated than average, having on average more individuals in the C and D household income categories. Belongers are the most rural group with above average representation in the lower LSM groups.

Lifestyle: This group is similar to the previous group, as they restrict their leisure activities to homely and group-oriented activities. Hobbies are home-bound and members have the least interest in sporting activities.

Possessions: Belongers have a simple and practical lifestyle with little financial needs, resulting in few basic durables and below average appliances in homes.

Media usage: Members watch the least amount of television, and have below average radio and print exposure.

Value group 3: Enhancers (18.7% of adult population: 4.812 million adults)

Psychographics: Enhancers are a modernised group with needs for self-development, quality and harmony. Emphasis is placed on beauty and style, physical looks, health, home environment and new skills which are technology-related to stimulate minds. With quality and intrinsic needs being primary needs, Enhancers purchase accordingly and would rather pay than do. They are not economically-minded. As they are very modern, they embrace a natural approach, modern gadgets and avoid or discard all things labelled as old-fashioned. Due to their self-focus and youth they have less than average concern for being part of the nation, embracing other race groups and adhering to African customs and religious ideals. They focus on themselves but would not do injustice to others in reaching their objectives. They are confident and do not constantly seek the approval of others.

Demographics: This is the youngest value group with mostly females. Coloureds and Indians are represented more than average, although 71% are black. More than average speak English and live in predominantly urban areas. They have high educational levels, have the second most individuals in the A and B income groups and have more than average LSM 6 to 8 representation.

Lifestyle: After Achievers, this group is the most active in leisure time activities with above average activities and interests including those at home with family and friends, religious activities, videos, sport, eating out, meeting new people, attending music festivals, plays, theatre, opera and ballet. Enhancers are interested in social activities, watching television and going to the movies. They have above average numbers in niche hobbies such as singing, acting, surfing the net and photography. They are interested in a wide variety of sportsas well as more exclusive sports such as paragliding and ice-skating.

Possessions: As Enhancers have a modern lifestyle they have most major durables and convenience gadgets to enhance their lifestyle. They also have smaller appliances, such as video cameras, television games and satellite dishes.

Media usage: Above average media consumption in magazines, newspaper, television and radio.

Value group 4: Achievers (18.3% of adult population: 4.698 million adults)

Psychographis: This group has been described as the middle-of-the-road "haves" with some modern, individualistic values, such as personal achievement, but also some group-oriented and/or traditional values. They pride themselves in self-achievement – for themselves and not for appearances. They are price-conscious, practical and do things themselves if possible. Achievers are partly individualistic, but they still value ubuntu, accept other race groups, new technology and equality of the sexes. Members have a need for meaningful work. They are health- and exercise-conscious without attempting to impress or gain approval from others. Brands that offer novelty and excitement are preferred.

Demographics: This group has more males and is the second youngest group with a large proportion of members in the 16-24 group. More than average are white, coloured and Indian with 67% blacks. Together with Yesteryears, this is the least number of blacks. More than average speaks Afrikaans and English. Together with the Enhancers they have the highest educational qualifications, higher than average A and B income group and LSM 7-8 representation. They reside mostly in urban areas and metropolitan areas.

Lifestyle: This group is one of the most active. They like to watch live sport with friends, spend time at home with family and friends, eat out and go to the movies. Achievers are interested in a very wide variety of hobbies. Most sport is enjoyed and special niche sports providing novelty and risk are practiced.

Possessions: Achievers have most large durables and most of the smaller appliances, albeit in smaller percentages.

Media usage: Together with Enhancers, Achievers are the biggest media consumers. They read more newspapers and magazines than any other group.

Value group 5: Todayers (24.5% of adult population: 6.298 million adults)

Psychographis: The Todayers value group presents a tough don't-care exterior to the world. Members are assertive and/or aggressive to the outside world and have an inclination towards thrills and action, with little concern for the consequences of their actions. Stimulants and relaxants like alcohol, cigarettes, drugs and sex are used as escapisms and sensation. They are extrinsic-oriented and buy brands on external grounds rather than because of quality or intrinsic value. They are materially aspirational and need to show off to their peer group as it defines who they are and their level of acceptance by the group. Members have little acceptance and/or tolerance of rights of individuals and little understanding of others – other than what is acceptable for them. They reject group conventions, have little sense of family and community and have little identification with other race groups. They identify least with other race groups, religion or national identity. A sense of aimlessness and little self-confidence characterise their lives. Despite being materially aspirational, members show little interest in self-improvement. This could be related to a lack of opportunities resulting in feelings of disempowerment and being unable to relate to personal responsibility in order to improve their situation. They are generally out of touch with new technology.

Demographics: More than average males in the 35 – 49 age groups. Most members are black with the highest incidence of blacks of all the value groups. Sotho is the preferred language. After Belongers, members have little schooling, the majority are in the C income groups and in LSM 3 or 5-6. They are the most metropolitan based group.

Lifestyle: Todayers expressed below average interest in most activities, except for watching live sports with friends and visiting bars, pubs or shebeens. They are least interested in home-bound activities and hobbies and interests are low. They watch sports on television.

Possessions: Members have below average large durables in their homes.

Media usage: Media usage of the Todayer group is average. 65% of members read a newspaper in the past six months. Readership of magazines are even lower.

A summary table is presented in Table 2.11. This summary serves to present the reader with a general overview of the cluster and is therefore not a comprehensive profile. The ACNielsen Sociomonitor 1999/2000 also included apparel-specific questions, such as fashion consciousness and preferences for retailers. The Sociomonitor values are based on an index value, with 100 being the average. Values below 100 indicated that the value group had a score lower than average, and values above 100 indicated a higher than the average score on that particular item. Definite patterns emerge from the data with regards to apparel shopping behaviour of the five Sociomonitor Value Groups (refer to Table 2.12).

The Enhanchers are the most fashion-conscious value group and the Yesteryears and Belongers are clearly the least fashion-conscious value groups (ACNielsen, 1999). The Enhanchers have the highest incidence of women's small clothing items, women's larger items, children's clothing and men's clothing (together with the Achievers group). The Todayers value group bought the least in the categories women's small items, women's larger items and children's clothing product ranges. The Belongers bought the least in the men's large and small items apparel group.

With regards to retail outlets used for buying women's large clothing items in the past three months, a summary of selected retail outlets is provided in Table 2.12. The highest and lowest indices are indicated as well above and below average values, in order to simplify the interpretation of the table. Clear trends emerge from the table summary. Enhanchers obtained the highest and above average scores on nearly all the retail outlets, which confirms that this value group is positively orientated toward fashion and apparel and is a high user of apparel items. This is in line with the profile of the Enhanchers as they are a group that value beauty and style, are modern, young and have high educational levels and

TABLE 2.11

SUMMARY TABLE: ACNIELSEN MRA SOCIOMONITOR VALUE GROUPS 1999/2000

	YESTERYEARS (17.2% of adult population)	BELONGERS (21.4% of adult population)	ENHANCHERS (18.7% of adult population)	ACHIEVERS (18.3% of adult population)	TODAY-ERS (24.5% of adult population)
PSYCHOGRAPHICS	❖ Draw from known, resisting change ❖ Culture, language and race group intact ❖ African family culture and religion	❖ Traditional values ❖ Acceptability important ❖ Not comfortable with new technology ❖ Price important ❖ Little technology	❖ Modern, self-development ❖ Beauty and style ❖ Embrace technology ❖ Individualistic	❖ Middle-of-the-road haves ❖ Self-achievement ❖ Price-conscious, practical ❖ Health and exercise ❖ Novelty brands	❖ Don't care ❖ Stimulants, relaxants ❖ Materially aspira-tional without per-sonal responsibility ❖ Low self-esteem ❖ Disempowered
DEMOGRAPHICS	❖ Female, 35+ ❖ Black, coloureds, whites ❖ Afrikaans, Nguni ❖ Low education ❖ B and C income ❖ LSM 1, 7-8	❖ Female, 55+ ❖ Black ❖ Nguni, Sotho ❖ Low education ❖ C and D income ❖ Lower LSM	❖ Youngest ❖ Females ❖ Indians, coloureds, blacks ❖ English ❖ High educational levels, LSM 6-8 ❖ A and B income	❖ Males, young ❖ White, coloured, Indian and black ❖ Least blacks ❖ Afrikaans and English ❖ High educational levels, A and B income ❖ LSM 7-8	❖ 35-49, black ❖ Sotho ❖ C income ❖ LSM 3, 5-6
LIFESTYLE	❖ Little activity ❖ Home, religion ❖ Little sport	❖ Restricted to home-bound and group activities; little sport	❖ Active at home and in social activities ❖ Niche hobbies	❖ Active, sport, niche sport with novelty and risk	❖ Below average in all ❖ Watch live sport ❖ Bars/shebeens/pubs
POSESSIONS	❖ Average ❖ Home-bound	❖ Few durables and appliances ❖ Simple home-bound	❖ Most durables ❖ Modern gadgets	❖ Most durables and appliances	❖ Below average
MEDIA USAGE	❖ Below average	❖ Least television, below average other	❖ Above average	❖ High media usage ❖ Most newspapers and magazines	❖ Average

income. Their active social life also demands high apparel expenditure as it is important for this group to portray their individuality and style through fashion.

The Achievers obtained highest and above average scores for retailers that cater for the upper-middle and higher social classes. The Achievers are also positively orientated toward apparel and have an above average incidence of buying women's apparel. This again is in line with the profile of high income and LSM 7-8 incidence.

The Todayer group obtained the lowest scores on most retail groups. They are not ardent apparel shoppers and prefer to buy female apparel at flea markets and a few selected stores, such as Bee Gees and Totalsports. The overall profile of the value group support these findings as they have low income levels and education, are represented in the lower LSM groups, and enjoy watching live sport as a part of a spectator-orientated lifestyle.

Belongers are below average purchasers of women's apparel at all the retail outlets, except for Smart Centre, Sales House, flea markets and hawkers. Members of this value group are not fashion-conscious and are price-sensitive. This is reflected in highest and above average indices obtained for patronising flea markets and hawkers. Belongers have low income and educational levels, represent lower LSM groups, are predominantly black and in the 55 plus age group. Their lifestyle is dominated by home-bound activities.

The Yesteryear value group showed a slightly above average index score for all retail outlets. High and above average scores are obtained for retailers catering for the middle classes, such as Ackermans, Hyperama, Jet, Milady's and Pep Stores. Price is also a factor as this group has low educational and income levels. Belongers tend to stay with the more "known" stores and therefore show little usage of flea markets and hawkers. Most of the above listed stores also offer credit and/or lay-buy facilities.

The ACNielsen Sociomonitor Value Groups have made a large contribution to studying the South African consumer. The results of the Sociomonitor can be used by marketers and retailers alike in determining their consumer profile, niche markets, media mix and product assortment. This instrument is also updated every four years, thus keeping abreast of trends and changes in the South African market. International retailers looking to expanding their markets in South Africa could also benefit, as it will provide them with an overview of the South African consumer.

TABLE 2.12

RETAIL OUTLETS USED FOR WOMEN'S LARGE CLOTHING ITEMS BOUGHT BY THE FIVE SOCIOMONITOR 1999/2000 VALUE GROUPS

Retail outlet	Yesteryears	Belongers	Enhancers	Achievers	Todayers
Ackermans	Jointly highest	Jointly lowest	Jointly Highest	Below av.	Jointly lowest
Bergers	Below av.	Below av.	Highest	Above av.	Lowest
Bee Gees	Below av.	Below av.	Lowest	Below av.	Highest
Clothing City	Lowest	Below av.	Highest	Above av.	Below av.
Edgars	Below av.	Lowest	Jointly highest	Jointly highest	Below av.
Foschini	Below av.	Lowest	Highest	Above av.	Below av.
Hyperama	Highest	Lowest	Above av.	Below av.	Below av.
Jet	Highest	Below av.	Above av.	Below av.	Lowest
John Orr's	Lowest	Below av.	Highest	Above av.	Above av.
Markhams	Lowest	Highest	Above av.	Below av.	Below av.
Milady's	Above av.	Below av.	Highest	Above av.	Lowest
Mr Price Factory Shop	Below av.	Below av.	Highest	Below av.	Lowest
OK Supermarket	Highest	Below av.	Jointly lowest	Jointly lowest	Jointly lowest
Queenspark	Jointly lowest	Jointly lowest	Above av.	Highest	Below av.
Pages	Below av.	Lowest	Above av.	Highest	Below av.
Pep Stores	Highest	Below av.	Below av.	Above av.	Lowest
Pick 'n Pay Hypermarket	Below av.	Below av.	Above av.	Highest	Lowest
Sales House	Below av.	Above av.	Highest	Above av.	Lowest
Scotts	Lowest	Below av.	Below av.	Highest	Below av.
Smart Centre	Below av.	Highest	Above av.	Lowest	Below av.
Topics	Above av.	Lowest	Above av.	Highest	Below av.
Totalsports	Jointly lowest	Jointly lowest	Jointly lowest	Above av.	Highest
Truworths	Below av.	Lowest	Highest	Above av.	Above av.
Woolworths	Lowest	Below av.	Highest	Above av.	Below av.
Flea Markets	Lowest	Above av.	Below av.	Above av.	Highest
Hawkers	Below av.	Highest	Above av.	Lowest	Below av.
Total for all outlets	Above av.	Below av.	Highest	Above av.	Lowest

(Compiled from ACNielsen, 1999)

2.8.2.2.2.3 The SAARF Living Standard Measures (SAARF LSM, 1999)

The need for a non-racial market segmentation tool for South African consumers gave rise to the Living Standard Measures (LSM) - a result of research by the South African Advertising Research Foundation of South Africa (SAARF LSM, 1999). This instrument makes use of twenty socio-economic indicators (for e.g. flush toilet in home, hot running water, television set, no insurance policy, hi-fi or music centre) to indicate the socio-economic status (living standard measure) of a group or an individual. The items are not pure determinants of socio-economic status, but are associated with various levels of socio-economic status. The items are not necessarily causal. The SAARF LSM is divided into eight segments, with LSM 1 the lowest status and LSM 8 the highest status. The groups contain roughly equal numbers. Various users of the LSM typologies requested a further segmentation of the upper LSM groups. This resulted in a splitting of the LSM 7 and 8 groups into LSM 7(L), LSM 7(H), LSM 8(L) and LSM 8(H) referring to low and high segments in each. The eight groups (LSM 1-8) are profiled according to demographics, residence, products, financial services, durables, shopping habits, lifestyle and media usage.

The profiles of the eight LSM groupings are reported extensively in the SAARF LSM (1999) publication. A summary table was compiled in order to give an overview of the segments. Refer to Table 2.13. This table should not be seen as a comprehensive reflection of the various LSM groups, but as an overview of the general characteristics of each group in order to provide the reader with a appreciation for the SAARF LSM instrument.

Marketers, media planners, product developers, retailers and manufacturers are using the LSM and Sociomonitor typologies extensively in South Africa. Media planners, especially, make use of the Living Standards Measure groups catered for by the various television stations in South Africa. SABC 3 with a predominant LSM 7 and 8 viewership, is increasingly including programme content targeted on the aspirational LSM 6 lifestyle group (Allemann, 2000b). Marketers and retailers alike are increasingly questioning shifts between the different LSM groups and the black aspirational market or middle class. Ives (1999a) stated that the black middle class is very similar to the traditional white middle class and that racial distinction becomes irrelevant when lifestyles, priorities and interests converge. The LSM 6 group is inflating as more blacks are moving up in the LSM groups.

TABLE 2.13

SUMMARY TABLE OF SAARF LSM 1999 GROUPS

	SAARF LSM 1 (8.8% of adult population)	SAARF LSM 2 (9.6% of adult population)
DEMOGRAPHICS	❖ Females, 16-24, very little schooling, rural ❖ Average household income R666 ❖ 41% unemployed; Nguni-speaking	❖ 50+; Low literacy ❖ R699 average household income ❖ 1/3 economically active; Nguni, Sotho
RESIDENCE	❖ 77% huts; home ownership high ❖ No electricity, piped water or a flush toilet	❖ 37% huts; squatter camp dwellers - 9% ❖ Little electricity; sparse water/flush toilet
PRODUCTS	❖ High: Flour, sorghum beer, batteries, loose tea ❖ Consumption low on most retail items	❖ High: sorghum beer, batteries, loose tea ❖ Low consumption of most retail items
FINANCIAL SERVICES	❖ None in formal sector ❖ Stokvel; few funeral policies	❖ 9% savings account; 3% ATM card ❖ Stokvel; funeral insurance 2%
DURABLES	❖ 75% radio in home; 3% access to TV or hi-fi	❖ 82% own radio; 1 in 5 TV in home
SHOPPING HABITS	❖ Bulk shoppers: supermarkets ❖ Low fresh products; least clothing and footwear	❖ Bulk shoppers: local supermarkets ❖ Below average consumption on all products
LIFESTYLE	❖ Little holiday; stay with friends and family ❖ Gardening and lottery	❖ Holiday in SA, stay with friends and family ❖ Gardening, pay phones, lottery, take-away food
MEDIA	❖ 40% radio reach each day ❖ Ukhozi FM; no print; outdoor billboards	❖ Radio 50% in any day, Ukhozi FM; TV low; billboards best penetration

TABLE 2.13 (continued)

SUMMARY TABLE OF SAARF LSM 1999 GROUPS

	SAARF LSM 3 (12.1% of adult population)	SAARF LSM 4 (14% of adult population)
DEMOGRAPHICS	❖ 82% rural; 25% single black females; 16-24 ❖ Low literacy; 33% unemployment ❖ R852 household income per month, Nguni	❖ 16-24; male; single ❖ Limited education; 31% unemployment ❖ Average household income R1033; Sotho,; Nguni and Sotho
RESIDENCE	❖ Traditional huts 27%; squatter hut 7% ❖ Electricity; piped water; flush toilet	❖ Conventional housing 70%; electricity and water ❖ Squatter huts 13%; hostels 29%
PRODUCTS	❖ LSM 1 and 2 products still high, plus bottled cooldrink, basic toiletries	❖ Half of products listed consumed on a par with average; highest for coffee creamers, soap
FINANCIAL SERVICES	❖ 16% savings account, ATM – 8% ❖ Formal and informal financial services low	❖ 20% transmission account; ATM 15% ❖ Funeral policy 5%; other financial products 1%
DURABLES	❖ Increased electrical appliances ❖ Ownership: radio 84%, TV 33%	❖ TV 50%; Radio 86%; refrigerator 25%; hifi 33%
SHOPPING HABITS	❖ 14% local supermarkets ❖ Children's clothing (20% buy 1 item in 3 months); female clothing (14%), men's (12%)	❖ Chain supermarkets: Spar, OK, Score, Super Value; meat from butchers; fresh produce from hawkers; clothing below average
LIFESTYLE	❖ 12% vacation in SA; stay with friends and family ❖ Gardening, pay phone, lottery tickets, take-away food, restaurants, exercise – all below national average	❖ Vacation still low ❖ As previous groups; pay phone up to 33% ❖ Other activities below average
MEDIA	❖ 25% watched TV (SABC 1and2) and listened radio (58%) the previous day; African language services ❖ Newspaper and magazines – 24% (below average)	❖ Radio 64%; TV 40% (SABC 1 and 2); penetration of print 33% ❖ Cinema 3% in past 12 weeks

TABLE 2.13 (continued)

SUMMARY TABLE OF SAARF LSM 1999 GROUPS

	SAARF LSM 5 (15.2% of adult population)	**SAARF LSM 6 (13.8% of adult population)**
DEMOGRAPHICS	❖ Urban 80%; 95% literate; 50% some high school; R1491 average household income; Unemployment 30%; ❖ Males, 25-34, Nguni, Sotho	❖ Urban; 25% matric; 3% technicon; unemployment 22%; R2328 average household income per month; ❖ Males; single; 25-34; racially mixed profile;
RESIDENCE	❖ 75% houses; electricity and water ❖ Home ownership 60%	❖ All electricity and water, 42% hot running water; houses 79%; flats 9%
PRODUCTS	❖ All on average; lowest flour and batteries	❖ Highest of all LSM's on: sweets, toothpaste, cough remedies, powdered milk
FINANCIAL SERVICES	❖ Saving 33%; ATM 24%; little other ❖ Funeral 6%; stokvel 5%	❖ Use formal sector; 60% saving; ATM 47%; medical aid 12%; life policy 10%; 14% acquire durables using credit facilities
DURABLES	❖ TV 72%; radio 88%; 52% hi-fi	❖ TV 90%; radio 91%; VCR 24%, small electrical appliances 24%; refrigerator 84%
SHOPPING HABITS	❖ Chain supermarkets: Checkers/Shoprite, Spar, Score ❖ Clothing and footwear still below average	❖ Bulk shopping 53%; non-bulk 26% ❖ Supermarkets ❖ Clothing and footwear above average
LIFESTYLE	❖ Holiday in SA; home decoration, pay phones, lottery, stokvel meetings	❖ Holiday in SA; stay with family and friends; home maintenance; part-time education; take-aways 47%, pay phones, lottery
MEDIA	❖ Radio 68%; TV 63% (SABC 1 and 2) ❖ African languages radio; ❖ Print on national average – 49%	❖ Radio 70% - African services; TV 77% (SABC 1 at 62%; SABC 2 at 37%) ❖ Print exposure - 66%

TABLE 2.13 (continued)

SUMMARY TABLE OF SAARF LSM 1999 GROUPS

	SAARF LSM 7 (13% of adult population)	**SAARF LSM 8 (13% of adult population)**
DEMOGRAPHICS	❖ Married young couples, new parents, golden nesters, 37% Afrikaans; English 26% ❖ Higher educational levels; unemployment 10%; R5071 average monthly income	❖ Married with/without children, Afrikaans/English; 35+; ❖ 37% tertiary education; unemployment 2%; R9274 average household income ❖ Professionals 16%, self-employed 18%
RESIDENCE	❖ 80% home owners, high mortage bonds, pools 6%	❖ All houses; 80% owner-occupiers; 44% bonds; 25% pool
PRODUCTS	❖ Most above average	❖ All high penetration; table wines, beer, liqueurs; health products, photographic film
FINANCIAL SERVICES	❖ Full range used; cheques 13%; credit cards 5%, petrol 2%	❖ All: cheque 53%, petrol 18%, credit cards 34%, ATM 75%, medical aid 70%, stock exchange investments
DURABLES	❖ All high; radio and TV 96%; computers 12%; 33% own or use motor vehicle	❖ Prosperity: computers 41%; microwave 90%, VCR 82%; 80% own or use motor vehicle
SHOPPING HABITS	❖ Supermarkets; hypermarkets ❖ Clothing and footwear above average	❖ Not bulk, supermarkets, hypermarkets ❖ Clothing and footwear highest
LIFESTYLE	❖ Travel more; home improvements; luxury goods purchased on average; health conscious activities; lottery; Internet 4%	❖ Travel – local and overseas; exercise ❖ Take away 70%, restaurants 64%, CD buying 45%, cellphones 36%, Internet 14%
MEDIA	❖ 80% TV; 75% radio, MNet 22%, ❖ 61% read newspaper daily, 56% magazines, cinema in past 12 weeks – 28%	❖ TV 83%; Radio 79%, SABC 3 37%, MNet 43%, Satellite, 5Fm, community station, Radiosondergrense, papers 72%, 43% cinema

This LSM 6 group will certainly move through to the LSM 7 and 8 groups (Allemann, 2000a). The aspirational market will be the force behind this shift (Sey, 1999). This aspirational market segment has been described by the SABC Adrenaline workshop (Alleman, 2000a) as:

- LSM 6 with 75% non-white, predominantly black and coloured;
- Urban and lives in or has lived in townships or informal settlements with at least one employed or working person in the household;
- Reasonably well educated, literate and has some disposable income;
- Individuals with increased access to opportunities and empowerment as they are from previously disadvantaged groups;
- Positive, optimistic, pro-education and self-development;
- Supports the African Renaissance, but is simultaneously modern, pro-technology with middle class and western ambitions and aspirations;
- Fairly materialistic;
- Style-, fashion- and brand-conscious;
- Enjoys soap operas;
- Demands quality and product choice and does not want products targeted at the black market.

Three lifestyle instruments and typologies have been discussed in the previous section. The table method of presentation was chosen in order to simplify the various typologies and to assist the reader in comparing the various lifestyle groups and typologies with each other. Emphasis was placed on the two South African measurement instruments most often used by marketers and retailers in South Africa, i.e. the Sociomonitor and LSM Groups. Due to the extremely high costs of subscribing to these instruments, only limited information could be accessed through personal contact with the different research houses.

Albeit that the VALS2, Sociomonitor and LSM typologies are general measurements of lifestyle, living standards measure and values, all attempt to understand consumers. This is beneficial for marketers and researchers alike. Many researchers use lifestyle-based research in order to profile consumers for a selected product or product class. This has lead to a large number of product-specific market segmentation tools and profiles of consumer market segments. A further benefit that cannot be negated is the increase in the knowledge base regarding the behaviour of consumers whether general or product-specific. Apparel researchers have also taken up the challenge to develop lifestyle typologies. A number of general lifestyle and apparel research applications will be discussed in the following section.

2.8.2.2.3 General lifestyle research applications

Lifestyle research has been extensively used in all fields of consumer behaviour. Some selected applications will be presented in this section.

Fournier, Antes and Beaumier (1992) presented an empirical application of behavioural segmentation on the collective pattern of household purchases across different product and service categories over time. This study resulted in nine different consumption lifestyle patterns with distinctive purchasing patterns and demographic profiles. Products and services were classified in terms of the needs and values they imply and secondly people were clustered on their purchase patterns in relation to those categories. One hundred and twenty two products and service expenditure categories were classified into eighteen consumption need/value groups by considering "... the predominant purchase motivation behind consumer acquisition of that particular product or service ..." (Fournier et al., 1992, p. 330). Clothing was classified under *appearance*, telephones under *belonging* and newspapers under *knowledge*. Refer to Appendix 3 for a complete description of the consumption need or value categories. Nine consumption lifestyles resulted that were labelled to reflect the central theme that guides the value-related spending pattern. They were labelled Functionalists, Nurturers, Aspirers, Experientials, Succeeders, Moral Minority, Golden Years, Sustainers, and the Subsisters.

Strong evidence was found that lifecycle, income and social class have a definite impact on consumer behaviour and value-related consumption patterns. These results can be seen as support for the VALS2 typology. If a comparison is done between the nine consumption lifestyles and the VALS2 typology, similarities are found. Table 2.14 provides a comparison. Two of the nine consumption lifestyles, i.e. the Moral Minority and the Nurturers profile, could not be confidently compared to the VALS2 segments.

TABLE 2.14

A COMPARISON BETWEEN VALS2 SEGMENTS AND THE NINE CONSUMPTION LIFESTYLES

VALS2 SEGMENTS	NINE CONSUMPTION LIFESTYLES
Actualizers	Succeeders
Fulfilleds	The Golden Years
Believers	
Achievers	Aspirers
Strivers	
Experiencers	Experientials
Makers	Functionalists
Strugglers	Sustainers, Subsisters

Recommendations were made regarding the classification of products and services according to value themes as some products could have dominant and secondary value themes for consumers (Fournier et al., 1992).

Lifestyle and lifestyle characteristics are often linked to store attributes. Huddelston et al., (1990) examined the relationship between importance of store attributes and lifestyle characteristics. The study identified retail store attributes that were of importance to mature female consumers when selecting a retail store. A further aim was to determine the relationship between lifestyle characteristics and store attributes. Five lifestyle components were reported, i.e. Positive thinker, Shopper, Socially Active, Credit Prone and Education-Oriented. Results indicated that lifestyle characteristics were related to importance placed on retail attributes. Thorpe and Avery (1983-84) used demographic and psychographic variables to profile customers and non-customers of a retail speciality store. This approach was applied to define the market segment for the store and to identify the combination of variables that would discriminate between customers and non-customers. Results indicated that twenty-four demographic and psychographic variables could be used as predictor variables, for example, age, social club activity, use of store charge cards, shopping behaviour, customer type and perceptions of store image. The results supported more recent assumptions that psychographic and lifestyle characteristics are more important in segmenting markets than demographics alone.

The above-mentioned studies did not use the lifestyle measurements in conjunction with one product application, but were general in nature. The following section deals with lifestyle research and the application thereof in apparel-related research.

2.8.2.2.4 Lifestyle and apparel research applications

Cassill (1986) studied the influence of the employment orientation of female consumers on lifestyle and evaluative criteria of apparel. Employment orientation was classified into four distinct groups, i.e. Just-a-job working women, Career-oriented working women, Plan-to-work housewives and Stay-at-home housewives (refer to section 2.8.2.1.4). Employment orientation significantly influenced lifestyle and evaluative criteria for apparel. Lifestyle and evaluative criteria for social apparel showed significant relationships, indicating that consumers will choose apparel products to fit their lifestyle. The four employment orientation groups also differed with regards to lifestyle and evaluative criteria employed to select social apparel. This study affirmed that lifestyle impacts on evaluative criteria used for apparel selection. Marketers should take cognisance of the employment orientation of their target markets as it could impact on consumer behaviour. Cassill and Drake (1987b) also investigated the relationship between lifestyle (7 factors) and evaluative criteria for social and employment apparel (4 factors). The results of this study indicated nineteen significant relationships between lifestyle and evaluative criteria. When the lifestyle included employment, the evaluative criteria for apparel is different in configuration from that for clothing in a social setting. The usage situation of the apparel product therefore has a modifying influence. Results also confirmed the linkage in the Engel, Kollat and Blackwell model (Cassill & Drake, 1987b) that lifestyle and evaluative criteria are linked and that evaluative criteria would reflect the consumer's lifestyle.

Shim and Drake (1990) investigated the influence of lifestyle and evaluative criteria for apparel on information search among non-employed female consumers. Meaningful relationships were found between lifestyle, evaluative criteria and information search patterns for social apparel by non-employed women. Searcher profiles were developed to describe the four consumer information search patterns in terms of their lifestyle and evaluative criteria. Results further indicated that "... lifestyle factors explained information search patterns better than evaluative criteria and ... that lifestyle dimensions provide more in-depth information than any other variables in forming profiles of women who utilised certain information sources ..." (Shim & Drake, 1990, p. 394).

Jasper and Lan (1992) investigated lifestyle as a factor influencing apparel catalogue patronage. Lifestyle characteristics according to leisure activities, optimism and conservative lifestyle, based on research by Cassill and Drake (1987b) were included. Results indicated that the lifestyle factors included in this particular study did not contribute to explaining catalogue-shopping behaviour. It did however show that frequent catalogue shoppers were older and better educated than other shoppers. They were inactive and perceived convenience as an important factor when shopping from a catalogue.

Lifestyle as a concept is gaining popularity and importance in advertising campaigns, marketing initiatives, brand development and market segmentation approaches applied for large apparel brands (Michman, 1991). Diesel developed the "Lifestyles on Top of the World" campaign where they present apparel catalogues in the form of a Lifestyle Magazine supplement. This particular campaign focussed on Africa being showcased with images of jet set lifestyles and wealth (Tsui, 2001). Timberland, a leading brand name for hiking boots, is also expanding their product range into a global lifestyle brand. The total redevelopment of the Timberland brand was motivated by "... consumers are looking for us to be their brand of choice for outdoor lifestyle ..." (Hill, 2000). Weldon (2000) investigated the segmentation of swimwear by lifestyle groups as each have criteria needs that have to be satisfied. Modern technology, such as 3D body scanning was implemented to satisfy the unique needs of the different lifestyle groups.

Fashion, culture and lifestyle determinants have a mediating role in developing social identification (Dodd, Clarke, Baron & Houston, 2000). These researchers investigated the underlying theories of identity and meaning by means of two approaches, namely the social comparison theory and the social identity theory. The social comparison theory states that individuals compare themselves with groups and these groups exert social pressure to conform to the expectations of the majority group. Based on social comparisons, groups may be considered as the primary influences of individual behaviour. The second theory, namely the social identity theory, focuses on self-categorisation. The individual is seen as the influencer of group behaviour as he/she associates him-/herself mentally with the norms and attributes that they perceive as characteristic of the specific group. The role of culture cannot be ignored as it provides the motivation for group formation and develop the context and meaning of clothing communication. Culture is dynamic, with the result that lifestyles, as patterns of behaviour, will also change together with cultural changes. The study confirmed the dynamic nature of apparel buying behaviour. The researchers urge academics to study pre-purchase (see Cassill & Drake, 1987b; Shim & Drake, 1990), point-of-sale (see Jasper & Lan, 1992) and post-purchase behaviour of consumers in their approach to empirical work in order to gain insight into all the stages of complex apparel buying behaviour.

The role of culture cannot be ignored in consumer behaviour studies (Dodd et al., 2000). Many studies of lifestyle are cultural-specific. Booher (1996) investigated the influence of the Korean lifestyle on the search, pre-purchase alternative evaluation and purchase of jeans by Korean college students and developed a marketing strategy for the highly competitive Korean jeans market. The results indicated that four lifestyle groups existed in the Korean jeans market, namely the Price-Conscious, Fashion-Conscious, Self-Confident and Information Seeker. These lifestyles influenced all stages of the consumer buying process. Van Aardt, Visser, Du Preez and Kleinhans (2001) investigated the role of lifestyle and the perception of store image of South African black female consumers in clothing store choice. Results indicated clear differences in lifestyle and store image attributes considered important in the choice of store.

This section thus far has looked at the consumer-dominated variables impacting on female apparel shopping behaviour. Demographics and lifestyles as variables have been discussed. The discussion of the last variable in the micro perspective model, namely sub-culture will follow in the next section. As previously mentioned, apparel-related consumer behaviour cannot be studied without reflecting on the impact of culture and sub-culture.

2.8.2.3 CULTURE

This section will introduce the concept of culture and the dynamic nature of it and will focus on the influence of culture on consumer behaviour. The cultural perspective toward the study of apparel will be presented. Cultural consciousness and the influence thereof on consumer behaviour, will be discussed.

2.8.2.3.1 Introduction

Any study of consumer behaviour will have to take cultural influences into consideration. Culture influences most behaviour, and consumer behaviour impacts on marketers and retailers alike. Culture can be defined as "... the sum total of a way of life, including such things as expected behavior, beliefs, values, language, and living practices shared by members of a society; it is the pattern of values, traits, or behaviors shared by the people within a region ..." (Herbig, 1998, p. 11). Loudon and Della Bitta (1993, p. 84) support the fact that it is extremely difficult to define culture in terms of one definition only, and proposed the following broad definition of culture: "That complex whole that includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society. The distinctive way of life of a group of people, their complete design for living." Hofstede (1991) defines culture as a fundamental human process which is a collective phenomenon, because it is at least partly shared with people in the same social environment. He furthers refer to culture as the "... collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another ..." (Hofstede, 1991, p. 5).

Culture thus functions as a guideline for establishing modes of conduct that will guide behaviour toward accepted standards of performance standards. These learned "rules" will guide individual behaviour so that they reflect the norms of the society and give a sense of identity to the individual. Culture includes both abstract concepts, such as values, beliefs, conventions and customs, as well as objects, such as clothing, vehicles, food and art that are generally accepted by society. Four dimensions of culture appear to account for much of the variation in cultures (Hofstede, 1991; Solomon, 1999). Hofstede (1991) referred to dimensions of culture as the aspects of cultures that can be measured relative to other cultures.

- **Power distance**: The way in which interpersonal relationships are formed when differences in power are perceived. It can range from small to large. Japanese culture, for example, has more vertical and strict relationships (large power distance) whereas the United States, for example, encourage equality and informality (small power distance).

- **Uncertainty avoidance**: The degree to which people feel threatened by ambiguous situations and have beliefs and institutions that help them to avoid uncertainty, for example, religion. It can range from weak to strong.
- **Masculinity versus femininity**: How clearly are the sex roles delineated? Certain cultures hold specific roles for men and women that encompass tasks and behaviour associated with the role, for example, who does the shopping in the household unit. Cultures with a more traditional orientation will hold more clearly defined roles whereas the ascribed roles are not as clear in modern cultures
- **Individualism versus collectivism**: Consumers in an individualist culture ascribe more importance to personal goals and achievement whereas more collectivist cultures emphasise the subordination of personal goals and achievement to that of the group. The underlying values of each culture will differ and will impact on consumer behaviour as a whole. This will be discussed in more detail in a subsequent section.

These four dimensions together form a four-dimensional grid and each country could be characterised by a score on each of these four dimensions. It is important to note that a country's score is based on trends that occur in combination and not on individual cases. Another fifth dimension of national cultures was identified by Bond (in Hofstede, 1991), i.e. long-term orientation versus short-term orientation.

Marketers' interest in culture is highlighted when embarking on cross-cultural endeavours. Many companies find the process of enculturation extremely difficult to understand and implement. The misunderstanding of cultural perceptions, values and the impact thereof on consumer behaviour has often led to inappropriate marketing strategies resulting in consumer needs not being met (Visser & Du Preez, 1998). Addressing the potential market from a cultural point of view prior to marketing to the foreign country separates successful firms from unsuccessful firms. Specific issues that need attention in cross-cultural marketing include: language and meaning, non-verbal communications, religion, time orientation, space, colour, numbers, manners and customs, status consciousness, differences in perceived benefits of products, criteria for product evaluation, economic and social conditions, differences in consumption patterns, differences in market segmentation opportunities and differences in marketing research possibilities. The ability of advertisers and marketers to address the needs of consumers will, to a large extent, be influenced by the willingness of stakeholders to acculturate and to present consumers with product options that fulfil their needs (Larson, 1992; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000)

South African cultural values have changed over the last ten years. South Africa could be classified as a developing country, which reflects a combination of first world technology and ideas as well as Third World roots and reality (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 1999). Various changes are taking place, such as a shift toward religion, a decline in hierarchical authority and Protestant work ethic, and an increase in the need for self-expression, tolerance, acceptance and political reform. A shift among black consumers toward a more ambitious approach to life, moving away from the purely traditional modes of behaviour and conservatism is evident. An increase is noted in motivation toward self-improvement, need for education and being self-motivated. These social changes impact on consumer behaviour as products convey meaning. Especially items such as apparel and luxury goods convey to others that the individual is successful, has social status and is successful in his/her career (Kaiser, 1990; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000; Smit & Trollip, 1998).

Many black South Africans want the best of two worlds according to Du Plessis and Rousseau (1999). This means they want to live partially according to the more Eurocentric/Western/individualistic culture, while at the same time having the freedom to engage in the more traditional Afrocentric/collectivistic cultures and languages. This scenario is conducive to a very slow development of a single South African culture. The difference in underlying values and orientations between eurocentric/individualistic cultures and afrocentric/collectivistic cultures, serves as a further problem (individualism and collectivism will be discussed in more detail in section 2.2.8.3.5). The diversity of the South African people can, however, contribute to the development of shared cultural values such as tolerance, understanding, non-racialism and social acceptance.

Culture is the framework within which behaviour, also consumer behaviour regarding apparel, takes place (Smit & Trollip, 1998; Visser & Du Preez, 1998). Thus, the study of culture and the dynamic nature of it, is warranted.

2.8.2.3.2 Characteristics and the dynamic nature of culture

In order to understand the wide influence of culture on consumer behaviour fully the characteristics and dynamic nature of culture will be highlighted in the following section. These characteristics were compiled from numerous sources (Assael, 1992; Costa & Bamossy, 1995; Du Plessis & Rousseau, 1999; Engel et al., 1995; Herbig, 1998; Kaiser, 1990; Locke, 1992; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993; Mowen & Minor, 1998; Peter & Olson, 1990; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000; Solomon, 1999; Trollip, 1992a; Trollip, 1992b; Trollip, 1994).

Culture is functional and prescriptive. Culture provides social structure and guidelines for behaviour that is socially acceptable. It is therefore value-driven, giving guidelines as to what is acceptable behaviour and what is not. Norms are the society's guidelines that specify which behaviour is appropriate or not appropriate in given situations to such an extent that sanctions can be implemented if individuals do not conform.

Culture satisfies needs. Culture exists to satisfy the needs of people within a society. Culture will discard traits not in accordance with the needs of the society and gain new traits to reflect new needs. The core values remain.

Culture is a natural influence on behaviour. Cultural shock occurs when an individual is exposed to other cultures, as our own culture is only appreciated once we are removed from it. The influence of culture is natural and not something to which consumers pay a lot of attention.

Culture is invented. Loudon and Della Bitta (1993) proposed that culture does not simply exist, but is invented by individuals through three interdependent systems, i.e. an ideological system (including ideas, beliefs, values), an technological system (skills, crafts, arts) and an organisational system (family system, social class). These systems will enable an individual to portray behaviour that is co-ordinated with the actions of others.

Culture is learned. Learning takes place through formal, informal and technical learning. Culture is also acquired through language, symbols and ritual. Advertising often makes use of repetition and providing a model of behaviour to imitate, in order to enhance informal cultural learning. *Enculturation* refers to the learning of one's own culture and *acculturation* is the learning of a foreign culture. Both are important within the study of consumer behaviour. In South Africa, the acculturation process is noticeable, as communities that have been separated by apartheid laws in the past, now have the opportunity to learn each other's culture and lifestyle. Marketers are also forced to partake in this process in order for their marketing strategy to meet the needs of specific sub-cultures. In the past, many South African marketing endeavours aimed at the African/black sub-cultural group failed, due to inadequate knowledge regarding the cultural values of this particular group. White individuals in advertising positions were expected to know the African culture, but they lacked the insight to interpret research results attained from the black market. In contrast to this situation, the emerging trend of "black guruism" is of concern. This situation occurs when one black executive feels qualified enough to speak on behalf of the entire black sub-cultural group in South Africa (Penstone, 1998, p. 47). Acculturation in South Africa is partially hampered by eleven official languages. As language and symbols are vehicles for learning culture, the building of one national culture is a slow process.

Culture is shared. For a custom, belief or value to be considered a cultural characteristic, it must be shared by a significant proportion of a society. The family structure, educational institutions, religious institutions and mass media support the sharing of culture. The role of mass media, is frequently overlooked, but given the extensive exposure of society members to mass media the influence on cultural trends, change and values cannot be negated. Many individuals look toward mass media to give guidelines to acceptable (consumer) behaviour within their culture and social class. The correct way to dress and what is deemed fashionable are thus influenced.

Culture is long-term. Culture evolves through years of accumulated experiences and knowledge. It is passed on through generations and does not change rapidly, especially not core values. As cultural values are mostly enduring, marketing strategies often reflect rather than change cultural values.

Culture is dynamic. Culture is not static and evolves constantly as society changes. New situations, sources of knowledge, media exposure, needs and wants, new technologies, resource shifts and customs are all factors impacting on cultural changes.

As previously discussed, the changing role of women is impacting on many cultures around the world. The impact filters through to decision-making, purchase motives and behaviour, media usage, marketing appeals and advertising copy. In South Africa, new values such as democracy, freedom, entitlement and assertiveness have emerged, impacting on behaviour and consumer behaviour.

Cultures are similar but different. All cultures share similarities such as a language, cooking, dancing, education, family gestures, housing, etc. There is, however, great variation between cultures regarding the nature of these cultural elements.

Culture with all the above characteristics will influence consumer behaviour on numerous levels, as individuals function and display certain behaviour within a cultural context. The following section deals with the interface between culture and consumer behaviour and will focus on a selection of cultural aspects and how they impact on consumer behaviour.

2.8.2.3.3 Culture and consumption behaviour

Consumption is therefore rooted in culture and the expression of it. Cultural differences will influence consumption activities (Chung, 1998; Paulin, 1998a; Schwenk, 1994). Clothing consumption, for example, varies with economic and cultural factors. This could be because the cultural meaning attached to apparel, as well as the social structure of a specific society, influences patterns of apparel consumption (Smit & Trollip, 1998). Kawabata and Rabolt (1999) reported differences in the meaning of fashion between United States and Japanese students. Engel et al. (1995) proposed three major effects of culture on meaning of goods and services; individual decision-making and the structure of consumption. Consumers buy products to obtain function, form and meaning. Culture therefore explains consumption behaviour and determines the appropriateness of products provided by marketers. Individual decision-making differs among cultures and culture plays a major role in determining the process of consumer decision-making. Lastly, the structure of consumption will be influenced by the social structure of the culture. The underlying value systems of societies will result in different consumption structures (Chung, 1998; Damhorst, Miller & Michelman, 1999; Engel et al., 1995).

Firat (1995) stated that modern cultures are consuming cultures. In our societies, consumers have increasingly become consumed in the act of consumption. The purpose of most of the postmodern generation is to consume. It is in this consuming world that marketers attempt to influence positively consumption of their brand names that represent certain product self-images. Shaw and Clarke (1998) support this and stated that post-modern theory suggests that individuals consume the symbolic meaning of products, rather than just the product itself. Consumption is both symbolic and material and is therefore inextricably linked to culture.

Usenier (1996) stated that there are three essential ways in which an individual's culture influences consumer behaviour. Firstly, there is a hierarchy of needs which has an impact on the demand of product categories. Secondly, culture-based values, such as individualism and collectivist orientations, exist which shape buying decisions and purchasing behaviour. Thirdly, there are certain institutions that influence consumer behaviour, such as legislation, habits and social conventions.

With regards to the hierarchy of needs, reference can also be made to Maslow's seminal research. The order of the needs ranges from the most basic, i.e. physiological needs to the highest order, i.e. self-actualisation (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). This hierarchy has been widely criticised. Criticisms include inter alia the following: the fact that the model is culture and time-bound; the assumption of the model, namely that needs must be satisfied in order to move up to higher order needs does not always apply cross-culturally (Mowen & Minor, 1998; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000; Usenier, 1996). In less developed countries, the basic needs could be predominant, but it this not always the case. Some cultures, for example, Hindu, will encourage self-actualisation which does not necessarily imply material consumption. In Third World countries individuals could deprive themselves of food in order to buy household goods or apparel items. Three distinct guidelines apply when studying Maslow's hierarchy in the culture/ vs. onsumer behaviour context. Firstly, rank ordering of the needs vary across cultures. Secondly, needs themselves are relatively consistent across cultures, and thirdly, the link between satisfaction at different need levels and the degree of emphasis on specific needs, are culturally bound (Usenier, 1996). Culture will therefore impact on the overall priorities that a consumer attaches to different products and services (Markus, 1991; Solomon, 1999).

A large proportion of marketing literature focuses on the individual and individual decision-making. Venkatesh (1995) supported this by stating that individuals are products of their culture and social groupings and are therefore conditioned by their sociocultural environment to act in a certain way. He stressed that individual behaviour is important, but proposed that marketers and researchers should be more focussed on the summed effect of individual behaviour or group behaviour (ethnoconsumerism). Ethnoconsumerism is the study of consumption from the point of view of the social group or cultural group that is the subject of the study. Behaviour on the basis of the cultural realities of that group is examined (Venkatesh, 1995).

Although the family as a decision-making unit has been given much exposure, Usunier (1996) is of the opinion that an organic perception of the family as a single decision-making unit is not fully understood. In certain cultures, such as Asian and Chinese cultures, individuals must take all family members into account when making buying decisions. Expenditure of American teenagers cannot, for example, be compared to those of Singapore, as Singagore teenagers are expected to contribute to the family and to act according to parental wishes; as a result purchases of, for example, apparel will be influenced. In South Africa this is also true, as the extended family concept and ubuntu of the black sub-cultural group have survived pure individualistic Western influences. Ubuntu can be described as: "A person is a person through other human beings" or "I am because you are; you are because we are" (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 1999, p. 332). Individualism and collectivism will be discussed in more detail (refer to section 2.8.2.3.5).

Institutions, legislation and social conventions, as the third large cultural influence, also impact on consumer behaviour and the marketing environment. Trade unions can control shopping hours, legislation can control advertising and infrastructure can influence distribution. Environmental issues can also be a factor (Newell & Green, 1997). Cultural conventions, such as apparel and dress, convey messages with different meanings.

As previously stated, cultural differences can impact on numerous aspects of consumer behaviour and cannot be restricted to the three broad categories discussed in the paragraphs above. In order to gain a more comprehensive understanding of this phenomenon, Table 2.15 provides an overview of selected aspects of consumer behaviour and the possible impact of cultural differences on it (Antonides & Van Raaij, 1998; Usenier, 1996; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000).

TABLE 2.15

THE POSSIBLE IMPACT OF CULTURAL DIFFERENCES ON SELECTED ASPECTS OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

ASPECT OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR	IMPACT OF CULTURAL DIFFERENCES: VALUES/ISSUES TO BE ADDRESSED
Age	Influence of age on buying decisions. Distribution of purchasing power. Valuation of younger/older people in society.
Perception	Perception of shapes, colours, symbolism. Perceived risk.
Communication	Interpretation of non-verbal communication; use of humor, sexual undertones, fear appeals in advertising; communication process, language, literacy.
Motivation	Motivation to own, to buy, to spend, to consume, to share, to give, to show.
Learning and memory	Education system, literacy/numeracy, consumer socialisation through learning, familiarity with brand names and product classes, familiarity with product usage situations.
Self-concept	Relating to group or individual; individualism see individual as basic resource; collectivism see group as basic resource; influence on purchase behaviour, loyalty, novelty.
Group influences	Orientation toward Individualism/collectivism. How does this orientation impact on attitudes and buying behaviour? Does consumer behaviour focus on belonging to the group or self-actualisation needs by the individual?
Social class	Importance in society, division between classes, impact on aspirational behaviour, demonstration of social class through consumption, retailers catering for certain social classes, status of consumer goods.
Sex roles	Changes in role orientation in culture, impact on division of consumption roles and decision-making styles.

Attitude change	Resistance to change, past-orientation, open toward changes, resistance to change particularly if it could oppose local values and behaviour.
Decision-making	Strategies, roles, influence of family and children, information search, evaluation of alternatives.
Purchase	Loyalty, purchasing environment, retailing, legal marketing environment, in-store influences, influence of salespersons on clients, yielding, evaluative criteria, importance of evaluative criteria.
Post-purchace	Satisfaction/dissatisfaction behaviour, consumerism.

2.8.2.3.4 The impact of cultural differences on selected aspects of consumer behaviour

The principle aim of this section is to demonstrate the ever-present and all-encompassing influence of culture on various aspects of consumer behaviour, and to stress the importance of the study of culture by all academia and students that embark on research within multi-cultural societies.

2.8.2.3.4.1 Culture and age

Age effects the process of cultural change (Visser & Du Preez, 1998). Antonides and Van Raaij (1998) identified two processes that effect cultural change. The first is the cohort effect, which occurs if the acceptance of new values and behaviours begin at a young age and are retained over years. The cohort effect therefore implies that individuals born, for example, during 1960-1965 will hold similar values and that these values will be held by a majority of the population if that particular cohort is in the majority. The second effect, namely the age effect, has a more direct impact on consumer behaviour. Certain values and behaviours are associated with a particular age group, for example, teenagers wearing baggy shorts. This consumer behaviour is age-bound as it will change once the individual reaches adulthood (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). These two effects can also take place simultaneously and can affect consumer behaviour on various levels, such as the importance of retail store attributes and opinion leadership. Chowdhary (1999) reported that elderly consumers were less prone to opinion leadership with regard to apparel shopping behaviour. Mature consumers enjoy the greater spending power; therefore it is imperative that apparel retail and manufacturing businesses will increasingly focus on the needs of these consumers in order to sustain continued growth. The mature apparel consumer market can and should be segmented as significant differences between clothing purchase behaviours and demographic variables exist (Chae, 2001; Visser & Du Preez, 1998). Consumer expenditure and purchasing power will also be affected by age. In South Africa, the black consumer group is younger than the greying white consumer group. This will have an effect on future expenditure patterns.

2.8.2.3.4.2 Culture and consumption expenditure patterns

Several researchers have studied culture, ethnicity and expenditure patterns. Many suggest differences in the way selected racial and ethnic groups manage money as well as in the money management behaviours of consumers with limited incomes. Differences between the intensity of ethnic affiliation and consumption patterns, consumer types, attitudes toward advertising, brand loyalty, brand prestige and ethnic pride as well as shopping behaviour are also suggested (Bowen, Lago & Furry, 1997; Deshpande, Hoyer & Donthu, 1986; Donthu & Cherian, 1992; Kim, Laroche & Joy, 1990; Li & Xiao, 1998; Oswald, 1999; Zmud, 1992). Most societies are pluralistic with segmented social groups, such as ethnic groups. South Africa, as a multi-cultural society, has many different ethnic groups with varied symbols, such as food and apparel. The study of consumption expenditure enables researchers to make a better assessment of the level and quality of consumption in own and other cultures and gives a better understanding of consumption behaviour (Chung, 1998). Ethnicity may affect any dimension of lifestyle, including the manner in which household expenditure is managed (Wagner & Soberon-Ferrer, 1990). Fan (1998) grouped these studies into two types of research, i.e. studies interested in testing the theory of cultural assimilation using consumption and expenditure data and secondly, studies exploring cultural differences among different ethnic groups in terms of general expenditure patterns.

A large amount of research in America concerns the spending patterns of Hispanic consumers as this is a growing market and projections indicate that this market segment will continue to grow (Pitts, 1990). Fan (1994, 1997) reported that Asian American households spend significantly less of their budget on apparel than black and Hispanic households. This could also possibly be attributed to Hispanic and black consumers viewing apparel as status goods and therefore spending a higher proportion of their household income on products improving their self-esteem. These results are supported by Pitts (1990), in that the percentage expenditure for apparel for both black non-Hispanics and Hispanics were equal at 6% of total expenditure. This was one percentage point higher than for white-non-Hispanics. Further support for these trends are found by Fan and Zuiker (1998) who indicated that Hispanic households allocated significantly more of their budget to apparel, food at home and shelter and significantly less toward food away from home, entertainment, education, health care and tabacco than non-Hispanic white American households. Spending patterns of Hispanics differ from whites and blacks, even after controlling for income, family size and age. Hispanics spend approximately 23% less on apparel than non-Hispanic households (Paulin, 1998b; Zuiker & Bae, 1993).

Spending patterns in Canada differed significantly among different ethnic groups (Abdel-Ghany & Sharpe, 1997). With regards to apparel as expenditure category, Asians spend more than Canadian whites. Wagner and Soberon-Ferrer (1990) supported previous research findings, in that apparel expenditure by blacks was higher than for non-blacks, whites or European American whites. It was further argued that values such as affect, communalism and self-expression are related to clothing consumption, but are also evident in the African heritage. Clothing was considered a status symbol that could be used to compensate for discrimination regarding access to other status symbols such as housing. South Africa could show similar trends. Goldsmith, Moore and Beaudoin (1999) investigated the heavy user of apparel. Demographic variables had a weak relationship with usage, except for race. Blacks and Hispanics consistently spend more on apparel than whites. This study again supports previous findings. The heavy users were also likely to be fashion innovators, had higher fashion media exposure and shopped more for clothes.

Harps-Logan (1997) stated that apparel is a non-durable commodity and that it would be purchased regardless of the economy. Research regarding black and white women apparel buying practices has been on the increase as evidence shows a growing black middle class with increased spending power, within the United States. Harps-Logan cited results of various research projects undertaken from 1970 to 1987 in the United States, where black and white buying patterns were compared. Some of the results included:

- ❖ Blacks spend more money on apparel in proportion to their incomes than they spend on other goods;
- ❖ Blacks differed from whites with regard to purchasing patterns, brand choice, and media usage;
- ❖ Whites had more knowledge with regard to fibre content of apparel items;
- ❖ Blacks paid more for apparel, owned more garments and purchased more used apparel than whites;
- ❖ Blacks were more fashion-conscious and shopped more often than whites;
- ❖ Blacks were more impulsive, easier influenced by sales people and more impressed by window displays than whites.

Harps-Logan (1997) also noted that significant differences between white and black American females were found with regard to the method of apparel acquisition, the percentage of personal items purchased at primary stores, and buying patterns for a dress costing more than $50. Both white and black respondents felt that style was the most important factor to consider when selecting apparel. No significant differences were found regarding the influence of displays and sales on shopping behaviour, frequency of shopping for apparel in stores and buying patterns for dresses less than $50. More black women tended to shop for apparel items at sales than white women (Harps-Logan, 1997).

The question can be asked to what extent these research results are still applicable, and if, at all, whether they are applicable to the white and black/African sub-cultural race and ethnic groups of South Africa? Comparative studies on apparel consumption behaviour, with race as sub-cultural variable, are scant in South Africa, however, Viljoen (1998, p. 11) reported that whites (3%), coloureds (5%) and Asians (5%) spend a smaller amount of their income on apparel and footwear than blacks (9.8%). The numbers in brackets refer to the approximate percentage of income spent on apparel and footwear. Apparel expenditure per capita has decreased over the last few years. In 1975 the average household expenditure on apparel and footwear was 4,6% and in 1990 it was 3,89% of total consumer expenditure (Viljoen, 1998, p. 3). Viljoen (1997) stated that no definition of clothing expenditure is given by the South African survey of household expenditure and that there are inconsistencies and contradictions in various descriptions of clothing expenditure. These limitations should be addressed to facilitate future scientific research. The cited American studies do, however, contribute to the understanding of cultural and ethnic differences in purchase patters. Marketers, advertisers and retailers need to understand that cultural differences exist and that South African consumers cannot be seen as one homogeneous market.

2.8.2.3.4.3 Culture and motivation

Consumers' underlying motivation to own, buy, spend, consume, show, share and give will guide consumer behaviour (Usunier, 1996). The strength of these motivations of the individual consumer will have an effect on consumer involvement. Involvement is a level of perceived personal importance and/or interest evoked by a stimulus within a specific situation (Engel et al., 1995). Kapferer and Laurent (1986) add to this definition by pointing out that involvement is an unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest. It is evoked by a particular stimulus or situation and has drive properties. The consequences are decision-making, types of searching and information-processing. Involvement is considered as a multi-faceted construct consisting of interest, pleasure, sign, risk importance and risk probability. Apparel as product category is a very high involvement product, especially due to the high pleasure and sign value (dress scored the highest sign value of 20 product categories) (Kapferer & Laurent, 1986, p. 49). Research indicating apparel as a high involvement product, is thus supported.

Involvement becomes activated when the intrinsic personal characteristics of the consumer are confronted by appropriate marketing stimuli within a given situation and can range from low to high. Consumers involvement would therefore moderate consumers' reactions toward marketing and advertising stimuli considerably, advertising copy, format, repetition, message and media vehicles chosen. These levels of involvement are seen to be similar across cultures, meaning that all consumers display levels of involvement, but the specific products and expression of involvement will vary (Engel et al., 1995; Usenier, 1996). In West Germany, Thailand and the United States, the involvement construct appeared to be consistent and higher levels of involvement lead to greater use of affective and cognitive decision-making strategies (McCarthy, 1989). Chinese consumers are low involvement consumers when purchasing products for private consumption, but when products are bought for their social symbolic value, high involvement is evident (Yang in Usenier, 1996).

2.8.2.3.4.4 Culture and decision-making

Decision-making within cultures can vary due to a variety of conditions such as different family decision-making styles, the influence of children on purchases, compulsive buying, decision-making rules and cognitive styles. Most models in consumer behaviour propose a basic process of problem recognition, information search (internally and externally), evaluation of alternatives and choice (Engel et al., 1995, Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). This process is, however, not always followed in the exact manner by various cultural groups. Differences in emphasis, order and process could occur. Shin and Dickerson (1999) reported that Korean men use non-personal references more often than personal references when making decisions regarding their clothing purchases. High-socially proximal groups, such as a wife or girlfriend, together with low social proximity groups, such as sales representatives, were more used when making clothing purchase decisions. Korean men hardly ever made use of celebrities and public figures as forms of reference, when buying apparel. On-site references such as in-store displays and window displays were used more than broadcast or print media; they were in fact used more than any other form of reference.

Decision-making styles refer to the mental orientation characterising a consumer's approach to making consumer choices. Young, adult consumers in China, Korea and the United States all showed similar dimensions for consumer decision-making, i.e. brand consciousness, quality consciousness, price consciousness, time consciousness and information utilisation. The Chinese sample did not show the novelty-fashion consciousness, impulsiveness and habitual-brand-loyal dimensions (Fan & Xiao, 1998).

Cultural differences could also affect the importance of evaluative criteria used for apparel purchases. Differences existed between Korean and United States women (Lee & Burns, 1993). In a study by Kawabata and Rabolt (1999) fit and style/design were ranked the most important evaluative criteria by both United States and Japanese university students. The United States students, however, gave higher scores to fit, quality, fashion and brand/designer name than their Japanese counterparts. The Japanese students stated that economical considerations, colour and style/design were important. Interest in clothing was equal between the two cultural groups, but the meaning of fashion and interest in fashion, differed. The research results reported by Shin and Dickerson (1999) were to some extent confirmed in that Japanese students, similarly to Korean men, also preferred to make use of retail-orientated (in-store) sources for information, rather than friends, television and fashion magazines predominantly used by the United States sample.

Kang and Kim (1998) examined the decision-making patterns for purchasing social clothes of three Asian American consumer groups, i.e. Chinese, Japanese and Korean. The three groups displayed distinct reference group influence, store attribute importance and media influence, depending on the level of acculturation. Once again marketers and advertisers were cautioned not to see Asian Americans as one homogeneous group and that the level of acculturation is an important factor when developing marketing strategy.

2.8.2.3.4.5 Culture and changes in role orientation

The changes that have taken place in sex role orientation have been discussed in a previous section (refer to section 2.8.2.1.3 and 2.8.2.1.4). A new and interesting trend with regard to role orientation has developed during the nineties, termed *role-relaxed consumers*. This trend could be linked to the ageing of the Baby Boomer market segment as well as the economic recession. These consumers make decisions on how to act and what to buy while remaining oblivious of social demands (Kahle, 1995a). They are not susceptible to interpersonal influence, do not need to gain the acceptance of others, are not willing to conform to the expectations of others and do not actively seek information from others. Highly role-relaxed consumers are relatively affluent, have high educational levels, are intelligent and knowledgeable. Status goods and conspicuous consumption are not important and this consumer group prefer to buy good value for money, durable and reliable goods (Kahle, 1995b). It is clear that the role-relaxed consumer group demands new approaches to the advertising and marketing strategy in order to meet their unique consumer needs.

2.8.2.3.4.6 Culture and social class

The most fundamental influence of social class, particular for the present study, is the demonstration of social class through consumption. Some consumers view the products they consume as a reflection of their social class status and engage in specific consumption patterns. This is more evident in product classes with high social risk and visibility such as apparel. Seen holistically, Coleman (1983) supported the fact that social class impacts on marketing, as there are differences among social classes with regard to self-image, demographics, lifestyles and consumption behaviour.

In South Africa, consumers are very status-conscious and believe that status is reflected in product usage (Smit & Trollip, 1998). A study by the University of South Africa's Bureau of Market Research shows that the emerging black middle class (which was defined as households whose circumstances have improved over the last five years) is extremely status-conscious and believes that the most important status symbols are cars, followed by cellphones and clothing (The Status Society, 1999). Certain brand preferences are also evident in this market. Other characteristics of the status-conscious black middle class that impact on consumer behaviour include:

- An orientation toward a mixture of African and Western values, while some are still committed to traditional African values. Parents feel it is important to teach children the culture of their forefathers. This phenomenon could be termed intranational cultural interpenetration, a phenomenon that has received little attention in consumer research thus far. Cultural interpenetration is defined as the exposure of members of one culture or sub-culture to another through direct experience and/or indirectly through the media or the experiences of others (Andreasen, 1990). South African research is lacking in this field.
- The group is experiencing financial problems, but foresees an increase in the use of financial products within the next five years.
- Responding positively toward new products and feels inclined to buy them. They are of the opinion that the quality of goods and services are improving.
- Advertising is seen in a positive light, however there is a concern that consumers are encouraged to buy goods they do not need, and that impacts negatively on moral values (The Status Society, 1999).

Social class is also directly linked to economic well-being. Findings indicate that education is the major factor in the level of income, which consequently impacts on expenditure patterns (Meyers, 1991). Another complex issue regarding social class and consumer behaviour is the question regarding brand loyalty and social class. The question could be asked if social class impacts on brand loyalty, and if so, to what extent. Kanwar and Pagiavlas (1992) studied this phenomenon and concluded that depending on the mediating variables, brand loyalty can both increase and decrease with social class. Perceived risk showed to influence brand loyalty across diverse product classes and heterogeneous population groups. Two causal paths can be distinguished. In the first, namely social class to purchase experience to brand loyalty, brand loyalty decreased as social class increased. Factors such as higher education could act to reduce brand loyalty. In the second, namely social class to purchase experience to perceived risk to brand loyalty, evidence showed that brand loyalty increased with social class. Thus, depending on the causal path followed, brand loyalty can both increase and decrease with social class.

2.8.2.3.4.7 Culture, values, and ethnic apparel

The apparel people choose to wear is shaped by many cultural and social forces (Trollip, 1992a; Trollip 1992b; Trollip 1994). Trollip (2001, p. 128) states that "... dress as a material manifestation of a society's culture offers unique insights into man's adaptation to the environment that confronts him in his daily life ...". Forney and Rabolt (1990) investigated cultural values and their relation to clothing. Clothing values are seen to vary across cultures in response to different social and cultural traditions as well as historical events. This is especially evident in Middle Eastern countries where traditional value systems govern women's dress in particular, for example, the covering of themselves with an *abbaya,* as required by Islam. Nine clothing values were measured, i.e. sensory, theoretical, aesthetic, religious, exploratory, social 1, political, economic and social 2. Saudi Arabian and Qatar women differed with regard to the aesthetic and social 1 value scores. The value of the study by Forney and Rabolt lies therein that it emphasises the importance of cross-cultural research with specific reference to apparel and the acknowledgement of the impact of socio-cultural values on clothing behaviour.

The impact of ethnic values on apparel and its retailing is recognised by Hunter-Gadsden (1990), Littrell, Ogle and Kim (1999) and Swinyard (1997). Hunter-Gadsden (1990) reported an upswing in retailing of Afrocentric products and ascribes this to a heightened cultural awareness and an increase in a global perspective. The merchandise offered are adapted for Western use, but have strong African roots. Swinyard (1997) identified ethnic retailing as one of the significant changes in the United States retail market. This can be attributed to the increase in the variation in ethnic groups, products and retailing formats. Research work by Littrell et al., (1999) focussed on ethnic apparel and the marketing of it. Results of the study indicated clusters of ethnic apparel consumers that were described in order to serve as a comparative benchmark for marketing ethnic apparel. Catalogue retailing targeting African Americans, were studied by Holloman (1997). A survey of three catalogue retailers revealed differences between their general and African-American marketing strategies. Special emphasis was placed on appearance and lifestyles of African-Americans together with the marketing strategies of imaging, featuring and knowledging. Imaging and text are combined to target both low and high involvement consumers. The adaptation of marketing strategy to meet the values and lifestyle of African-Americans/blacks are seen as imperative as blacks are not "dark-skinned whites" (Schlossberg, 1993, p. 1). Miller (1993a; 1993b) urged marketers to undertake extensive market research in order to gain insight into this lucrative and growing consumer market.

2.8.2.3.4.8 Culture and communication

Cultural differences will impact on the communication strategies employed by marketers and advertisers to convey their marketing message and will influence the meaning attached to clothing communication (Dodd et al., 2000; Gudykunst, Ting-Toomey & Chau, 1988). Illiteracy levels are an important issue for marketing in some cultures. Illiteracy will have a direct impact on the success of promotional campaigns as well as the development of these campaigns. Guidelines for writing advertising copy, clarity, readability and pre-testing exist to assist marketers embarking on promotional strategies in cultures with high illiteracy rates (Harrison-Walker, 1995). On a more practical level, the perceptions of textiles and apparel label design in Ghana, was studied by Fianu and Harrison-Arthur (1997). Results indicated that Ghanaian consumers look for the following (in order of importance) on apparel labels:

fibre content, size, brand name, price, care instructions and country of origin. Illiteracy could impact on the ability of consumers to judge apparel items. Byrne, Caton and Pelton (1998) stated that culture also impacts on the perception of fibre types.

Persuasive strategy could be influenced by cultural and situational influences (Burgoon, Dillard, Doran & Miller, 1982). Aaker and Williams (1998) studied the persuasive effect of emotional appeals across collectivist and individualist cultures. They found that ego-focussed emotional appeals (e.g. pride, happiness) should have a greater influence on attitudes of members belonging to individualist cultures, whereas other-focused emotional appeals (e.g. empathy, peacefulness) will have a greater influence on attitudes of members from collectivist cultures. The creative strategies employed in American and Japanese commercials were investigated by Ramaprasad and Hasegawa (1992). Results indicated that the informational strategies used, differed significantly. American commercials favoured the comparative and hyperbole method whereas the Japanese commercials used the USP (unique selling proposition) and pre-emptive strategies more often. These results underlined the importance of adaptation of commercials and cross-cultural research before embarking on global marketing as different cultures could require variations in advertising and marketing strategies.

Williams (1992) applied the introspective analysis technique to investigate four issues regarding advertising communication and black middle-class consumer behaviour within the United States. The first issue posed the question whether black English dialect should be used in advertising. Williams (1992) argued that black English would continue to be used in advertising copy and that certain segments of the black community will find it appealing and others will not. He attributes this to the diversity within this consumer segment and challenged researchers to study this phenomenon. The second issue related to the usage of black models in advertising to reach black consumers. Advertisers should be aware of other variables that could impact on the response of black consumers toward advertising that uses black models. The demographic and ideological similarity with the advertisement could be one of these influences. The third issue focuses on the terminology used to describe the market. Should one use "black" or "African-American". Williams (1992) suggests that both terms are used in one, i.e. "black/African-American" in order to make provision for the preferences of all. The last issue concerned the lack of blacks in advertising and the possible influence thereof on self-esteem. This link, according to Williams, is overemphasised. He encourages advertisers to make use of positive role-models in advertising, but stated that the self-esteem of black individuals is not dependent on this.

All of the above issues could also be asked of South Africa. However very little, if any, empirical research could be identified to answer these questions.

2.8.2.3.4.9 Culture and decision-making, purchase and post-purchase behaviour

Culture influences the way in which consumers make decisions and purchase products as well as, post purchase behaviour (Nodenes, 1997). Usenier (1996) emphasised the impact of cultural differences on the decision-making and subsequent processes of purchase and post-purchase behaviour. Consumer ethnocentrism, a term coined by Shimp and Sharma (1987) focuses on the view of people to see their own group as of more value than others to such an extent that it influences consumer behaviour. The process of decision-making, purchase and post-purchase behaviour are influenced by consumer ethnocentrism, as consumers with high levels of consumer ethnocentrism view foreign made products in a negative light. Buying of foreign-products is considered unpatriotic and inappropriate (Daneshvary & Schwer, 2001). Various levels of consumer ethnocentrism could therefore hold implications for marketers and retailers of all consumer goods, especially those embarking on expanding globally and cross-culturally.

Sproles and Kendall (1986) investigated decision-making styles and developed the Consumer Styles Inventory. Eight style characteristics were found and labelled after factor analysis. The labels were:

- Factor 1: Perfectionistic, High-Quality-Conscious Consumer
- Factor 2: Brand-Conscious, "Price Equals Quality" Consumer
- Factor 3: Novelty-Fashion-Conscious Consumer
- Factor 4: Recreational, Hedonistic Consumer
- Factor 5: Price-Conscious, "Value for Money" Consumer
- Factor 6: Impulsive, Careless Consumer

- Factor 7: Confused by Overchoice Consumer
- Factor 8: Habitual, Brand Loyal Consumer

A comparison of the consumer decision-making styles (with the consumer style inventory as developed by Sproles and Kendall, 1986) was made between young United States and Korean consumers (Hafstrom, Chae & Chung, 1992). Similarities and differences were evident, however the primary finding was that a generality of several consumer decision-making styles of young United States and Korean consumers, is evident. The ability to generalise the decision-making styles inventory of Sproles and Kendall (1986) was investigated by Durvasula et al., (1993) with the use of a New Zealand sample. General support was found for the cross-cultural generalisation of the instrument, but differences did exist. Durvasula et al., (1993) warned that consumer researchers should not assume that instruments validated in the United States are applicable in other countries.

The service experience of consumers is culture-bound. In order to be able to provide a foreign target market with accepted levels of service, cognisance needs to be taken of the considerable variation of service expectations across cultures (Winsted, 1997). The United States and Japan were chosen for the study. Results indicated the inclusion of conversation and civility factors in both countries. *Conversation* referred to conversation, the use of humour and talking. *Civility* referred to "not negative" behaviour. Many of the factors appeared in both Japanese and United States samples, but the behaviours associated with each differed. United States dimensions emphasised individualism whereas the Japanese focussed on caring for the customer. It is therefore clear that cultures evaluate service encounters differently and place different levels of importance on various behavioural dimensions. Culture influences the perception and preference of attributes for a fashion apparel store image (Miller, Van Aardt, Visser & Joung, in press). Findings suggest that store image preferences of United States students were influenced by sales personnel, whereas those of South African students were more affected by the store's displays. This result lead to questions regarding service experience in South Africa. Several researchers are of the opinion that South Africa is not service-orientated and that service needs to be drastically improved by both workers and management (Blem, 1995; Boshoff & Terblanché, 1997).

Loyalty impacts on consumer choice behaviour. In the United States it is assumed that consumers are basically disloyal, but it is recognised that there are large classes of loyal consumers. Chiou (in Usenier, 1996) argued that collectivist cultures (Asian, for instance) tend to be more loyal on average as they rely on word of mouth information from their reference group rather than on media information. These cultures also follow group consensus until there is significant evidence that the majority of the group regards the new product as superior. This will hold implications for marketing and advertising strategies. Miller (1993a) reported that shopping patterns differed widely among minority groups in the United States. Results indicated that the Asian group shopped close to home and were more store and brand loyal than any other group, regardless of the product category. This could be seen as a confirmation of the results obtained by Chio (in Usenier, 1996). Black respondents were the least loyal shoppers, frequently switching brands and stores. Asian, Hispanic and white respondents shopped at similar stores, while black respondents were most likely to shop at supermarkets. The black group shopped more frequently than the other groups.

Grasso and Wright (1997) studied the decision-making processes of African-American mothers with regard to needs, search and alternative evaluation of children's apparel. Results indicated that this sub-cultural consumer group had unique needs, such as African inspired apparel, sizing by weight and specific colour and style. They relied on internal and external search with the emphasis on external search patterns. Magazines were the preferred search medium. This consumer group also frequented all retail types. Results indicated that this African-American consumer segment warrants further research as culture impacts on purchasing decisions.

South African research is scant regarding apparel buying behaviour of South African black and coloured women. Some interesting results published in South Africa include Morrison and Van Aardt (1995); Smit and Trollip (1998); Visser, Van Wyk, Senekal and Uys (1993):

- Comfort/fit and garment care were important shopping motives for apparel as well as appearance and economics. This emphasised the role of practical motives in the purchase decision (Visser et al., 1993). This could be attributed to the limited facilities for caring for apparel items (Allen, 1990; Black Buying Power, 1989; The Black Consumer, 1986; Today's Black Consumers, 1987).

- ❖ Conformation was not an important consideration when buying apparel. Clothes that are good-looking are important as they could establish a feeling of well-being and improve self-concept and acceptance in society (Morrison & Van Aardt, 1995).
- ❖ Certain styles, such as skirts and blouses, are preferred, probably due to fit requirements. Especially women with larger figures have problems with fit and finding an assortment of garments in larger sizes.
- ❖ Cash and credit chain stores were most often frequented. The lay-buy alternative offered by many of these stores are attractive to consumers with relatively low income levels. Very few respondents made use of mail-order and second hand stores. Baker (1991) further emphasised the importance of credit and stated that growth in apparel retail was concentrated in retailers offering credit facilities, such as Edgars and Sales House. This trend has been growing over many years as the economic reality of unemployment is still present today. Lay-buy was the most preferred method of payment (80%), followed by credit (71%) and cash (39%). This could be attributed to black consumers being very quality-conscious, and therefore paying more for quality items. Stores that offered these services were preferred (Baker, 1991, p. 23; Today's Black Consumers, 1987).
- ❖ Black women in the sample stated that quality and price were the main reasons for shopping at their preferred stores. The stores were also seen as offering good value for money. Local stores were mostly frequented.
- ❖ Most apparel items were bought at sales and at the beginning of the season. Impulsive buying was also relatively high at 49% (Baker, 1991, p. 23). The impulsive buying behaviour was mostly influenced by window displays.
- ❖ Window displays were stated as the most important initiator of purchases (85%), followed by advertisements (59%) and friends and family (45%) (Baker, 1991, p. 24).
- ❖ During the evaluation of alternatives, respondents emphasise information on garment labels, price and size. Very few individuals paid attention to fibre content, which could be ascribed to a lack of knowledge in this regard.
- ❖ Post-purchase behaviour showed that more than half of the respondents were dissatisfied with their apparel purchases, specifically with regard to fit. Black consumers indicated a need for further consumer education.

- Clothing practices reflected values. Black apparel consumers wore both Western or modern and modified traditional clothing when they experienced dualistic value systems. They further manipulated their clothing in order to be accepted in the Western society, but traditional customs were not discarded totally (Smit & Trollip, 1998).

2.8.2.3.4.10 Conclusion

Nine applications of culture on consumer behaviour were discussed in this section. The principle aim was to confirm that culture has an all encompassing influence on consumer behaviour and that scholars and researchers in this field cannot negate the importance of culture in consumer behaviour. An attempt was made to focus on cultural aspects and the impact thereof on apparel-related consumer behaviour, however much of the research reported is not product-specific. South African information on culture and apparel consumer behaviour is scant.

In the next section of the discussion on culture, cultural consciousness and orientation (as briefly referred to in previous sections) as well as the cultural perspective toward apparel, will be discussed.

2.8.2.3.5 Cultural consciousness: individualism versus collectivism

Individualism and collectivism have received considerable attention in cross-cultural studies of consumer behaviour and are the most broadly used dimensions of cultural variability for cross-cultural comparison (Gudykunst et al., 1988). These orientations hold definite implications for consumer behaviour and marketing strategy (especially persuasion and advertising appeals) (Aaker & Maheswaran, 1997; Aaker & Williams, 1998; Burgoon et al., 1982; Han & Shavitt, 1994; Hawkins et al., 1998; Hofstede, 1980; Kotzé, 1993; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000; Shaw & Clarke, 1998; Triandis, McCusker & Hui, 1990).

The individualism and collectivism construct can be defined as follows: "Individualism pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family. Collectivism at its opposite pertains to societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive ingroups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty" (Hofstede, 1991, p. 51). It is important to note that the degrees of individualism and collectivism differ within countries as well as between countries and that the terms have no political connotations.

As one of the dimensions of cultural variation, a measurement of individualism and collectivism is often used to study cultural variation (Maheswaran & Shavitt, 2000; Triandis, 1986). The present study will also incorporate questions regarding individualism-collectivism as a measurement of the impact of culture on female apparel shopping. An individualism index score with low for collectivist and high for individualist societies could be given.

In the IBM study, survey questions on which the individualism index was based measured fourteen work-related goals on a 5-point Likert-type scale. For the individualist pole the relative importance given to personal time, freedom and challenge was high. For the collectivist pole, training, physical conditions and use of skills were high (Hofstede, 1991).

Two orientations prevail in cultures, i.e. individualism and collectivism (Gudykunst et al., 1988). Kotzé (1993) stated that collectivist and individualist consciousness are not discrete perceptual types, but represent opposite poles of a continuum. One individual will not be either one or the other, but will be more or less collective or individualistic in their consciousness. The relative differences between collectivism and individualism are presented in Table 2.16 (Compiled from Aaker & Maheswaran, 1997; Aaker & Williams, 1998; Burgoon et al., 1982; Gudykunst et al., 1988; Han & Shavitt, 1994; Hawkins et al., 1998; Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede, 1991; Kotzé, 1993; Morris & Peng, 1994; Rieger & Blignaut, 1996; Schiffman & Kanuk, 1998; Shaw & Clarke, 1998; Triandis, 1986; Triandis, Bontempo, Villareal, Asai & Lucca, 1988; Triandis, 1989; Triandis et al., 1990)

It is generally accepted that the United States, Canada, Britain and British-influenced countries, such as Australia, comprise more individualistic cultures whereas the Far East (Japan, Hong Kong, Taiwan) and Africa (Kenya) hold more collectivistic cultures (Aaker & Maheswaran, 1997; Triandis et al., 1990). Hofstede (1980) found the United

States and English -peaking countries to be high on individualism, and countries in East Asia and Latin America to be low on individualism (i.e. more collectivistic).

TABLE 2.16

RELATIVE DIFFERENCES ASSOCIATED WITH INDIVIDUALISM VERSUS COLLECTIVISM

INDIVIDUALISM	COLLECTIVISM
❖ Positive attitudes toward differentiation and uniqueness	❖ Positive attitudes toward maintaining connections and building relationships
❖ Behaviour motivated by personal preferences and inner drives	❖ Behaviour motivated by preferences and needs of close others
❖ Values: emphasis on separateness and individuality	❖ Values: emphasis on connectedness and relationships
❖ Competitive, creative, independent	❖ Group work, conform, social support
❖ Self-centred	❖ Group-centred
❖ Looking after self in core family	❖ Born into extended family
❖ Children learn to think in terms of "I"	❖ Children learn to think in terms of "we"
❖ Low-context communication	❖ High-context communication
❖ Responsibility for self and immediate family	❖ Responsibility to group
❖ Upward mobility is important	❖ Social status defined by birth
❖ Recognition of individual performance is deemed important	❖ Satisfaction is derived from group performance
❖ Take calculated risks	❖ Unwilling to take risks
❖ Socially open	❖ Socially closed
❖ Form specific friendships	❖ Friendships determined by stable relationships formed early in life
❖ Relative wealth	❖ Poverty
❖ Economic time orientation	❖ Social time orientation

❖ Humour is specialised	❖ Humour is part of everyday life situations
❖ Ego-focussed emotional appeals	❖ Other-focussed emotional appeals
❖ Individual goals take precedence	❖ Group goals more important than individual goals
❖ Task prevails over relationship	❖ Relationship prevails over task
❖ Trespassing leads to guilt and loss of self-respect	❖ Trespassing leads to shame and loss of face for self and group
❖ Prepared to show aggression in order to reach personal goals	❖ Avoid conflict
❖ Employer-employee relationship is a contract based on mutual advantage	❖ Employer-employee relationship is perceived on moral terms, like a family link
❖ Hiring and promotion decisions are supposed to be based on skills and rules only	❖ Hiring and promotion decision take employees' in-group into account
❖ Unique individual beliefs, goals and maximising individual outcome	❖ In-group's views, goals, needs emphasised above those of the individual
❖ Can leave group at will, socialise and behave according to personal preference	❖ Cannot leave group freely, socialised to behave according to group norms, role constraints and situational scripts

In the previously mentioned IBM study reported by Hofstede (1991), fifty countries answered survey questions regarding "work goals". Items for the individualistic pole rated the relative importance of personal time, freedom and challenge. Items for the collectivistic pole rated the relative importance of training, physical conditions and use of skills. Factor scores for each dimension for each country supported other studies in that the United States were the most individualist country (with an individualism index of 91 – with 0 for most collectivist and 100 for most individualist). Australia (90), Great Britain (89), Canada and the Netherlands (80) followed the United States. South Africa obtained a score of 65, which put them in 16th place out of fifty-three countries on the individualism index. Other countries obtained the following scores: Japan (46), Brazil (38), Mexico (30), East Africa (27), Hong Kong (25), West Africa, Singapore and

Thailand (20), Indonesia (14) and Guatemala (6). These scores represent the relative positions of the countries (Hofstede, 1991, p. 53). Collectivism and power distance seem to be negatively correlated, as countries with large power distance scores are likely to be more collectivist, and vice versa.

Triandis and Gelfand (1998) introduced a further distinction between horizontal and vertical societies in that horizontal societies value equality and vertical societies emphasise hierarchy. A combination of vertical/horizontal and individualist/collectivist attributes can therefore be given to societies. In vertical individualist societies (for example, Great Britain, France, United States) people are concerned with distinguishing themselves from others through competition and improving their individual status. Horizontal individualist societies, such as Australia, Sweden and Norway, would rather view themselves as equal to others in status with the focus on self-reliance and uniqueness. In vertical collectivist societies (Japan, Korea, India) the enhancement of the status of the in-group is paramount, even when it results in sacrificing personal goals. In a horizontal collectivist society (for example, an Israeli kibbutz) the focus is on interdependence and sociability with others.

Triandis (1986), however, stated that the constructs individualism and collectivism hold a core meaning in all cultures, but different cultures could relate additional themes to these constructs. As a result of these differences, attitudinal and behavioural differences between these cultures will exist that would influence behaviour at all levels. These behavioural and attitudinal differences are presented in Table 2.17.

From Table 2.17 it is clear that marketers should have a thorough understanding of the cultural orientation of their market segment and take cognisance of the fact that cultural consciousness differs, requiring different approaches in advertising and persuasion appeals.

TABLE 2.17

RELATIVE ATTITUDINAL AND BEHAVIOURAL DIFFERENCES ASSOCIATED WITH INDIVIDUALISM VERSUS COLLECTIVISM

	INDIVIDUALISM	**COLLECTIVISM**
Self-construal	Defined by internal attributes, personal traits	Defined by important others, family, friends
Role of others	Self-evaluation (for example, standards of social comparison, sources of appraisal regarding self)	Self-definition (for example, relationships with others define self and impact personal preferences)
Values	Emphasis on separateness, individuality	Emphasis on connectedness, relationships
Motivational drives	Focus on differentiation, relatively greater need to be unique	Focus on similarity, relatively greater need to blend in
Behaviour	Reflective of personal preferences and needs	Influenced by preferences, needs of close others

(Aaker & Maheswaran, 1997, p. 316)

Possible marketing applications and implications of the individualism/collectivism dimension of culture could include:

- Attitude formation and change (Aaker & Maheswaran, 1997).
- Information processing strategies: collectivist cultures preferred heuristic processing whereas individualist cultures preferred systematic processing. Both these information processing strategies can occur in any one culture, but the information could be interpreted differently (Aaker & Maheswaran, 1997).
- Persuasive effectiveness of advertising content (Ramaprasad & Hasegawa, 1992). Han and Shavitt's (1994) study indicated that in the United States, advertisements emphasising individualistic benefits were more persuasive than advertisements depicting family or in-group benefits. The reverse was true for Korea. These

effects were, however, moderated by the product characteristics. For products that were purchased and used with others, cultural differences emerged strongly. These differences were less evident for products that were typically purchased and used individually.

- Advertising appeals in individualistic and collectivistic societies: Results indicated that magazine advertisements in the United States (individualistic culture) used appeals to individual preferences, benefits, independence and personal success to a greater extent than advertisements in a collectivist culture, like Korea. In-group benefits, family integrity and harmony were stressed to a greater extent in Korean advertisements than in American advertisements (Han & Shavitt, 1994). The South African culture will also find application in the context in which interpretation of advertising takes place (Smit & Trollip, 1998).
- Emotional content of advertising (Aaker & Williams, 1998; Matsumoto, 1989).
- Communication: Collectivist cultures portray high-context communication, where little needs to be said or written as much of the information is in the fotm of physical environment. Low-context communication, where information is typically explicitly stated, is more evident in individualistic cultures (Hofstede, 1991).

The question arises as to the classification of South Africa. The South African population comprises various sub-cultural and ethnic groups. The country reflects a combination of the First World and Third World. Are we an individualist or collectivist culture? Are we horizontal or vertical within the framework of individualism/collectivism? (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). According to Hofstede (1980, p. 232) and Hofstede (1991, p. 54), South Africa falls into the quadrant of individualist with a large power distance. A large power distance is a characteristic of collectivist cultures – and a combination of typical individualist/collectivist cultures already exists in South Africa. It should, however, be taken into account that differences will exist within one country. The level of acculturation between different sub-cultural and ethnic groups in South Africa should be taken into account before classifying a diverse nation such as South Africa. In South Africa different sub-cultural and ethnic groups adhere very closely to the dimensions of collectivism and individualism. South Africa could therefore have a combination of the vertical/horizontal and individualist/collectivist societies. South African black value systems displayed a dualistic tendency as they adjusted their clothing practices in order to reflect their values (Smit & Trollip, 1998). Rieger and Blignaut (1996, p. 36) are of the opinion that individualism is a characteristic dominant in "modern (white) societies" whereby collectivism is a characteristic dominant in "traditional (black) societies". Traditional phylosophies such as *"ubuntu"* (Zoeloe), *"popagano"* (Tswana) and *"botho"* (Sotho) are an expression of collectivist orientations (Mbigi in Rieger & Blignaut, 1996). Triandis et al., (1990) supported this notion by stating that collectivism and individualism can take different forms in different parts of the world. The "degree" of individualism and collectivism can subsequently vary. As Hofstede (1991) stated, the strong relationship between national wealth and individualism is clear: in South Africa the white minority has the greatest wealth, and the black/African majority has the lowest wealth. The causal relationship is from wealth to individuality. Countries gaining wealth through fast economic growth show shifts toward individualism. This could also be true for sub-culture groups within countries. This rainbow nation characteristic makes the study of consumer behaviour, marketing and advertising more challenging.

The South African consumer is unique, making the study of consumer characteristics imperative **before** any decisions with regard to market segmentation, marketing and advertising appeals, retailing and manufacturing can be made. In the multi-cultural South African environment it is even more important for stakeholders in the apparel industry to have a scientifically developed and detailed profile of different consumer groups/clusters in order to stay abreast in this highly competitive apparel environment. As Forsythe et al., (1991) urged, further research into all possible variables impacting on apparel consumer behaviour, such as individualism/collectivism, should be encouraged. The measurement of the influence of culture on female apparel shopping behaviour, in the present study, will focus on this dimension of culture, i.e. individualism versus collectivism.

2.8.2.3.6 The cultural perspective toward apparel

Consumer goods, and specifically apparel and dress, have the ability to carry and communicate cultural meaning (Damhorst et al., 1999; Kaiser, 1997; McCracken, 1981; Mowen & Minor, 1998; O'Neal, 1998; Ryan, 1991; Smit, 1994; Trollip, 1992a & 1992b). The advertising system and the fashion system are used to transfer meaning from culture to consumer goods, and rituals such as possession, exchange and grooming will again transfer meaning from consumer goods to the individual consumer

(McCracken, 1981). Television programmes can for example convey meaning of apparel items. A high-involvement product, such as apparel, can serve as an expression of cultural meaning (Fiore & Ogle, 2000). Fashion includes a set of behaviours temporarily adopted by people because they are perceived to be socially appropriate for the time and situation. Symbols are adopted to provide identity and could include apparel, houses, cars, and other visible items used to communicate meaning in a popular culture (McCracken, 1981; Mowen & Minor, 1998).

As previously stated, apparel can be studied from a cognitive, symbolic-interactionist or cultural perspective, of which the first two perspectives have been discussed in previous sections of this chapter (refer to section 2.3.3 and Appendix 1). Trollip (1994) made use of the symbolic-interactionist perspective within a socio-cultural study. The meaning of the acculturated dress practices of Ndzundza-Ndebele females was studied. The cultural perspective allows students to view the meaning of clothing as it develops over time, as the buying, selling and wearing of apparel contribute to the meaning associated with cultural objects. The cultural perspective toward clothing is based on five assumptions, which will be discussed in short (Kaiser, 1990; Kaiser, 1997).

Firstly, collective values are produced and reproduced through cultural forms. Cultural forms can refer to a clothing style that is used to categorise people socially, for example, the female business suit. These meanings develop over time and are subject to change. Secondly, cultural beliefs and values tend to be perpetuated when they are represented on a relatively unconscious level. The ideology of a culture consists of principle beliefs and values that characterise the culture and could be expressed through artifacts, such as clothing. Thirdly, people could transform their own realities by manipulating the objects in their cultural worlds. Images, clothes and ideas can be manipulated by being a participant rather than being naive in the development of people's perceptions of cultural appearances. Fourthly, culture provides abstract representations of social life, for example, teenagers use pop stars to develop their own personal style. Fifthly, individuals use codes to gather the meaning of cultural representation of social life. The codes we use give meaning, for example, a dark blue business suit will usually be "decoded" as a power statement in a business environment.

Dress is also seen as a cultural sub-system in its own right, as it is a dynamic, interacting system that is not bound by time (Damhorst et al., 1999). According to Hamilton (1987), this cultural sub-system of dress comprises three components, i.e. ideology, social structure and technology. The socio-psychological aspects of clothing focus on how individuals make use of apparel and appearance cues as stimuli to help them understand themselves and their environment as well as how socio-cultural influences affect individual decisions, interactions and the cognitive processes related to clothing and appearance (Kaiser, 1990; Kaiser, 1997; Solomon, 1999). It is through these processes that the symbolic meanings of apparel are addressed (Ogle & Fiore, 2000; Fiore & Ogle, 2000). Some of these cultural meanings were explored in phenomenological interviews conducted by Thompson and Haytko (1997). In a study by O'Neal (1998) the use of "cultural dress" by African-American professional women were studied. Results supported the principles of the cultural perspective toward clothing, as cultural dress was used to define the self, educate others about one's culture and to establish a linkage to one's own cultural heritage. Smit (1994) and Smit and Trollip (1998) studied the influence of culture on the dress practices of black females in South Africa. Findings included that traditional culture and values were still dominant in older respondents, but that more Western or modern values were used to express traditional values in younger respondents. These findings support the cultural perspective toward apparel.

2.8.3 CONSLUSION: CONSUMER-DOMINATED VARIABLES

The impact of culture on apparel shopping behaviour cannot be underestimated. This section dealt with the last component of the socio-cultural influences, as part of the consumer-dominated variables impacting on apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural society. The discussion of family influences and lifestyle comprised the other two sub-sections. Refer to Figure 2.11.

2.9 CONCLUSION: CHAPTER TWO

The principle aim of Chapter two was to identify the broad spectrum of variables that may influence female apparel shopping behaviour within a multi-cultural society. This was attained by developing a conceptual theoretical model from various theoretical models in the field of Consumer Behaviour and Apparel and Textiles (refer to Figure

2.4). The model proposed three broad categories of variables that impact on the consumer decision-making process and consequently on apparel shopping behaviour:

- Market-dominated variables (product, promotion, price and place of distribution);
- Market and consumer interaction variables (shopping orientation, patronage behaviour and previous experience);
- Consumer-dominated variables (demographics, socio-cultural influences and the psychological field).

From this macro perspective, a number of variables were selected for further delineation of the study. The selected variables were presented in a conceptual theoretical model with a micro perspective (Figure 2.5). The selected variables were:

- Market-dominated variables (the apparel product and place of distribution referring to retail types);
- Market and consumer interaction variables (shopping orientation referring to types and profiles, patronage behaviour referring to store choice and models);
- Consumer-dominated variables (demographics, socio-cultural influences referring to family, lifestyle and culture).

Chapter 2 was further developed by discussing each of the above-mentioned variables to such an extent, that the complexity and multi-dimensionality of the variables were evident and the impact thereof on apparel shopping behaviour was clear.

The following broad conclusions can be drawn from the literature review:

- The study of consumer behaviour toward apparel is extremely complex and multi-facetted;
- Apparel shopping behaviour is determined and influenced by a multitude of variables that could be approached from various root disciplines;
- These variables are complex constructs with underlying theoretical structures;
- Not all individual sub-variables impacting on female apparel shopping behaviour could be included, as this would make the scope of the study too wide;

- Many research opportunities exist in the inter-disciplinary fields of Clothing and Textiles and Industrial Psychology.

To conclude: Chapter two attained the objectives set and provided a framework from which the empirical work was developed. Chapter 3 will provide a blueprint of the research methodology followed in order to reach the remaining objectives of this dissertation.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The most fundamental objective of this chapter on research methodology is to succeed in providing a reasoned argument that the methodology applied is appropriate for the attainment of the objectives of this exploratory study. This study can be classified as exploratory and descriptive research (Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993; Mouton, 1996). Limited research is available in South Africa regarding the variables impacting on female apparel shopping behaviour. Very little is known with regards as to whether distinct clusters of female apparel shoppers exist in South Africa, whether they differ from each other, which variables attribute to these variations and what the profiles of these clusters would comprise. Specific research hypotheses are therefore not feasible and research objectives and questions should rather be posed (Huysamen, 1994). The appropriateness of methodology is imperative, as this forms the basis from which scientifically valid findings and conclusions can be made. In order to adjudicate if the correct research methodology was used, it is vital to emphasise the objectives of this study again. The remainder of this chapter will focus on a discussion of the methodology applied to attain the empirical objectives.

3.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES REVISITED

The broad research objective of this study was to expand the existing body of knowledge with regard to the variables that could influence female apparel shopping behaviour within a multi-cultural consumer society.

In order to achieve this broad objective, specific aims were set that included the following:

1. To identify, from a macro perspective and from literature, the broad spectrum of variables that may influence female apparel shopping behaviour within a multi-cultural consumer society.
2. To follow a micro perspective toward variables influencing female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society, by selecting a number of primary variables for further investigation in order to delimitate the scope of the study.
3. To investigate, from literature, the multi-dimensional nature of the selected primary variables that influence female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society, i.e. the apparel product, place of distribution, shopping orientation, patronage behaviour, demographics, family, lifestyle and cultural consciousness.

Objectives one to three demanded a thorough literature search and review. Chapter 2 presented the literature review in a systematic manner in order to attain the objectives set. The outcome of the literature review culminated in the presentation of the Conceptual Theoretical Model: A Macro Perspective Of Variables Influencing Female Apparel Shopping Behaviour (refer to Figure 2.4). This conceptual model gave rise to the delimitation of the study in the form of the Conceptual Theoretical Model: A Micro Perspective Of Selected Variables Influencing Female Apparel Shopping Behaviour (refer to Figure 2.5). Once the micro perspective was enunciated, the multi-dimensionality of the selected variables was investigated. Emphasis was placed on market-dominated influences, i.e. product and place of distribution (refer to Figure 2.6), market and consumer interaction variables, i.e. shopping orientation and patronage behaviour (refer to Figure 2.8) and consumer-dominated variables, i.e. demographics, family, culture (and specifically cultural consciousness) and lifestyle (refer to Figure 2.11). The development of a model to synthesise variables that may influence female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society, is regarded as a contribution toward the body of knowledge as such a model does not exist for South African female apparel shoppers.

Given the outcome of Chapter 2, further specific research objectives could be set for the empirical study. The research methodology followed to reach these objectives, will constitute the remainder of Chapter 3.

4. To determine empirically the multi-dimensional nature of shopping orientation and lifestyle, as principle variables influencing female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society.
5. To investigate whether distinct clusters of female apparel shoppers exist according to the variables lifestyle, shopping orientation, cultural consciousness, patronage behaviour and demographics.
6. To determine which of these variables attribute to differences between clusters.
7. To determine between which clusters these differences occur.
8. To profile different clusters of female apparel shoppers that share the same characteristics according to the differentiation variables.
9. To examine and formulate the implications of these different cluster profiles for apparel retailers with reference to the marketing mix and target markets.
10. To make recommendations for future research.
11. To make a contribution to the theory building process in both Consumer Behaviour and Clothing as fields of study.

Objectives four to seven are attainable by making use of primary quantitative data and statistical analysis. To compile a comprehensive profile of the different clusters, the quantitative research methodology will provide data in order to profile the clusters according to the differentiation variables. These profiles will subsequently be written according to the results of the data and the interpretation thereof (refer to Chapter 4).

The use of a systematic, reasoned and valid research methodology allows for inductive conclusions and recommendations (Mouton, 1996). These recommendations will focus on the implications of the different profiles of female apparel shoppers for marketers with regard to marketing mix, target markets and retailing. The development of the macro conceptual theoretical model of variables influencing female apparel shopping behaviour was an attempt toward theory building. The consequent micro perspective model further strengthened this effort. The results of the data analysis, and the representation thereof in a model format that builds onto the models already developed in Chapter 2, should also assist in contributing to knowledge building (refer to Chapter 5). The recommendations for further research should encourage researchers to build knowledge and theory with regard to female apparel shopping behaviour in South Africa.

The remainder of this chapter will focus on the research methodology applied for the empirical section of this study. Special attention will be given to the store intercept research method, sample selection, measurement instrument, data gathering and method of analysis.

3.3 THE STORE-INTERCEPT RESEARCH METHOD

The store-intercept method as a variation of the mall-intercept interviewing method of data collection, was used as the predominant method of data gathering in the present research. In-store research is warranted and encouraged (Eckman et al., 1990). This method is very popular in the Consumer Sciences as it holds a number of advantages above other methods, of which the biggest advantages are the realism of the environment, the immediacy of the data collection and the reduction of artificial influences (Bush & Hair, 1985; Dillon, Madden & Firtle, 1994; Eckman et al., 1990; Hester, 1989; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993). However, there are also some definite limitations to this method. Some of the advantages and limitations will be discussed. Specific mention will be made of how the researcher attempted to restrict the effect of the limitations of this research method in order to enhance the scientific nature of the research.

Complexity and versatility: As an interviewer is present, and all the necessary materials, visual cues and rewards can be brought to the store, store-intercept interviews are seen as less complex and more versatile than the in-home personal interview or the mail panel and direct mailing methods. The versatility with regards to sampling, response rate and ease of use for fieldworkers made this approach a viable choice. The relative ease with which this method can be used, even with illiterate respondents, was a big advantage in this study, as many of the respondents did not have high levels of education. With regards to versatility, it is possible to combine this method successfully with other methods of data collection. In this study the store-intercept was supported by telephonic interviews in the case of respondents not having time to do the in-store interview.

Quantity of data: Many respondents can be interviewed, as the interview is usually short (less than 30 minutes). The limitations are that the interview questionnaire has to be set in such a manner that it takes minimum time, with the possible result that not enough "depth" could be generated from questionnaire responses alone.

Sample control: As the interviewer chooses respondents that will be intercepted, the choice of respondents is limited to store shoppers. Depending on the research question, this could give rise to several problems:

- Only shoppers are chosen as part of the sample;
- Shoppers are only intercepted on specific days and times;
- Frequent shoppers are more likely to be interviewed than those doing so infrequently;
- Shopper profiles can differ drastically from store to store;
- Shoppers can be incorrectly selected for an interview by the fieldworker.

Notwithstanding all the above-mentioned possible problem areas, care was taken to curb the effect of these limitations. As variables influencing the shopping behaviour of female apparel shoppers were investigated, the researcher is mainly concerned with shoppers, with the non-shoppers falling outside the scope of this research. A scientific approach, together with practical considerations was used to select specific days and times for data gathering. With regard to the frequent shopper, data was gathered over a three week period in order to make provision for this. Different stores were chosen in varied geographic areas making provision for a broad scope in the profiles of mall shoppers and thus assisting to eliminate the effect of only one profile of shopper being included in the study. Fieldworker training and set criteria for selection were applied to restrict the incorrect selection of participants.

Quality of data: The mall-intercept appears to be equivalent to the telephonic interview in terms of the ability to provide complete and in-depth responses, as the interviewer can be trained to use standard interviewing methods reducing interviewer bias (Busch & Hair, 1985; Dillon et al., 1994). The interview, however, still takes place in an unnatural setting with the possibility of biased or social desirable responses being given by respondents. Researchers (Eckman et al., 1990; Dillon et al., 1994; Hester, 1989; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993) do, however, argue that the setting where the decision takes place, is the ideal place to gather the data as it is a real situation. The artificial laboratory environment is eliminated. Fieldworker training was used to emphasise the importance of being consistent in the interview methodology and not to give any indication of their own subjective response to the interview question. If a large number of shoppers decline to be interviewed, self-selection can become a major threat to the validity of the data generated. It is also possible for "mall burnout" to occur if the same people are continually being interviewed. As mall-intercept data collection is not that common in South Africa, respondents tend to see mall-intercept as a novelty and an opportunity to voice their opinions. This was evident in the present study as not many of the identified and approached respondents declined to participate. Fieldworkers did, however, report that more black respondents declined to be interviewed, than the other population groups. This could possibly be attributed to the respondents seeing the interview as a test or being suspicious regarding the interview. The respondents could also have experienced difficulties with language and understanding or felt uncomfortable disclosing answers to a fieldworker with a different ethnic background than themselves (Herbig, 1998).

Speed and cost: Mall-intercept is one of the fastest methods of data collection as large amounts of data can be gathered in a short space of time. This is a major advantage above the mail questionnaire or the in-home interview. The cost is relative, as the fieldworker has to be transported and paid for each interview. The costing factor needs to be weighed up against the advantages gained in that the data collection timeframe is much shorter and greater control can be exercised over the data collection methodology.

The mall-intercept interview has advantages and limitations. It is up to the researcher to reduce the potential threats to the validity of the data by introducing a rigorous and scientific research methodology.

3.4 SAMPLE POPULATION AND PRODUCT CATEGORY

The sample population included all female consumers between the ages of 18 and 55, browsing for or buying clothes for themselves and/or family members in discount, chain speciality and department stores. Shopping is not equal to buying, as many shoppers do not buy a specific item but rather engages in browsing activity (Darden & Dorsch, 1990). Browsers in stores warrant the attention of researchers because they gather information and are exposed to new products that may facilitate future purchases (Bloch et al., 1989). It is therefore justified to include both browsers and buyers in the definition of shoppers, and include both types of consumers in the sample population. Females were chosen because they are primarily responsible for apparel purchases (Bruce & Parkinson-Hill, 1999; Erasmus & Van Zyl, 1994; Fuller & Blackwell, 1992) and they are the main market segment targeted by various apparel retail outlets. The product category, apparel, was chosen, as it is one of the major purchase areas of a family. In South Africa, and especially in the Western Cape, the industrial nerve is the Clothing and Textiles Industry resulting in apparel manufacturing and retailing having a direct impact on thousands of individuals either by being consumers of the product or by being involved in the manufacturing and retailing of it.

3.5 SAMPLE SELECTION

The sample selection process was rigorously done by attempting to make provision for all the major limitations of store-intercept interviewing. Special attention was given to the type of stores selected, the geographical location of the stores, the respondent profile and the day of week and time of day for data collection.

3.4.1 TYPE OF STORES SELECTED

A list of stores representative of discount, chain speciality and department stores was generated from which to choose those that would be used as data gathering points. These categories were chosen to ensure that all major apparel store types were included. This made provision for various shopper profiles frequenting different types of stores and included the biggest possible sample population of female apparel shoppers. The criteria for inclusion in this study was to ensure that the stores were situated in all the geographical regions where data collection was to take place (Bellville, Stellenbosch, Klerksdorp, Potchefstroom) and that all three types of stores would be represented equally in the stores chosen for data collection. The choice of the geographical regions was based on convenience and to enhance the generalisation ability of the results again as the four cities/towns are situated in two different provinces i.e. Western Cape and North West. Semi-rural, urban and semi-urban areas are incorporated. These two provinces have different demographic profiles (e.g. with regard to ethnic groupings: one being dominated by Xhosas and the other Tswanas) contributing to a more representative sample profile as a reflection of the South African consumer.

Due to financial constraints not all the stores listed in each category could be used, resulting in a selection being made which was representative of the geographic placement of the store. Unfortunately, other retail types such as hawkers, home industries, flea markets, boutiques and designers, could not be included as differences exist between different geographical areas. The exact same retailers needed to be present in all the areas of data collection in order to improve the validity of the data. The following stores were targeted for data gathering based on the above-mentioned criteria:

Discount stores:	Mr Price; PEP Stores
Chain speciality:	Milady's; Foschini
Departmental:	Woolworths; Ackermans

Once the stores were chosen the time-consuming process of gaining managerial consent and support for the in-store collection of the data commenced. It was argued that it would be more effective and efficient to do the interview inside the store, thus improving the selection of the apparel shoppers according to the set criteria. Further benefits included a more appropriate environment for doing the interview, greater ease of selection of respondents due to the fact that they are in an apparel store and greater recall of apparel-related questions due to the fact that browsing and/or purchase has just taken place. Five of the six stores gave permission to do the in-store interview with their clients. In the case of the one store that declined our request, the data gathering took place in close proximity to the entrance of the store.

3.4.2 GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION OF THE STORE

A further obstacle that had to be overcome was the great variance in shopper profiles frequenting the same store, but in different areas of the same geographical area. In the City of Bellville this is very apparent as they have shopping areas frequented by different social classes (correlating with the residential areas in close proximity of the malls/stores) and sub-cultural groups. It was therefore decided to use the three main categories of stores (with 2 stores each) and select one store in a upper-middle social class shopping environment/mall (e.g. Tygervalley Centre) and one in lower-middle class shopping environments (Bellville Central Business district and N1 City). To a great extent Stellenbosch did not have this problem as the town is much smaller and the business area is located in the central area of the town. Potchefstroom and Klerksdorp, situated in North West Province, are similar to Stellenbosch with regards to the centralisation of the shopping areas.

This procedure was followed to curb self-selection and bias in selecting respondents as well as to increase the representation of the total social class spectrum of the

South African consumer population in order to enhance the generalisation of the results.

3.5.3 RESPONDENT PROFILE

A convenience stratified quota sample of respondents was selected in Stellenbosch, Bellville, Potchefstroom and Klerksdorp. Only female respondents were selected according to the following criteria:

- **Age group**: 18 – 55. The teenager market segment (13-17) and mature consumers (55 and over) was excluded due to the fact that they are considered separate market segments specifically with regard to apparel shopping (Chowdhary, 1989; Huddelston et al., 1990; Huddelston et al., 1993; Lumpkin & Greenberg, 1982; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993; Shim & Mahoney, 1992; Visser & Du Preez, 1998).

- **Population/Sub-cultural group**: It was decided to include African/black, coloured and white respondents (as defined by the race classification system prior to 1994) due to the fact that members of a specific sub-culture, i.e. race and ethnicity, possess beliefs, values, customs and behaviour that differentiate them from other members of the same society (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 1999; Hawkins et al., 1998; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). It could therefore be argued that these differences would culminate in a variation in apparel shopping behaviour. As a quota sampling method was used in two provinces (Western Cape and North West) the Indian cultural group was not included, as they are not the predominant race sub-cultural group in those geographical areas. Within the Western Cape the predominant African ethnic group is the Xhosas, and in Potchefstroom and Klerksdorp the Tswana group is the largest.

- **Shopping behaviour**: Respondents that browsed for apparel and/or bought apparel for themselves and/or their families from one of the following selected stores in which the data gathering took place, were interviewed.

Table 3.1 summarises the structure of the quota sampling method applied per town and ethnic group.

TABLE 3.1

SAMPLE QUOTA OF RESPONDENTS PER TOWN AND RACE SUB-CULTURAL GROUP

Classification of stores	Store	African /Black	Coloured	White	Total
DISCOUNT	Mr Price				132
Bellville		11	11	11	
Stellenbosch		11	11	11	
Klerksdorp		11	11	11	
Potchefstroom		11	11	11	
	PEP Stores				132
Bellville		11	11	11	
Stellenbosch		11	11	11	
Klerksdorp		11	11	11	
Potchefstroom		11	11	11	
CHAIN SPECIALTY	Foschini				132
Bellville		11	11	11	
Stellenbosch		11	11	11	
Klerksdorp		11	11	11	
Potchefstroom		11	11	11	
	Milady's				132
Bellville		11	11	11	
Stellenbosch		11	11	11	
Klerksdorp		11	11	11	
Potchefstroom		11	11	11	
DEPARTMENT	Ackermans				132
Bellville		11	11	11	
Stellenbosch		11	11	11	
Klerksdorp		11	11	11	
Potchefstroom		11	11	11	
	Woolworths				132
Bellville		11	11	11	
Stellenbosch		11	11	11	
Klerksdorp		11	11	11	
Potchefstroom		11	11	11	
TOTAL		**264**	**264**	**264**	**792**

3.5.4 DAY OF WEEK AND TIME OF DAY FOR DATA COLLECTION

Care must be taken not to "self-select" the sample according to the time of day and the day of the week that consumers shop (Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Bush & Hair, 1985; Forsythe & Bailey, 1996; McDonald, 1994; Peter & Olson, 1990). This is one of the major limitations of the mall/in-store intercept method of data gathering as many studies only focus on Thursday, Friday and Saturday shoppers, thus eliminating the week shopper and showing bias toward the weekend shopper. Due to time and money constraints data could not be gathered on each day of the week and in each timeslot. It was decided that Monday and Wednesday could be seen as representative of the week shoppers, and Friday and Saturday as representative of weekend shoppers. Sunday was excluded due to the fact that not all the stores in all the geographic regions are open on a Sunday.

The time of day data gathering takes place will also influence the profile of the respondent. Three time slots for data gathering were used in order to limit the profile bias and to make the sample representative of all the type of shoppers:

- Morning shoppers: 09:00 – 11:30
- Lunch time shoppers: 11:45 – 14:15
- Afternoon shoppers: 14:30 – 17:00

A typical store grid for a fieldworker will made provision for all the above as well as quotas per cultural group.

In order to adhere to the quota sampling method, fieldworkers used the store grid to assist them in monitoring the selection of participants. The researcher ascertained whether the correct method of respondent selection took place. Seven hundred and ninety nine questionnaires were filled out. The additional questionnaires were obtained by fieldworkers in their attempt to make provision for missing values or questionnaires not appropriate for further analysis. This resulted in varied numbers of respondents in the various statistical methods applied.

TABLE 3.2

EXAMPLE OF A STORE GRID

NAME OF STORE:												
	Monday			**Wednesday**			**Friday**			**Saturday**		
	9:00 - 11:30	11:45 - 14:15	14:30 - 17:00	9:00 - 11:30	11:45 - 14:15	14:30 - 17:00	9:00 - 11:30	11:45 - 14:15	14:30 - 17:00	9:00 - 11:30	11:45 - 14:15	**TOTAL**
African	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	11
Coloured	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	11
White	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	11

3.6 THE QUESTIONNAIRE AS MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENT

A questionnaire comprising of five sections, which are pertinent in answering the research question and reaching the stated objectives of this study, was developed as data gathering instrument. This was deemed appropriate as international instruments cannot be accepted as valid in South Africa (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). The development process and statistical guidelines for questionnaire development was followed in accordance to vast literature on this subject, and as far as practically feasible within the domains of this study (Dillon et al., 1994; Fox, 1989; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993; Nunnally, 1978; Oppenheim, 1996)

The questionnaire was developed by making use of published literature in the field of study as well as by compiling questions with the objectives of the study in mind. Some existing items were used and adapted for South African circumstances where necessary. All statements, except demographics were rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale. A number of reasons account for the use of Likert-type scales. Firstly, as the scale points were verbally anchored, respondents had clarity regarding the researcher's understanding of the value of the scale point (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 1999). This also increased the inter-rater reliability (Huysamen, 1994). Secondly, marketing and consumer literature supports the usage of Likert-type scales to measure attitudes (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000; Hawkins et al., 1998) and thirdly, Likert-type scales are generally accepted as the scaling method in consumer survey type research (Dillon et al., 1994; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993; Munson & McIntyre, 1979; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993).

However, controversy surrounds the choice of the number of points on the scale (Dillon et al., 1994; Armstrong cited in Perry, 2000). It is generally accepted that the more scale points, the more difficult it would be for respondents to distinguish between the different scale points. Given the fact that some respondents could have relatively low literacy levels and educational levels, it was deemed appropriate not to exceed a 5-point scale. Du Plessis and Rousseau (1999, p. 27) support this decision by stating that "Rating scales should not be too long, a five-point Likert-type scale is regarded as the most suitable for South Africa, especially when using verbal anchor points on the scale. When translating from one language to another, it is difficult to find adequate concepts reflecting degrees of difference on a scale larger than five. In developing countries it is also advisable to use less complex scales, ...".

The questionnaire was available in Afrikaans and English (see Appendix 4). Due to cost and practical feasibility it was not possible to translate the questionnaire into Xhosa and Twana. It was also not possible to identify fieldworkers that could speak all four languages. The language used was simple in order to make the questions as understandable as possible (Huysamen, 1994; Sinclair, 1997). The language of the questionnaire could be seen as a limitation in the research methodology.

As the questionnaire served as an instrument in the attainment of further research objectives, the following section will only concentrate on how the instrument was compiled. The analysis of the instrument variables and the results thereof will be discussed in the following chapter. Resulting from the above discussion regarding the construction of a questionnaire, the following sections were included in the questionnaire:

Section A: Patronage behaviour

Respondents were asked to indicate where they buy clothes and how often they buy clothes for themselves and/or their families ranging from "never" (1) to "very often" (5). Each of the Likert points was quantified, as "very often" might have different meaning for different respondents. The quantification of the Likert scale was as follows:

1 = Never
2 = Rarely (twice a year)
3 = Seldom (three times a year)
4 = Often (four times a year)
5 = Very often (more than five times a year)

Three discount stores (Mr Price, Pep Stores, and Smileys Wearhouse), five chain speciality stores (Bergers, Foschini, Milady's, Topics and Truworths), and three department stores (Ackermans, Edgars and Woolworths) were listed as well as a section in which consumers could indicate any other store of choice for apparel shopping. The listed stores were decided on, as they are well known and have outlets in Stellenbosch, Bellville, Klerksdorp, and Potchefstroom. Although adapted for South African circumstances, the decisions with regard to the grouping of stores were based on the research reported by Shim and Kotsiopulos (1992a).

Section B: Lifestyle

This section employed 30 lifestyle items adopted from previous research as well as items specifically written with the aims of the study in mind (Booher, 1996; Cassill & Drake, 1987b; Fox, 1989, Huddleston et al., 1990; Kwon et al., 1991; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1992a; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993; Visser & Du Preez, 1998; Visser & Du Preez, 1996; Visser, et al., 1996). Acceptable reliability (coefficient alpha above 0.5) for the items was reported in the various research findings.

Items representative of the different dimensions of lifestyle, as documented in the literature, were included, i.e.

- Activities and interests (e.g. hobbies, sports, museums, ballet) (10 items);
- Apparel specific lifestyle (9 items);
- Family and social involvement (4 items);
- Church and community involvement (3 items);
- Media (4 items).

Respondents were asked to indicate how often they engage in specific activities or visit certain places. Items were measured by using a quantified Likert-type scale ranging from "never" (1) to "very often" (5). The quantification remained the same for questions 1 to 26. For the questions relating to media usage, the Likert scale was not quantified as own interpretation of the scales deemed appropriate. The same five-point Likert-type scale was used.

Section C: Cultural consciousness

In order to measure the impact of culture on female shopping behaviour, the individualism versus collectivism dimension of culture was chosen (Hofstede, 1991). The choice of this dimension can be justified. Firstly, it deemed more appropriate than a "general" measurement of culture as well as a measurement of the other dimensions that account for variations in cultures, i.e. power distance, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity versus femininity (Hofstede, 1991; Solomon, 1999). Secondly, the researcher argued that this dimension could possibly shed more light on female apparel shopping behaviour than, for example, power distance (Forney & Rabolt, 1990). Lastly, this dimension is especially of interest in a multi-cultural consumer society such as South Africa, where we have a combination of more Western (individualistic) and more African (collectivistic) cultures (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 1999; Kotzé, 1993; Rieger & Blignaut, 1996).

A measurement of the cultural orientation/consciousness (individualism vs. collectivism) of the respondents was obtained from twelve Likert-type statements.

Six items each related to individualism and collectivism. Respondents were informed that the questions relate to their experience and how they saw themselves and their community. An indication of agreement or disagreement was noted on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging form strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). These statements were compiled from various sources and were also composed for the purposes of this study (Aaker & Maheswaran, 1997; Aaker & Williams, 1998; Burgoon et al., 1982; Gudykunst et al., 1988; Han & Shavitt, 1994; Hofstede, 1991; Kotzé, 1993; Morris & Peng, 1994; Rieger & Blignaut, 1996; Triandis, 1986; Triandis et al., 1988; Triandis, 1989; Triandis et al., 1990). Acceptable reliability (coefficient alpha above 0.5) was reported in the respective studies.

Section D: Shopping orientation

Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with 22 apparel shopping orientation statements. Shopping orientation was measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree (5). It became apparent that most research included several dimensions of shopping orientations. Although it was difficult to identify a definite factorial pattern from all the research, it seemed possible to categorise shopping orientations into new or proposed broad categories according to similarities and differences in shopping orientations. This attempt synthesised the large number of shopping orientation items, types and labels into more manageable categories (Gutman & Mills, 1982; Lumpkin, 1985; Lumpkin & Greenberg, 1982; Shim & Bickle, 1994; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1992 a & b, Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993; Visser & Du Preez, 1998; Visser & Du Preez, 1996; Visser, et al., 1996). Refer to section 2.7.2.3 in Chapter 2. These new categories were used to give guidance for the formulation of the shopping orientation items for the questionnaire. An attempt was made to include items that represented all the dimensions of shopping orientation. The following dimensions were included:

- Enjoyment (4 items);
- Shopping confidence (3 items);
- Fashion orientation (3 items);
- Time (2 items);

- Finance (4 items);
- Brand consciousness (3 items);
- Patronage (3 items).

Some items were written for the purpose of this study. Others were adapted from reported research (Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Gutman & Mills, 1982; Huddleston et al., 1993; Jarboe & McDaniel, 1987; Kwon et al., 1991; Lumpkin, 1985; Lumpkin & Greenberg, 1982; Lumpkin et al., 1981; Shim & Bickle, 1994; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1992a and 1992b; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993; Stoltman et al., 1991; Summers et al., 1992; Visser & Du Preez, 1998). Acceptable reliability (coefficient alpha above 0.5) was reported.

Section E: Demographics

This section included 13 demographic questions, i.e. race group, language, educational level, employment status, education, income and expenditure on apparel per month, marital status, number of children, age, mobility and religion. With regards to socially sensitive questions, i.e. race group, the fieldworker did not ask the question but indicated it herself on the questionnaire. If uncertain regarding the race classification of a possible respondent, the consumer was not approached. This strategy was deemed appropriate as an incorrect classification by the fieldworker could jeopardise the quota sampling method. The other questions relating to money spent on clothes, income and age were categorised in order to enhance the accuracy of the answer and to decrease socially acceptable responses.

3.6.1 PILOT TESTING OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire was presented for clarity to six female respondents representative of the geographic areas (Stellenbosch, Bellville, Klerksdorp and Potchefstroom) as well as the three race sub-cultural groups (African, coloured and white). The questionnaire was completed in the same interview manner in which the main study took place. The difficulty level of language as well as double negative items seemed to the most problematic, especially to respondents that were not completely fluent in Afrikaans or English. Changes suggested in this regard were introduced before finalising the questionnaire.

3.7 DATA GATHERING AND FIELDWORKER TRAINING

Fieldworkers were carefully selected and trained in order to ensure that the data gathering produced valid results and that the percentage of unusable questionnaires were kept to a minimum. With the selection of fieldworkers the following criteria prevailed: female; adult; speaking reading and writing English and Afrikaans fluently; with an agreeable personality who would be able to approach shoppers in a friendly manner. Fieldworkers ranged in age from 18 to 55 years old and were from the white race group. The fieldworkers were compensated for each completed interview/questionnaire. Twelve fieldworkers were selected in total of which seven gathered data in the Western Cape and five in North-West Province. The data gathering and fieldworker training in the North-West Province were done under the guidance of Prof. AM van Aardt of University of Potchefstroom. Data gathering took place simultaneously in both the provinces between 26 – 31 July 1999 and 2 – 7 August 1999 thus incorporating month-end shoppers and individuals shopping at the beginning of the month.

Fieldworker training: As data was to be gathered in-store by fieldworkers, training was of the utmost importance. A training session was scheduled a week before the data was to be gathered. It was decided to do the training close in time proximity to the actual process of in-store interviews (just-in-time training) as the fieldworkers had to be able to recollect most of the information exposed to in the training session (refer to Appendix 5). In the training session the following were discussed:

- The goals of the research;
- Criteria for selection of participants;
- The selection of participants;
- The questionnaire and method of interviewing;
- The data capture on the questionnaire in formic format;
- Store grids;
- Practicalities: gifts, questionnaire handling, contact persons and other.

Goals and criteria: Fieldworkers were briefed on the goals of the research so as to create an understanding of what the goal of the research was and how they could assist in reaching this goal. The criteria for the selection of participants were discussed in full as the correct selection of participants was imperative.

Selection of participants: Every female consumer, after browsing and/or purchasing apparel for themselves and/or their families, was earmarked as a possible respondent according to the set criteria. After approaching the customer and identifying herself, the fieldworker offered information regarding the study. The respondent was then requested to partake in the study. If she was willing to partake, the interview commenced. If the respondent was willing but could not do so immediately due to time and other constraints, a telephonic interview was suggested at the time of convenience for the interviewee (but within 24 hours). The respondent was then issued with a scale sheet and a gift and reminded of the time of the interview and to have the scale sheet at hand. These telephonic interviews were conducted in exactly the same manner as the personal interviews. This procedure was followed until the quotas for that specific store, day, timeslot and population group in the respective towns had been reached. Respondents that fitted the criteria set in section 3.5.3 were therefore approached by the fieldworker after she had finished the previous interview. This process was continued until the quota had been reached.

Questionnaire and method of interviewing: Fieldworkers were briefed on the different sections of the questionnaire and the reason for including each section in accordance with the goals of the study. The method of interviewing was of critical importance to ensure standardisation and scientific data gathering. The following method of interviewing was prescribed after the respondent agreed to be interviewed.

❖ Respondents must be given a questionnaire scale sheet and explained that they can refer to the relevant scales for each section and need only call out the number of their answer e.g. if the answer is "never", call out 1 (refer to Appendix 5).

- ❖ The fieldworker then proceeds to read the general introduction and stresses the fact that there is no "right" or "wrong" answers, that interviews are done anonymously and that the questionnaires will be handled in the strictest confidence.
- ❖ The background sentence and instructions for each section are read and the scale is explained in accordance with the scale sheet. The fieldworker should not discuss, lead or give own opinions on items.
- ❖ Fieldworkers were issued with specific examples to give in order to clarify the questions in cases where questions are not understood.
- ❖ The questionnaire is not shown to the interviewee to choose alternatives, but she should state her choice by choosing the appropriate number of her response (from the scale sheet), which is then marked by the fieldworker.
- ❖ Fieldworkers proceeded in the above manner throughout the whole questionnaire, taking approximately 15 minutes to complete each.

The above-mentioned method of interviewing was rehearsed during the training session in order for the researcher to monitor the interview method being followed, and to make recommendations for possible changes.

Data capture: The questionnaire was designed in Formic format (a computerised scanning and data-capturing program) in order to ensure accurate data capturing via the computer. The correct indication of respondents' answers (by the fieldworkers) was therefore of the utmost importance as the scanner has certain parameters in which accurate reading can take place. The method of indicating answers was explained and practised.

Store grid: Fieldworkers made use of a store grid to document the quotas for each day, time slot and population group. Fieldworkers simulated the filling out of the store grids during the training session. In the event of quotas not being filled, data gathering would extended for another week.

Practicalities: Each fieldworker was issued with questionnaires, scale sheets and documents for identification purposes. Contact names and telephone numbers were provided. The gifts for the respondents (confectionery) partaking in the study were also issued.

3.8 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical analysis was performed with the use of the SPSS 8.0 statistical packages (1998). The statistical analysis methods used were chosen and applied in accordance with the aims and objectives of the study, after consultation with a statistician. It is imperative that, in order to make sound conclusions and recommendations, the correct and applicable statistical analyses are performed on the data gathered. The appropriateness of the various statistical analyses were confirmed from literature and with statistical experts and researchers in the field of Social Sciences.

The following section will give a brief overview of the statistical methods applied and the motivation for using these methods. The results of the analysis will be discussed in the following chapter.

3.8.1 RELIABILITY AND CONSTRUCT VALIDITY

Two techniques, i.e. item analysis and factor analysis, were used to assist in determining the reliability and construct validity of sections A, B, C and D of the questionnaire. The motivation for including both these techniques lies therein that in order to increase the reliability and validity of the questionnaire, it is significant to ascertain that the items included are both of acceptable item-total correlations and that they correlate highly among themselves (Ghiselli, Campbell & Zedeck, 1981; Nunnally, 1978). This approach was deemed appropriate to prevent the inclusion of items in further analyses that did not show acceptable item-total correlations, that did not discriminate, that did not load on a specific factor and therefore did not contribute to the overall reliability and construct validity of the questionnaire. Various researchers underscore this point of view, as they see the combination of item analysis and factor analysis as the optimal combination for the construction (taking into account the factorial structure/composition of the construct) and consequent purification of a questionnaire for further data analysis (Ghiselli et al., 1981; Kline, 1994; Nunnally, 1978; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993; SPSS Data Base 8.0 Application Guide, 1998).

Content validity focuses on whether the scale items cover the entire domain of the construct under study adequately (Dillon et al., 1994; Nunnally, 1978). To improve the content validity the researcher focussed the literature study on all the sub-domains of the different constructs. The questionnaire compilation was done in accordance with the guidelines for content validity, i.e. the identification and inclusion of items measuring all the sub-dimensions of the construct (as identified in the literature review).

The **face validity** of the questionnaire is high. *Face validity* refers to the extent to which measurement scales designed to measure the same construct are related on face value (Dillon et al., 1994, p. 325). Through the literature review various other researchers' questionnaires were studied and the manner in which the various measurement scales of the different constructs were designed showed similarity to the questionnaire content and format applied in this study (refer to references cited under section 3.6 – questionnaire construction).

3.8.2 FACTOR ANALYSIS

The primary goal of factor analysis is to find the dimensions or factors underlying a set of items. Factor analysis is applied to the observed correlations between the items. Factor analysis was performed applying the principal component analysis application with varimax (an orthogonal) rotation and Kaiser normalisation. This method deemed appropriate, as the dual purpose of the factor analysis was firstly to assist in increasing the reliability of the questionnaire by only including items that loaded on a specific factor in the subsequent analysis of the data. The secondary motivation for applying the factor analysis was to disclose the underlying factorial structure of the various variables. The researcher usually envisages a small number of principle components or factors that explain a large amount of variance in the data (Chatfield & Collins, 1980; Sheth & Tigert, 1977; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989). These principle components should subsequently simplify the interpretation of large data sets without a meaningful loss of data.

3.8.3 CLUSTER ANALYSIS

Cluster analysis is a multivariate procedure for detecting groupings in data and is a good technique to use in exploratory data analysis (SPSS Base 8.0 Application Guide, 1998, p. 293). The principle goal of a cluster analysis is to group objects or cases according to their scores on one or more variables. In other words, to arrive at clusters of objects or cases that display small within-cluster variation relative to the between-cluster variation (Dillon et.al., 1994; Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998; West, 1991). These clusters can then be profiled in accordance with the mean values of the variables, which distinguish between the clusters. In the present study a hierarchical clustering procedure was applied, namely Ward's method, together with the Squared Euclidean distance method as the measure of similarity. Hierarchical clustering starts with each object in its own "cluster". Then the two objects that are most similar (according to the squared Euclidean distance method) are combined, to form a new aggregate cluster. This process of combining two clusters at a time is repeated until a manageable number of clusters is derived. The final number of clusters to be derived is more than often decided upon by practical judgement. Hierarchical clustering distinguishes itself from other clustering algorithms, as the allocation of a object to a specific cluster is irrevocable (Dillon et al., 1994; Hair et al., 1998). Standardisation of the variables was done prior to the analysis (SPSS Base 8.0 Application Guide, 1998).

The clustering technique is often used in Social Sciences research as the grouping and consequent description of objects or individuals are often the objectives of research. This technique has been successfully applied by various researchers in the field of Consumer Behaviour and Apparel and Textiles (Littrell et al., 1999; McDonald, 1994; Shim & Bickle, 1994; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993; Visser & Du Preez, 1998, Visser & Du Preez, 1996; Visser et al., 1996).

3.8.4 ONE-WAY MANOVA AND ONE-WAY ANOVA

The purpose of performing a one-way MANOVA (multivariate analysis of variance) is to establish whether the dependant variables (shopping orientation, cultural consciousness, and lifestyle) differ as a whole across the cluster groups (independent variable). If an overall difference is found between groups, separate one-way ANOVA's (analysis of variance) are employed to establish which of the dependant variables differ significantly along the cluster groupings (Dillion et al., 1994; Hair et al., 1998; SPSS Base 8.0 Application Guide, 1998).

ANOVA is applied when there is a need to test the hypothesis of no differences among means for two or more independent sample groups. The one-way ANOVA procedure was applied, as we needed to establish **which** of the dependent variables varied significantly along the different cluster memberships (independent variable).

Ho: $\mu 1 = \mu 2 = \mu 3$

Ha: $\mu 1 \neq \mu 2 \neq \mu 3$

Analysis of variance is often referred to as the F-test (Bless & Kathuria, 1993; Dillon et al., 1987). In the ANOVA the total variability of the scores, i.e. within-group variation and between-group variation, is considered. This results in the between-group variation being at least equal to or larger than the within-group variation. If the F-ratio takes a value near to 1, it will indicate that the null hypothesis can be accepted, i.e. there are no significant differences between the groups. If the purpose of the study is to study the characteristics of groups, then the between-group variation becomes important as it is a reflection of the significance of the difference of the effect of the independent variable on that specific group.

The ANOVA will therefore give an indication of which of the dependent variables differ significantly across the cluster groups, whereas the one-way MANOVA gives an indication as to whether the dependent variables as a whole differ significantly across the cluster groups. The ANOVA procedure is therefore important to establish exactly which of the dependant variables attribute significantly to the differences between groups, as these variables will be used extensively in the typology of the different clusters.

3.8.5 POST HOC TESTS - BONFERRONI MULTIPLE COMPARISONS

If the null hypothesis in the above two analysis is rejected, i.e. having concluded that the cluster groups differentiate statistically significantly between the dependent variables as a group (one-way MANOVA) as well as (some) individual dependent variables (one-way ANOVA), it seems appropriate to investigate between which of these clusters these differences lie. A t-statistic is not recommended as " ... the probability associated with the t statistic assumes that only one test is performed. When several means are tested pairwise the probability of finding one significant pair by chance alone increases rapidly with the number of pairs, in other words, an inflated Type I error ..." (SPSS Base 8.0 Application Guide, 1998, p. 126). A multiple comparison method is suggested of which the Bonferroni method was applied.

3.9 SCHEMATIC SUMMARY OF STATISTICAL PROCEDURE

All the statistical approaches were chosen to attain the specific goals of this study. It is only when the correct and appropriate statistical analyses are applied that valid conclusions with regards to the results of the study, can be made. The statistical methods and applications were chosen and applied by a statistician, after consultation with subject matter experts.

The statistical procedure followed can be represented schematically (refer to Figure 3.1). This approach could simplify the understanding of the "road map" provided by the research methodology for the attainment of the empirical research objectives.

3.10 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

All research takes place within boundaries. The choices made regarding the research methodology applied in this research have some limitations, i.e.:

- The language of the questionnaire. Due to financial and practical concerns, the questionnaire could not be made available in four languages. No fieldworker would have been fluent in all four languages.

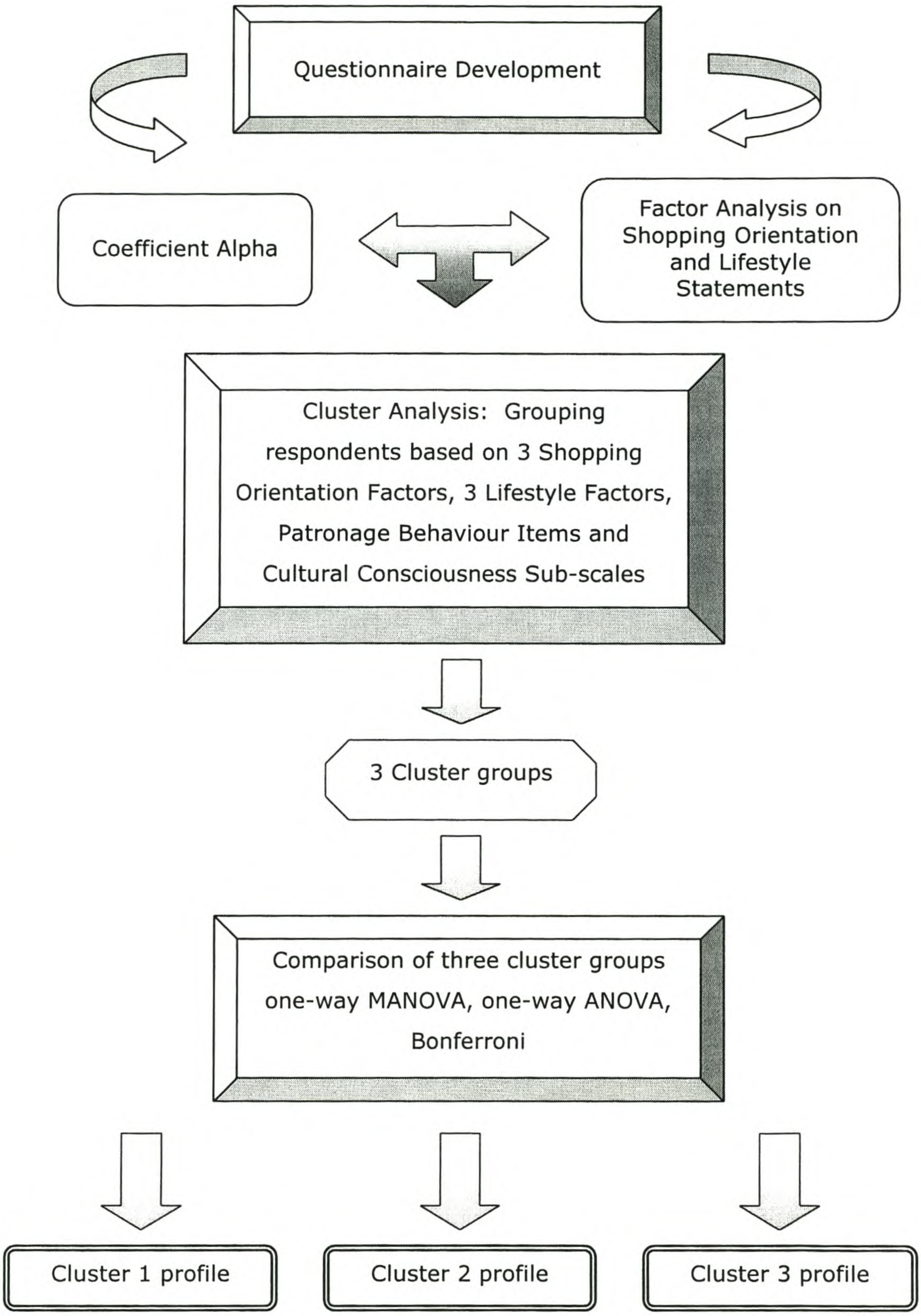

FIGURE 3.1 SUMMARY OF STATISTICAL PROCEDURE

This limitation could hold implications for the comprehension of some of the items.

- The ethnic group affiliation or race of the fieldworkers. All fieldworkers were from the white population group. This could have lead to some respondents declining to be interviewed and the giving of socially acceptable answers with regards to some questions.
- The store selection could negatively impact on the generalisation of the research results. Other retail formats, such as the World Wide Web (Internet shopping), hawkers, home-industries, catalogues and boutiques where apparel items can be bought, were not included. It could be possible that female apparel shoppers that choose to patronage these retail formats, could display other characteristics. These formats were not included as they are not similar in the selected geographical areas.
- The selection of four geographical locations for data collection. The selection of the geographical locations was based on practical and financial considerations. Not all ethnic groups of South Africa are represented in the selected areas and the generalisation of the results could be hampered as a result of this.

The researcher approached the choice of research methodology in such a way that some of the limitations could be controlled within the boundaries of finance and practicality. However, cognisance was taken of the impact of the limitations on the data generated and the results thereof.

3.11 CONCLUSION

The application of the appropriate research methodology to any form of scientific research is critical (Du Preez & Visser, 2001). No reliable and valid conclusions and recommendations can be drawn from data gathered and analysed according to incorrect research methodology. This research attempted to follow the scientific research method by using the most appropriate methods for statistical analysis and to recognise the possible pitfalls of the different methods and deductions, assumptions and conclusions made as a result thereof. The results and discussion of the research project will be presented in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The principle aim of this chapter is to provide the results, interpretation and discussion of the data analysis. Chapter three presented the methodology that was followed in order to gather the data and gave an overview of the statistical procedures applied. The results and the interpretation and discussion thereof, cannot be separated meaningfully in the present study as too much repetition would occur. Chapter four therefore includes both the presentation of the data analysis, and the discussion and implementation thereof. The presentation is done in similar order to the objectives set for this study. A graphic summary of the objectives and consequent results and discussion are presented in Figure 4.1.

4.2 SAMPLE PROFILE

The results of the biographic information give a descriptive profile of the respondents partaking in this study. As some of the respondents did not answer all the questions (missing cases), the total sample size varies for the different variables.

This study contributes to research within a multi-cultural context. In order for the research to represent the multi-cultural nature of the South African society, the three main race sub-cultural population groups, as described by race definitions in the previous political dispensation, were included in the sample. A near equal representation of African/black (n = 246 or 33.84%), white (n = 244 or 33.56%) and coloured (n = 237 or 32.60%) was obtained through quota sampling procedures. The sample could therefore be considered as a reflection of the multi-cultural nature of the South African society within the geographical boundaries of the study.

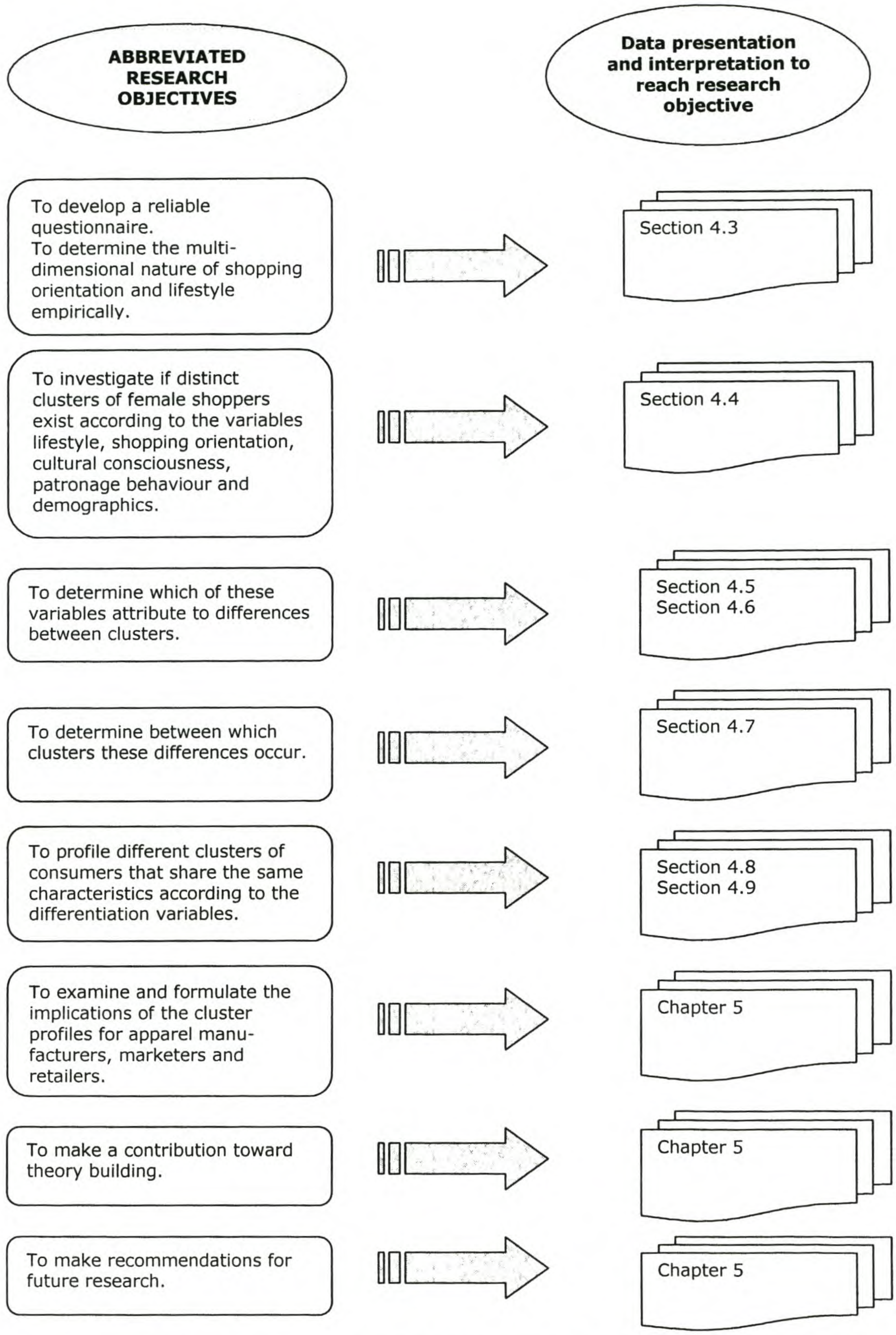

FIGURE 4.1: SUMMARY: THE PRESENTATION OF DATA TO REACH THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The home language spoken is a reflection of the sample composition.

TABLE 4.1

LANGUAGE DISTRIBUTION

LANGUAGE	N	Percentage (%)
Afrikaans	392	53.55
English	77	10.51
Xhosa	74	10.10
Tswana	88	12.02
Bilingual	81	11.06
Other	20	2.73
Total	**732**	**100.00**

The large number of Afrikaans respondents (53%) can possibly be attributed to the geographical regions in which the data gathering took place. These regions are predominantly Afrikaans-speaking with reference to coloured and white respondents. The Tswana (12%) and Xhosa (10%) representation is also attributed to the geographical regions selected for this study.

The **age distribution** of the total sample is reported in Table 4.2. The near equal age distribution is an advantage in this study as it reduces the possibility that age, as a single variable, had a significant indirect impact on cluster formation.

As apparel was studied, it can be argued that the age of the respondents could be indirectly predominantly responsible for the formation of different clusters, but, as can be seen, all age groups (as per prior definition of respondents) were represented in approximately equal proportions. Age does impact on shopping behaviour, especially with regards to the purchase of apparel (Chowdhary, 1999; Shim & Mahoney 1992; Usenier, 1996; Visser et al., 1996). The influence of the reference group is also more dominant in the teenage years, and the impact thereof can be seen in the apparel of teenagers (Childers & Rao, 1992; Kaiser, 1990; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000; Wells & Prensky, 1996).

TABLE 4.2

AGE DISTRIBUTION

AGE	N	Percentage (%)
18-21	98	13.40
22-25	113	15.45
26-29	114	15.59
30-34	120	16.41
35-39	101	13.81
40-49	112	15.32
50-55	66	9.02
56 and older	7	0.01
Total	**731**	**100.00**

The seven respondents in the age group 56 and older should have been excluded from the study (as per definition of the respondent screening profile). However, it was decided to include this very small percentage as the fieldworker approached these respondents with the perception that they were younger than 55. As the biographical information comprised the last section of the questionnaire, the actual age of the respondent was only recorded then.

A summary of additional **biographic and demographic results** is tabulated in Table 4.3. The sample size (n) varies due to the non-response of some of the respondents.

TABLE 4.3

BIOGRAPHIC AND DEMOGRAPIC VARIABLES

VARIABLE	CATEGORIES	n	%
Highest educational level – respondent (n = 719)	Primary	48	6.67
	Grade 10	159	22.11
	Grade 12	277	38.50
	Diploma(s)	133	18.49
	B Degree	70	9.73
	Post Graduate	32	4.45
Highest educational level – husband (n = 357)	Primary	20	5.60
	Grade 10	65	18.20
	Grade 12	124	34.73
	Diploma(s)	56	15.68
	B Degree	52	14.56
	Post Graduate	40	11.20
Employment status (n = 733)	Unemployed	43	5.86
	Professional (e.g. doctor, director)	22	3.00
	Clerical, salesperson, technician, secretarial	290	39.50
	Homemaker	106	14.46
	Middle management (e.g. educator, nursing sister)	92	12.55
	Retired	12	1.30
	Corporate (e.g. manager)	15	3.53
	Student	88	12.00
	Domestic or farm worker	24	3.27
	Self-employed / entrepreneur	14	1.90
	Service industry	16	2.18

VARIABLE	CATEGORIES	n	%
Total monthly income (gross) (n = 719)	Less than R500	61	8.48
	R501 - R1000	75	10.43
	R1001 - R3000	202	28.09
	R3001 - R5000	126	17.52
	R5001 - R7000	71	9.87
	R7001- R10 000	64	8.90
	R10 001 - R20 000	93	12.93
	R20 001 and more	27	3.75
Family clothing expenditure per month (n = 728)	Less than R99	39	5.36
	R100 - R199	116	15.93
	R200 - R299	147	20.19
	R300 - R399	137	18.81
	R400 - R499	107	14.69
	R500 or more	182	25.00
Marital status (n = 731)	Married	366	50.06
	Never married	317	43.36
	Divorced	30	4.10
	Widow	18	2.46
Years married (n = 377)	1 - 4 years	57	15.11
	5 - 8 years	68	18.03
	9 - 12 years	79	20.95
	Longer than 13 years	173	45.88
Religion (n = 730)	Roman Catholic	40	5.47
	Christian	676	92.60
	Muslim	8	1.09
	Agnostic	6	0.82
Vehicle ownership (n = 728)	None / make use of public transport	103	14.14
	None / make use of taxi	180	24.72
	One	212	29.12
	Two	167	22.93
	Three or more	66	9.06

The sample has a relatively high educational level as 71% have attained a Grade 12 (Standard 10) qualification or higher. This high educational level is, however, not a true reflection of the educational level of the South African but is probably due to the geographical regions (in the proximity of universities) in which data collection took place (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 1999).

The highest proportion of respondents is in the clerical and secretarial occupational grouping, with homemakers as the second largest grouping. Middle management positions (e.g. educators, nursing sisters) and students make up the other substantial groups. As the respondents were all female, these results are on a par with the expected results. If the Bartos classification of working and non-working wives are applied to the sample (note in this instance that the respondents are not necessarily "wives" as not all the women in the sample were married), non-working individuals comprise 25% of the sample and working individuals comprise 73% of the sample. This excludes the student category (Bartos, 1994; Cassill 1990). The marital status of the respondents is another important variable in this study as 50% of the respondents are married. This figure could be of importance, as it will have an effect on the family expenditure on apparel items. Married women are the single largest spender on apparel items and are therefore an important market segment for the stakeholders in the apparel industry.

The educational and employment status of the women in this sample could also have implications for a broad spectrum of apparel shopping behaviour and decision-making applications. It can be argued that women with high levels of education would most probably remain employed after having children, thus displaying a different employment orientation than women with lower educational levels. Bartos (1994) segmented working women with regards to employment orientation into two groups, i.e. career-orientated and just-a-job working women. Non-working women were segmented into plan-to-work housewives and stay-at-home housewives. As discussed in Section 2.8.2.1.4, these orientations have a definite impact on:

- Information search patterns (Shim & Drake, 1988; Shim & Drake, 1989; Shim & Drake, 1990);
- Catalogue usage patterns (Kim et al., 1996);
- Market segmentation (Schaninger et al., 1993);

- Price sensitivity and deal proneness (Schaninger et al., 1993);
- Advertising appeals (Schaninger et al., 1993);
- Apparel decision-making (brand, fibre content, care and origin) and evaluative criteria for apparel (Cassill, 1990);
- Lifestyle and evaluative criteria for selecting social apparel (Cassill & Drake, 1987 a & b; Shim & Drake, 1990).

However, employment orientation was not measured explicitly in this study, and could only be deduced from the educational level and employment status of the respondents. It can, however, be said that literature has given much support to the fact that employment orientation would impact on apparel decision-making and consequent shopping behaviour. All stakeholders in the apparel industry should therefore have an understanding of the demographic and psychographic profile of their target market in order to make provision for the impact thereof on apparel shopping behaviour.

Nineteen percent of respondents' total household income was lower than R1000.00 per month. The lower middle income group (28% = R1001 - R3000 and 18% = R3001 - R7000) was the largest income bracket as 46% of respondents fell into this income bracket. The upper middle income bracket was represented by 10% earning between R5001 and R7000 per month, and 9% earning between R7001 - R10 000 per month. This gives a total of 19% of the respondents falling in the upper middle income group. The higher income groups (17% = R10 001 and more) were well represented. It must be taken into account that approximately 50% of the total sample are presumably single income households as they have never been married, are divorced or have been widowed. The income distribution must also be interpreted in context with employment status, as for example students (12%) and homemakers (14%) do not earn a regular income.

The amount of income earned in a family, economic conditions and lifestyle will all impact on the percentage of the disposable income available for apparel purchases. Care should be taken when interpreting the above income statistics as they are gross monthly incomes and do not give an indication of the nett monthly income of the family. Low income does not always equate to low amounts spent on apparel, for example students may earn R500.00 per month, but due to their other expenditures being covered by, for example, their parents and bursaries, they can spend a large proportion of their money on apparel items. As discussed in Section 2.8.2.1.4.2 of Chapter two, consumption expenditure patterns differ between culture and ethnic groups. Differences also exist regarding brand loyalty, brand prestige and shopping behaviour (Deshpande et al., 1986; Donthu & Cherian, 1992; Kim et al., 1990; Li & Xiao, 1998; Oswald, 1999; Zmud, 1992). The research methodology followed (presented in Chapter 3), made provision for the impact of sub-culture on expenditure patterns, as a quota sample prevented that respondents only represented one sub-cultural group. If it became apparent that respondents of one sub-cultural group were predominant in certain expenditure patterns, it would not have been as a result of the sample composition. The composition of the various cluster groups will be discussed in subsequent sections of chapter four.

Thirty-nine percent of the sample do not own a vehicle and depend on public transport or a taxi. Twenty-nine percent of the sample own one vehicle in the household, while 32% own two or more. Transport is thus available even though it is not always private transport. Retailers must take this into account when selecting a retail outlet targeted at their specific target market. If the lower end of the market is targeted, outlets will have to be situated in close proximity to public transport or easily accessible to taxis, so as not to increase the item price due to travelling costs. Vehicle ownership will further impact on the ability of the female apparel shopper to out-shop (shopping for apparel in other geographical areas). Morris (1992) emphasised the importance of distribution and stated that availability of merchandise is the key to successful marketing to especially African/black consumers. Other areas of impact can include: the revenue generated by local apparel stores; the ability of local and out-shopping stores to satisfy the apparel needs of consumers and the general levels of satisfaction the female apparel consumer experiences with local apparel stores.

The income statistics, occupational status and family composition reflect in the amount of money spent on apparel per family. The largest proportion (25%) of the sample spend more than R500.00 per month on apparel. The second and third largest groups spend between R200 - R299 and R300 - R399 respectively. As apparel is a basic commodity even the very poor need to spend some money toward apparel (5% spend less than R99.00).

Sub-culture influences expenditure patterns. Various researchers (refer to section 2.8.2.1.4.2 in Chapter 2) have indicated that differences exist between ethnic groups and consumption patterns, attitudes toward advertising, brand loyalty and shopping behaviour. Important for the present study, is that fact that differences in sub-culture or ethnic group will also impact on the perception of brand prestige (Fan, 1994; Fan, 1997; Harps-Logan, 1997; Pitts, 1990; Wagner & Soberson-Ferrer, 1990).

The number of children in a household and their respective ages would have a significant impact on the amount of money spent on apparel per month. The family statistics are summarised in Table 4.4.

It is apparent that the family composition reflect relative youth as a large percentage of families (81%) have a child under the age of five with 15% indicating two children under the age of five. Seventy-six percent of families indicated one child between 6 and 11 years and 65% of families have one child between the ages of 12 and 17. Families with children 18 years and older (1 child, 35%; 2 children, 35% and 3 children 17%) are also well represented. This could be attributed to the age profile of the respondents and the number of years married (46% have been married for longer than 13 years).

The Christian faith showed the highest representation (92%). Some respondents could have classified the Roman Catholic religion as Christian as they might have been unaware that their religion had a separate category (due to the question/answer format of the interview). Religion, as sub-cultural influence on buying behaviour, will also influence the purchasing of apparel goods. Kaiser (1997) stated that strong religion affiliation (in certain communities) impacts especially on the purchase of apparel items. Religions such as Buddhism, the Amish, and Islam all have prescribed accepted dress codes. In the Christian faith, the acceptable dress code is less explicit and individuals adhere to "unwritten" dress codes. The impact of religious affiliation on apparel buying behaviour would therefor not be explicit in the present study. The prevailing trend that women are responsible for the bulk of apparel purchases for the family is strengthened by the cultural belief system, thus again emphasising the importance of studying women as a purchasing agent for apparel (Bartos, 1994; Nelson, 1994).

TABLE 4.4

NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN FAMILY ACCORDING TO DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS

AGE GROUPS	Number of children	n	%
5 years and younger	1	172	81.13
	2	33	15.56
	3	3	1.41
	4	2	0.94
6 to 11 years	1	164	75.92
	2	43	19.90
	3	6	2.77
	4	1	0.46
12 to 17 years	1	109	64.88
	2	53	31.54
	3	5	2.97
18 years and older	1	54	34.83
	2	54	34.83
	3	27	17.41
	4	11	7.09
	5	5	3.22
	6	3	1.93

4.3 QUESTIONNAIRE RELIABILITY AND THE MULTI-DIMENSIONALITY OF SELECTED CONSTRUCTS

It was necessary to develop a questionnaire for measuring selected variables, i.e. apparel shopping orientation, lifestyle and cultural consciousness, as variables impacting on female apparel shopping behaviour. The total questionnaire incorporated these variables as well as two sections relating to patronage behaviour and biographic information. The nature of the questions with regards to patronage behaviour (how often do you buy clothes for yourself and/or family at the following stores?) and biographic information, does not lend itself to reliability analysis.

A researcher cannot with any confidence depend on further analysis of data unless the reliability of a questionnaire is determined. The reliability of this questionnaire was determined by combining two techniques, i.e. item analysis with coefficient alpha measurements as well as factor analysis. Factor analysis was performed by applying the principle component analysis application with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalisation. As previously stated in chapter three, this approach was deemed appropriate in order to prevent the inclusion of items that did not contribute to the overall reliability of the questionnaire.

From the literature study discussed in Chapter 2 it was evident that lifestyle and shopping orientation were not single dimensional variables. This resulted in the development of questionnaire sub-scales based on the components postulated in the literature. One of the secondary objectives set for the present study (refer to Chapter 3, objective 4) was consequently to disclose the multi-dimensionality of selected constructs included in the study, by means of logical reasoning and relevant statistical methods. The results of the statistical procedure, i.e. factor analysis, are reported here in order to attain the objective set.

4.3.1 LIFESTYLE

Lifestyle can be defined as a construct referring to patterns in which people live and spend time and money (Engel et al., 1995). Various definitions of lifestyle exist, but most researchers would agree that lifestyle is a complex multidimensional construct that changes over time, has perceptible and non-perceptible components, incorporates psychographics and influences all aspects of consumption behaviour. Activities, interests and opinions (psychographics) form a major part of an individual's lifestyle together with culture, community involvement, social interaction and media usage. The items of the lifestyle sub-scale were written with the aim of the study as guideline, thus focussing on apparel, and apparel-related lifestyle issues (Booher, 1996; Cassill & Drake, 1987b; Fox, 1989; Huddleston et al., 1990; Kwon et al., 1991; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1992a; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993; Visser & Du Preez, 1998; Visser & Du Preez, 1996; Visser et al., 1996). The total lifestyle section of the questionnaire comprised 30 items. An attempt was made to include as many of the sub-dimensions of lifestyle as possible, within the constraints of the length of the questionnaire and therefore the time to fill out the questionnaire. As previously stated in Chapter 3, the items of the lifestyle section of the questionnaire comprised the following:

- Activities, sport and cultural interests: Items 1 - 10
- Apparel-specific lifestyle: Items 11 - 19
- Family and social involvement: Items 20 - 23
- Church and community involvement: Items 24 - 26
- Media usage: Items 27 - 30

The reliability of the individual scales, grouped according to postulated dimensions, were not satisfactory. Three of the sub-scales have reliabilities lower than .50. The results are as follows:

- Activities (6 items; $\alpha = 0.347$)
- Sport (2 items; $\alpha = 0.447$)
- Cultural activities (2 items; $\alpha = 0.619$)
- Apparel-specific lifestyle (9 items; $\alpha = 0.660$)
- Family and social involvement (4 items; $\alpha = 0.559$)
- Church and community involvement (3 items; $\alpha = 0.402$)
- Media usage (4 items; $\alpha = 0.562$)

The items were subsequently subjected to a factor analysis (principle component analysis application with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalisation) of which the results are reported in Table 4.5. Only loadings greater than .30 are reported here. Refer to Appendix 6 for the complete factor loadings. It is evident that the postulated structure/multi-dimensionality of the lifestyle construct was not clearly shown as separate components in the factor analyses. The lifestyle dimensions were however evident in other combinations, resulting in the three lifestyle components. This was an interesting result as three components were more representative of a "mixture" of the various postulated dimensions of lifestyle. The factor analysis resulted in specific lifestyles or lifestyle types (comprising various dimensions of lifestyle) loading on a specific component. This lead to three different "lifestyles" (where different dimensions of lifestyle have varying levels of importance according to the respective factor loadings) being portrayed by the three components.

TABLE 4.5

ROTATED COMPONENT MATRIX FOR LIFESTYLE

QUESTION	COMPONENT		
	1	2	3
21	.645		
9	.642		
10	.587		
15	.585		
1	.557		
16	.551		
17	.548		
7	.538		
5	.537		
19	.512		
20	.434		
8	.361		
6	.361		
29	.316		
11		.654	
12		.582	
14		.513	
13		.492	
23		.481	
18		.472	
27		.449	
30		.419	
28		.417	
3			.644
2			.626
24			.512
25			.478
22			.470
26			.425
4			.363

The three components extracted, explained 32.08% of the total variance. This result was disappointing, however, the primary aim of factor analysis in this study was not to explain an optimal amount of variance in the different constructs, but rather to develop a measurement that measured reliably (internal consistency). Increased reliability could be partly achieved by eliminating items that did not load significantly on the three components of the lifestyle variable. No items based on factor analysis were deleted. The reliability of the lifestyle components (derived from the factor analysis) was determined by coefficient alpha. The results are summarised in Table 4.6. Refer to Appendix 7 for the complete reliability analysis.

TABLE 4.6

RELIABILITY: LIFESTYLE SCALE

LIFESTYLE	NUMBER OF ITEMS	COEFFICIENT ALPHA
Total scale	**30**	**0.8196**
Component 1	14	0.8003
Component 2	9	0.6773
Component 3	7	0.5750

The reliability of the lifestyle scale is satisfactory compared to the reliability of similar lifestyle questionnaires. Shim and Kotsiopulos (1993, p. 78) also made use of the combination of coefficient alpha and factor analysis in order to increase the reliability of the questionnaire. Coefficient alphas ranged form .70 to .79 and factor loadings ranged from .58 to .80 in the lifestyle section of the questionnaire applied to measure apparel shopping orientation. Visser et al., (1996, p.3) reported lifestyle coefficient alphas ranging from 0.43 to 0.78.

The three components of lifestyle will be discussed in full in the following sections. It is evident that these components are a combination of the various postulated dimensions of lifestyle, thus confirming the various dimensions, but not in a separate lifestyle dimensions, as postulated.

Lifestyle Component 1

Items 1, 5-10, 15-17, 19-21 and 29 (14 items) loaded on component 1. The items could be categorised as follows:

- Interests: travelling for work and pleasure, visiting art museums, ballet and opera
- Activities: physical exercise and playing or attending sport activities, movies

- ❖ Apparel shopping: visiting boutiques and designers studios and reading of fashion literature
- ❖ Social interaction: fashion shows, entertaining friends, dinner parties at home or dining in restaurants
- ❖ Media usage: newspapers

From the above it can be deduced that the lifestyle items loading on component 1 reflects a typical **yuppie lifestyle** (young and upcoming). Theoretical dimensions of lifestyle are represented in this component. Respondents having high scores on lifestyle component 1 could consequently be classified as a group portraying a yuppie lifestyle.

Lifestyle Component 2

Items 11-14, 18, 23, 27, 28 and 30 (9 items) loaded on component 2 and included the following:

- ❖ Activities and interests: shopping and fitting apparel, attending apparel sales, effort to dress stylishly, window shopping
- ❖ Social interaction: shopping with friends for socialisation purposes
- ❖ Media usage: television, radio and magazines

Lifestyle component 2 reflects an **apparel-orientated lifestyle** with apparel being a focal point. Respondents having a high score on this component will undoubtedly see apparel and apparel-related activities as part of their lifestyle.

Lifestyle Component 3

Items 2-4, 22, 24 to 26 (7 items) loaded on component 3 and were categorised as follows:

- ❖ Interests and activities: needlework, baking, cooking and hobbies for example gardening
- ❖ Social interaction: family gatherings, church and church activities, community projects and school involvement

Lifestyle component 3 reflects a **traditional lifestyle** with home-based activities and interests given priority. Social interaction focuses on the family, church, school and immediate community involvement. Respondents scoring high on this component will be more traditionally orientated in their lifestyle.

It is common practice for researchers in the field of Consumer Behaviour to attempt to profile various groups of consumers. These profiles assist the researcher as well as other stakeholders in understanding the behaviour of members portraying that specific lifestyle, as well as applying the results of lifestyle studies in retail and advertising environments. Booher (1996) developed lifestyle profiles in his study regarding the influence of Korean lifestyle on the purchase process of jeans. His results indicated four lifestyle profiles labelled price-conscious lifestyle, fashion-conscious lifestyle, self-confident lifestyle and information seeker lifestyle. Huddleston et al., (1990) made use of descriptions of lifestyle components (positive thinker, credit-prone, shopper, socially active and education-orientated) to explain the relationship between the importance of store attributes and lifestyle of female consumers. Cassill & Drake (1987b) related lifestyle with apparel selection criteria. Eight lifestyle factors were labelled according to the predominant characteristics of the component, i.e. self-confidence, attractive or fashionable, satisfaction with life, traditional, pro-American/Education, price-conscious information seeking, modern travelling and spending and mobile or impulsive shopping. The work of Fournier et al., (1992) broke new ground in the understanding of consumption behaviour. Their work did not focus on one product category and therefor provided a collective pattern of purchases. These were labelled in accordance to the central theme of that particular consumption lifestyle, i.e. functionalists, nurturers, aspirers, experientials, succeeders, the moral minority, the golden years, sustainers and subsisters.

When comparing results from this study to those reported in literature, it is apparent that the principle of lifestyle typology is well accepted. The description of the lifestyle components (usually based on factor analysis results) and the labelling thereof according to the dominant characteristics, is common practice and acceptable if one takes cognisance of the above-mentioned studies as well as others by reputable researchers (ACNielsen, 1999; Hawkins et al., 1988; Shiffmann & Kanuk, 2000; Values and Lifestyles, 2001; Wells & Prensky, 1996). Lifestyle profiles are therefore applied in the description of clusters of consumers to understand the cluster profile associated with specific consumer behaviour better. The present study supported this trend.

4.3.2 CULTURAL CONSCIOUSNESS

The cultural consciousness scale of the questionnaire was not factor analysed as it only comprised 12 items. Six were written to measure the collectivistic orientation and six for the measurement of the individualistic orientation. Coefficient alpha was, however, applied to determine the reliability of the sub-scales. The results are reported in Table 4.7. Refer to Appendix 8 for the complete reliability analysis.

TABLE 4.7

RELIABILITY: CULTURAL CONSCIOUSNESS SCALE

CULTURAL CONSCIOUSNESS	NUMBER OF ITEMS	COEFFICIENT ALPHA
Total scale	**9**	**0.5825**
Collectivistic	5 (1,3,5,7,9)	0.6110
Individualistic	4 (4,6,8,10)	0.4231

Three items were deleted due to very low item-total correlation (items 2, 11 & 12). This resulted in a slight increase of the coefficient alphas, but the reliability is still regarded as moderate. These results could partly be attributed to the small number of items in each of the sub-scales.

Fieldworkers reported that respondents found this section of the questionnaire more difficult to answer. This could perhaps be attributed to the fact that they were expected to relate their experiences with themselves and their community.

4.3.3 SHOPPING ORIENTATION

Shopping orientation can be defined as a shopper's style that places particular emphasis on a shopping-specific lifestyle, encompassing shopping activities, interests, and opinions and reflecting a view of shopping as a complex social, recreational and economic phenomenon (Hawkins, et al., 1989; Korgaonkar, 1981; Lumpkin et al., 1986; Shim & Bickle, 1994; Shim & Mahoney, 1992).

The discussion regarding the classification of shopping orientations (refer to section 2.7.2.4 in Chapter 2) yielded a new classification system of shopping orientations. These were postulated after synthesis and logical organisation of existing knowledge reported in literature (Gutman & Millis, 1982; Lumpkin, 1985; Lumpkin & Greenberg, 1982; Shim & Bickle, 1994; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1992 a & b; Shim & Kotsiopulos 1993). Ten new categories of shopping orientations were proposed and labelled, i.e. enjoyment, interests and activities, confidence, opinion leadership, fashion orientation, shopping confidence, time, finance, brand conscious and patronage.

In the composition of the questionnaire an attempt was made to include all the above-mentioned dimensions (10) of shopping orientation in order to ensure a content-valid measurement instrument. The total shopping orientation scale comprised 22 items. The following compiled dimensions of shopping orientation (7 in combination) were included:

- ❖ Enjoyment and interest (Items 5, 11, 13, 19)
- ❖ Confidence (Items 4, 12, 18)
- ❖ Opinion leadership and fashion orientation (Items 7, 15, 22)
- ❖ Shopping convenience and time (Items 1, 8)
- ❖ Finance (Items 2, 9, 14, 21)
- ❖ Brand conscious (Items 6, 16, 20)
- ❖ Patronage (Items 3, 10, 17)

The reliability of the individual scales, grouped according to postulated dimensions, was not satisfactory. Two of the sub-scales had reliabilities lower than 0.50 and one sub-scale showed negative reliability. The results are as follows:

- ❖ Enjoyment and interest (4 items; α = 0.626)
- ❖ Confidence (3 items; α = 0.566)
- ❖ Opinion leadership and fashion orientation (3 items; α = 0.428)
- ❖ Shopping convenience and time (2 items; α = -0.560)

- Credit prone (2 items; α = 0.526)
- Economic (2 items; α = 0.431)
- Brand conscious (3 items; α = 0.526)
- Patronage (3 items; α = 0.754)

To study the underlying structure of the construct shopping orientation, as well as to increase the validity of the questionnaire as stated in the objectives, the items were subjected to a factor analysis (principle component analysis application with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalisation). The results are reported in Table 4.8. Only loadings greater than 0.30 are reported here. Refer to Appendix 9 for the complete factor loadings. Items marked with an asterisk (*) indicate a reverse score due to the nature of the item statement.

TABLE 4.8

ROTATED COMPONENT MATRIX FOR SHOPPING ORIENTATION

QUESTION	COMPONENT		
	1	2	3
19*	.695		
12	.635		
5	.592		
13	.573		
11	.572		
18	.569		
4*	.534		
14	.492		
21	.334		
6		.661	
7		.651	
22		.610	
2		.563	
9		.563	
20		.480	
17			.770
10			.757
3			.695

Three components were extracted explaining 36.64% of the total variance. This result was disappointing, however, the primary aim of factor analysis (as previously stated) in this study was not to explain an optimal amount of variance in the different constructs, but rather to develop a measurement that measured reliably (with internal consistency). Items 1, 8, 15 and 16 were omitted, as they did not load on any components. The elimination of these items increased the reliability of the sub-scale (18 items). Results are indicated in Table 4.9. Refer to Appendix 10 for the complete reliability analysis.

TABLE 4.9

RELIABILITY: SHOPPING ORIENTATION SCALE

SHOPPING ORIENTATION	NUMBER OF ITEMS	COEFFICIENT ALPHA
Total scale	**18**	**0.7521**
Component 1	9	0.7527
Component 2	6	0.6639
Component 3	3	0.7540

Deleting items 1,8,15 and 16 based on the results of the factor analysis, increased the reliability of the shopping orientation sub-scale. The coefficient alpha scores are acceptable. Shim and Kotsiopulos (1993, p. 76) report Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients ranging from .69 to .78 for a 42-item questionnaire. Darden and Howell (1987, p. 55) reported alphas ranging from 0.37 to 0.83 in a 38-item questionnaire. Shim and Bickle (1994, p. 10) reported alphas ranging from 0.76 to 0.80 for a 19-item questionnaire. As can be seen when comparing the results of the present study to those of reported studies, the reliability of this sub-scale compares favourably.

The results of the factor analysis were very interesting, as it was apparent that the procedure did not lead to seven (or ten if not combined) principle components, as would have been the case if all the postulated components were separate dimensions of shopping orientation. It did, however, lead to three components that are formed from the sub-dimensions as postulated.

- Component 1 is a combination of enjoyment and interest, the confidence dimension and two items from the finance dimensions.

- ❖ Component 2 is a combination of the opinion leadership and fashion orientation dimension, the brand-conscious dimension and two items from the finance dimension.
- ❖ Component 3 is the patronage dimension.

Six of the seven postulated dimensions were therefore represented in the three newly formed components. Shopping convenience and time (items 1 and 8) were not represented in the three components. The three components will subsequently be discussed in full.

Shopping Orientation Component 1

Items 4, 5, 11-14, 18, 19 and 21 (9 items) loaded on component 1. The content of these items revealed the following:

- ❖ Confidence, ability to choose the right apparel and interest in apparel shopping;
- ❖ Enjoyment of shopping as an activity resulting in a positive emotional state;
- ❖ The opinion that one can save a lot of money by shopping around for bargains and paying attention to prices.

Component 1 reflects an orientation of **shopping self-confidence and enjoyment**. Individuals scoring high on this component will enjoy the shopping experience and portray confidence towards selecting apparel and the ability to make the correct decisions also with regard to saving money.

Shopping Orientation Component 2

Items 2, 6, 7, 9, 20 and 22 (6 items) loaded on component 2 and included the following item content:

- ❖ High credit card usage and positive attitude toward charge accounts and credit cards;
- ❖ Strong brand appeal with the opinion being held that well known brands imply good quality;
- ❖ Fashion innovator and early adopter keeping wardrobe up to date with fashion trends.

Component 2 reflects a **credit-prone, brand-conscious and fashion innovative** shopping orientation. Respondents scoring high on this component will make use of credit cards in apparel purchases, buy new fashions early in the season and be very brand conscious.

Shopping Orientation Component 3

Items 3, 10 and 17 (3 items) loaded on component 3. The item content revealed the following:

- Local stores are seen as attractive places to shop and they offer good value for money;
- Shopping needs are being met by local stores.

Component 3 revealed a **local store patronage** orientation. Respondents scoring high on this component will be valuable customers for local stores and patronage will be characterised by "in-shopping".

The results confirm that shopping orientation is a multi-dimensional construct and give support to the literature in this regard. The three shopping orientation components support many of the original component labels given in the work of Darden and Howell (1987), Gutman and Mills (1982), Kwon et al., (1991), Lumpkin (1985), Lumpkin and Greenberg (1982), Lumpkin et al., (1981), Shim and Bickle (1994), Shim and Chen (1996), Shim and Kotsiopulos (1992 a & b) and Shim and Kotsiopulos (1993).

4.3.4 SUMMARY: RELIABILITY AND THE MULTI-DIMENSIONALITY OF LIFESTYLE AND SHOPPING ORIENTATION

The overall results of the reliability testing of the questionnaire were acceptable as this is an exploratory study and the questionnaire has not been previously applied. Effort was made to follow scientifically acceptable procedures in order to maximise the reliability of the questionnaire sub-scales prior to further analysis.

To summarise with regards to the multi-dimensionality of the variables lifestyle and shopping orientation:

- Dimensions of the two variables were postulated from literature (refer to Chapter two).
- Items were written for the questionnaire to incorporate the postulated dimensions.
- Coefficient alpha reliability was calculated for the postulated dimensions. These were unsatisfactory.
- The data was subjected to a factor analysis.
- All the postulated dimensions of lifestyle were represented in a combined form in three lifestyle components. These dimensions were, however, not confirmed by factor analysis as separate dimensions.
- All but one of the postulated dimensions of shopping orientation were represented in a combined form, in three shopping orientation components. The postulated dimensions were, however, not confirmed as separate dimensions by factor analysis.
- Results of the factor analysis were not satisfactory to some extent, i.e. the total amount of variance explained was low (3 factors explained 32.087% of variance in lifestyle and 3 factors explained 36.64% of variance in shopping orientation). As the principle aim of the factor analysis procedure was not to explain an optimal amount of total variance, these results did not deter the researcher from cautiously applying further factor analysis results. As stated previously the principle aim was to identify items that did not load significantly on the underlying dimension(s), and thus impacted negatively on the internal consistency of the scale. The coefficient alphas for the different components were satisfactory for exploratory research (ranging from 0.42 to 0.80), contributing to the internal consistency reliability of the questionnaire (Hair et al., 1998; Littrell et al., 1999; Shim & Bickle, 1994; Summers et al., 1992).

The aim of this study namely, to investigate the multi-dimensionality of selected variables from literature, i.e. shopping orientation and lifestyle, as principle variables influencing female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society, was achieved.

4.4 CLUSTERS OF FEMALE APPAREL SHOPPERS

The present research project investigated whether distinct clusters of female apparel shoppers exist according to the variables *lifestyle, shopping orientation, cultural consciousness and patronage behaviour* (objective five).

Results pertaining to this objective, and subsequent objectives based on these results, were obtained by applying the hierarchical cluster analysis procedure, namely Wards method, together with Squared Euclidean distance method as the measurement of similarity. Clustering of cases (733) was performed excluding 66 missing cases. The three lifestyle components, three shopping orientation components, individualism and collectivism composite scores and the eleven patronage scores, were used as clustering variables. According to Hair et al. (1998, p. 499) the number of clusters extracted, or cluster solutions, could be based on pragmatic reasons, interpretation ability and the agglomeration schedule. A two cluster extraction was too broad and a four cluster extraction yielded interpretation difficulties. Three clusters were the most interpretable and it was decided to extract three clusters. Table 4.10 presents the frequency statistics of the three clusters.

TABLE 4.10

CLUSTER FREQUENCY STATISTICS

CLUSTER	n	Percentage (%)
ONE	363	49.5
TWO	205	28.0
THREE	165	22.5
TOTAL	**733**	**100.00**

From the cluster analysis it can be deduced that female apparel consumers are not one homogeneous market. This market could be successfully segmented, resulting in different cluster profiles with variations in behavioural patterns. To answer the research objective: yes, distinct clusters of female apparel shoppers do exist according to the *variables lifestyle, shopping orientation, cultural consciousness and patronage behaviour*. Clustering according to these variables (separately or in combination with other variables) is supported in the literature (Shim & Bickle, 1994; Shim & Chen, 1996; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993; Visser et al., 1996).

4.5 ONE-WAY MANOVA

However, it was further necessary to establish if the dependent variables (patronage behaviour, lifestyle, cultural consciousness and shopping orientation) differ **as a whole** across the cluster groups (independent variable). To answer this research question (objective six), the one-way MANOVA procedure was performed. The results are depicted in Table 4.11.

TABLE 4.11

ONE-WAY MANOVA

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis Df	Error df	Sig.	Eta Squared
3 Clusters						
Wilks Lambda	.002	278.501	57.000	2123.782	0.000	.880

The results indicate a statistically significant difference on the 1% level ($p < 0.01$) between the three cluster groups based on the dependent variables as a whole. 88% of the variance in the dependent variables as a whole can be attributed to cluster membership (independent variable), or cluster membership account for 88% of the variance in the dependent variables as a whole. The conclusion can thus be made that the null hypothesis of equal cluster means can be rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted. To answer the research objective: yes, three clusters exist and they differ with regard to the dependent variables as a whole.

4.6 ONE-WAY ANOVA

As the results of the one-way MANOVA indicate a statistically significant difference between cluster groups based on the dependent variables as a whole, the next logical question would be to ask **which** of the dependent variables varied significantly along the different cluster memberships (objective seven). The one-way ANOVA procedure was applied to establish this. Only those variables that contribute statistically significantly to differences, can confidently be used in the typology or profiling of the different cluster groups. Table 4.12 depicts the results of the one-way ANOVA.

TABLE 4.12

ONE-WAY ANOVA

VARIABLE		**Df**	**Mean square**	**F**	**Sig.**
Patronage behaviour					
Mr Price	Between grous	2	33.006	19.831	.000*
	Within groups	730	1.664		
Pep Stores	Between grous	2	101.930	61.560	.000*
	Within groups	730	1.656		
Smiley's	Between grous	2	77.860	60.082	.000*
Wharehouse	Within groups	730	1.296		
Bergers	Between grous	2	76.985	63.298	.000*
	Within groups	730	1.216		
Foschini	Between grous	2	100.580	58.292	.000*
	Within groups	730	1.725		
Milady's	Between grous	2	152.109	91.173	.000*
	Within groups	730	1.668		
Topics	Between grous	2	150.068	91.522	.000*
	Within groups	730	1.640		
Truworths	Between grous	2	234.465	132.229	.000*
	Within groups	730	1.773		
Ackermans	Between grous	2	79.466	45.320	.000*
	Within groups	730	1.753		
Edgars	Between grous	2	262.353	179.157	.000*
	Within groups	730	1.464		

Woolworths	Between grous	2	168.529	98.607	.000*
	Within groups	730	1.709		
Lifestyle					
Yuppie	Between grous	2	30.331	77.032	.000*
	Within groups	730	0.394		
Apparel-orientated	Between grous	2	13.597	41.649	.000*
	Within groups	730	0.326		
Traditional	Between grous	2	2.087	4.146	.016 **
	Within groups	730	0.503		
Cultural consciousness					
Collective	Between grous	2	5.191	11.131	.000*
	Within groups	730	0.466		
Individualistic	Between grous	2	3.380	12.118	.000*
	Within groups	730	0.279		
Shopping orientation					
Shopping self-confidence and enjoyment	Between grous	2	4.310	19.055	.000*
	Within groups	730	0.226		
Credit-prone, brand-conscious and fashion innovative	Between grous	2	16.471	30.111	.000*
	Within groups	730	0.547		
Local store patronage	Between grous	2	1.699	3.349	.036 **
	Within groups	730	0.507		

* $p < 0.01$

** $p < 0.05$

From the results it is clear that **all** the dependent variables differ statistically significantly (p=0.000; p=0.016; p=0.036) across the three cluster groups (independent variable). Thus the null hypothesis of no difference between cluster means is rejected. The size of the differences between the clusters varies (F value), but is still significant.

The three cluster profiles according to mean scores (refer to Appendix 11) are presented graphically in Figure 4.2. This will assist the reader to form an overall profile of the various clusters.

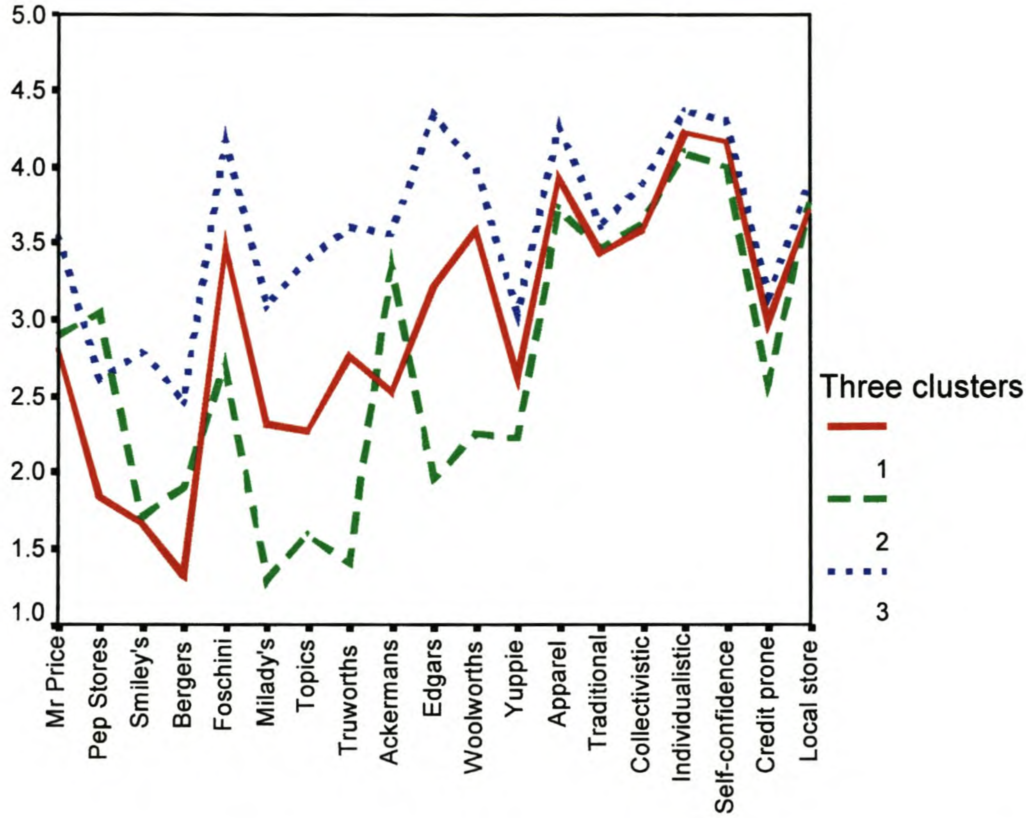

FIGURE 4.2 CLUSTER PROFILES ACCORDING TO MEAN SCORES

Each of the dependent variables will be investigated and discussed in the following sections.

4.6.1 ONE-WAY ANOVA F STATISTIC RESULTS: PATRONAGE BEHAVIOUR VARIABLES

Results indicate that all the patronage behaviour variables differ significantly across cluster membership, but the sizes of the differences between cluster groups vary. The eleven patronage behaviour variables (i.e. 11 stores) differ as to how big the differences between the clusters are with regards to a specific store (F values).

However, these differences between clusters, according to the specific variable, are still statistically significant ($p < 0,05$). Cluster groups differed as indicated in Table 4.13.

TABLE 4.13

ONE-WAY ANOVA RESULTS: PATRONAGE BEHAVIOUR

PATRONAGE BEHAVIOUR **Name of Store**	**RANK NUMBER** **1 = Most difference** **11 = Most difference**
Edgars	1
Truworths	2
Woolworths	3
Topics	4
Milady's	5
Bergers	6
Pep Stores	7
Smiley's	8
Foschini	9
Ackermans	10
Mr Price	11

From the above it is evident that clusters differed most with regards to the buying of apparel at Edgars and the least with regard to Mr Price apparel purchases. It can be postulated that the pricing structure, apparel style and merchandising can contribute to these results. Edgars carry more apparel items that portray their own specific style at relatively high prices (styled and fashion products), whereas stores like Mr Price are known for basic apparel items with relatively low prices (staple and semi-styled products). It can thus be argued that the three clusters will differ more with regard to a store merchandising items that are more style-specific, than a store with more basic apparel items (Cooklin, 1991). Consumers could be more particular when buying apparel that is high in price and which portray a specific style, than when buying basic apparel items. Most consumers would opt to buy basic apparel items (such as a pair of black pants) at a lower price and rather pay more for a style-specific apparel item.

Other possible explanations for this result could be found in the literature. Cassill and Drake (1987b) established a relationship between lifestyle and apparel evaluative criteria verifying that consumers choose apparel items that fit their lifestyles. As the three clusters differ with regards to the three lifestyle components, i.e. they portray different lifestyles, then it can be argued that they would choose different types of apparel to fit their lifestyle, culminating in differences in store choice to purchase apparel items to suit their lifestyle. As previously mentioned, Edgars merchandise is more "lifestyle-specific" than Mr Price merchandise. Other researchers supported the fact that lifestyle influences patronage behaviour (Booher, 1996), that lifestyle is related to the importance of store attributes (Huddlestone et al., 1990) and that differences exist in the demographic and psychographic profile of a speciality store's customers and non-customers (Thorpe & Avery, 1983-1984).

A second possible explanation could be shopping orientation. Engel et al. (1995), Darden and Howell (1987) and Shim and Kotsiopulos (1992 a & b) found a direct relationship between shopping orientations and patronage behaviour. As the three clusters differ with regards to shopping orientations, it can be argued that their patronage behaviour would differ. If there is a direct relationship between shopping orientation and patronage behaviour, then it would be expected that the three clusters in this study will differ with regard to the store choice. This is confirmed by the results.

4.6.2 ONE-WAY ANOVA F STATISTIC RESULTS: LIFESTYLE

The results of the one-way ANOVA for lifestyle indicate that cluster groups differed mostly with regards to the principle component **yuppie lifestyle**, followed by the **apparel-orientated lifestyle** and the least by the **traditional lifestyle** principle components.

This result could be attributed to the biographic and demographic profiles of the various clusters as this would directly impact on lifestyle (refer to Table 4.15). Variables such as educational level, employment status, income, age and expenditure all impact on lifestyle (ACNielsen, 1999; Alleman, 2000a; Assael, 1992; Ives, 1999a; SAARF LSM, 1999; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000; Values and Lifestyles, 2001). As differences exist regarding these variables, between the three clusters, differences will exist in lifestyle. The largest differences exist between the clusters regarding educational level, employment status, household income and apparel expenditure. These variables impact highly on the yuppie lifestyle, therefore the largest differences regarding the principle component *yuppie lifestyle* could be partially explained. Refer to Table 5.1 in Chapter 5 for graphic presentation of the similarities between the three clusters of female apparel shoppers and VALS2, Sociomonitor and other profiles.

4.6.3 ONE-WAY ANOVA F STATISTIC RESULTS: CULTURAL CONSCIOUSNESS

The results of the one-way ANOVA for cultural consciousness indicate that cluster groups differed mostly with regard to individualism followed by collectivism. Although the differences are small, the result is still statistically significant ($p < 0.01$).

The results of the cultural consciousness F statistic is to some extent not surprising as cultural consciousness was measured in an environment that is not characterised by deeply entrenched traditional cultural values (refer to Chapter 3). The change in the political arena in South Africa, together with the increasing urbanisation of the population will ultimately influence the deep-rooted cultural orientation of South African people. The sample was mostly generated form urban geographical areas that are increasingly becoming more "western" (individualistic), as the traditional African cultural values are not as extensively sustained as might have been the case in deeply rural villages, that are more collectivist in their orientation. It must be remembered that one individual, or group of individuals (a cluster), would not be either collectivistic or individualistic, but rather more of the one and less of the other as the constructs are opposite poles of a continuum (Kotzé, 1993). Hofstede (1980) and Hofstede (1991) classified South Africa in the quadrant of individualist with a large power distance. This is in contrast with what is expected, as a large power distance is usually found in collectivist countries. With this classification, Hofstede acknowledges that South Africa has a combination of both individualist and collectivist cultures. Therefore, a measurement taken in a more urban area, where there is a mixture of both individualist and collectivist cultural orientations, will not show a clear distinction between the individualist/collectivist orientations with regards to the different clusters.

Refer to section 2.8.2.1.4 in Chapter 2 for a comprehensive discussion on the topic and specifically to Rieger and Blignaut (1996); Hofstede (1980) and Triandis et al. (1990).

4.6.4 ONE-WAY ANOVA F STATISTIC RESULTS: SHOPPING ORIENTATION

The results of the shopping orientation F statistic indicate that the principle component *credit prone, brand conscious and fashion-innovative* differed mostly between the groups (but the difference is still relatively small). The second largest differentiating principle component was the *shopping self-confidence and enjoyment* followed by the *local store patronage* component.

Individuals usually have a strong opinion regarding the usage of credit. This could partly explain these results. Apparel consumers are usually also clear with regard to whether they see themselves as brand-conscious or not and whether they are a fashion innovators or not (Behling, 1992; Huddleston et al., 1993).

4.7 BONFERRONI RESULTS

The post hoc test, method Bonferroni multiple comparisons, was applied after the null hypotheses were rejected as a result of the one-way MANOVA and one-way ANOVA analysis. As this implies that there are indeed statistically significant differences between cluster means on all the variables, it must be established where these differences lie. The appropriate statistic is the Bonferroni statistical analysis. The results are presented in Table 4.14.

The results indicate that cluster groups vary statistically significantly across fourteen of the variables between all the clusters. Six variables did not significantly differentiate between all possible cluster groupings, i.e.:

- ❖ Mr Price (1 – 2)
- ❖ Smiley's Warehouse (1 – 2)
- ❖ Ackermans (2 – 3)
- ❖ Traditional lifestyle (1 – 2; 2 – 3)
- ❖ Collectivism (1 – 2)
- ❖ Local store patronage (1 – 2; 2 – 3)

TABLE 4.14

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CLUSTERS: BONFERRONI RESULTS

VARIABLES	SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CLUSTERS ($p < 0.05$)
Mr Price	1 – 3; 2 – 3
Pep Stores	1 – 2; 1 – 3; 2 – 3
Smiley's Warehouse	1 – 3; 2 – 3
Bergers	1 – 2; 1 – 3; 2 – 3
Foschini	1 – 2; 1 – 3; 2 – 3
Milady's	1 – 2; 1 – 3; 2 – 3
Topics	1 – 2; 1 – 3; 2 – 3
Truworths	1 – 2; 1 – 3; 2 – 3
Ackermans	1 – 2; 1 – 3
Edgars	1 – 2; 1 – 3; 2 – 3
Woolworths	1 – 2; 1 – 3; 2 – 3
Yuppie lifestyle	1 – 2; 1 – 3; 2 – 3
Apparel-orientated lifestyle	1 – 2; 1 – 3; 2 – 3
Traditional lifestyle	1 – 3
Collectivism	1 – 3; 2 – 3
Individualism	1 – 2; 1 – 3; 2 – 3
Shopping self-confidence and enjoyment	1 – 2; 1 – 3; 2 – 3
Credit-prone, brand-conscious and fashion innovative	1 – 2; 1 – 3; 2 – 3
Local store patronage	1 – 3

This result is not surprising given the low ANOVA F values of the non-differentiation variables. The results from the Bonferroni analysis can assist in the profiling of cluster groupings, as those variables that vary statistically significantly across all the cluster groupings should be given a greater value than those that do not differ across all cluster groups. The following cluster profiles will therefore be the product of all the statistical analysis undertaken in this research project.

It was successfully determined between which clusters of female apparel shoppers differences occurred; therefore the set objective was attained.

4.8 CLUSTER PROFILES

A further objective (number eight) of this study was to compile cluster profiles of female apparel shoppers in accordance with the variables that influenced female apparel shopping in a multi-cultural society. Only those variables that were studied and differentiated between the clusters, could be applied for this purpose. The profiles should assist in future research and should also contribute to building the theory base of cluster profiling of apparel consumers, target marketing and consumer decision-making in a multi-cultural South Africa. The profiles should also guide the formulation of the implications of these profiles for apparel retailers in reference to the marketing mix and target markets. As previously stated, three clusters were deemed appropriate from the various statistical procedures. These three clusters will be discussed by making use of the statistical results from the various procedures applied. From these procedures it is clear that all variables (as a group) differed significantly across the clusters. They differed as individual variables and the majority differed between all groups. These variables can therefore confidently be used in the typology of the cluster groupings (refer to Figure 4.2, p. 202).

A biographic and demographic profile summary of all the clusters is provided in Table 4.15. This will be followed by a detailed profile description of each of the clusters. The cluster size varies across the different variables due to non-responses on some of the questionnaire items. The interpretation of the results portrayed in Table 4.15 will be presented under the heading *demographic profile* in Sections 4.8.1.5, 4.8.2.5 and 4.8.3.5.

When investigating the cluster members' scores on a variable, it can be compared with other cluster members' scores. The typology of the different clusters with regard to demographics, lifestyle, cultural consciousness and shopping orientation will focus on the comparison of the various clusters with each other. This method is deemed appropriate, as the aim of profiling is to compare and describe different cluster groupings. The statistical results (Bonferroni) support this approach as all possible comparisons between cluster groupings are made.

TABLE 4.15

SUMMARY OF CLUSTER'S BIOGRAPHIC AND DEMOGRAPIC PROFILE

VARIABLE	CATEGORIES	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3
		%	%	%
Population group Cluster 1: n=361 Cluster 2: n=203 Cluster 3: n=163	White	40.99	26.60	25.96
	African	22.99	41.38	48.47
	Coloured	36.01	32.02	25.6
Language Cluster 1: n=363 Cluster 2: n=204 Cluster 3: n=165	Afrikaans	60.88	47.54	44.84
	English	13.22	3.52	6.06
	Xhosa	4.40	16.66	14.54
	Tswana	7.71	14.70	18.18
	Other	2.75	2.94	2.42
	More than one	11.01	8.82	13.93
Religion Cluster 1: n=360 Cluster 2: n=205 Cluster 3: n=165	Roman Catholic	3.88	6.82	7.27
	Christian	93.33	92.19	91.51
	Muslim	1.65	0.48	0.60
	Agnostic	1.10	0.48	0.60
Highest educational level – self Cluster 1: n=356 Cluster 2: n=202 Cluster 3: n=161	Primary	4.77	11.88	4.34
	Grade 10	15.73	40.09	13.66
	Grade 12	41.29	28.21	45.34
	Diploma(s)	18.53	15.84	21.73
	B Degree	12.92	2.97	11.18
	Postgraduate	6.74	1.00	3.70

VARIABLE	CATEGORIES	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3
		%	%	%
Highest educational level – spouse Cluster 1: n=180 Cluster 2: n=116 Cluster 3: n=61	Primary	2.22	11.20	4.91
	Grade 10	18.88	27.58	14.75
	Grade 12	33.88	33.62	39.34
	Diploma(s)	17.77	13.79	13.11
	B Degree	17.77	9.48	14.75
	Postgraduate	15.0	4.31	13.11
Employment status Cluster 1: n=363 Cluster 2: n=205 Cluster 3: n=165	Unemployed	5.20	8.29	4.24
	Professional (e.g. doctor, director)	3.03	0.97	5.45
	Clerical, salesperson, technician, secretarial	40.77	42.43	33.33
	Homemaker	14.32	15.60	13.33
	Middle management (educator, nursing sister)	12.39	12.68	12.72
	Retired	1.65	2.92	0.00
	Corporate (e.g. manager)	4.12	1.46	4.84
	Student	12.12	4.87	20.60
	Domestic or farm worker	1.65	6.34	3.03
	Self-employed / entrepreneur	2.75	1.46	0.60
	Service industry	1.92	2.92	1.81
Total monthly household income (gross) Cluster 1: n=354 Cluster 2: n=202 Cluster 3: n=163	Less than R500	6.21	8.91	12.88
	R501 – R1000	7.34	14.35	12.26
	R1001 – R3000	27.40	32.17	24.53
	R3001 – R5000	16.38	20.29	16.56
	R5001 – R7000	9.88	10.39	9.20
	R7001- R10 000	10.73	4.43	10.42
	R10 001 – R20 000	17.23	7.92	9.81
	R20 001 and more	4.80	1.48	4.29

VARIABLE	**CATEGORIES**	**Cluster 1**	**Cluster 2**	**Cluster 3**
		%	**%**	**%**
Family clothing expenditure per month	Less than R99	3.06	11.70	2.43
Cluster 1: n=359	R100 – R199	13.92	21.46	13.41
Cluster 2: n=205	R200 – R299	17.27	25.36	20.12
Cluster 3: n=164	R300 – R399	22.00	13.17	18.90
	R400 – R499	16.71	11.70	14.02
	R500 or more	27.01	16.58	31.09
Age - self	18 - 21	15.15	5.91	18.78
Cluster 1: n=363	22 – 25	15.42	13.30	18.18
Cluster 2: n=203	26 – 29	14.04	19.70	14.93
Cluster 3: n=165	30 – 34	14.32	18.71	18.18
	35 – 39	13.49	16.25	11.51
	40 – 49	16.80	14.28	13.33
	50 – 55	10.19	10.83	4.24
	56 and older	0.55	0.98	1.81
Marital status	Married	51.24	57.07	38.78
Cluster 1: n=361	Never married	40.99	36.58	56.96
Cluster 2: n=205	Divorced	4.15	3.90	4.24
Cluster 3: n=165	Widow	3.60	2.43	0.00
Years married	1-4 years	12.04	15.57	23.43
Cluster 1: n=191	5-8 years	16.75	29.49	17.18
Cluster 2: n=122	9-12 years	20.41	20.49	23.43
Cluster 3: n=64	Longer than 13 years	50.78	43.44	35.93
Number of children:0-5	1	79.01	81.70	85.41
Cluster 1: n=81	2	14.81	16.86	14.58
Cluster 2: n=83	3	2.46	1.20	0.00
Cluster 3: n=48	4	1.23	1.20	0.00
Number of children:6-11	1	74.74	75.64	79.48
Cluster 1: n=99	2	20.20	20.51	17.94
Cluster 2: n=78	3	3.03	2.56	2.56
Cluster 3: n=39	4	1.01	0.00	0.00

VARIABLE	**CATEGORIES**	**Cluster 1**	**Cluster 2**	**Cluster 3**
		%	**%**	**%**
Number of children:12-17 Cluster 1: n=81 Cluster 2: n=83 Cluster 3: n=48	1	68.83	57.37	70.00
	2	25.97	39.34	30.00
	3	3.89	3.27	0.00
Number of children:18 and older Cluster 1: n=88 Cluster 2: n=42 Cluster 3: n=25	1	31.81	40.47	36.00
	2	39.77	30.95	24.00
	3	15.90	19.04	20.00
	4	5.68	7.14	12.0
	5	3.40	2.38	4.00
	6	3.40	0.00	0.00
Vehicle ownership Cluster 1: n=363 Cluster 2: n=205 Cluster 3: n=165	None / make use of public transport	10.00	17.34	19.39
	None / make use of taxi	20.55	32.01	24.84
	One	29.16	30.54	27.27
	Two	28.88	15.27	19.39
	Three or more	11.38	4.92	9.09

The description of the clusters was complicated by the relatively small standard deviations recorded. As a result of the 5-point Likert-type scale used, the clusters obtained mean scores that did not vary as greatly as they would have varied on, for example, a seven-point scale. It was therefore deemed appropriate to investigate the individual item mean scores for each of the clusters further on each of the variables. Refer to Appendix 11 and 12 for the means of individual items for the three clusters regarding store patronage, lifestyle, cultural consciousness and shopping orientation.

4.8.1 CLUSTER 1 (n=363)

Cluster one is the largest cluster, comprising 49.5% of the total sample. Small differences in the size of cluster one is reported due to missing values.

4.8.1.1 STORE PATRONAGE

Woolworths was the store most often used to purchase apparel for self and family members ($\overline{X}$ = 3.59), followed by Foschini stores ($\overline{X}$ = 3.48) and Edgars ($\overline{X}$ = 3.22). The stores least frequented were Bergers ($\overline{X}$ = 1.33) and Smiley's Warehouse ($\overline{X}$ = 1.67). The patronage behaviour therefore focussed mostly on Woolworths as a departemental store, followed by Foschini as a chain speciality store. The store image, product quality and range of Woolworths stores fit this cluster profile well and this store will most probably satisfy the apparel needs of Cluster one members. Foschini and Edgars stores also portray an image of status and higher social classes, with Foschini catering for the younger age component of Cluster one. Both of the two stores most frequented have large end of season sales at which quality apparel items for the whole family can be bought at reduced prices. These sales will attract Cluster 1 members as they still wish to buy quality items, are of higher social classes and wish to dress stylishly, but without paying very high prices to do so.

4.8.1.2 LIFESTYLE

In comparison with the other two clusters, members of Cluster one attained the second highest scores on components one (yuppie lifestyle), two (apparel-orientated lifestyle), and the lowest compared score on component three (traditional lifestyle). The traditional lifestyle component only differed significantly between Cluster one and three. The mean scores for Cluster one with regards to the various lifestyle components are: Component 1: Yuppie lifestyle ($\overline{X}$ = 2.63), Component 2: Apparel-orientated lifestyle ($\overline{X}$ = 3.93) and Component 3: Traditional lifestyle ($\overline{X}$ = 3.44).

An investigation into the questionnaire items loading on the Yuppie lifestyle component reveals the following characteristics of the lifestyle of Cluster one members:

- Female apparel shoppers included in Cluster one do not shop for clothing items at designers.
- Activities rarely (twice a year) engaged into: travelling for work; visiting art museums or the opera; shopping for apparel at boutiques; attending fashion shows.

- ❖ Going to the cinema, travelling for work, playing sport and attending sports matches; reading fashion magazines and dining out at restaurants are seldom (three times a year) engaged into.
- ❖ Entertaining friends and dining at friends' houses are often (4 times a year) engaged into.
- ❖ Cluster one members often read newspapers. (The media lifestyle item-scale was not quantified with the result that "often" was an interpretation of the respondent.)

The apparel-orientated lifestyle component items revealed the following characteristics of Cluster one female apparel shoppers:

- ❖ Shopping with friends in order to socialise is seldom engaged into.
- ❖ Activities often engaged into include: shopping for clothes for the family; trying on clothing items; making an effort to dress stylishly and shopping for clothing items at sales and window shopping.
- ❖ Members often watch television, listen to the radio and read magazines.

Traditional lifestyle component items reflect the following:

- ❖ Members of Cluster one rarely engage in needlework (twice a year).
- ❖ They seldom (three times per year) engage in organised school activities and community projects, e.g. collecting money for charity.
- ❖ Cooking and baking, hobbies (e.g. gardening) family gatherings as well as attending church and church-related activities, are more regularly (four times a year) undertaken by members of Cluster one.

Lifestyle summary – Cluster 1: Members engage in spending time with friends by visiting and dining at friends' homes. Care is taken to dress stylishly, even though clothes are not bought from boutiques or made by designers. Apparel items for themselves and family members are sometimes bought from sales at stores like Woolworths and Foschini. Cooking, baking, church activities and hobbies are often engaged into rather than purely cultural events like ballet, opera and visiting art galleries. Information is gathered primarily from radio and magazines.

4.8.1.3 CULTURAL CONSCIOUSNESS

Members of Cluster one showed a stronger tendency toward individualism ($\overline{X}$ = 4.23) and were the least collectivistic of all the clusters ($\overline{X}$ = 3.59). These means however do not give a strong indication of the members' cultural consciousness, as a mean of 3.0 indicate a "not sure" response from respondents. It can be argued that respondents found this section of the questionnaire difficult to answer and therefore opted for the most "neutral" response, thus resulting in cluster means differing only slightly. A further factor that could influence respondents to opt for a "not sure" response could be the high levels of urbanisation in the areas of data collection. Individuals are exposed to Western/individualistic cultural values as well as African/collectivist cultural values, thus bringing about the decrease in clear cut, distinguishable cultural consciousness, such as collectivism and individualism on opposite sides of a continuum. As a result of this fusion between cultural consciousness and First World and Third World environments, individuals do not necessarily hold very strong identification with one or the other. It could be argued that they would rather display a combination of the two orientations in the centre of the continuum, with either the individualist or collectivist cultural orientation being in a small majority. (Refer to previous discussions regarding this point). This is also evident from the data analysis. The collectivism sub-scale did not differ significantly between Clusters one and two.

On analysing the results, emphasis will only be placed on those item responses that indicate a strong support for or disagreement with specific statements reflecting cultural consciousness. This approach will assist in establishing the cultural consciousness orientation of the cluster, i.e. more individualism or more collectivism (even though it is a small inclination toward one or the other).

An investigation into the individual item means reveals that respondents in Cluster one agreed with statements that underwrite the individualism orientation, for example: "my privacy is very important to me" and "to be on time is very important to me". It can therefore be concluded that Cluster one members' cultural consciousness is more individualistic that collectivistic. Cultural consciousness has previously been linked with poverty levels (Kotzé, 1993), resulting in a positive correlation between poverty and collectivism. In the light of these findings together with the demographic profile of predominantly white individuals with a high income, the more individualistic and less collectivist consciousness of Cluster one members is confirmed.

4.8.1.4 SHOPPING ORIENTATION

In comparison with the other two clusters, members of Cluster one attained the second highest scores on components one (shopping self-confidence and enjoyment) and two (credit-prone, brand conscious and fashion innovative), and the lowest compared score on component three (local store patronage). Local store patronage did not differ significantly between Clusters one and two. The mean scores for Cluster one with regards to the various shopping orientation components are: Component 1: Shopping self-confidence and enjoyment ($\overline{X}$ = 4.17), Component 2: Credit-prone, brand conscious and fashion innovative ($\overline{X}$ = 2.98) and Component 3: Local store patronage ($\overline{X}$ = 3.73).

An investigation into Cluster one members' shopping self-confidence and enjoyment reveals the following:

- They are confident in their ability to be a good apparel shopper and they are interested in shopping for apparel.
- They enjoy shopping and walking through malls coupled with the sentiment that one person can save a lot of money by shopping around for bargains. This orientation is further substantiated by an agreement on the statement that more attention is given to clothing prices than before.
- Shopping for apparel can be mood altering in that it has a positive impact on mood coupled with enjoyment of the clothing shopping experience

Results of Cluster one with regard to the credit-prone, brand conscious and fashion innovative component indicate that:

- They do not buy many items with a credit card and are not entirely confident with regards to the pros of having charge and/or credit cards.
- Members of Cluster 1 are uncertain about the importance of buying well-known brands and whether a well known brand implicates good quality.

A hint of scepticism is observed as to whether well known brands are equal to quality, which fits in very well with the lifestyle profile of Cluster one. As previously stated they do not shop for apparel at designers and boutiques, thus emphasising this scepticism.

Local store patronage is the lowest compared to Cluster three ($\overline{X}$ = 3.73). This mean is, however, not negative in the sense that Cluster one members will not do their shopping locally. The individual items reveal that they are, however, not in total agreement as to whether local apparel stores are always attractive places to shop, if they offer good quality for the price and if their shopping needs are always met. This result also ties in with the demographic profile of Cluster one members as they have the largest ability to out-shop, as they have transport available and can be particular as to where and when they shop for apparel items.

Shopping orientation summary - Cluster 1: Female apparel shoppers in Cluster one have confidence in their ability as apparel shoppers and enjoy the shopping experience in local stores as well as those stores located in other geographical areas. They do, however, not buy many items on credit (this is probably not necessary as they have the means to buy with cash or they use a credit card as a convenience item, rather than for credit).

4.8.1.5 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

Cluster one is predominantly white (41%). The coloured sub-cultural group is also represented (36%). The African respondents are in the minority (23%). As can be expected, respondents in Cluster one were mainly Afrikaans-speaking, followed by those who speak English and bilingual respondents. The African languages have poor representation in this cluster grouping. As is the case with Clusters two and three, the Christian faith is predominant.

The Cluster one age profile shows an inclination towards being more mature than the other clusters, thus substantiating the years of marriage. This cluster does, however, has a meaningful representation of all the age groupings, having the second highest proportion of respondents in the 18 to 21 (15%), 22 to 25 (15%) and 35 to 39 (13%) age groupings. This cluster has the lowest number (28%) of respondents in the age group 26 to 34. The forty plus group is the largest (28%), if compared to the other clusters. Cluster one therefore has a representation of young individuals, but they are not dominating the cluster's age profile – the older female apparel consumers are well represented in Cluster one.

A study of the family structure and life cycle reveals that 51% of the respondents are married, 4% divorced and 41% have never been married. Of those respondents that indicated that they are or were married, the majority (51%) have been married for 13 years or longer, followed by 9 to 12 years (20%), 5 to 8 years (17%) and 1 to 4 years (12%). The older age profile of Cluster one is further reflected in the family life cycle specifically with regard to the age of children in the family unit. In comparison to the other clusters, 79% of Cluster one indicated that they have one child under the age of five and 15% indicated having two children under the age of five. Although high, these figures are lowest of the three clusters. This trend continues in the age group six to twelve. It is evident from the results that children from Cluster one members fall mainly within the 12 to 17 and 18 and older categories. The family life cycle can thus be described as being in the later parenthood stage, moving into the early empty nest stage (Assael, 1992; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993; Shiffman & Kanuk, 2000). Family life cycle impacts on disposible income, purchase behaviour and spending patterns, amongst others (Peter & Olson, 1990).

Teenagers can place a huge burden on parents to spend money on apparel. These apparel items are usually branded items with high prices. Family expenditure on apparel per month is subsequently relatively high. Thirty-nine percent of the respondents indicated that they spend between R200 and R399 per month on clothing items and 44% indicated an expenditure above R400 per month for the whole family. These figures must, however, be seen in relation to the average family size and age of Cluster one members, as this will undoubtedly have an impact on apparel expenditure.

Fourty one percent of Cluster one members have attained Grade 12 educational level with 38% indicating a post-matric qualification. This very high percentage is the highest of all three clusters, and could be attributed to the fact that whites (the largest grouping in this cluster) had the most opportunities to educate themselves in the previous political dispensation. Only 5% of Cluster one indicated primary education as their highest educational level, followed by 16% indicating a Grade 12 (matric). This result could further be attributed to the geographic regions in which the data was collected, as these religions were in close proximity to institutions of higher education. The results with regards to the highest educational level of the spouse reiterate the highest educational level of the respondent, as 51% of the spouses have a post-matric qualification. This again, is the highest for all the cluster groupings.

Income is positively correlated with employment status and educational level (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). Cluster one members earn the highest total monthly gross household income, with 22.03% indicating an income of R10 000 per month or more, and 21% indicating an upper middle income of R5001 - R10 000 per month. This result is further substantiated by the lowest percentage (14%) in the lower income bracket and 44% in the lower middle income bracket. Cluster one has, in comparison with the other two clusters, the highest representation of entrepreneurs, second highest representation of professionals, clerical workers, sales personnel, technical and secretarial job categories and corporate managers. This cluster has the lowest representation of domestic and farm workers. A very small percentage (2%) of the respondents are retired or unemployed (5%).

On a par with these results is the indication by respondents that they make use of their own transport. Twenty-nine percent own two vehicles and 11% own three or more. These are the highest percentages in comparison with the other cluster groupings. As expected, Cluster one members do not readily make use of public transport or taxis and have the lowest percentages in this regard. Given the previous results with regards to income and employment, these results confirm the profile of Cluster one.

Demographic summary – Cluster 1: Cluster one is predominantly white and coloured with African individuals in the minority. Afrikaans is the language most often spoken. All age groups are represented, but a high percentage in the 18 to 25 group and the 35 plus group is evident. Approximately 51 % of the respondents are married and in the later FLC stages. Cluster one members have a moderate to high apparel expenditure coupled with the highest educational levels, highest total household income and highest employment status. Members make use of own transport with multiple vehicle ownership relatively high.

4.8.2 CLUSTER 2 (n=205)

Cluster two is the second largest cluster comprising 28% of the total sample. Small differences in Cluster two size are reported due to missing values.

4.8.2.1 STORE PATRONAGE

The demographic profile of Cluster two is further supported by the store patronage behaviour of Cluster two. Ackermans, a departmental store, is mostly frequented in order to purchase apparel ($\overline{X}$ = 3.36), followed by Pep Stores ($\overline{X}$ = 3.04) and Mr Price ($\overline{X}$ = 2.89). The latter two stores are classified as discount stores. It is interesting to note that even the stores most frequented by Cluster two members are in reality seldom visited, as a mean of 3.0 indicate seldom or three times per year. The lack of disposable income and the lower priority given to apparel, if income is limited, could be cited as reasons for these results. It could also be possible that these individuals opted to make use of other retail formats such as home-industries, flea markets, hawkers and second-hand stores to purchase apparel. Refer to section 2.6.3 in Chapter 2 and section 3.5.1 in Chapter 3, for a comprehensive discussion regarding retail outlets and the type of stores selected. A closer look at the product range and pricing structure of the stores used for apparel purchases by Cluster two members, suggests that their apparel needs will be well met by these stores. The stores least frequented were Milady's ($\overline{X}$ = 1.29), Truworths ($\overline{X}$ = 1.40) and Topics ($\overline{X}$ = 1.59). Ackermans as a store used to buy apparel, did not differentiate between members of Clusters two and three, implying that these two clusters were very similar with regard to the usage of Ackermans to purchase apparel. Mr Price shows the same result with regards to Cluster two and one.

4.8.2.2 LIFESTYLE

Cluster two members attained the lowest score on component one (Yuppie lifestyle) and two (apparel-orientated lifestyle) and the second lowest on component three (Traditional lifestyle). The mean scores for Cluster two with regards to the various lifestyle components are: Component 1: Yuppie lifestyle ($\overline{X}$ = 2.22), Component 2: Apparel-orientated lifestyle ($\overline{X}$ = 3.72) and Component 3: Traditional lifestyle ($\overline{X}$ = 3.46).

An investigation into the questionnaire items loading on the Yuppie lifestyle component reveals the following characteristics of the lifestyle of Cluster two members:

- They never engage in visiting art museums or galleries and do not shop for apparel at boutiques or designers.
- Members rarely (twice a year) travel for work or pleasure, see a movie, do physical exercise or attend sport matches. The attendance of a fashion show also falls in this category.
- Activities seldom (three times a year) engaged into include reading fashion magazines and newspapers, going out for dinner or having family gatherings.
- None of the lifestyle-related activities in this component is often or very often done, with the result that Cluster two members clearly do not display a Yuppie lifestyle.

With regards to the lifestyle scores on the Apparel-orientated component, the following:

- Female apparel shoppers in Cluster two rarely shop with friends in order to socialise.
- Activities seldom engaged into include: fitting apparel items and making an effort to dress stylishly.
- Members, however, often shop for apparel, do window-shopping and attend apparel sales.
- Media exposure focuses on television, radio and magazines. The radio is the medium with the highest exposure.

The traditional lifestyle component of Cluster two members, is very similar to those of Cluster one and three and does not differ significantly (refer to Table 4.14). For the sake of getting a complete view of the Cluster profile, a short overview of these results will again be given:

- Members of Cluster two rarely (twice a year) partake in community projects and school activities.
- They seldom (three times per year) engage in needlework and hobbies.

- Cooking and baking, family gatherings as well as attending church and church-related activities are more regularly (four times a year) undertaken by members of Cluster two.

Lifestyle summary – Cluster 2: Cluster two members spend time cooking and baking and shopping for apparel at sales. Their lifestyle is very much a "simple at home" lifestyle as they do not travel for work or pleasure, engage in very little activities of any nature and rarely go out for dinner. Preference is given to family gatherings, church activities and listening to the radio. As can be expected boutiques and designers are not visited and culturally exclusive activities are not attended.

4.8.2.3 CULTURAL CONSCIOUSNESS

The cultural consciousness means of Cluster two have a higher value for individualism ($\overline{X}$ = 4.09) than for collectivism ($\overline{X}$ = 3.67). In comparison with the other two cluster groupings, the individualism score is the lowest of all and the collectivism score is second lowest. The collectivism sub-scale does, however, not significantly differ between Cluster one and two, but does differ between two and three. Even though the means of the various clusters do not differ greatly on this variable, the trend is still evident that Cluster two is the least individualistic of all the cluster groupings (there are significant differences on the individualism sub-scale between all the clusters). This result is further substantiated by the biographic and demographic profile reflecting a low income, low educational level and a greater component of Africans. This however is not enough to imply that Cluster two is collectivistic as pointed out previously with regards to the influence of urbanisation and the fusion between different cultural orientations.

4.8.2.4 SHOPPING ORIENTATION

Cluster two members have the lowest mean score with regards to components one (Shopping self-confidence and enjoyment) and two (Credit-prone, brand-conscious and fashion innovative), and the second lowest mean score on component three (Local store patronage). The mean scores for Cluster two with regards to the various shopping orientation components are: Component 1: Shopping self-confidence and enjoyment ($\overline{X}$ = 4.00), Component 2: Credit-prone, brand-conscious and fashion innovative ($\overline{X}$ = 2.58) and Component 3: Local store patronage ($\overline{X}$ = 3.77).

Focussing first on the component that differs mostly form the other cluster groupings, i.e. credit-prone, brand-conscious and fashion innovative, the following is evident from the profile of Cluster two members:

- Members disagreed most strongly, in comparison with the other clusters, with regards to buying items using a credit card – this could possibly be due to not qualifying for a credit card as a result of income levels.
- They disagree with regard to the item "I buy new fashions earlier in the season than most other people", which indicates a very low incidence of opinion leaders in this cluster grouping. A further confirmation of this is the little effort being put into keeping their wardrobe up to date with the newest fashion trends.
- As with Cluster one, members are sceptical or unsure about the appropriateness of having charge accounts or credit cards. This could again be due to not qualifying for these cards or the fear of overspending once they possess these.

The results from the first component, i.e. shopping self-confidence and enjoyment indicate that Cluster two has the lowest mean score in comparison with the other two cluster groupings. An investigation into this component reveals the following:

- Members are uncertain as to whether they are good apparel shoppers but they still feel confident about their ability to shop for clothes. This is a contradiction to some extent and might be ascribed to a socially acceptable answer.
- Members are still interested in the activity of shopping for apparel and walking in shopping malls and are confident that one can save a lot of money by shopping around.

Local store patronage did not significantly differ between Cluster one and two and two and three. Members of Cluster two agreed with the following statements (as was the case for Cluster one and three members): "Local clothing stores are attractive places to shop" and "local clothing stores meet my shopping needs". Members of Cluster one share the sentiment as to whether local stores offer good quality for the price. It thus seems that Cluster two members are satisfied with local apparel stores and that their immediate clothing needs are being met, but this is not different from Cluster one and three local store patronage.

Shopping orientation summary - Cluster 2: Cluster two members are the least brand-conscious and credit-prone of all the cluster groupings. Members are not opinion leaders or fashion innovators with regard to apparel. They do, however, still feel relatively confident with regard to shopping for apparel. Local stores satisfy this cluster's apparel needs as members of this group are of the opinion that they get good value for money.

4.8.2.5 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

The African sub-culture is in the majority in Cluster two (41%), followed by the coloured (32%) and white groups (27%.) Afrikaans is the language spoken most often, with Xhosa (17%) and Tswana (15%) also spoken as home languages. The relatively small percentages of African languages could to some extent be contributed to the fact that coloured respondents speak mostly Afrikaans as a home language and that data was collected in urban and semi-urban areas. As with the other clusters, the Christian religion predominates.

The age group 26 to 34 is the largest, as 38% of the cluster respondents fall into this category. The 18 to 25 group comprises 19% with 35 to 39 (16%) and the 40 to 55 group making up the remaining 26%. In comparison with the two other clusters, Cluster two's age profile has the smallest percentage of young females, the second largest percentage of forty plus and the largest percentage of late twenties/early thirties. Cluster two is the "oldest" female apparel shopper cluster. Female apparel shoppers in their late twenties and early thirties as well as the forty plus individuals, therefore dominate the age profile of Cluster two.

A large percentage of Cluster two members are married (57%), with 37% never having been married. On a par with the age profile, 29% of married respondents have been married for between five and eight years, 20% for nine to twelve years and 43% for longer than thirteen years. The ages of the children in the family unit are also a confirmation of the older age profile of Cluster two. Eighty-two percent of respondents with children indicated that they have one child under the age of five and 17%

indicated two children. Seventy-six percent have one child in the six to eleven age group and 21% have two children in this age group. Given the age and family life cycle profile, one would expect to see greater proportions of children in the age group 12 to 17 and 18 and older. This is indeed confirmed with 57% of respondents having one child in this age group and 39% having 2 teenage children. This percentage is the highest compared to the other clusters. Forty percent have one child over 18, nearly 31% have two and 19% have three. Cluster two families will therefore experience teenagers in the household that influence the apparel shopping behaviour, or they have children who have already left the home. The majority of Cluster two households will be in the parenthood and later parenthood stages of the family lifecycle. Again, as in Cluster one, this will hold implications for apparel expenditure, lifestyle and shopping behaviour.

Cluster two members spend the least amount of money per month on apparel items. Nearly a third of the group spend between R0.00 and R199.00 per month on apparel for themselves and the family. Twenty-five percent spend between R200 – R299 per month. From this level a sharp decline is evident, with 13% spending R300 – R399, 12% spending R400 – R499 and 17% spending R500 or more. Compared to Cluster one and three, the percentages in the last three categories are the lowest, implying that these members spend the smallest amount of money on apparel. This result is on a par with the remainder of the cluster profile, specifically with regard to income, education and job categories held. It is, however, in contrast with Cluster 1 (in the later FLC stages) who shows high levels of apparel expenditure. This could be attributed to Cluster two members having lower educational levels and lower incomes, therefore apparel expenditure would be limited due to limited disposable income for apparel.

Primary education, as highest educational level achieved by respondents, has the highest incidence in Cluster two (12%). Forty percent report a Grade 10 as the highest educational level. These statistics result in a staggering 52% of Cluster two only having a Grade 10 or lower educational level. This is the lowest educational level of all the cluster groupings. The educational level of the husband follows a similar trend with 39% having a Grade 10 or below; 34% a matric (Grade 12) and 28% reporting a diploma or higher education. These results are again the lowest of all the cluster groups. Many reasons can be forwarded for this situation. The lack of equal schooling opportunities for African people in the previous era (prior to 1994) in South Africa is most probably the single greatest contributing factor to the low educational levels of this, predominantly African, cluster grouping.

The income distribution for Cluster two therefore does not come as a surprise, as low levels of education are correlated with lower levels of income and lower status job categories. Twenty-three percent of respondents' total monthly income ranged from less than R500 per month to R1000.00. The biggest percentage (52%) of Cluster two earn between R1001 and R5000. The lower-middle income group is thus strongly represented. The upper-middle income group (R5001 – R10 000) has a 15% representation and the higher income group (R10 000 plus) 9%. It is clear that Cluster two has the highest percentages in the lower income brackets and the lowest in the higher income brackets.

The employment status of Cluster two members indicates that the following job categories are held by respondents in descending order: Clerk, salesperson, technician, secretary (42%); homemaker (16%); middle management (13%); unemployed (8%); domestic and farm workers (6%) and students (5%). The retired (3%); corporate (1%); self-employed/entrepreneur (1%) and the professional (1%) job categories were in the minority. In comparison with the other two cluster groupings, Cluster two has the largest percentage of unemployed, homemakers, clerks, retired and domestic and farm workers. Once again, this is on a par given the educational levels and household incomes.

Members of Cluster two to a large extent make use of public transport and taxis as they do not own their own vehicles (49%). 31% do however own one vehicle. Ownership of two or more vehicles are in the minority (15% and 5% respectively).

Demographic summary – Cluster 2: The majority of Cluster two is African or coloured with a low educational level, low income and low employment status. The total monthly income is in the lower and lower middle income groups with the result that apparel expenditure tends to be on the lower side, as 72% spend less than R399 per month on apparel for the family. Most of the members are married with children in all the age groups, but predominantly young children and teenagers. Vehicle ownership is low with the result that members rely on public transport or taxis to reach their destinations.

4.8.3 CLUSTER 3 (n=165)

Cluster 3 is the smallest cluster comprising 22% of the total sample. A small variation in the cluster size is evident due to missing values.

4.8.3.1 STORE PATRONAGE

Edgars is the store most often used to buy apparel items for the whole family ($\overline{X}$ = 4.35). Other stores also frequented include Foschini ($\overline{X}$ = 4.18) and Woolworths ($\overline{X}$ = 4.01). Stores least frequented include Bergers ($\overline{X}$ = 2.47), Pep Stores ($\overline{X}$ = 2.61) and Smiley's Wearhouse ($\overline{X}$ = 2.79). It is interesting to note that all the preferred stores have a higher incidence of being used to buy apparel items, in a higher frequency, than the highest store frequency of Cluster one (Woolworths at $\overline{X}$ = 3.59). This could be explained by the overall profile of Cluster three members, but specifically with regard to the high apparel expenditure reported by this group. The store image portrayed by the preferred stores attract the profile of Cluster three members. Edgars merchandises status and lifestyle-specific goods, Foschini focusses on the younger apparel shopper (large representation in Cluster three) and Woolworths focusses on quality products for the whole family (young members with children, and apparel items also catering for the older members). All three these stores offer charge cards to make credit purchases. Credit would most probably be used by the Cluster members as they are not the highest income group, but have the highest apparel expenditure. Various researchers (Fan, 1997; Fan & Zuiker, 1998; Pitts, 1990; Zuiker & Bae, 1993) found that black consumers spend significantly more of their budget on apparel. This could possibly be attributed to black consumers viewing apparel as status goods and thus spending a higher proportion of their household income on products improving their self-esteem. Although these results were predominantly generated with American samples, the researcher postulates that it is applicable in South Africa. This is supported by Allemann (2000a).

4.8.3.2 LIFESTYLE

Compared to the other cluster groups, Cluster three members hold the highest score on all three lifestyle components. Component two, i.e. apparel-oriented lifestyle dominates ($\overline{X}$ = 4.27), followed by the component three, i.e. Traditional lifestyle ($\overline{X}$ = 3.62) and the Yuppie lifestyle ($\overline{X}$ = 3.03) as component one. On face value the high scores on all these components fit the demographic profile of Cluster three. These respondents are the biggest spenders with regard to apparel, they have a young age profile together with an older component. Young and upcoming professionals with high education levels and high current and future incomes are also represented.

An investigation into the questionnaire items loading on the Yuppie lifestyle component reveal the following characteristics of the lifestyle of Cluster three members:

- Shopping for apparel items at boutiques and designers is rarely done.
- Members further rarely (twice a year) engage into travelling for work, visiting art galleries and fashion shows.
- Other activities that are seldom (three times a year) engaged into include: going to the cinema, travelling for pleasure, playing sport and attending sport matches.
- Reading fashion magazines, entertaining friends and dining in restaurants and reading newspapers are activities often (four times a year) engaged into.

The Apparel-orientated lifestyle component is the most dominant in this cluster grouping. The items loading on this component reveal the following characteristics of the lifestyle of Cluster three members:

- Members often engage (4 times a year) in the following: reading magazines, listening to the radio and watching television, general shopping for apparel items, shopping for apparel at sales, window-shopping , trying on various apparel items and making an effort to dress stylishly. Shopping is often done with a friend in order to socialise.

The traditional lifestyle component reflects the following contributors to forming the lifestyle of Cluster three. This component did significantly differ from Cluster one, but not from Cluster two.

- ❖ Members rarely engage in needlework.
- ❖ Church activities and meetings are very often attended (more than 5 times per year).
- ❖ Members often (4 times a year) engage into cooking and baking; gardening and other hobbies; family gatherings, community projects and school activities.

Lifestyle summary – Cluster 3: Cluster three members are apparel-orientated. They actively shop for apparel items at departmental stores and make use of sales. They further often engage in window shopping for apparel and trying on apparel items. They are active church attendees, placing a high value on friends and family. Members engage into high usage of all media types and can thus be reached through all main media vehicles. The lifestyle of Cluster three members shows many similarities to the aspirational market in South Africa (Allemann, 2000a).

4.8.3.3 CULTURAL CONSCIOUSNESS

Cluster three members, in comparison with the other two clusters, have the highest score on both individualism and collectivism. Members of Cluster three showed a stronger tendency toward individualism ($\overline{X}$ = 4.36) than collectivism ($\overline{X}$ = 3.89). As this cluster has a large component of African individuals, one might have expected a stronger collectivism, but in view of the demographic profile, this should not be the case. The stronger individualism could be attributed to the educational level, income level and the young and upcoming group that underwrites the cultural consciousness of individualism. However, these values are combined with the values and ideals of the African Renaissance. This is supported by the characterisation of the aspirational market by Alleman (2000a). The geographical area (urban and semi-urban) and the fusion between the different cultures could also have attributed.

An investigation into the individual item loadings reveals: strong agreement with time-consciousness and the importance of privacy and taking important decisions by themselves. These items underscore the high individualism orientation to cultural consciousness. It is still, however, important to be seen as socially acceptable and to get the approval and social support of others.

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4.8.3.4 SHOPPING ORIENTATION

A comparison between the three cluster groups reveals that members of Cluster three attained the highest values on all three the shopping orientation components. Component 1: Shopping self-confidence and enjoyment ($\overline{X}$ = 4.31), Component 2: Credit-prone, brand-conscious and fashion innovative ($\overline{X}$ = 3.15) and Component 3: Local store patronage ($\overline{X}$ = 3.91). On face value alone, the very high score on shopping self-confidence and enjoyment perfectly fits the general profile of Cluster three. Investigations into the various items compiling the different component scores indicate the following:

Results of Cluster three on shopping orientation with regard to the shopping self-confidence and enjoyment reveal that:

- Members agreed with the following statements: they are interested in and enjoy the shopping experience and walking through malls, they feel confident in their ability to shop for and to select appropriate apparel items.
- They further indicated that apparel shopping results in a positive mood, and with regard to financial matters agreed that one can save a lot of money by shopping around for bargains, and that they pay a lot more attention to apparel prices than before.

An investigation into component 2, i.e. credit-prone, brand-conscious and fashion innovative indicate that:

- Members agree with the statement that well-known brands mean good quality.
- Members are unsure as to whether it is important to buy well known brands and whether they buy fashions earlier in the season than most other people. This cluster grouping does, however, have the highest mean score on this opinion leadership item and will therefore have the highest rate of opinion leadership, compared to the other cluster groups. They are also sceptic as to whether it is a good thing to have a charge account or credit card and therefore disagree with the statement that they buy many things with their credit card. Could this possibly have been a socially acceptable answer to give during the store-intercept interview? Could they possibly have spend too much on charge and/or

credit cards in the past, therefore answering the question in this manner? Taking into account the type of stores frequented, the income and apparel expenditure, the shopping orientation and lifestyle, one would expect members of Cluster three to make use of a charge card.

The last component of shopping orientation, i.e. local store patronage, indicates members' agreement with all the items loading on this component. Local stores are seen as attractive places to shop and they offer good quality for the price. Members are also of the opinion that local stores meet their clothing needs. This component does not differ statistically between Clusters three and two and two and one. It can therefore be said that local store patronage only differed significantly between Clusters one and three.

Shopping orientation summary – Cluster 3: Cluster three members scored highest on all three the components of shopping orientation. They hugely enjoy the shopping experience and are confident in their ability to shop for apparel items. They often engage in walking through malls and window-shopping. They are of the opinion that a well known brand means good quality. Local stores meet their shopping needs and therefore they tend to shop locally. With regard to financing, this group is unsure as to whether a credit card or charge account is a good thing.

The composition of this cluster profile reflects various aspects of the aspirational market in South Africa as described by Allemann (2000a). This market is characterised by individuals of previously disadvantaged communities, who are pro-education (refer to the high percentage of students), support the African Renaissance but also embrace modern western ambitions and aspirations. They are fairly materialistic and are style-, fashion- and brand-conscious. Refer to section 2.8.2.2.2.3 in Chapter 2 for a more comprehensive discussion on the aspirational market.

4.8.3.5 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

Cluster three comprises 48% African, 26% whites and 26% coloureds. The African group is therefore in the majority with the other two groups having near equal representation. The African languages are spoken the most frequently in this group together with Afrikaans and more than one other language. The predominant faith is Christian.

Cluster three is the youngest group with only 20% of members being in the forty plus group. Thirty-three percent are between 26 and 39, and 37% are younger than 25. The age profile is reflected in various other demographic variables, e.g. marital status and employment status. Most members have been married for a one to four year period (39%). This percentage is much smaller than the other cluster groups, with age probably being the greatest influence. Some individuals (36%) however, have been married for 13 years or longer, with 23% in the nine to twelve year category and 17% in the five to eight year category. In comparison with the other two cluster groups, Cluster three members are the youngest, having been married for the shortest time, but also have the largest number of individuals (23%) being married for nine to twelve years. These category members would be from the thirty-five plus group.

Eighty-five percent of members of Cluster three indicated having one child under the age of five and 15% indicated two children in this age group. This is the highest incidence of small children. The youth of the family is further substantiated by 79% indicating one child between the ages of six and eleven and 18% two children in this age group. These figures, compared to the other clusters, are the highest. Seventy percent have one child in the twelve to seventeen age group and 30% indicate two children in this age group. Thirty-six percent of members have one child over eighteen and 24% have two children over the age of eighteen. In summary: with regard to the age of the children in Cluster three families, children are younger than all the other cluster groupings with less representation of older children.

Apparel expenditure is highest in Cluster three. Sixteen percent spend less than R199 per month, 39% spend between R200 and R399 per month, leaving the largest component of the cluster (45%) to spend R400 or more. Of the 45%, 14% spend between R400 and R499 and 31% spend more than R500 per month. Compared to the other groupings, this percentage is nearly double the other cluster groupings. Cluster three is therefore the most lucrative and attractive cluster grouping for retailers of apparel items.

Employment status, income and educational levels support the high expenditure patterns with regard to apparel. The members of Cluster three have the lowest incidence of Grade 10 (Standard eight) and lower educational levels (14% and 4% respectively). Grade 12 representation is the highest (45%) with 22% indicating one or more diplomas, 11% a B Degree and 4% a postgraduate qualification. This result could be tied in with the large number of students (21%) in this cluster. The other major job categories represented are: 5% professional (the highest in comparison), 33% clerck, salesperson, technician, secretary; 13% homemakers (the lowest), 13% middle management, 5% corporate (the highest in comparison with the other clusters), 1% self-employed and 3% domestic or farm workers. The educational level of the husband is also relatively high with 41% indicating a diploma or higher education, 39% Grade 12, only 15% Grade 10 and 5% primary education.

Total monthly income reveals the large student influence on this cluster grouping as 25% indicate less than R1000 per month. Fourty-one percent fall in the lower middle income group of between R1001 and R5000. The upper middle income group (R5001 – R10 000) is well represented with 20%. Ten percent has a monthly income of between R10 001 and R20 000 and 4% indicates a household income of R20 000 or more. This is the second highest of the three cluster groups. It can be argued that the total monthly income of students is relatively low, but that they spend a large percentage thereof on apparel items (Booher, 1996). Individuals in the higher status job categories will also spend more on work-related apparel items than for example a homemaker (Cassill, 1986; Kim et al., 1996). Twenty-seven percent of members owns one vehicle and 19.39% own two vehicles. Nine percent indicated possessing three or more. A relatively large percentage (44%) indicate that they do not own a vehicle and have to make use of public transport. Again, the large student representation could have skewed this figure.

Demographic summary – Cluster 3: Cluster three is predominantly African with small representation of whites and coloureds. This cluster is the youngest. Of those that are married, the family structure is young with small children. Cluster three has the largest student representation. The educational levels are high, coupled with relatively high incomes. The professional job category is also the highest compared to other clusters. Apparel expenditure is highest in Cluster three, even though the monthly income is not.

4.9 A SUMMARY OF THE THREE CLUSTER PROFILES

When the cluster profiles are viewed holistically, it is appropriate to label the various clusters of female apparel shoppers within a multi-cultural society such as South Africa. Labelling of clusters or groups of individuals is common practice (refer to Chapter two), as it assists the reader in forming a "mental picture" of the cluster or market segment. The following labels were ascribed to the three clusters according to the profile description:

- Cluster 1: Actualisers
- Cluster 2: Strugglers
- Cluster 3: Aspirationals

The profiles are supported by previously published international and South African literature. Similarities exist between the profiles reported by the VALS 2 classification system (Values and Lifestyles, 2001), the Sociomonitor (ACNielsen, 1999) and the profiles of Fournier et al., (1992), Alleman (2000a) and Shim and Kotsiopulos (1992b). A further discussion in this regard can be found in Chapter 5.

As the three clusters have been extensively described in the previous pages, a summary table is provided in Table 4.16. It must, however, be stressed that this table is a summary; therefore it will make use of key words and therein attempt to portray only the most fundamental characteristics of a cluster grouping. It does not provide the reader with all the detail and can therefore not be evaluated as such. The table summary serves as an overview of the cluster typologies, highlighting the most prominent characteristics of the respective cluster profiles.

TABLE 4.16

SUMMARY PROFILE OF CLUSTER GROUPS

VARIABLE	CLUSTER 1: 49.5% ACTUALISERS	CLUSTER 2: 28% STRUGGLERS	CLUSTER 3: 22.5% ASPIRATIONALS
❖ Demographics	❖ White and coloured majority ❖ African minority ❖ Afrikaans ❖ 18 – 25; 35 plus ❖ Majority married; later FLC stages ❖ Moderate to high apparel expenditure ❖ Highest educational levels ❖ Highest total household income ❖ Entrepreneurs, professionals, managers ❖ Multiple vehicle ownership	❖ African and coloured majority ❖ White minority ❖ Afrikaans, Xhosa and Twana ❖ 26 – 34; 40 plus ❖ Married; parenthood FLC stage ❖ Lowest apparel expenditure ❖ Lowest educational levels ❖ Lowest household income ❖ Clerck, middle management, domestic workers, unemployed ❖ Public transport and taxis	❖ African majority ❖ White and coloured equal minority ❖ Afrikaans, Xhosa and Twana ❖ Youngest; majority unmarried ❖ Early FLC stages ❖ Students, professional, clercks, middle management ❖ High educational levels, high incomes ❖ Highest apparel expenditure ❖ Own and public transport
❖ Store patronage	❖ Departmental and chain speciality ❖ Woolworths, Foschini, Edgars	❖ Departmental and discount ❖ Ackermans, Pep Stores, Mr Price	❖ Departmental and chain speciality ❖ Edgars, Foschini, Woolworthis
❖ Lifestyle	❖ Socially integrated: friends, dinners ❖ Stylish dresscode ❖ Church, family, hobbies ❖ Radio and magazines	❖ "Simple at home"; cooking and baking; little outside activity ❖ Church and family ❖ Radio	❖ Apparel-orientated lifestyle ❖ Active shoppers; window shopping ❖ Church and family ❖ High media usage – all types
❖ Cultural consciousness	❖ More individualistic	❖ More individualistic	❖ Individualistic and collectivistic
❖ Shopping orientation	❖ Confident apparel shoppers ❖ Enjoy shopping experience ❖ In-and out-shopping	❖ Least brand consciousness and credit-prone ❖ Little apparel opinion leadership and fashion innovation ❖ Local store patronage	❖ Very confident apparel shoppers ❖ Highest enjoyment levels ❖ Window shopping; brand-conscious ❖ Local store patronage

4.10 CONCLUSION: CHAPTER FOUR

Chapter 4 presented the results of the empirical study as well as a discussion thereof. The results indicated that all the objectives set for the empirical study were met, and that a contribution was made to the body of knowledge, especially regarding the multi-dimensionality of the constructs lifestyle and shopping orientation and the three female apparel shopper profiles that were developed. The results are summarised in Figure 4.3.

The following chapter, Chapter 5, will focus on the conclusion and implications of the research project.

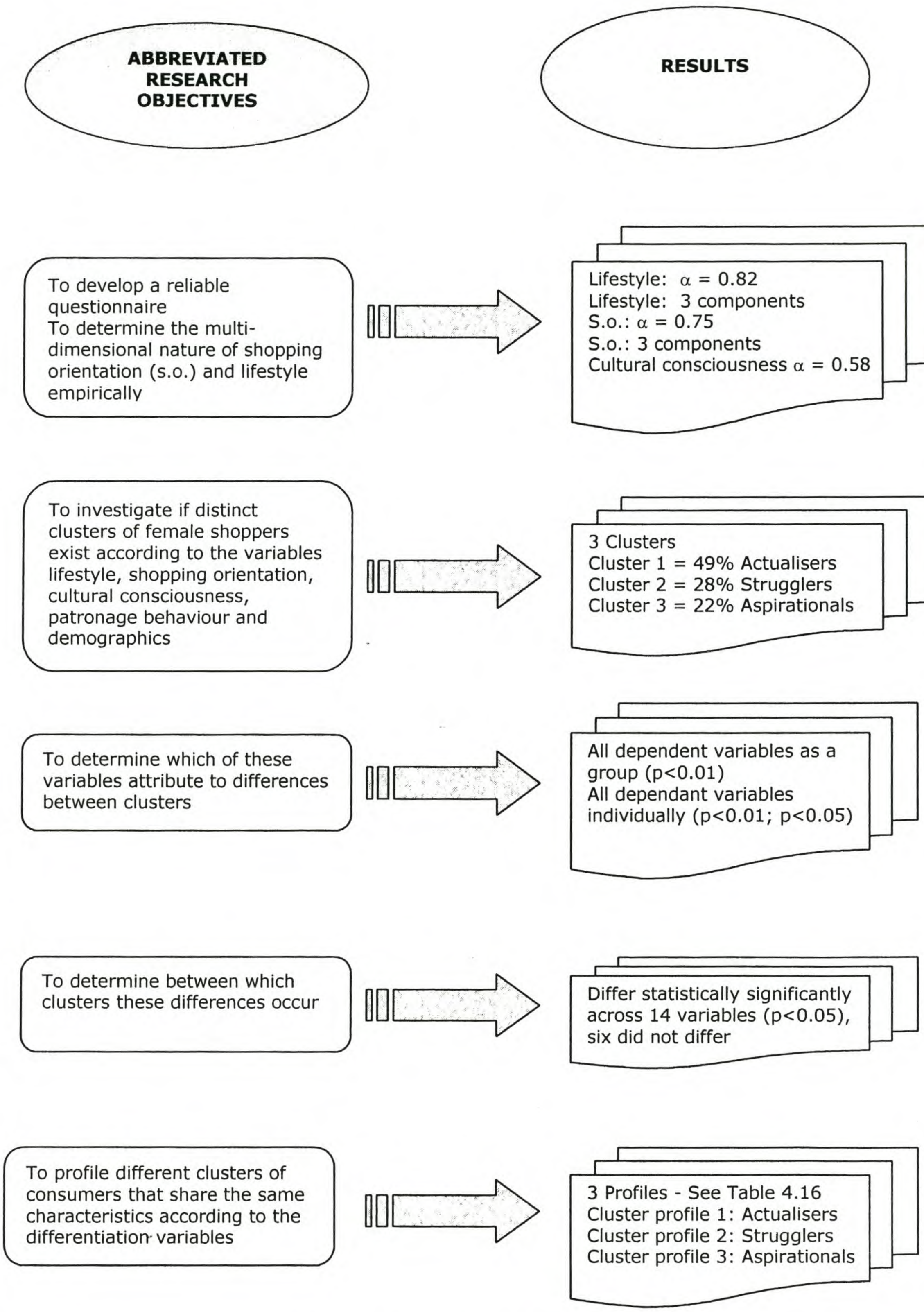

FIGURE 4.3: SUMMARY OF RESULTS ACCORDING TO THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society is a complex phenomenon with a multitude of interacting variables. This study set out to investigate this phenomenon within certain boundaries. The multi-disciplinary nature of the topic has, in the event, lead to results which make a contribution to two major parent disciplines, i.e. Consumer Behaviour and Consumer Sciences, especially Clothing and Textiles.

In Chapter one, the importance of this study was emphasised, together with the problem statement and research objective. This chapter provided a benchmark from which the consequent chapters were to follow. Chapter two set out to identify some of the variables influencing female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society. Various theoretical models from the two root disciplines were investigated, i.e. the Sproles Model of Fashion Adoption, the Engel-Blackwell-Miniard Model of Consumer Decision-Process Behaviour and the De Klerk Clothing Consumer Decision-making Model. The first two of these models were developed internationally and the last one was developed in South Africa. These models were synthesised into a new conceptual theoretical model of variables influencing female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society. A macro perspective was employed. Variables were classified under market dominated, market and consumer interaction and consumer dominated (refer to Figure 2.4, p. 23).

An investigation into all the variables impacting on female apparel shopping behaviour within one study is not feasible. A delimitation of the scope of the study was deemed necessary, resulting in the choice of a number of primary variables for further investigation. The variables were chosen so as to represent at least two primary variables under each of the classifications given in the previous paragraph. These variables were presented in a conceptual theoretical model with a micro perspective. This model served as a "road map" for the investigation. The variables investigated were the apparel product, place of distribution, shopping orientation, patronage behaviour, demographics and socio-cultural influences (family, lifestyle and culture). Refer to Figure 2.5 (p. 25). The final objective of Chapter two was to investigate the multi-dimensional nature of the selected variables that influence female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society.

Chapter two subsequently focussed on each of these variables individually, with special references to the nature of the construct and the literature. Care was taken to include as much South African research as possible, even though published research is scant. An overview of the South African Textile and Apparel Industry was provided to give perspective to the market dominated variables. Future trends in retailing were highlighted. Patronage behaviour, together with shopping orientation as market and consumer interaction variables, were discussed. The shopping orientation classification was given much attention and a new classification system was proposed. The last section of Chapter two, i.e. the consumer dominated variables, was introduced by providing a profile of the South African consumer. The family as a force in consumer behaviour was discussed. Lifestyle profiles, i.e. VALS2 and ACNielsen MRA Sociomonitor and the SAARF Living Standards Measure were presented. The remainder of this section focussed on the importance of lifestyle in apparel consumer behaviour and the applications of the concept of lifestyle in apparel studies. Culture and the impact thereof on consumer behaviour as well as cultural consciousness, i.e. the individualist and collectivist orientation, were investigated. Chapter two therefore achieved the research objectives set in this regard.

Chapter three provided the research methodology that supported the attainment of the empirical research objectives for this exploratory study. Data was generated through a store-intercept research method. This method was adapted by the researcher for South African circumstances. Changes had to be made, as respondents were to be interviewed in close proximity of the shopping behaviour under investigation (preferably in-store). It was also expected that the sample would display a wide range of educational levels. An answer sheet was developed in order to simplify the response to the questions put by the fieldworker. A discussion on sample selection, questionnaire development, data gathering, fieldworker training and statistical analysis, set the guidelines (provided the blue-print) for the attainment of the empirical research objectives.

The analysis and discussion of the data according to the empirical objectives were presented in Chapter four. A comprehensive profile of the sample was presented. The reliability of the questionnaire was acceptable for an exploratory study (lifestyle α = 0.82; cultural consciousness α = 0.58; shopping orientation α = 0.75) and the constructs, lifestyle and shopping orientation proved to be multi-dimensional. The factor analysis yielded three components respectively. The three lifestyle components were labelled *yuppie lifestyle, apparel-orientated lifestyle* and *traditional lifestyle*. The three shopping orientation components were labelled *shopping self-confidence and enjoyment*; *credit prone, brand-conscious and fashion innovator* and lastly, *local store patronage*. The results of the factor analysis partly confirmed the postulated multi-dimensional nature of the constructs, as presented in Chapter two.

Three clusters of female apparel shoppers were formed according to the three components of lifestyle and shopping orientation respectively, the two cultural consciousness scales and eleven patronage behaviour items. A demographic profile of each cluster completed the comprehensive typology of the three female apparel shopper groups. The groups were labelled according to their respective profiles, i.e.:

- Group 1 (49%): Actualisers
- Group 2 (28%): Strugglers
- Group 3 (22%): Aspirationals

The profiles were supported by previously published international and South African literature, i.e. VALS2 (Values and Lifestyles, 2001) the ACNielsen Sociomonitor (ACNielsen, 1999) and the profiles of Alleman (2000a) Fournier et al., (1992), and Shim and Kotsiopulos (1992b).

Chapter five aimed to achieve the remainder of the objectives set for this dissertation. Firstly, to present conclusions regarding the research objectives and secondly, to make a contribution to theory building and the body of knowledge in the field of Consumer

Behaviour and Clothing and Textiles. Thirdly, to examine the conclusions and implications of the results, and specifically the cluster profiles for theory and practice. The final objective is to make recommendations for future research.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS REGARDING THE RESEARCH PROBLEM, RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND CONTRIBUTIONS

What are the variables that influence female apparel shopping behaviour within a multi-cultural consumer society? Can distinct clusters of female apparel shoppers be identified? In order to solve these research questions, various research objectives were set. The conclusions below can be stated in accordance with the research problem and research objectives. The contributions of this study toward the existing body of knowledge regarding Consumer Behaviour and Clothing and Textiles as fields of study will be highlighted.

A large amount of research has been done internationally regarding isolated variables and the impact thereof on apparel consumer behaviour. Apparel, as a product choice, is popular, as this is a high involvement product commanding a broad spectrum of knowledge on the subject areas of Consumer Behaviour and Clothing and Textiles. From the literature it is however apparent that much of the research is generated by academia and researchers in the study field of Clothing and Textiles. This is commendable. What is troublesome is the lack of more comprehensive research efforts attempting to combine and synthesise knowledge in order to build the knowledge base and theory in South Africa. Very few South African researchers within the research domain of this study, with the exception of De Klerk (1999), attempted to incorporate knowledge into model building. This dissertation attempted to make a contribution in this regard.

In order to identify the broad spectrum of variables that may influence female apparel shopping behaviour within a multi-cultural consumer society from literature, the following approach was followed. The conceptual theoretical model: A macro perspective of variables influencing female apparel shopping behaviour (refer to Figure 2.4, p. 23) synthesised numerous variables into a new classification system regarding the type of variables impacting on female apparel shopping behaviour. Variables were classified under market dominated variables, market and consumer interaction variables and consumer dominated variables. A micro perspective (with selected variables) was proposed, as delimitation of the study was deemed necessary. This model was presented in Figure 2.5, p. 25.

The **nature and multi-dimensional properties** of the selected primary variables that influence female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society, were investigated in Chapter two. The following conclusions can be made:

- The variables presented in the model represent and incorporate the cognitive, cultural and symbolic-interactionist perspectives toward the social psychology of clothing. Assumptions based on these perspectives could be used to explain the importance of these variables which impact on female apparel shopping behaviour. Refer to Appendix 2.

- **Apparel as a product category** is an integral part of Clothing and a discipline in its own right, therefore the choice of apparel as product category in this predominantly Consumer Behaviour study, necessitates a multi-disciplinary approach to answer the research questions. The apparel business is one of the most change-intensive businesses in the world due to the combination of fashion change and seasonal change (Glock & Kunz, 2000). The fashion process and the adoption process are central to the acceptance or rejection of the fashion item by consumers. If consumers did not accept and buy fashion, fashion could not and would not have existed (refer to section 2.3.1). This change-intensive nature of apparel and the apparel industry is a challenge to consumers, marketers, manufacturers, retailers and researchers.

- Apparel can be purchased in a wide variety of **retail environments**. Over and above the "traditional" department, discount and speciality stores (where the biggest proportion of apparel purchases takes place) numerous other outlets exist, for example, hawkers, catalogues, home-industries, World-Wide Web, boutiques, designers and factory shops. The retail environment is constantly changing and future trends provide for an extremely competitive situation with fewer retail chains, an increase in non-store retail environments, technological advances and globalisation. Many of these trends are already visible in South Africa, however, the majority of South African consumers and manufacturers are not yet ready for e-commerce and globalisation opportunities, such as AGOA (refer to section 2.6).

- Shopping orientation and patronage behaviour are complex multi-dimensional variables characterised by an interaction between the market and the consumer. Both impact directly on consumer behaviour and play an important role in decision-making.

- **Patronage behaviour**, as described by the psychological approach (refer to section 2.7.1), makes provision for the shopping-buying discrepancy. This lead to the inclusion of consumers who browsed for and/or purchased apparel items in this study. A study of shopping behaviour should therefore include browsing as well as purchasing activities, according to the psychological approach toward patronage preference and behaviour.

- **Shopping orientation** is a complex multi-dimensional construct. To complicate matters further, shopping orientations are dependent on the product and the retail store type (Solomon, 1999). Ten new categories of apparel shopping orientation were proposed to synthesise the vast amount of shopping orientations reported in literature (all with varying labels). These categories presented themselves, through factor analysis, in three apparel shopping orientation components. The ten categories were re-grouped into three components of shopping orientation. Firstly, shopping self-confidence and enjoyment, secondly, credit-prone, brand-conscious and fashion innovative and thirdly, local store patronage. The conclusion can therefore justly be made that apparel shopping orientation is a multi-dimensional construct (refer to section 2.7.2.3).

- **Demographics and socio-cultural influences** were classified as consumer dominated variables, as all consumers will differ with regard to these variables. The market cannot influence or control these variables; it can only attempt to understand the influence thereof on the behaviour of their customers. The gender, language, age, income, occupation and educational level of a consumer will influence the way in which he/she behaves in the marketing environment. Stakeholders in the industry should therefore take cognisance of these variables and the impact thereof on consumer behaviour.

- **The role of women** have changed drastically in the last twenty years. Women are more educated, marry later in life, have fewer children and are more economically active. The employment orientation of women impacts on buying behaviour with regards to apparel. Women are the dominant purchasers of many items, including apparel. Women actively partake in consumer decision-making and marketers increasingly target women in their strategic marketing efforts (refer to sections 2.8.2.1.4 and 2.8.2.1.5).

- **Lifestyle** is multi-dimensional and complex, influencing a vast array of consumer behaviour domains (refer to section 2.8.2.2.1). It reflects the cultural, demographic, economic and psychological dimensions of individuals. Data on the lifestyle section of the questionnaire was factor analysed and resulted in three components, each displaying a combination of dimensions in a "lifestyle" pattern, i.e. the Yuppie Lifestyle, Apparel-Orientated Lifestyle and the Traditional Lifestyle.

  Finally, it is concluded that the constructs *shopping orientation* and *lifestyle* are multi-dimensional, even though the underlying dimensions of the constructs did not present themselves as separate components, but rather in a combined form. The three components of lifestyle could be interpreted and labelled respectively according to the items loading on the respective components. The description of the labels could assist future students in questionnaire development.

- **Culture** functions as an "invisible hand" influencing nearly all human behaviour. Consumer behaviour is no exception. Culture is multi-dimensional. This study focussed firstly, on the broad impact of culture in general on consumer behaviour and secondly, on individualism/collectivism as a dimension of culture. The impact of cultural differences on consumption behaviour, age, expenditure patterns, motivation, decision-making, changes in role orientation, social class, values, communication, purchase and post-purchase behaviour were discussed. For the purposes of this study, the individualist/collectivist dimension of culture was measured because it was considered to be more relevant to apparel shopping behaviour than the other dimensions of culture (refer to section 2.8.2.3.1). The individualist/collectivist dimension is also widely used in literature to study cross-cultural variations and differences. Results of the empirical study showed that the female apparel shoppers included in the sample, did not show very strong levels of either individualism or collectivism. The following possible reasons for this outcome, could be stated:

- ❖ The geographic regions of data collection were more urban than rural;
- ❖ The level of acculturation of the respondents resulted in respondents not showing strong identification with either individualism or collectivism values;
- ❖ Personal identification with collectivist vs. individualist core attitudes and behaviour;
- ❖ Various ethnic groups having varying levels of adherence to traditional values, attitudes and behaviour;
- ❖ The growing aspirational market. A combination of both "individualist" needs, values and behaviours together with "collectivist" values and a support of the African Renaissance is evident in this market segment;
- ❖ The combination of First World and Third World economies and socio-cultural environments in South Africa;
- ❖ The combination of horizontal and vertical individualist/collectivist groups of individuals within the same sample group.

The conclusion can be made that the scores of the various cluster members on the individualism/collectivism scale displayed a regression toward the mean as individuals did not display strong opinions regarding the various items. The results, however, contributed to the understanding of the concept of cutural-consciousness, i.e. individualist versus collectivist, in South Africa. The rainbow nation characteristics and the development of a new post-apartheid South Africa could facilitate research in this area. A measurement of this scale in other geographic areas or over a period of time could, for example, yield different results.

The results of this study culminated in the development of three cluster profiles of female apparel shoppers that differed according to demographics, store patronage, lifestyle, cultural consciousness and shopping orientation. The three clusters were labelled according to their respective profiles, i.e. the **Actualisers**, the **Strugglers** and the **Aspirationals**. After comparing the three developed profiles with other profile research, interesting similarities were evident between the lifestyle typologies as a result of this study, and those discussed in Chapter two.

The profiles were supported by previously published international and South African literature. Similarities exist between the profiles reported by the VALS 2 classification system (Values and Lifestyles, 2001), the Sociomonitor (ACNielsen, 1999) and the profiles of Fournier et al., (1992), Alleman (2000a) and the apparel shopping patronage profiles by Shim and Kotsiopulos (1992b). Some similarities between the heavy user of apparel reported by Goldsmith et al., (1999) and Cluster 3: Aspirationals are also evident. Refer to Chapter two for a full discussion of the work by various researchers. The similarities are tabulated in Table 5.1. Given the limitations and delimitations of this study, these profiles can confidently be supported, and the findings of the present study do make a contribution to the knowledge of apparel consumer behaviour in a multi-cultural South-Africa.

The fact that similarities are evident between the profiles developed as a result of this study and international is well as locally developed instruments, is encouraging. It could be concluded that the sample results could with some confidence be generalised for the South African female apparel market, as the international and South African developed profiles give confirmation to the three profiles that resulted from this study.

A final conclusion: Given the literature study (Chapter 2), research methodology (Chapter 3) and results (Chapter 4), the development of a new theoretical model is possible. The new model is presented in Figure 5.1. This model incorporates the conclusions regarding the results of the objectives of the study and makes a contribution toward the body of knowledge regarding female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society. Researchers, students and stakeholders in the industry can benefit from the application of this model. Firstly, the model provides three categories in order to group the variables that impact on female apparel shopping behaviour and secondly, it provides information regarding the multi-dimensionality of the influencing constructs. Thirdly, it portrays three clusters of female apparel shoppers in a multi-cultural consumer society and fourthly, it can serve as a basis for future research as the other variables mentioned in the Conceptual Theoretical Model: A Macro perspective (refer to Figure 2.4), should also be studied within the South African female apparel consumer market and incorporated in the model presented here.

TABLE 5.1

CONCLUSIONS REGARDING SIMILARITIES BETWEEN THE THREE CLUSTERS OF FEMALE APPAREL SHOPPERS AND VALS2, SOCIOMONITOR AND OTHER PROFILES

THREE CLUSTERS OF FEMALE APPAREL SHOPPERS	VALS 2 TYPOLOGIES	SOCIOMONITOR TYPOLOGIES	OTHER PROFILES
Cluster 1: Actualisers	Actualisers	Achievers	Succeeders (Fournier et al., 1992) Department stores and speciality stores shopping patronage profile (Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1992b)
Cluster 2: Strugglers	Strugglers	Todayers	Sustainers, Subsisters (Fournier et al., 1992) Discount stores shopping patronage profile (Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1992b)
Cluster 3: Aspirationals	Achievers	Enhanchers	Aspirational market (Alleman, 2000a) Department stores and speciality stores shopping patronage profile (Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1992b) Heavy user (Goldsmith et al., 1999)

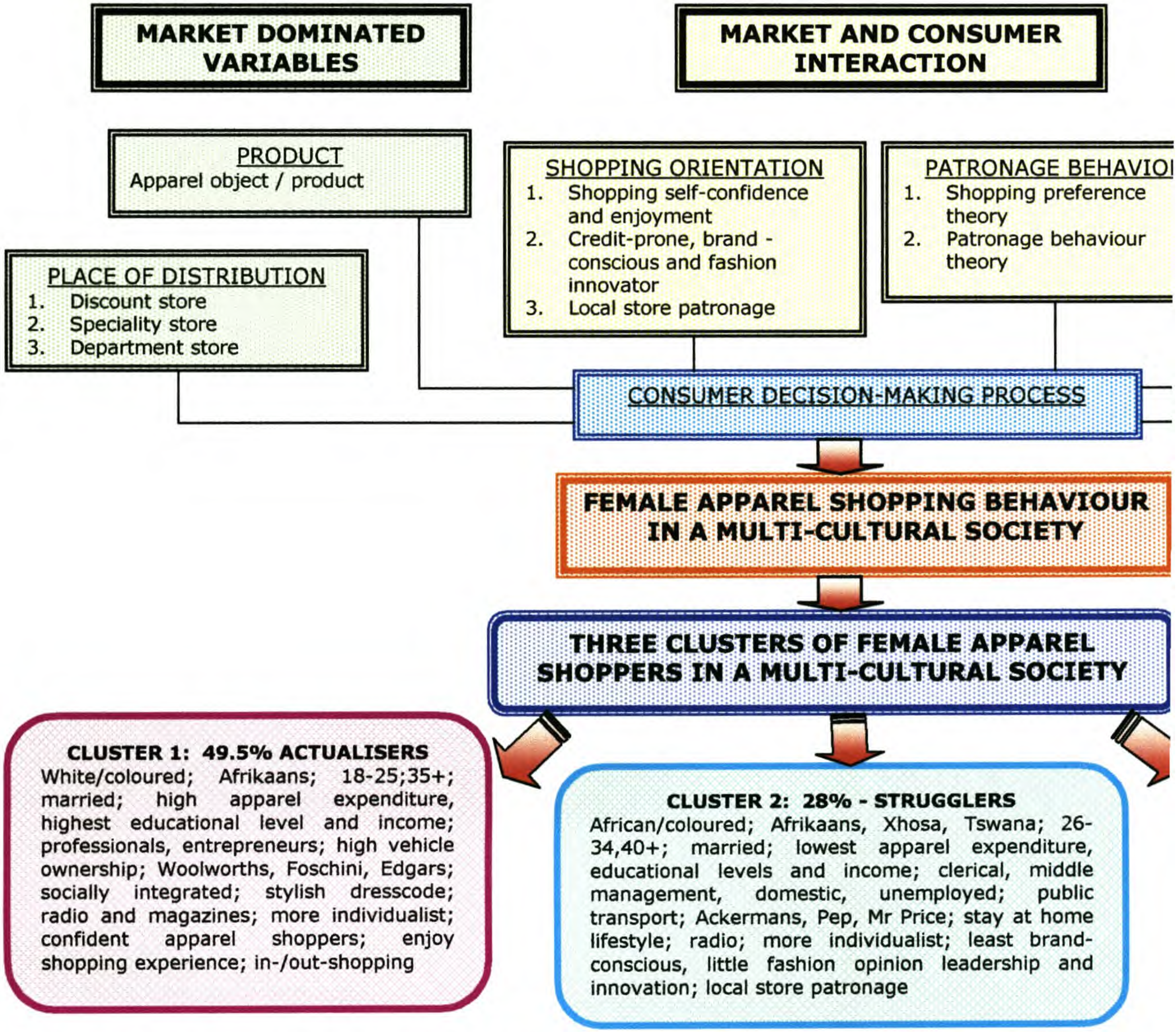

FIGURE 5.1: CONCLUSION: A THEORETICAL MODEL OF SELECTED VARIA
APPAREL SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR IN A MULTI-CULTURAL CC

5.3 IMPLICATIONS

The broad conclusions regarding this study as well as specific conclusions regarding the objectives set, have been discussed in the previous section. What are the implications of the results of this study? The results hold a variety of implications for different stakeholders. These will be discussed in the sections below.

5.3.1 IMPLICATIONS FOR MANUFACTURERS, MARKETERS AND RETAILERS

Satisfying consumer needs is of paramount importance to the manufacturers of apparel items, the marketers that develop the marketing strategy and the retailers who sell the apparel product. It is only when the needs of consumers are met that they are satisfied. This will lead consumers to engage into repeating purchases of, for example, the same brand name, or to be positive toward the advertising of a particular brand and patronising the same store. In the consumer-driven 21st century, consumers will decide on how they will spend their money, be more knowledgeable regarding products and services and be accustomed to a huge variety of choices. The manufacturers, marketers and retailers that have knowledge regarding the female apparel market will have an imperative advantage for survival in the competitive 21st century.

Implications for manufacturers of apparel

- Manufacturers are now global players. With the introduction of AGOA and the United Nations/South Africa Free Trade Agreements, as well as the increase of e-commerce in South Africa, the manufacturers are no longer protected against the impact of the global economy. More apparel items that were not manufactured by domestic companies, will be available in South Africa at competitive prices. Thus, an increase in competition is evident.

- In order to stay globally competitive, the opportunities presented by AGOA should be seized and capitalised upon. The efforts in this regard could strengthen the whole South African apparel manufacturing industry.

- As competition mounts, retailers and manufacturers will increasingly compete to meet the needs of their target market. Especially in the basic apparel category, more retailers are manufacturing apparel items under private labels, in order to meet the needs of consumers for these products at affordable prices.

- Manufacturers must recognise that they do not produce apparel items for a homogeneous market. It is not a case of "one size fits all". Different groups of consumers will require different types of products and will evaluate them differently. The employment orientation, stage of the FLC, shopping orientation, culture and lifestyle of a target market will all impact on the apparel shopping behaviour of consumers. Modern technology such as, CAD, EDI, QR and CIM should be implemented to assist manufacturers to meet needs of consumers and especially to do so in the shortest possible time. Fashion changes rapidly, and if a manufacturer cannot respond in time, the opportunity is lost.

Implications for marketers of apparel

- The developed model (macro perspective) provides marketers of apparel with a holistic view of variables influencing female apparel shopping. The micro perspective gives more detailed information regarding selected variables, and how they impact on consumer behaviour and it makes the development of a strategic marketing plan more scientific.

- Not all female apparel shoppers are similar in their shopping behaviour. The market can and should therefore be segmented. Female apparel consumers differ with regard to their demographic characteristics, store patronage, lifestyle, culture and shopping orientations with the result that differentiated marketing strategies are a necessity for the three consumer groups identified in this study.

- Different media vehicles are preferred by the three groups of female apparel shoppers. Knowledge regarding the preferred choice of media would impact on media planning. Word of mouth and opinion leadership will not be present in groups similar to the Strugglers, as they have little interest in fashion. For the Strugglers, advertising in close proximity of the target market would be more appropriate as this group has to make use of public transport to reach retailers.

- The various female apparel consumer groups will require different advertising approaches or "ad speak". As their demographic profile and especially their lifestyle and shopping orientations are varied, different advertising copy will appeal to different groups. For example, the Aspirationals are very confident apparel shoppers, they are young and upcoming, display an apparel-orientated lifestyle, are brand-conscious and enjoy the shopping experience. They could be reached by advertising copy that appeals to these characteristics by, for example, stressing the brand image of the retailer and the apparel product as well as shopping for apparel as an enjoyable activity. In contrast, the Strugglers have very low apparel expenditure, are least brand-conscious and show little opinion leadership. It is clear that the same ad speak would not reach both target markets. This latter group of consumers needs to be convinced to make apparel purchases, therefore requiring a totally different marketing and advertising strategy.

❖ The layout and execution of the advertisements should be target market-specific. Consumers with high educational and status levels will be motivated by other advertising layouts and executions than those with low educational levels and incomes.

❖ The information age should be applied to the benefit of marketers. Consumers, especially the groups with high educational levels, i.e. the Actualisers and the Aspirationals, will develop new electronic means of gathering information prior to purchase as well as during purchase. The development of web-sites to provide information regarding apparel (latest fashions, sale information, pricing, stock availability) as well as for the purchasing of apparel, should be developed to capture this market segment. Marketers should encourage retailers to take note of the fact that consumers are developing their skills in this regard and that they should also make use of technology to further their products.

Implications for retailers of apparel

❖ Using the results of this study could improve the understanding of apparel consumer behaviour by taking cognisance of all the variables that influence behaviour. The statement can unequivocally be made that no retailer will be able to influence shopping behaviour if he/she does not have an understanding of the variables influencing that behaviour.

❖ The profiles can assist apparel retailers in the identification of target markets in order to establish a scientifically-based marketing strategy and mix. It can be argued that if a retailer can successfully identify, describe and understand the behaviour of his/her target market, the meeting of consumer needs would be more probable. The cluster profiles therefore attempted to do just that.

- The results of this study hold implications regarding the identification of the target market. What are the demographic profile, lifestyle, cultural consciousness and shopping orientation of the group of consumers that is considered as a target market? If the target market can be described, retailers can compare their findings to the three cluster typologies and attempt to "fit" their target profile on one or more of the female apparel clusters, and plan accordingly. The question, however, arises as to which of the differentiation variables should be chosen to "fit" accordingly? This depends solely on the retailer and the basis for segmentation applied. If the unique selling proposition of the retailer is to appeal to consumers with specific apparel needs that portray their lifestyle (e.g. sport/leisure apparel), then the lifestyle variable could be used as the "fit criterium" to select one of the cluster profiles. Once a cluster profile is selected, the other profile descriptors are available to describe the selected target market.

- Female apparel consumer segments imply that different consumers would prefer different merchandise. Knowledge regarding the profile of the target cluster would enhance the retailers effort to stock suitable apparel items and to display them in-store in an applicable manner.

- The three cluster groups could also differ with regard to what they will buy (e.g. children's clothing' work apparel, formal apparel), how they will buy (e.g. cash, store charge card, credit card) and when they will buy (weekdays, weekends, morning, mid-morning or afternoon).

- What type of apparel items the target market will buy, will be influenced by variables such as demographics, stage in the FLC, income, employment orientation, shopping orientation and lifestyle. Promotional efforts by the retailer should focus on these variables in order to reach the target market, for example if the target market "fits" the Actualisers and/or the Aspirationals, in-store promotional efforts (or mall promotional efforts) should centre around making the shopping experience fun, entertaining and enjoyable.

- ❖ It could be postulated that groups will differ with regard to the use of credit cards and charge cards supplied by the store. Groups with high income levels often make use of credit and/or charge cards to purchase items, but the underlying motive is convenience and not credit as in the case of lower income individuals.

- ❖ This study could assist the retailer in meeting the apparel needs of the target market by selecting the most appropriate marketing mix, i.e. the type of product, pricing structures, promotional campaign and mix, and distribution of merchandise.

Marketers must understand consumer behaviour. If they do not gain knowledge regarding why consumers purchase or not-purchase apparel, they would not succeed in communicating to them successfully. Demographics, socio-cultural influences such as the family, lifestyle and culture, patronage behaviour, shopping orientation, the product and place of distribution are some of the variables that impact on the consumer decision-making process and result in apparel shopping behaviour. However, many other variables can be identified and investigated (refer to Figure 2.4, p. 23). If marketers understand behaviour, they can influence behaviour.

5.3.2 IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCHERS, EDUCATORS AND STUDENTS

Any research should hold implications for academia. Results of investigations should impact on researchers, educators and students alike, especially with regard to curriculum development as well as new research initiatives.

- ❖ Educators in the subject field of Clothing and Textiles can benefit from the development of the macro perspective and micro perspective models in various ways. These models provide a conceptual framework for the development of curricula for courses in especially Consumer Behaviour. A holistic approach to studying consumer behaviour is encouraged with the inclusion of the symbolic interactionist, cognitive and cultural perspectives towards the social psychology of clothing.

- ❖ The above-mentioned models can be used as an evaluation. Students should have a thorough knowledge of all the components of the macro perspective model after completion of the course. This would provide them with a holistic knowledge of Consumer Behaviour as well as application to Clothing and Textiles.

- Most students find it difficult to visualise, understand and apply knowledge gained in one field of study, for example Clothing and Textiles, to other disciplines, such as Consumer Behaviour. They would benefit from their knowledge and understanding of the numerous variables that influence female apparel shopping behaviour in a multi-cultural consumer society. Grasping the meaning of the constructs and the multi-dimensionality thereof, would be simplified by this inter-disciplinary model and might perhaps encourage further inter-disciplinary studies.

- Using the models developed in this study could give a new perspective and point of departure to researchers to develop an applicable research methodology and data gathering initiative for multi-cultural studies. Models assist in the delineation of studies and the development of new models and theory. The models can further assist researchers to identify gaps in the knowledge and understanding of consumer behaviour. New research initiatives and priorities can thus be facilitated by applying the macro and micro perspective models.

5.4 LIMITATIONS

This study showed many strengths, i.e. the size of the sample, the rigorous sampling methodology applied, the development of two models as well the profile development of three female apparel shopping groups. However, any study has some limitations.

The delimitation of the scope of the study was discussed in section 1.6. Decisions in this regard were made in accordance with time, financial and feasibility constraints. Some of the boundaries and limitations that can be highlighted again, include:

- The language used for the questionnaire could be a limitation. If the questionnaire was available in the four languages commonly spoken in the data gathering areas, (Afrikaans, English, Xhosa and Tswana) comprehension of the questionnaire items could have been increased. The language factor might have excluded some respondents due to them not having the ability to answer questions in Afrikaans or English.

- The models presented in this study were conceptual theoretical models of which the variables in the micro perspective model were further investigated, however, the relationship between the various variables was not investigated. Consequently the conceptual models do not have any prediction value.
- Lastly, the investigation of all the variables in the macro perspective model would have been the ideal, but choices regarding the variables that would be included in the study, had to be made. These decisions were complicated as the isolation of the numerous variables that impact on consumer behaviour, is problematic. It could be argued that if other variables mentioned in the macro model were included, then the outcome could have been different.

The strengths of the study, however, remain and the limitations do not detract from the importance and relevancy of the findings of this exploratory study, but serve as a platform for future research efforts.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Future research efforts as a result of this study, could focus on:

- the other variables that were presented in the macro perspective model and could assist in building a more comprehensive inclusive model of variables impacting on female apparel shopping behaviour.
- the decision-making process. The process was not measured in this study, but only the variables influencing decision-making and the outcome thereof, i.e. shopping behaviour. The apparel consumer decision-making process could be researched.
- the multi-dimensionality of the other constructs included in the macro perspective model. Research efforts in this regard could contribute to validating South African research instruments for data gathering.
- the relationships between the variables, as the conceptual models did not indicate relationships between the variables. This could increase the predictive value of the various conceptual models.

- including more and/or other ethnic groups as well as gathering data through instruments that are available in the respondents' first language.

- in comparison to the categorical measure of race, ethnicity could lead to finer segmentation. This allows researchers to measure deeper value orientations that might have a deeper impact on the purchase process than race as a category.

- investigating the construct individualism and collectivism within deep-rural, rural and urban areas. This could give rise to the further development of the measurement instrument that is developed for the multi-cultural South African population.

- a comparison between ethnic groups regarding their cultural orientation and the impact thereof on consumer behaviour. Comparisons could be made between deep-rural, rural and urban areas to investigate the influence of acculturation.

- horizontal and vertical individualist and collectivist orientations of sub-cultures in South Africa and the impact thereof on consumer behaviour.

- replicating the study in the youth/teenager market. This market segment is extremely lucrative, as a high percentage of a teenager's money is spent on apparel. Because fashions change extremely fast in the youth market, all stakeholders in the apparel industry could benefit from an understanding of the youth market's apparel shopping behaviour.

- the apparel shopping behaviour of males as little research has been done in this consumer segment in South Africa. This is a growing market segment and because the roles of women are changing rapidly, more men could become solely responsible for their own apparel purchases, therefore making the study of male apparel shopping behaviour a necessity.

- investigating shopping orientation further through the combination of quantitative and qualitative research. Research demands a strong theoretical base. The observations about apparel shopping orientations that have been reported, are not necessarily structured and aimed at testing, expanding and building theory. The challenge is for clothing researchers to contribute in this regard.

- testing the postulated categorisation of shopping orientations statistically by factor analysing the construct *shopping orientation*. Shopper typologies based on apparel shopping orientations need to be further analysed as it appears not to be investigated in depth.

- adapting the research instrument for specific ethnic and/or consumer (e.g. youth or male market) groups. Researchers should focus on the multi-cultural nature of the South African population. American research findings cannot be accepted without question as valid for South African circumstances, but should be tested empirically.

From a retailing and marketing perspective it can be concluded that a thorough knowledge of shopping orientation is beneficial as it holds important advantages, such as:

- guiding budget spending on various media vehicles;
- directing which in-store attributes should be emphasised;
- predicting fashion opinion leadership;
- pro-actively targeting opinion leadership by unique advertising campaigns;
- acknowledging that the importance of product attributes differ among various cultural groups and
- implementing this information in apparel manufacturing.

As shopping undergoes important changes in the next millennium, studies on apparel shopping orientation will undoubtedly contribute to the ability of marketers and retailers to satisfy the unique needs of distinct clusters of apparel consumers. The following could be considered:

- Retailers could benefit from further research regarding the profile of various shoppers with different shopping orientations as well as profiles regarding the type of consumers that shop at a specific time of a day or days of the week. Promotional campaigns can be planned accordingly.

- The study could be made retailer-specific. Retailers could make use of the instrument in order to profile their target market and gain more knowledge about them as a result.

Apparel shopping behaviour is a complex and multi-dimensional phenomenon. Literature reports on a vast array of variables impacting on consumers' decision-making behaviour in the marketplace. This exploratory study sheds light on some of these interacting variables and how they influence market segmentation and consumer profiles. Female apparel shoppers are not a homogeneous group and the market can and should be segmented. This was confirmed by the present study. In the South African rainbow nation all stakeholders in the fields of Clothing and Textiles, as well as Consumer Behaviour, can benefit from a better understanding of consumers. Knowledge will be the key to future prosperity for all.

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APPENDIX 1

DEFINING TERMS RELATED TO THE APPAREL INDUSTRY

The **apparel business** is often referred to as the fashion business as fashion change is paramount in most peoples' minds when thinking of apparel (Glock & Kunz, 2000).

"A **clothing fashion** is a style of dress that is temporarily adopted by a discernible proportion of members of a social group because that chosen style is perceived to be socially appropriate for the time and situation" (Sproles & Burns, 1994, p. 5). Fashion is also defined as a dynamic social process by which new styles are created, introduced to consumers and popularly accepted by them (Sproles, 1979) as well as the current mode of consumption behaviour applied specifically to clothing products and related services (Easy, 1995, p. 207). "Fashion is the style or styles most popular at a given time. The term implies three components: style, change and acceptance" (Frings, 1999, p.54). The definition by Meuller and Smiley (1995, p. 392) highlights the acceptance and purchase by consumers, of artistically designed apparel and accessories that are mass-produced and marketed by the fashion industry, in a timely manner, in order to satisfy consumers' needs and wants.

Style is a particular look or characteristic in apparel or accessories. Even though a particular style is not fashionable at a given time, the style will always remain, for example, the polo shirt. **Change** goes with fashion. Fashion changes to reflect changes in needs, lifestyles and society. Unfortunately changes in fashion are not always **accepted** by all. Only if fashion is accepted by a large proportion of a people, can it be stated that the fashion was successful (Frings, 1999).

Fashion marketing is the application of a range of techniques and a business philosophy based on customers and potential customers of apparel, apparel-related products and services in order to meet the long-term goals of the organisation (Easy, 1995, p. 208).

Clothing is a generic term for any covering of the human body or any material object connected to the human body. This definition includes items such as pants, skirts, shoes, gloves, hats, jewellery, etc. that consumers obtain and wear or attach to the body (Kaiser, 1997).

Apparel (clothes) is also a covering, but with a decorative connotation, used by the industry to refer to actual constructed garments (Kaiser, 1997). Apparel is not necessarily fashionable. Apparel, as used in this study, will therefore refer to garments such as blouses, skirts, pants and dresses that are constructed and are fashionable or not.

Dress (*kleredrag*) is the most inclusive as it includes all coverings and ornaments worn on the body and can include accessories, hairstyling and cosmetics (Kaiser, 1997).

APPENDIX 2

COMPARISON OF THREE PERSPECTIVES TOWARDS A SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY OF CLOTHING

	Symbolic Interactionist	**Cognitive**	**Cultural**
Meaning			
For whom?	Interacting individuals	Perceivers	Individuals sharing a common culture
How is it produced?	Socially constructed through individuals' joint actions	Perceivers use their cognitive structures to interpret	Cultural representation of social relations and ideology
How does it change?	Interpretation by individuals	Perceivers' cognitive structure do not adequately explain social realities	Cultural and fashion change
Relative strenghts	Social interaction	Implicit perceptions and mechanisms for processing appearance cues	Cultural context for understanding linkage between social relations and appearance codes
Common assumption Humans use appearance to make sense of everyday life	Explained in terms of humans fitting their lines of action together to communicate	Explained in terms of perceivers trying to simplify reality using somewhat structured thought processes	Explained in terms of cultural codes that we take for granted
Primary level of analysis	Self, social processes (interpersonal)	Individual, implications for interpersonal relations	Cultural, sub-cultural (including linkages to social relations)
Discipline	Sociology	Psychology	Interdisciplinary – anthropology, cultural studies, ethnic studies, semiotics, womens's studies

(Compiled from De Klerk, 1995, pp. 41-47; Kaiser, 1990, pp. 56-59; Pannabecker, 1997, pp. 178-183)

APPENDIX 3

CONSUMPTION NEED / VALUE CATEGORIES

Category	**Description**	**Examples of products / Services**
Appearance	Concern with looks, face, being "beautiful", physical strength	**Clothing**, watches and jewellery, wigs, hair care products and services, personal care appliances, health club membership
Beauty/ Aesthetics	Pleasure in sight; beauty in physical objects	Artwork, paint and paper, curtains, slipcovers, rugs, china, aesthetic home improvements
Belonging	Being approved, liked, accepted; attaining group unity/identity	Monthly telephone charges; campers trailers, hunting and fishing gear; country/tennis/social clubs; beer, wine and liquor
Cleanliness/ Orderliness	Concern with the absence of dirt and smells; desire for order/neatness	Garbage collection fees; cleaning equipment, supplies, and charges; closet and storage organisers; dry cleaning; maid service
Comfort	Bodily pleasures/satisfaction; return of the body to homeostatic state	Bed and other linens; mattresses; air conditioning, heat/portable heating/cooling systems; cigarettes; jackets and coats; blankets
Conformity	Fitting in; obeying laws	Uniforms; car registration fees, licensing fees, inspection fees
Control/Power	Management of/or power over people/environment	Power tools; insect and pest control; answering machines
Convenience	Efficient meeting of needs; satisfying needs in less time	Dishwashers, waste disposals, washers and dryers, microwaves; record and book clubs; calculators; convenience store purchases
Creativity	"Making things", making statements of uniqueness of self	Sewing materials, supplies, sewing machines; landscaping supplies; musical instruments; camera equipment and photo supplies
Fun/ Entertainment	Desire for fun, good times, activity, experience	Cable TV; movie rentals; VCR's; video cameras; stereos; sports equipment; toys/games; tickets to sporting events; dining out
Functionality	Adapting means to ends; something useful, effective, necessary, purposeful	Transportation expenses; general repair/ maintenance charges; luggage; dinner and glassware; towels; roofing and gutters; blinds; clocks; lamps; stoves; refrigerators; tools
Housing	Basic housing	Rent; taxes; mortgage
Knowledge	Sources of information; learning aids	Radios, newspapers, magazines, books; tuition, computers

Morality	Reflection of right and wrong	Contributions to church, charity, educational institutions; alimony, child support
Nurturance	To give comfort, support to others	Plants; babysitting services; care for elderly/invalids; children's clothing; pets and pet services
Security	Peace of mind, stability, permanence	Personal, fire, homeowner's, and car insurance; safe deposit boxes; smoke alarms, cemetery plots
Status	Statement of rank, success, prestige, or superiority over others	Vacation homes and related expenses, silver serving prices, housekeeping/gardening services, new cars, theater, concert, or opera tickets
Survival	Satisfaction of basic physiological needs	Food and beverages; plumbing, heating and electrical services; water and sewage

(Fournier, Antes & Beaumier, 1992, p.330)

APPENDIX 4

THE QUESTIONNAIRE: ENGLISH AND AFRIKAANS VERSIONS

AN INVESTIGATION INTO FEMALE CLOTHING CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR WITHIN A MULTICULTURAL SOCIETY

There are no right and wrong answers. We are interested in your opinion regarding the buying of clothes and therefore it is important that you answer all the questions.

shop code	area code	# questionnaire

SECTION A: PATRONAGE BEHAVIOUR

The following questions relate to the shops where you buy clothes. Do you buy clothes for **YOURSELF AND/OR YOUR FAMILY**, at the following stores, and if you do, how often?
(Fieldworker, explain the scale):

	SHOP	1=Never	2=Rarely (twice a year)	3=Seldom (3 times a year)	4=Often (4 times a year)	5=Very often (more than 5 times per year)
Discount	1. Mr Price					
	2. Pep Stores					
	3. Smiley's Wearhouse					
Chain speciality	4. Bergers					
	5. Foschini					
	6. Milady's					
	7. Topics					
	8. Truworths					
Departmental	9. Ackermans					
	10. Edgars					
	11. Woolworths					

Other (specify:

SECTION B: LIFESTYLE

The following questions relate to your lifestyle. How often do you engage in the following activities or visit each of the following places? **(Fieldworker, explain the scale):**

	1=Never	2=Rarely (twice a year)	3=Seldom (3 times a year)	4=Often (4 times a year)	5=Very often (more than 5 times per year)
1. See a movie	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Needlework	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Cooking or baking	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Hobbies (e.g. gardening)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Travel for pleasure	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Travel for work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Physical exercise / playing sport	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Attending sport matches	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Art museum or gallery	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Ballet/Opera/Musical shows	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Shopping for clothes (yourself and your family)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Trying on clothes	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. Making effort to dress stylish	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. Clothes shopping at sales	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. Clothes shopping at boutiques	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. Clothes shopping at designers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. Reading **fashion** magazines (e.g. Vogue)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. Window shopping	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. Attending fashion shows	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. Entertain friends or eat out at friends	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. Go to dinner at a restaurant	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. Family meetings	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. Shop with friends in order to socialize (talk and spend time with friends)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. Attending church or church activities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. Community projects (e.g. collecting money for charity)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26. School involvement	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	1=Never	2=Rarely	3=Seldom	4=Often	5=Very often
27. Watch television	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
28. Listen to radio	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
29. Read newspapers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
30. Read magazines	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SECTION C: CULTURAL CONSCIOUSNESS

The following questions relate to your experience and how you see yourself and your community. Indicate your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

(Fieldworker, explain the scale):

	1=strongly disagree	2=disagree	3=not sure	4=agree	5=strongly ag
1. It is important to be seen as socially acceptable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. The individual is stronger than the community	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I usually prefer working in a group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Competition is important in work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. It is always important to be accepted by others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. I prefer taking important decision by myself	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Approval and social support from others are very important to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. My privacy is very important to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. I regard it important to get other people's opinions before making a decision	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. To be on time is very important to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. My community is characterised by poverty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. I greet people with a firm handshake	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SECTION D: SHOPPING ORIENTATION

The following questions are concerned with **CLOTHING** shopping activities. Some questions may sound repetitive, but this necessary to validate your opinion. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the statement. Keep in mind clotl shopping in answering each statement.

(Fieldworker, explain the scale):

	1=strongly disagree	2=disagree	3=not sure	4=agree	5=strongly a
1. It takes too much time to shop	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I buy many things with my credit card	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Local clothing stores are attractive (nice) places to shop	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I do not think I am a good clothing shopper	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I am interested in clothing shopping	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. It is important to buy well-known clothing brands	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. I buy new fashions earlier in the season than most other people	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	1=strongly disagree	2=disagree	3=not sure	4=agree	5=strongly a
8. I shop where it saves me time	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. It is good to have charge accounts and/or credit cards	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Local stores offer me good quality for the price	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. I enjoy shopping and walking through malls	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. I feel confident in my ability to shop for clothing (I think I know how to shop for clothes)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. Clothing shopping puts me in a good mood	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. A person can save a lot of money by shopping around for bargains	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. I give very little fashion information to my friends	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. I don't pay much attention to brand names	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. Local clothing stores meet my shopping needs	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. I have the ability to choose the right clothes for myself	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. I do not enjoy shopping for clothes	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. A well-known brand means good quality	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. I pay a lot more attention to clothing prices now than I ever did before	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. I try to keep my wardrobe up-to-date with the newest fashion trends	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SECTION E: BIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

The following questions relate to your personal particulars. It is only for research purposes and will be handled confidentia

1. Which ethnic group do you belong to?

☐ White ☐ Black ☐ Coloured

2. What language do you speak?

☐ Afrikaans ☐ English ☐ Xhosa ☐ Tswana ☐ Other

3. Indicate the highest level of education achieved by yourself and your husband (if married)

	Yourself	Husband
1. Primary	☐	☐
2. Grade 10 (Std. 8)	☐	☐
3. Grade 12 (Std. 10)	☐	☐
4. Diploma(s)	☐	☐
5. B. Degree (First degree)	☐	☐
6. Post graduate (Hons., M. & PhD.)	☐	☐

4. What job do you do?

- ☐ Unemployed
- ☐ Clerical, salesperson, technician, secretarial
- ☐ Middle management (teacher, nursing sister)
- ☐ Corporate (Manager)
- ☐ Professional (doctor, director)
- ☐ Homemaker
- ☐ Retired (including a severance package)
- ☐ Other (specify in boxes below)

5. How many cars do your family own?

- ☐ None/making use of public transport
- ☐ None/use taxi
- ☐ One
- ☐ Two
- ☐ Three or more

6. How much money (approximately) do you spend on CLOTHES PER MONTH FOR YOUR WHOLE FAMILY (excluding jewellery, shoes and accessories)?

- ☐ Less than R99
- ☐ R100-R199
- ☐ R200-R299
- ☐ R300-R399
- ☐ R400-R499
- ☐ More than R500 per montl

7. What is the total MONTHLY income of your household before tax and deductions?

- ☐ Less than R500
- ☐ R501-R1000
- ☐ R1001-R3000
- ☐ R3001-R5000
- ☐ R5001-R7000
- ☐ R7001-R10 000
- ☐ R10 001-R20 000
- ☐ R20 001 and more

8. What is your marital status?

- ☐ Married
- ☐ Never married
- ☐ Divorced
- ☐ Widow/er

9. How long have you been married?

- ☐ 1-4 years
- ☐ 5-8 years
- ☐ 9-12 years
- ☐ longer than 13 years

10. How many children do you have in each of the following categories?

- ☐ 5 years and younger
- ☐ 6-11 years
- ☐ 12-17 years
- ☐ 18 years and older

11. How old are you?

- ☐ 18-21
- ☐ 22-25
- ☐ 25-29
- ☐ 30-34
- ☐ 35-39
- ☐ 40-49
- ☐ 50-55
- ☐ 56 and older

12. How old is your husband?

- ☐ 18-21
- ☐ 22-25
- ☐ 25-29
- ☐ 30-34
- ☐ 35-39
- ☐ 40-49
- ☐ 50-55
- ☐ 56 and older

13. What is your religion?

- ☐ Christian
- ☐ Moslem
- ☐ Jewish
- ☐ Roman Catholic
- ☐ Other, specify:

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND COOPERATION WITH THE COMPLETION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRI

'n ONDERSOEK NA VROUE SE KLERE VERBRUIKERSGEDRAG IN 'n MULTI-KULTURELE GEMEENSKAP

Daar is geen regte of verkeerde antwoorde nie. Ons stel belang in u siening rondom die koop va klere en daarom is dit belangrik om al die vrae te beantwoord.

winkelkode	area kode	# vraelys

AFDELING A: WINKELVOORKEURGEDRAG (Patronage behaviour)

Die volgende vrae handel oor die winkels waar u klere koop. Koop u vir **USELF EN/OF U GESIN KLERE** by die volgende winkels, en indien wel, hoe gereeld?
(Veldwerker, verduidelik die skaal):

	WINKEL	1=Nooit	2=By uitsondering (2 maal per jaar)	3=Soms (3 maal per jaar)	4=Gereeld (4 maal per jaar)	5=Baie gereeld (meer as 5 maal per jaar)
Afslag	1. Mr Price	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	2. Pep Stores	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	3. Smiley's Wearhouse	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ketting spesialis	4. Bergers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	5. Foschini	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	6. Milady's	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	7. Topics	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	8. Truworths	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Departementeel	9. Ackermans	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	10. Edgars	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	11. Woolworths	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Ander (Spesifiseer):

AFDELING B: LEWENSTYL

Die volgende vrae handel oor u lewenstyl. Hoe gereeld doen u die volgende aktiwiteite of besoek u die volgende plekke? **(Veldwerker, verduidelik die skaal):**

		1=Nooit	2=By uitsondering (2 maal per jaar)	3=Soms (3 maal per jaar)	4=Gereeld (4 maal per jaar)	5=Baie gereeld (meer as 5 maa per jaar)
1.	Fliek	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	Naaldwerk	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	Kook of bak	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	Stokperdjies (bv. tuinwerk)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	Reis vir ontspanning	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	Reis vir werk	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	Fisiese oefening / sportbeoefening	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	Bywoning van sportbyeenkomste	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	Kunsmuseum of gallery	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	Ballet/Opera/Musiekuitvoering	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	Klere inkopies (u en/of u gesin)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12.	Aanpas van klere	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13.	Moeite doen om stylvol aan te trek	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14.	Klere inkopies by uitverkopings	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15.	Klere inkopies by boetieks	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16.	Klere inkopies by ontwerpers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17.	Lees van **modetydskrifte** (bv. Vogue)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18.	"Window shopping"	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19.	Bywoon van modevertonings	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20.	Onthaal u vriende of uiteet by vriende	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21.	Uiteet in 'n restaurant	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22.	Familiebyeenkomste	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23.	Koop saam met vriende om sosiaal te verkeer	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24.	Kerkbywoning en -aktiwiteite	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25.	Gemeenskapsprojekte (bv. geldinsameling vir liefdadigheid)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26.	Skoolbetrokkenheid	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Nooit	By uitsondering	Soms	Gereeld	Baie gereeld
27. Kyk televisie					
28. Luister radio					
29. Lees koerante					
30. Lees tydskrifte					

AFDELING C: KULTURELE BEWUSTHEID

Die volgende vrae het betrekking op u ervaringe en u siening van uself en u gemeenskap. Dui aan tot watter mate u saamstem al dan nie met elke stelling.

(Veldwerker, verduidelik die skaal):

	1=stem beslis nie saam nie	2=stem nie saam nie	3=onseker	4=stem saam	5=stem besl saam
1. Dit is belangrik om as sosiaal aanvaarbaar gesien te word					
2. Die individu is sterker as die gemeenskap					
3. Ek verkies om gewoonlik in 'n groep te werk					
4. Mededinging is belangrik in werk					
5. Dit is belangrik om altyd deur ander aanvaar te word					
6. Ek verkies om belangrike besluite self te neem					
7. Goedkeuring en sosiale steun van ander is vir my baie belangrik					
8. My privaatheid is vir my baie belangrik					
9. Ek beskou dit as belangrik om ander mense se opinies te kry voordat ek 'n besluit neem					
10. Om betyds te wees is vir my baie belangrik					
11. My gemeenskap word deur armoede gekenmerk					
12. Ek groet mense met 'n stewige handdruk					

AFDELING D: KOOPORIëNTASIE

Die volgende vrae het betrekking op **KLERE** aankoop aktiwiteite. Sommige vrae mag herhalend voorkom, maar dit is nod om u mening te bevestig. Gee asb. 'n aanduiding of u met die stelling saamstem of nie saamstem nie. Hou in gedagte dat vrae op klere aankope van toepassing is.

(Veldwerker, verduidelik die skaal):

	1=stem beslis nie saam nie	2=stem nie saam nie	3=onseker	4=stem saam	5=stem saa
1. Dit neem te veel tyd om inkopies te doen					
2. Ek koop baie items met my kredietkaart					
3. Plaaslike klerewinkels is aantreklike plekke om inkopies te doen					
4. Ek dink nie ek doen goeie klere inkopies nie					
5. Ek is geïnteresseerd in klere inkopies					
6. Dit is belangrik om klere met 'n bekende handelsnaam te koop					
7. Ek koop nuwe modes vroeër in die seisoen as die meeste mense					

	1=stem beslis nie saam nie	2=stem nie saam nie	3=onseker	4=stem saam	5=stem beslis saam
8. Ek koop waar ek tyd spaar	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Dit is goed om rekeninge en/of kredietkaarte te hê	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Plaaslike winkels bied vir my goeie kwaliteit vir die prys	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Ek geniet inkopies en om deur die winkelsentrums te loop	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Ek vertrou my vermoë om klere inkopies te doen	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. Klere inkopies plaas my in 'n goeie bui	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. 'n Mens kan baie spaar indien jy rondkyk vir winskopies	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. Ek gee baie min mode inligting vir my vriende	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. Ek gee nie baie aandag aan produkname nie	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. Plaaslike klerewinkels voldoen aan my inkopie behoeftes	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. Ek beskik oor die vermoë om die regte klere vir my te kies	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. Klere inkopies is nie lekker nie	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. 'n Bekende produknaam beteken goeie kwaliteit	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. Ek gee nou baie meer aandag aan klere pryse as wat ek vroeër gedoen het	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. Ek probeer om my klerekas op datum te hou volgens die nuutste modeneigings	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

AFDELING E: BIOGRAFIESE INFORMASIE

Die volgende vrae handel oor u persoonlike besonderhede. Dit is slegs vir navorsingsdoeleindes en word dus vertroulik hanteer.

1. Aan watter bevolkingsgroep behoort u?

☐ Blank ☐ Swart ☐ Kleurling

2. Wat is u huistaal?

☐ Afrikaans ☐ Engels ☐ Xhosa ☐ Tswana ☐ Ander

3. Wat is die hoogste formele opleiding waaroor u en u man (indien getroud) beskik?

	Uself	U man
1. Laerskool	☐	☐
2. Graad 10 (Std. 8)	☐	☐
3. Graad 12 (Std. 10)	☐	☐
4. Diploma(s)	☐	☐
5. B. Graad (Eerste graad)	☐	☐
6. Nagraads (Hons., M. & PhD.)	☐	☐

4. Watter beroep beoefen u?

- ☐ Werkloos
- ☐ Klerklik, verkoopspersoon, tegnies, sekretarieel
- ☐ Middelbestuursvlak (onderwyser, verpleegsuster)
- ☐ Korporatief (bestuurder)
- ☐ Professioneel (dokter, direkteur)
- ☐ Tuisteskepper
- ☐ Afgetree (insluitend pakket geneem)
- ☐ Ander (spesifiseer hier onder)

5. Hoeveel motors het u gesin?

- ☐ Geen / gebruik openbare vervoer
- ☐ Geen / gebruik taxi
- ☐ Een
- ☐ Twee
- ☐ Drie of meer

6. Hoeveel geld spandeer u min of meer op KLERE PER MAAND VIR DIE HELE GESIN (uitgesluit juweliersware, skoene en bykomstighede)?

☐ Minder as R99 ☐ R100-R199 ☐ R200-R299 ☐ R300-R399 ☐ R400-R499 ☐ Meer as R500 per maanc

7. Wat is u totale MAANDELIKSE inkomste vir u huishouding voor belasting en aftrekkings?

- ☐ Minder as R500
- ☐ R501-R1000
- ☐ R1001-R3000
- ☐ R3001-R5000
- ☐ R5001-R7000
- ☐ R7001-R10 000
- ☐ R10 001-R20 000
- ☐ R20 001 en meer

8. Wat is u huwelikstatus?

☐ Getroud ☐ Nooit getroud nie ☐ Geskei ☐ Weduwee

9. Hoeveel jaar is u getroud?

☐ 1-4 jaar ☐ 5-8 jaar ☐ 9-12 jaar ☐ meer as 13 jaar

10. Hoeveel kinders het u in elk van die volgende kategorieë?

☐ 5 jaar en jonger ☐ 6-11 jaar ☐ 12-17 jaar ☐ 18 jaar en ouer

11. Hoe oud is u?

☐ 18-21 ☐ 22-25 ☐ 25-29 ☐ 30-34
☐ 35-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-55 ☐ 56 en ouer

12. Hoe oud is u man?

☐ 18-21 ☐ 22-25 ☐ 25-29 ☐ 30-34
☐ 35-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-55 ☐ 56 en ouer

13. Wat is u geloof?

- ☐ Christen
- ☐ Moslem
- ☐ Joods
- ☐ Rooms Katoliek
- ☐ Ander, spesifiseer:

DANKIE VIR U TYD EN SAMEWERKING MET DIE INVUL VAN DIE VRAELYS

APPENDIX 5

FIELDWORKER MANUAL AND ANSWER SHEET

HANDLEIDING VIR VELDWERKERS

NAVORSINGSPROJEK

AN INVESTIGATION INTO FEMALE CLOTHIING CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR WITHIN A MULTI-CULTURAL SOCIETY

NAVORSINGSPAN:

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1999

HANDLEIDING VIR VELDWERKERS

INLEIDING

Verbruikersgedrag word deur Schiffman en Kanuk (1997:6) beskryf as "... the behaviour that consumers display in searching for, purchasing, using, evaluating, and disposing of products, services, and ideas. It therefor includes the study of *what*, *when*, where, *why*, *how often they buy it* as well as *how often they use it*. Various factors influence consumer behaviour, e.g. demographic factors such as income, occupation, education, age, and culture as well as lifestyle and psychographic factors such as values, interests, activities and opinions".

Suid-Afrika het 'n komplekse en dinamiese markomgewing met 'n heterogene samelewing. Daar is nie veel navorsing oor die Suid-Afrikaanse klereverbruiker se gedrag nie. Amerikaanse navorsing kan ook nie sonder meer as van toepassing op Suid-Afrikaanse verbruikers beskou word nie. Om verbruikersgedrag werklik te verstaan en in hul behoeftes te voorsien, moet Suid-Afrikaanse bemarkers oor inligting beskik t.o.v. beide demografiese en lewenstylfaktore.

Vir die doeleindes van hierdie navorsing word slegs op die volgende gekonsentreer: **wat** (klere), **waar** (afslagwinkels, afdelingswinkels, spesialiteitswinkels) en **waarom** (faktore soos lewenstyl, kultuur, kooporiëntasie en demografie).

DOEL VAN DIE NAVORSING

1. Om faktore (veranderlikes) te identifiseer wat moontlik 'n rol speel t.o.v. vroulike klereverbruikers se verbruikersgedrag.
2. Om te bepaal of daar verskillende groepe (trosse/clusters) vroulike klereverbuikers is.
3. Om profiele op te stel van die verskillende groepe verbruikers wat ooreenstemmende eienskappe t.o.v. die verskillende faktore het.
4. Om die implikasies van hierdie profiele vir bemarkers te ondersoek met verwysing na die bemarkingsmengsel en doelmarkte.

VRAELYSTE

Die vraelyste is in Afrikaans en Engels beskikbaar en is saamgestel uit vyf afdelings, naamlik

Afdeling A: Winkelvoorkeurgedrag (Patronage behaviour)
Afdeling B: Lewenstyl (Lifestyle)
Afdeling C: Kultuurbewustheid (Culture consciousness)
Afdeling E: Kooporiëntasie (Shopping orientation)
Afdeling F: Demografie/Persoonlike inligting (Demographics)

VOLTOOIING VAN DIE VRAELYSTE

Die volgende werkwyse word gevolg

- Die vraelyste word in 'n onderhoudsituasie ingevul. Dit beteken dat die veldwerkers elke vraag aan die respondent stel en nadat 'n antwoord verstrek is (dit is slegs 'n skaalnommer), word dit deur die veldwerker op die vraelys ingevul.
- Respondente moet op elke vraag antwoord deur 'n keuse uit te oefen op 'n vyf-punt Likert-tipe skaal. U sal dus by Afdeling A aan die respondent vra hoe gereeld sy klere vir haarself of haar gesin koop by die volgende winkels: Mr Price en Pep Stores. Die respondent moet dan kies uit die vyf moontlike opsies (nooit, by uitsondering – 2 maal per jaar, soms – 3 maal per jaar, dikwels – 4 maal per jaar en gereeld – meer as 5 maal per jaar). Gee aan die respondent 'n skaalblad sodat sy net die nommer kan aandui eerder as om die hele omskrywing van die skaal te herhaal. Skaalbladsye is vir u gebruik ingesluit.
- Nadat die respondent 'n keuse t.o.v. die skaal uitgeoefen het, merk u dit in die toepaslike blokkie met 'n kruisie. Dit is baie belangrik dat u die blokkie **duidelik, maar binne die omlyning** merk. Gebruik die potlood wat aan u verskaf is. Die vraelyste is in die Formic formaat en die gegewens word direk deur die rekenaar gelees. Indien u egter oor die lyne van die blokkie inkleur, kan die rekenaar nie die gegewens inlees nie en is die vraelys onbruikbaar.

  Voorbeeld: $\boxed{x}$ of $\boxed{\checkmark}$
- Dit is baie belangrik dat die respondent **AL** die vrae moet beantwoord. Indien dit nie gebeur nie, is die vraelys onbruikbaar en is u tyd gemors.
- Moet op geen manier die respondent lei in die beantwoording van die vrae nie. Vra die vraag objektief en noteer die antwoord. Moet onder geen omstandighede u eie opinie uitspreek nie.
- Volg die instruksies vir die beantwoording van die vrae soos op die vraelys gestipuleer.
- U sal oplet dat daar op elke vraelys ruimte gelaat is vir die winkel- en areakode waar die onderhoude gevoer word. Maak seker dat u dit korrek invul. Hierdie kodes is belangrik vir die verwerking van die data. 'n Lys met die betrokke kodes is hierby aangeheg.
- Om te verseker dat die opname wetenskaplik korrek gedoen word, moet u asb **hou by die tydgleuwe** wat aan u toegeken is. Raadpleeg die winkelrooster wat hierby aangeheg is.
- Die winkelrooster dui ook aan hoeveel onderhoude u moet voer met respondente uit die onderskeie bevolkingsgroepe en in elk van die tydgleuwe. Hou asb streng hierby.
- Twee winkels is aan u toegeken per tydgleuf. U besoek dus twee winkels in elke tydgleuf en voltooi soveel as moontlik vraelyste om die kwota vol te maak. Indien u nie u kwota vol kry nie, kan u in die volgende week in dieselfde tydgleuf en by die betrokke winkel weer probeer.
- Indien u op enige tydstip advies nodig het, moet u nie huiwer om met ons kontak te maak nie. Die telefoonnommers is op die laaste bladsy van die handleiding.
- Moet asb nie die vraelyste vir iemand anders gee om in te vul nie. Bring dit eerder oningevul terug.
- Handig die voltooide vraelyste in op die datum waarop met u ooreengekom is.

VEREISTES WAARAAN RESPONDENTE MOET VOLDOEN

- Vir die doel van hierdie studie is 'n sekere aantal winkels gekies wat by die opname betrek word (kyk hieronder by die opskrif Winkelkeuse). U gaan onderhoude voer met net die **dames** wat by die winkel kom **klere koop** vir **hulself** en/of vir hul **gesinslede** (dit wil sê vir hul eggenoot en/of kinders). Dames wat klere gekoop het of net van plan was om te koop, kan as respondente optree.
- Om voorsiening te maak vir ouderdomsverskille is besluit om respondente tussen die **ouderdomme 18 tot en met 55** jaar in te sluit. Persone bokant die ouderdom van 55 word as *mature consumers* beskou wat moontlik ander behoeftes as jonger vroue mag hê.
- **Swart, wit en kleurling** verbruikers word by die navorsing betrek. Om die groep respondente veteenwoordigend van die verskillende bevolkingsgroepe te maak, is besluit op **kwotas** per winkel en per bevolkingsgroep. Om hieraan uitvoering te gee, moet u by elke winkel en vir elke tydgleuf onderskeidelik een swart, een bruin en een wit respondent selekteer. Raadpleeg die winkelrooster wat hierby ingesluit is.
- Alhoewel u onderhoude voer, moet u seker maak dat die respondente **Afrikaans** of **Engels** magtig is, sal verstaan wat u vra en in Afrikaans of Engels kan antwoord.

SELEKSIE VAN RESPONDENTE

Die volgende werkwyse word gevolg

- U neem stelling in by die winkels wat vir u toegesê is. Begin die onderhoude by die eerste verbuiker wat klere-inkopies in die winkel gedoen het of wou doen en by u verby stap om die winkel te verlaat.
- Stel uself voor en noem dat u betrokke is by 'n navorsingsprojek waarvoor u haar hulp nodig het. Rig dus 'n vriendelike versoek aan haar om die vraelys te voltooi.
- Wys vir haar u bekendstellingsbrief (hierby ingesluit) en indien nodig, noem dat die winkel goedkeuring vir die opname verleen het.
- Noem ook aan haar dat sy in aanmerking kom vir 'n klein geskenk indien sy die vraelys sou voltooi, hetsy dadelik of later die dag gedurende 'n telefoonoproep. Indien sy egter weier, word dit in 'n positiewe gesindheid aanvaar. **Niemand moet verplig word** om die vraelys in te vul nie.
- Noem spesifiek ook dat die inligting wat verstrek word as **vertroulik** hanteer word, dat die persoon **anoniem** bly en dat daar geen manier is waarop die inligting aan haar as persoon gekoppel kan word nie. Die inligting word net vir navorsingsdoeleindes gebruik.
- Indien die persoon gewillig is om aan die opname deel te neem, voltooi u die vraelys saam met haar soos reeds hierbo verduidelik is. U hoef nie die aparte afdelings se opskrifte te lees nie, net die verduideliking, skaal en vrae.
- Hierna wag u vir die volgende persoon wat verby stap en volg dieselfde prosedure totdat die kwota vol is en/of die tyd op die rooster vir die betrokke winkel om is.
- **Telefoonopnames:** Indien 'n respondent nie tyd het om in die winkel die vraelys te voltooi nie, maar tog gewillig is om aan die opname deel te neem, word sy versoek om haar telefoonnommer te verstrek en 'n tyd aan te dui wanneer u haar

sou kon bel. U volg dit dan telefonies met haar op en voltooi die vraelys soos reeds verduidelik is. Maak seker dat u die inligting van die respondent op die ingeslote vorm invul. Gee ook aan haar 'n skaalblad (hierby ingesluit) en vra haar om dit byderhand te hou wanneer u skakel. Gee die persoon se geskenk aan haar en bedank haar by voorbaat.
- Hou asb rekord op die aangehegte winkelrooster en handig dit saam met die vraelyste in. Onthou asb ook dat die aantal respondente per winkel en per tydgleuf korrek moet wees.

WINKELS BETROKKE BY DIE NAVORSING

- Ses winkels is gekies om verteenwoordigend van **afslagwinkels** (Mr Price en Pep Stores), **spesialiteitswinkels** (Foschini/Truworths/Edgars en Miladys') en **afdelingswinkels** (Ackermans en Woolworths) te wees.
- Hierdie winkels is amptelik versoek om by die opname betrokke te wees en hul fasiliteite beskikbaar te stel.
- Die tye waarop u inligting van hierdie winkels se kliënte moet verkry, is op die meegaande rooster ingevul.
- Elke veldwerker het 'n winkelrooster wat aandui watter tye sy/hy by die winkel moet wees vir die opname. Hou asb baie streng by hierdie rooster.
- Die name van die persone by wie u moet aanmeld wanneer u die opname doen, is in die meegaande winkelrooster aangedui. Gebruik u bekendstellingsbrief om uself te identifiseer by hierdie kontakpersoon (persone) en by die respondente.

VERGOEDING

- Die vergoeding van veldwerkers is bereken op R10,00 per voltooide vraelys. Dit sluit telefoononkoste en reisgeld in. U sou dus R660,00 ontvang indien u 66 voltooide vraelyste na die twee weke inhandig.
- Veldwerkers ontvang hul vergoeding van die Universiteit van Stellenbosch nadat die projekleiers 'n amptelike versoek vir die uitbetaling van vergoeding aan navorsingsassistente voorgelê het. Versoeke vir uitbetalings moet voor 'n sekere datum vroeg in die maand ingestuur word indien uitbetalings aan die einde van die betrokke maand gemaak moet word. Dit mag dus wees dat 'n tyd verloop voordat u die vergoeding ontvang. Skakel asb die programleiers indien u nie vergoeding ontvang nie sodat ons dit kan opvolg en regstel.

BAIE DANKIE VIR U VRIENDELIKE SAMEWERKING

NAVORSINGSPAN

Prof EM Visser
Departement Verbruikerstudie
Universiteit van Stellenbosch
☎ (021) 808 3399/8/7

Prof AM van Aardt
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AN INVESTIGATION INTO FEMALE CLOTHING CONSUMER BEHAVIOR WITHIN A MULTI-CULTURAL SOCIETY

QUESTIONNAIRE SCALE SHEET

SECTION A: PATRONAGE BEHAVIOUR &
SECTION B: LIFESTYLE (QUESTIONS 1 – 26)

1 = Never
2 = Rarely (2 x per year)
3 = Seldom (3 x per year)
4 = Often (4 x per year)
5 = Very often (5 x per year)

SECTION B: LIFESTYLE (QUESTIONS 27 – 30)

1 = Never
2 = Rarely
3 = Seldom
4 = Often
5 = Very often

SECTION C: CULTURAL CONSCIOUSNESS &
SECTION D: SHOPPING ORIENTATION

1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Not sure
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly agree

'n ONDERSOEK NA VROUE SE KLERE VERBRUIKERS-GEDRAG IN 'n MULTI-KULTURELE GEMEENSKAP

VRAELYS SKAALBLAD

AFDELING A : WINKELVOORKEURGEDRAG

AFDELING B: LEWENSTYL (VRAAG 1 – 26)

1	=	Nooit	4	=	Gereeld (4x per jaar)
2	=	By uitsondering (2 x per jaar)	5	=	Baie gereeld (5x per jaar)
3	=	Soms (3 x per jaar)			

AFDELING B: LEWENSTYL (VRAAG 27 – 30)

1	=	Nooit	4	=	Gereeld
2	=	By uitsondering	5	=	Baie gereeld
3	=	Soms			

AFDELING C: KULTURELE BEWUSTHEID &

AFDELING D: KOOPORIëNTASIE

1	=	Stem beslis nie saam nie	4	=	Stem saam
2	=	Stem nie saam nie	5	=	Stem beslis saam
3	=	Onseker			

APPENDIX 6

FACTOR ANALYSIS: LIFESTYLE

Correlation Matrix[a]

a. Determinant = 2.198E-03

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.838
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	4633.927
	df	435
	Sig.	.000

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.458	18.195	18.195	5.458	18.195	18.195	4.500	14.998	14.998
2	2.263	7.542	25.737	2.263	7.542	25.737	2.910	9.701	24.699
3	1.905	6.350	32.087	1.905	6.350	32.087	2.216	7.388	32.087
4	1.362	4.538	36.626						
5	1.303	4.342	40.968						
6	1.180	3.933	44.901						
7	1.115	3.718	48.619						
8	.990	3.300	51.919						
9	.938	3.125	55.044						
10	.924	3.080	58.124						
11	.890	2.966	61.090						
12	.880	2.932	64.022						
13	.831	2.769	66.791						
14	.801	2.669	69.459						
15	.784	2.612	72.072						
16	.748	2.494	74.566						
17	.729	2.430	76.996						
18	.676	2.252	79.248						
19	.659	2.196	81.444						
20	.637	2.123	83.568						
21	.615	2.050	85.618						
22	.587	1.957	87.575						
23	.550	1.832	89.407						
24	.537	1.791	91.199						
25	.503	1.678	92.876						
26	.482	1.607	94.484						
27	.466	1.552	96.036						
28	.454	1.512	97.548						
29	.373	1.244	98.792						
30	.362	1.208	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
Question B21	.645	.193	-.131
Question B9	.642	-.197	9.878E-02
Question B10	.587	-7.08E-02	.104
Question B15	.585	-3.15E-03	.124
Question B1	.557	.153	-.282
Question B16	.551	-7.05E-02	9.757E-02
Question B17	.548	.262	-2.90E-02
Question B7	.538	.133	-1.49E-02
Question B5	.537	.158	6.204E-02
Question B19	.512	5.668E-02	.136
Question B20	.434	.343	.106
Question B8	.361	.270	.195
Question B6	.361	-1.68E-02	.236
Question B29	.316	.265	.242
Question B11	.230	.654	5.308E-02
Question B12	.114	.582	1.394E-03
Question B14	-9.62E-02	.513	.120
Question B13	.331	.492	9.077E-02
Question B23	.323	.481	-9.18E-02
Question B18	-4.39E-02	.472	7.207E-02
Question B27	-7.82E-02	.449	8.005E-02
Question B30	.406	.419	9.095E-02
Question B28	2.477E-02	.417	6.288E-02
Question B3	-.126	6.349E-02	.644
Question B2	-9.42E-02	-.158	.626
Question B24	-2.46E-02	.255	.512
Question B25	.311	5.327E-02	.478
Question B22	.131	.187	.470
Question B26	.146	8.067E-02	.425
Question B4	.241	9.908E-02	.363

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

APPENDIX 7

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS: LIFESTYLE

LIFESTYLE (TOTAL SCALE)

R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H A)

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	B1	2.6827	1.4445	769.0
2.	B2	2.6203	1.5592	769.0
3.	B3	4.3459	1.0741	769.0
4.	B4	3.4876	1.4097	769.0
5.	B5	2.9493	1.3449	769.0
6.	B6	2.1066	1.5676	769.0
7.	B7	2.9896	1.4799	769.0
8.	B8	2.8127	1.5039	769.0
9.	B9	1.7906	1.0917	769.0
10.	B10	2.0598	1.3057	769.0
11.	B11	4.3134	.8193	769.0
12.	B12	3.5969	1.3478	769.0
13.	B13	3.9103	1.0782	769.0
14.	B14	3.9415	1.1739	769.0
15.	B15	1.7828	1.1358	769.0
16.	B16	1.4031	.8978	769.0
17.	B17	3.1691	1.4216	769.0
18.	B18	3.9168	1.2357	769.0
19.	B19	1.9103	1.1830	769.0
20.	B20	3.7932	1.1615	769.0
21.	B21	3.3160	1.2677	769.0
22.	B22	3.8231	1.1592	769.0
23.	B23	3.0858	1.4552	769.0
24.	B24	4.4941	.8781	769.0
25.	B25	2.7087	1.4118	769.0
26.	B26	2.8492	1.6904	769.0
27.	B27	4.2003	1.0137	769.0
28.	B28	4.3927	.8610	769.0
29.	B29	3.6957	1.2379	769.0
30.	B30	4.1664	1.0147	769.0

R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H A)

N of Cases = 769.0

Statistics for Scale	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables		
	96.3147	229.6951	15.1557	30		
Item Means	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Max/Min	Variance
	3.2105	1.4031	4.4941	3.0910	3.2030	.7935
Item Variances	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Max/Min	Variance
	1.5905	.6712	2.8574	2.1862	4.2573	.3217

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
B1	93.6320	213.4386	.3357	.3387	.8143
B2	93.6944	225.4885	.0379	.2070	.8277
B3	91.9688	224.4391	.1275	.2079	.8209
B4	92.8270	215.0182	.3070	.1792	.8155
B5	93.3654	210.9535	.4334	.2656	.8103
B6	94.2081	213.6806	.2958	.1737	.8164

B7	93.3251	210.1884	.4036	.2613	.8114
B8	93.5020	209.2008	.4191	.2738	.8107
B9	94.5241	216.4971	.3737	.3734	.8132
B10	94.2549	213.1407	.3895	.2859	.8121
B11	92.0013	218.0378	.4541	.3582	.8123
B12	92.7178	215.1039	.3231	.2634	.8147
B13	92.4044	214.4313	.4466	.3188	.8109
B14	92.3732	221.6223	.1915	.1824	.8192
B15	94.5319	214.5905	.4152	.3469	.8116
B16	94.9116	219.3646	.3581	.3462	.8142
B17	93.1456	208.4892	.4673	.3738	.8087
B18	92.3979	221.1175	.1919	.1377	.8194
B19	94.4044	214.3766	.4018	.2633	.8120
B20	92.5215	212.7342	.4608	.3339	.8100
B21	92.9987	211.4701	.4507	.4454	.8099
B22	92.4915	218.2476	.2950	.2101	.8157
B23	93.2289	211.1949	.3873	.2694	.8121
B24	91.8205	222.6266	.2403	.1736	.8173
B25	93.6060	212.4682	.3701	.2237	.8128
B26	93.4655	214.4549	.2501	.1941	.8191
B27	92.1144	224.0364	.1526	.1702	.8199
B28	91.9220	223.6788	.2048	.1767	.8182
B29	92.6190	214.5200	.3762	.3330	.8127
B30	92.1482	214.5665	.4743	.4284	.8104

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R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H A)

Reliability Coefficients   30 items

Alpha = .8196   Standardized item alpha = .8259

COMPONENT 1

R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H A)

N of Cases = 788.0

Statistics for Scale	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables		
	36.4416	91.9165	9.5873	14		
Item Means	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Max/Min	Variance
	2.6030	1.4086	3.7957	2.3871	2.6946	.5842
Item Variances	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Max/Min	Variance
	1.6864	.8112	2.4308	1.6196	2.9965	.2153

R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H A)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
B1	33.7602	78.9831	.4230	.2660	.7881
B5	33.4797	79.1012	.4602	.2437	.7847
B6	34.3477	80.7836	.3105	.1467	.7993
B7	33.4530	77.6636	.4655	.2378	.7843
B8	33.6294	80.2386	.3506	.1618	.7950
B9	34.6548	81.2174	.4844	.3123	.7842
B10	34.3896	79.9611	.4405	.2737	.7864
B15	34.6624	81.1743	.4635	.3206	.7854
B16	35.0330	84.0447	.4276	.3044	.7895
B17	33.2728	78.0157	.4738	.2604	.7835

B19	34.5393	81.7405	.4122	.2333	.7888
B20	32.6459	82.0104	.4067	.2391	.7893
B21	33.1256	78.3108	.5344	.3922	.7790
B29	32.7475	83.3631	.3115	.1441	.7964

Reliability Coefficients 14 items

Alpha = .8003 Standardized item alpha = .8067

COMPONENT 2

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

N of Cases = 785.0

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables		
Scale	35.5350	28.6930	5.3566	9		
Item Means	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Max/Min	Variance
	3.9483	3.0955	4.3949	1.2994	1.4198	.1614
Item Variances	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Max/Min	Variance
	1.2688	.6778	2.1120	1.4342	3.1160	.2294

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
B11	31.2268	24.0327	.4934	.2622	.6321
B12	31.9350	21.5430	.4293	.2339	.6326
B13	31.6255	23.3213	.4031	.2239	.6404
B14	31.5936	23.5094	.3373	.1339	.6540
B18	31.6166	23.6168	.2970	.1001	.6638
B23	32.4395	21.5808	.3703	.1519	.6500
B27	31.3363	24.9658	.2673	.1141	.6670
B28	31.1401	25.4574	.2901	.1394	.6631
B30	31.3669	24.2428	.3442	.1715	.6527

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Reliability Coefficients 9 items

Alpha = .6773 Standardized item alpha = .6875

COMPONENT 3

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Mean Std Dev Cases

N of Cases = 788.0

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
Scale	24.3617	24.6733	4.9672	7

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Max/Min	Variance
Item Means	3.4802	2.6218	4.4949	1.8731	1.7144	.6007
Item Variances	1.7874	.7687	2.8649	2.0961	3.7268	.5452

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
B2	21.7398	18.2181	.3051	.1222	.5347
B3	20.0165	20.1128	.3529	.1446	.5225
B4	20.8655	19.4101	.2654	.0792	.5486
B22	20.5343	20.0840	.3143	.1233	.5322
B24	19.8668	21.2541	.3279	.1350	.5370
B25	21.6459	18.6458	.3297	.1254	.5235
B26	21.5013	18.1537	.2534	.0825	.5623

Reliability Coefficients 7 items

Alpha = .5750 Standardized item alpha = .5973

APPENDIX 8

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS: CULTURAL CONSCIOUSNESS

CULTURAL CONSCIOUSNESS (TOTAL SCALE)

R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H A)

	Mean	Std Dev	Cases
C1	3.7427	1.0644	789.0
C3	3.5653	1.1717	789.0
C4	3.8048	1.0275	789.0
C5	3.6312	1.1662	789.0
C6	3.8568	1.0927	789.0
C7	3.8276	.9523	789.0
C8	4.5640	.6834	789.0
C9	3.6084	1.1321	789.0
C10	4.6426	.6264	789.0

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
SCALE	35.2433	19.0042	4.3594	9

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
C1	31.5006	15.0625	.3400	.5335
C3	31.6781	15.2160	.2642	.5577
C4	31.4385	15.4826	.3049	.5444
C5	31.6122	13.5448	.4776	.4844
C6	31.3866	17.0902	.0797	.6099
C7	31.4157	14.7610	.4560	.5036
C8	30.6793	17.4034	.1988	.5718
C9	31.6350	16.1635	.1712	.5856
C10	30.6008	17.4686	.2183	.5690

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 789.0   N of Items = 9

Alpha = .5825

COLLECTIVISTIC

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	C1	3.7415	1.0648	793.0
2.	C3	3.5675	1.1703	793.0
3.	C5	3.6318	1.1669	793.0

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
4.	C7	3.8298	.9548	793.0
5.	C9	3.6053	1.1357	793.0

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
SCALE	18.3758	11.8662	3.4447	5

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
C1	14.6343	8.4924	.3609	.5589
C3	14.8083	8.4910	.2941	.5958
C5	14.7440	7.5594	.4590	.5035
C7	14.5460	8.1901	.5058	.4941
C9	14.7705	8.9321	.2422	.6203

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 793.0 N of Items = 5

Alpha = .6110

INDIVIDUALISTIC

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	C4	3.8038	1.0306	795.0
2.	C6	3.8553	1.0917	795.0
3.	C8	4.5623	.6842	795.0
4.	C10	4.6340	.6373	795.0

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
SCALE	16.8553	4.5823	2.1406	4

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
C4	13.0516	2.8172	.2032	.3999
C6	13.0000	2.5063	.2558	.3411
C8	12.2931	3.3359	.3114	.3038
C10	12.2214	3.6335	.2233	.3762

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 795.0 N of Items = 4

Alpha = .4231

APPENDIX 9

FACTOR ANALYSIS: SHOPPING ORIENTATION

Correlation Matrix[a]

a. Determinant = 1.577E-02

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.795
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3156.963
	df	231
	Sig.	.000

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.968	18.037	18.037	3.968	18.037	18.037	3.319	15.085	15.085
2	2.157	9.806	27.842	2.157	9.806	27.842	2.593	11.784	26.869
3	1.936	8.802	36.644	1.936	8.802	36.644	2.151	9.775	36.644
4	1.347	6.124	42.768						
5	1.257	5.715	48.483						
6	.995	4.522	53.005						
7	.962	4.371	57.376						
8	.874	3.973	61.349						
9	.809	3.679	65.028						
10	.776	3.527	68.555						
11	.758	3.446	72.002						
12	.718	3.264	75.266						
13	.694	3.153	78.419						
14	.647	2.940	81.358						
15	.636	2.891	84.249						
16	.584	2.655	86.904						
17	.544	2.473	89.377						
18	.521	2.369	91.746						
19	.513	2.334	94.079						
20	.468	2.128	96.208						
21	.449	2.040	98.248						
22	.385	1.752	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
Question D19 (Reverse scored)	.695	5.336E-02	-.128
Question D12	.635	.102	.129
Question D5	.592	.349	5.730E-02
Question D13	.573	.334	-3.34E-02
Question D11	.572	.200	4.864E-02
Question D18	.569	.145	.160
Question D4 (Reverse scored)	.534	-1.56E-02	-9.22E-02
Question D14	.495	-.139	.225
Question D21	.334	-.143	.110
Question D1 (Reverse scored)	.325	-.229	-.208
Question D6	6.666E-02	.661	9.189E-02
Question D7	9.974E-02	.651	6.509E-03
Question D22	.259	.610	-1.93E-02
Question D2	-.186	.563	-3.81E-02
Question D9	-1.30E-02	.563	8.174E-02
Question D20	.121	.480	.225
Question D16 (Reverse scored)	.133	.210	-.175
Question D17	.166	2.550E-02	.770
Question D10	.210	3.667E-02	.757
Question D3	.199	8.935E-02	.695
Question D8	-.179	.198	.375
Question D15 (Reverse scored)	.252	3.458E-02	-.287

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

APPENDIX 10

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS: SHOPPING ORIENTATION

SHOPPING ORIENTATION (TOTAL SCALE)

R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E   (A L P H A)

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	D2	2.1205	1.3349	772.0
2.	D3	3.8329	.9021	772.0
3.	D4_R	3.8964	.9874	772.0
4.	D5	4.1490	.8068	772.0
5.	D6	3.1036	1.2782	772.0
6.	D7	2.7254	1.2286	772.0
7.	D9	2.9637	1.3490	772.0
8.	D10	3.8148	.7795	772.0
9.	D11	4.2137	.8444	772.0
10.	D12	4.2021	.6684	772.0
11.	D13	4.0894	.9683	772.0
12.	D14	4.3536	.7541	772.0
13.	D17	3.7409	.9254	772.0
14.	D18	4.2098	.6602	772.0
15.	D19_R	4.1256	.9230	772.0
16.	D20	3.5298	1.0770	772.0
17.	D21	4.1723	.9054	772.0
18.	D22	3.0039	1.2718	772.0

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
SCALE	66.2474	62.8194	7.9259	18

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
D2	64.1269	57.6337	.1679	.7598
D3	62.4145	57.6152	.3206	.7419
D4_R	62.3510	58.3474	.2318	.7488
D5	62.0984	55.7672	.5312	.7282
D6	63.1438	54.0818	.3779	.7371
D7	63.5220	54.6286	.3679	.7379
D9	63.2837	55.0906	.2951	.7466
D10	62.4326	58.3962	.3203	.7424
D11	62.0337	56.8679	.4113	.7358
D12	62.0453	58.0252	.4269	.7374
D13	62.1580	55.1060	.4714	.7297
D14	61.8938	59.3402	.2505	.7468
D17	62.5065	57.9468	.2851	.7445
D18	62.0376	58.2904	.4061	.7387
D19_R	62.1218	57.0357	.3538	.7393
D20	62.7176	55.8709	.3595	.7385
D21	62.0751	60.2771	.1225	.7562
D22	63.2435	52.9886	.4436	.7300

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 772.0 N of Items = 18

Alpha = .7521

COMPONENT 1

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	D4_R	3.8992	.9936	784.0
2.	D5	4.1480	.8077	784.0
3.	D11	4.2079	.8525	784.0
4.	D12	4.2028	.6750	784.0
5.	D13	4.0906	.9659	784.0
6.	D14	4.3520	.7537	784.0
7.	D18	4.2079	.6620	784.0
8.	D19_R	4.1288	.9264	784.0
9.	D21	4.1735	.9086	784.0

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
SCALE	37.4107	19.4786	4.4135	9

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
D4_R	33.5115	15.5529	.3749	.7418
D5	33.2628	15.4175	.5374	.7134
D11	33.2028	15.6536	.4593	.7254
D12	33.2079	16.0780	.5440	.7171
D13	33.3202	14.9433	.4824	.7213
D14	33.0587	16.6198	.3727	.7387
D18	33.2028	16.6319	.4461	.7301
D19_R	33.2819	14.9843	.5070	.7167
D21	33.2372	16.9143	.2327	.7631

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 784.0 N of Items = 9

Alpha = .7527

COMPONENT 2

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	D2	2.1253	1.3380	790.0
2.	D6	3.0962	1.2770	790.0
3.	D7	2.7291	1.2261	790.0
4.	D9	2.9696	1.3497	790.0
5.	D20	3.5190	1.0805	790.0
6.	D22	3.0038	1.2752	790.0

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
SCALE	17.4430	21.3523	4.6209	6

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
D2	15.3177	15.8394	.3495	.6384
D6	14.3468	15.1647	.4582	.5981
D7	14.7139	15.6975	.4273	.6101
D9	14.4734	15.6488	.3635	.6335
D20	13.9241	17.1197	.3428	.6387
D22	14.4392	15.4786	.4233	.6109

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 790.0 N of Items = 6

Alpha = .6639

COMPONENT 3

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	D3	3.8244	.9056	786.0
2.	D10	3.8066	.7841	786.0
3.	D17	3.7392	.9249	786.0

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
SCALE	11.3702	4.6054	2.1460	3

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
D3	7.5458	2.2661	.5572	.7024
D10	7.5636	2.5061	.5980	.6628
D17	7.6310	2.1236	.6033	.6486

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 786.0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = .7540

APPENDIX 10

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS: SHOPPING ORIENTATION

SHOPPING ORIENTATION (TOTAL SCALE)

R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E   (A L P H A)

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	D2	2.1205	1.3349	772.0
2.	D3	3.8329	.9021	772.0
3.	D4_R	3.8964	.9874	772.0
4.	D5	4.1490	.8068	772.0
5.	D6	3.1036	1.2782	772.0
6.	D7	2.7254	1.2286	772.0
7.	D9	2.9637	1.3490	772.0
8.	D10	3.8148	.7795	772.0
9.	D11	4.2137	.8444	772.0
10.	D12	4.2021	.6684	772.0
11.	D13	4.0894	.9683	772.0
12.	D14	4.3536	.7541	772.0
13.	D17	3.7409	.9254	772.0
14.	D18	4.2098	.6602	772.0
15.	D19_R	4.1256	.9230	772.0
16.	D20	3.5298	1.0770	772.0
17.	D21	4.1723	.9054	772.0
18.	D22	3.0039	1.2718	772.0

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
SCALE	66.2474	62.8194	7.9259	18

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
D2	64.1269	57.6337	.1679	.7598
D3	62.4145	57.6152	.3206	.7419
D4_R	62.3510	58.3474	.2318	.7488
D5	62.0984	55.7672	.5312	.7282
D6	63.1438	54.0818	.3779	.7371
D7	63.5220	54.6286	.3679	.7379
D9	63.2837	55.0906	.2951	.7466
D10	62.4326	58.3962	.3203	.7424
D11	62.0337	56.8679	.4113	.7358
D12	62.0453	58.0252	.4269	.7374
D13	62.1580	55.1060	.4714	.7297
D14	61.8938	59.3402	.2505	.7468
D17	62.5065	57.9468	.2851	.7445
D18	62.0376	58.2904	.4061	.7387
D19_R	62.1218	57.0357	.3538	.7393
D20	62.7176	55.8709	.3595	.7385
D21	62.0751	60.2771	.1225	.7562
D22	63.2435	52.9886	.4436	.7300

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 772.0 N of Items = 18

Alpha = .7521

COMPONENT 1

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	D4_R	3.8992	.9936	784.0
2.	D5	4.1480	.8077	784.0
3.	D11	4.2079	.8525	784.0
4.	D12	4.2028	.6750	784.0
5.	D13	4.0906	.9659	784.0
6.	D14	4.3520	.7537	784.0
7.	D18	4.2079	.6620	784.0
8.	D19_R	4.1288	.9264	784.0
9.	D21	4.1735	.9086	784.0

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
SCALE	37.4107	19.4786	4.4135	9

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
D4_R	33.5115	15.5529	.3749	.7418
D5	33.2628	15.4175	.5374	.7134
D11	33.2028	15.6536	.4593	.7254
D12	33.2079	16.0780	.5440	.7171
D13	33.3202	14.9433	.4824	.7213
D14	33.0587	16.6198	.3727	.7387
D18	33.2028	16.6319	.4461	.7301
D19_R	33.2819	14.9843	.5070	.7167
D21	33.2372	16.9143	.2327	.7631

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 784.0 N of Items = 9

Alpha = .7527

COMPONENT 2

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	D2	2.1253	1.3380	790.0
2.	D6	3.0962	1.2770	790.0
3.	D7	2.7291	1.2261	790.0
4.	D9	2.9696	1.3497	790.0
5.	D20	3.5190	1.0805	790.0
6.	D22	3.0038	1.2752	790.0

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
SCALE	17.4430	21.3523	4.6209	6

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
D2	15.3177	15.8394	.3495	.6384
D6	14.3468	15.1647	.4582	.5981
D7	14.7139	15.6975	.4273	.6101
D9	14.4734	15.6488	.3635	.6335
D20	13.9241	17.1197	.3428	.6387
D22	14.4392	15.4786	.4233	.6109

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 790.0 N of Items = 6

Alpha = .6639

COMPONENT 3

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	D3	3.8244	.9056	786.0
2.	D10	3.8066	.7841	786.0
3.	D17	3.7392	.9249	786.0

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
SCALE	11.3702	4.6054	2.1460	3

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
D3	7.5458	2.2661	.5572	.7024
D10	7.5636	2.5061	.5980	.6628
D17	7.6310	2.1236	.6033	.6486

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 786.0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = .7540

APPENDIX 11

MEAN SCORES OF CLUSTERING VARIABLES

Variable	Cluster	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Mr Price	1	363	2.82	1.30
	2	205	2.89	1.32
	3	165	3.56	1.22
Pep Stores	1	363	1.84	1.10
	2	205	3.04	1.44
	3	165	2.61	1.46
Smiley's Wearhouse	1	363	1.67	.98
	2	205	1.71	1.20
	3	165	2.79	1.36
Bergers	1	363	1.33	.77
	2	205	1.90	1.25
	3	165	2.47	1.46
Foschini	1	363	3.48	1.31
	2	205	2.71	1.51
	3	165	4.18	1.04
Milady's	1	363	2.31	1.47
	2	205	1.29	.68
	3	165	3.09	1.45
Topics	1	363	2.27	1.35
	2	205	1.59	1.00
	3	165	3.39	1.42
Truworths	1	363	2.76	1.53
	2	205	1.40	.84
	3	165	3.61	1.36
Ackermans	1	363	2.53	1.37
	2	205	3.36	1.31
	3	165	3.56	1.24
Edgars	1	363	3.22	1.33
	2	205	1.97	1.24
	3	165	4.35	.84
Woolworths	1	363	3.59	1.38
	2	205	2.25	1.35
	3	165	4.01	1.06
Yuppie lifestyle	1	363	2.6259	.6248
	2	205	2.2265	.6248
	3	165	3.0394	.6366

Apparel oriented lifestyle	1	363	3.9324	.5468
	2	205	3.7279	.6800
	3	165	4.2707	.4668
Traditional lifestyle	1	363	3.4372	.6959
	2	205	3.4620	.7959
	3	165	3.6251	.6192
Collectivism	1	363	3.5939	.6829
	2	205	3.6361	.6926
	3	165	3.8909	.6708
Individualism	1	363	4.2266	.5283
	2	205	4.0951	.5553
	3	165	4.3667	.4920
Shopping self-confidence and enjoyment	1	363	4.1668	.4969
	2	205	4.0043	.4775
	3	165	4.3091	.4222
Credit prone brand consuous and fashion	1	363	2.9798	.7272
	2	205	2.5870	.7340
	3	165	3.1535	.7730
Local store patronage	1	363	3.7346	.7443
	2	205	3.7756	.6647
	3	165	3.9071	.6971

APPENDIX 12

MEANS OF INDIVIDUAL ITEMS FOR THREE CLUSTER GROUPS: LIFESTYLE, CULTURAL CONSCIOUSNESS AND SHOPPING ORIENTATION

LIFESTYLE - CLUSTER 1

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Lifestyle - Question B1	2.71	1.42
Lifestyle - Question B2	2.50	1.54
Lifestyle - Question B3	4.23	1.14
Lifestyle - Question B4	3.62	1.34
Lifestyle - Question B5	3.03	1.27
Lifestyle - Question B6	2.09	1.54
Lifestyle - Question B7	3.02	1.48
Lifestyle - Question B8	2.75	1.46
Lifestyle - Question B9	1.81	1.10
Lifestyle - Question B10	2.04	1.28
Lifestyle - Question B11	4.37	.75
Lifestyle - Question B12	3.59	1.34
Lifestyle - Question B13	4.02	.98
Lifestyle - Question B14	3.86	1.17
Lifestyle - Question B15	1.82	1.17
Lifestyle - Question B16	1.41	.92
Lifestyle - Question B17	3.23	1.35
Lifestyle - Question B18	3.77	1.22
Lifestyle - Question B19	1.85	1.11
Lifestyle - Question B20	3.93	1.02
Lifestyle - Question B21	3.44	1.14
Lifestyle - Question B22	3.76	1.15
Lifestyle - Question B23	3.08	1.40
Lifestyle - Question B24	4.44	.90
Lifestyle - Question B25	2.67	1.38
Lifestyle - Question B25	2.67	1.38
Lifestyle - Question B26	2.83	1.68
Lifestyle - Question B26	2.83	1.68
Lifestyle - Question B27	4.14	.98
Lifestyle - Question B27	4.14	.98
Lifestyle - Question B28	4.31	.90
Lifestyle - Question B28	4.31	.90
Lifestyle - Question B29	3.64	1.23
Lifestyle - Question B29	3.64	1.23
Lifestyle - Question B30	4.24	.94
Lifestyle - Question B30	4.24	.94

LIFESTYLE - CLUSTER 2

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Lifestyle - Question B1	2.18	1.32
Lifestyle - Question B1	2.18	1.32
Lifestyle - Question B2	2.90	1.59
Lifestyle - Question B2	2.90	1.59
Lifestyle - Question B3	4.46	1.03
Lifestyle - Question B3	4.46	1.03
Lifestyle - Question B4	3.24	1.55
Lifestyle - Question B4	3.24	1.55

Lifestyle - Question B5	2.55	1.41
Lifestyle - Question B6	1.84	1.45
Lifestyle - Question B7	2.45	1.43
Lifestyle - Question B8	2.53	1.55
Lifestyle - Question B9	1.47	.89
Lifestyle - Question B10	1.71	1.16
Lifestyle - Question B11	3.99	.95
Lifestyle - Question B12	3.33	1.38
Lifestyle - Question B13	3.49	1.25
Lifestyle - Question B14	3.86	1.26
Lifestyle - Question B15	1.37	.86
Lifestyle - Question B16	1.13	.52
Lifestyle - Question B17	2.67	1.42
Lifestyle - Question B18	3.95	1.32
Lifestyle - Question B19	1.66	1.09
Lifestyle - Question B20	3.37	1.37
Lifestyle - Question B21	2.75	1.37
Lifestyle - Question B22	3.81	1.23
Lifestyle - Question B23	2.58	1.46
Lifestyle - Question B24	4.46	.97
Lifestyle - Question B25	2.56	1.46
Lifestyle - Question B26	2.80	1.69
Lifestyle - Question B27	4.17	1.11
Lifestyle - Question B28	4.40	.88
Lifestyle - Question B29	3.48	1.35
Lifestyle - Question B30	3.79	1.19

LIFESTYLE - CLUSTER 3

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Lifestyle - Question B1	3.26	1.42
Lifestyle - Question B2	2.59	1.56
Lifestyle - Question B3	4.44	.98
Lifestyle - Question B4	3.59	1.37
Lifestyle - Question B4	3.59	1.37
Lifestyle - Question B5	3.35	1.27
Lifestyle - Question B5	3.35	1.27
Lifestyle - Question B6	2.56	1.72
Lifestyle - Question B6	2.56	1.72
Lifestyle - Question B7	3.56	1.35
Lifestyle - Question B7	3.56	1.35
Lifestyle - Question B8	3.32	1.44
Lifestyle - Question B8	3.32	1.44
Lifestyle - Question B9	2.21	1.21
Lifestyle - Question B9	2.21	1.21
Lifestyle - Question B10	2.58	1.41
Lifestyle - Question B10	2.58	1.41
Lifestyle - Question B11	4.58	.66
Lifestyle - Question B11	4.58	.66
Lifestyle - Question B12	4.04	1.18
Lifestyle - Question B12	4.04	1.18
Lifestyle - Question B13	4.16	.88
Lifestyle - Question B13	4.16	.88
Lifestyle - Question B14	4.25	1.02
Lifestyle - Question B14	4.25	1.02
Lifestyle - Question B15	2.21	1.20
Lifestyle - Question B15	2.21	1.20
Lifestyle - Question B16	1.74	1.10
Lifestyle - Question B16	1.74	1.10
Lifestyle - Question B17	3.65	1.39

Lifestyle - Question B18	4.20	1.11
Lifestyle - Question B19	2.31	1.31
Lifestyle - Question B20	4.01	1.08
Lifestyle - Question B21	3.76	1.13
Lifestyle - Question B22	3.98	1.12
Lifestyle - Question B23	3.76	1.31
Lifestyle - Question B24	4.70	.62
Lifestyle - Question B25	3.01	1.37
Lifestyle - Question B26	3.07	1.72
Lifestyle - Question B27	4.41	.90
Lifestyle - Question B28	4.59	.64
Lifestyle - Question B29	4.04	1.05
Lifestyle - Question B30	4.46	.82

CULTURAL CONSCIOUSNESS - CLUSTER 1

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Cultural Consciousness - Question C1	3.73	1.06
Cultural Consciousness - Question C2	3.01	1.20
Cultural Consciousness - Question C3	3.48	1.20
Cultural Consciousness - Question C4	3.84	1.03
Cultural Consciousness - Question C5	3.50	1.22
Cultural Consciousness - Question C6	3.79	1.16
Cultural Consciousness - Question C7	3.74	.97
Cultural Consciousness - Question C8	4.61	.66
Cultural Consciousness - Question C9	3.52	1.12
Cultural Consciousness - Question C10	4.66	.66
Cultural Consciousness - Question C11	3.14	1.24
Cultural Consciousness - Question C12	3.90	1.10

CULTURAL CONSCIOUSNESS - CLUSTER 2

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Cultural Consciousness - Question C1	3.53	1.13
Cultural Consciousness - Question C2	2.81	1.19
Cultural Consciousness - Question C3	3.60	1.14
Cultural Consciousness - Question C4	3.64	1.03
Cultural Consciousness - Question C5	3.62	1.10
Cultural Consciousness - Question C6	3.78	1.02
Cultural Consciousness - Question C7	3.83	.96
Cultural Consciousness - Question C8	4.44	.76
Cultural Consciousness - Question C9	3.60	1.17
Cultural Consciousness - Question C10	4.52	.70
Cultural Consciousness - Question C11	3.68	1.19
Cultural Consciousness - Question C12	3.85	1.11

CULTURAL CONSCIOUSNESS - CLUSTER 3

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Cultural Consciousness - Question C1	3.99	.92
Cultural Consciousness - Question C2	2.98	1.17
Cultural Consciousness - Question C2	2.98	1.17
Cultural Consciousness - Question C3	3.78	1.08
Cultural Consciousness - Question C3	3.78	1.08
Cultural Consciousness - Question C4	3.99	.97
Cultural Consciousness - Question C4	3.99	.97
Cultural Consciousness - Question C5	3.95	1.07
Cultural Consciousness - Question C5	3.95	1.07
Cultural Consciousness - Question C6	4.16	.94
Cultural Consciousness - Question C6	4.16	.94
Cultural Consciousness - Question C7	3.99	.88
Cultural Consciousness - Question C7	3.99	.88
Cultural Consciousness - Question C8	4.59	.62
Cultural Consciousness - Question C8	4.59	.62
Cultural Consciousness - Question C9	3.75	1.15
Cultural Consciousness - Question C9	3.75	1.15
Cultural Consciousness - Question C10	4.73	.46
Cultural Consciousness - Question C10	4.73	.46
Cultural Consciousness - Question C11	3.39	1.18
Cultural Consciousness - Question C11	3.39	1.18
Cultural Consciousness - Question C12	3.96	1.01
Cultural Consciousness - Question C12	3.96	1.01

SHOPPING ORIENTATION - CLUSTER 1

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Shopping Orientation - Question D1	2.76	1.27
Question D1 (Reverse scored)	3.24	1.27
Shopping Orientation - Question D2	2.22	1.37
Shopping Orientation - Question D3	3.79	.91
Shopping Orientation - Question D4	2.09	.99
Question D4 (Reverse scored)	3.91	.99
Shopping Orientation - Question D5	4.20	.75
Shopping Orientation - Question D6	3.16	1.25
Shopping Orientation - Question D7	2.88	1.18
Shopping Orientation - Question D8	3.38	1.05
Shopping Orientation - Question D9	2.99	1.34
Shopping Orientation - Question D10	3.77	.76
Shopping Orientation - Question D11	4.21	.86
Shopping Orientation - Question D12	4.25	.64
Shopping Orientation - Question D13	4.09	.95
Shopping Orientation - Question D14	4.27	.87
Shopping Orientation - Question D15	2.70	1.11
Question D15 (Reverse scored)	3.30	1.11
Shopping Orientation - Question D16	3.01	1.17
Question D16 (Reverse scored)	2.99	1.17
Shopping Orientation - Question D17	3.64	.97
Shopping Orientation - Question D18	4.25	.65
Shopping Orientation - Question D19	1.82	.92
Question D19 (Reverse scored)	4.18	.92
Shopping Orientation - Question D20	3.52	1.06
Shopping Orientation - Question D21	4.15	.91
Shopping Orientation - Question D22	3.11	1.19

SHOPPING ORIENTATION - CLUSTER 2

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Shopping Orientation - Question D1	3.19	1.22
Shopping Orientation - Question D1	3.19	1.22
Question D1 (Reverse scored)	2.81	1.22
Question D1 (Reverse scored)	2.81	1.22
Shopping Orientation - Question D2	1.80	1.16
Shopping Orientation - Question D2	1.80	1.16
Shopping Orientation - Question D3	3.82	.86
Shopping Orientation - Question D3	3.82	.86
Shopping Orientation - Question D4	2.27	1.04
Shopping Orientation - Question D4	2.27	1.04
Question D4 (Reverse scored)	3.73	1.04
Question D4 (Reverse scored)	3.73	1.04
Shopping Orientation - Question D5	3.90	.94
Shopping Orientation - Question D5	3.90	.94
Shopping Orientation - Question D6	2.83	1.30
Shopping Orientation - Question D6	2.83	1.30
Shopping Orientation - Question D7	2.26	1.17
Shopping Orientation - Question D7	2.26	1.17
Shopping Orientation - Question D8	3.54	1.03
Shopping Orientation - Question D8	3.54	1.03
Shopping Orientation - Question D9	2.73	1.37
Shopping Orientation - Question D9	2.73	1.37
Shopping Orientation - Question D10	3.77	.80
Shopping Orientation - Question D10	3.77	.80
Shopping Orientation - Question D11	4.02	.88
Shopping Orientation - Question D11	4.02	.88

Shopping Orientation - Question D12	4.04	.73
Shopping Orientation - Question D13	3.85	1.06
Shopping Orientation - Question D14	4.37	.64
Shopping Orientation - Question D15	3.14	1.14
Question D15 (Reverse scored)	2.86	1.14
Shopping Orientation - Question D16	3.20	1.20
Question D16 (Reverse scored)	2.80	1.20
Shopping Orientation - Question D17	3.73	.86
Shopping Orientation - Question D18	4.07	.68
Shopping Orientation - Question D19	2.10	.95
Question D19 (Reverse scored)	3.90	.95
Shopping Orientation - Question D20	3.33	1.08
Shopping Orientation - Question D21	4.16	.89
Shopping Orientation - Question D22	2.58	1.27

SHOPPING ORIENTATION - CLUSTER 3

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Shopping Orientation - Question D1	3.16	1.31
Question D1 (Reverse scored)	2.84	1.31
Shopping Orientation - Question D2	2.27	1.38
Shopping Orientation - Question D3	3.88	.96
Shopping Orientation - Question D4	1.89	.83
Question D4 (Reverse scored)	4.11	.83
Shopping Orientation - Question D5	4.34	.64
Shopping Orientation - Question D6	3.37	1.24
Shopping Orientation - Question D7	2.96	1.22
Shopping Orientation - Question D8	3.66	1.07
Shopping Orientation - Question D9	3.22	1.30
Shopping Orientation - Question D10	3.95	.79
Shopping Orientation - Question D11	4.44	.69
Shopping Orientation - Question D12	4.32	.61
Shopping Orientation - Question D13	4.38	.80
Shopping Orientation - Question D14	4.47	.60
Shopping Orientation - Question D14	4.47	.60
Shopping Orientation - Question D15	2.77	1.09
Shopping Orientation - Question D15	2.77	1.09
Question D15 (Reverse scored)	3.23	1.09
Question D15 (Reverse scored)	3.23	1.09
Shopping Orientation - Question D16	3.05	1.15
Shopping Orientation - Question D16	3.05	1.15
Question D16 (Reverse scored)	2.95	1.15
Question D16 (Reverse scored)	2.95	1.15
Shopping Orientation - Question D17	3.88	.89
Shopping Orientation - Question D17	3.88	.89
Shopping Orientation - Question D18	4.30	.63
Shopping Orientation - Question D18	4.30	.63
Shopping Orientation - Question D19	1.77	.87
Shopping Orientation - Question D19	1.77	.87
Question D19 (Reverse scored)	4.23	.87
Question D19 (Reverse scored)	4.23	.87
Shopping Orientation - Question D20	3.81	1.05
Shopping Orientation - Question D20	3.81	1.05
Shopping Orientation - Question D21	4.20	.92
Shopping Orientation - Question D21	4.20	.92
Shopping Orientation - Question D22	3.30	1.29
Shopping Orientation - Question D22	3.30	1.29