EXAMINING THE EFFECTS OF PSYCHOGRAPHICS, DEMOGRAPHICS AND GEOGRAPHICS ON TIME-RELATED SHOPPING BEHAVIORS

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The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of psychographic (shopping orientation, lifestyle, social class), demographic (gender, ethnicity, age), and geographic (area of residence) variables on time-related shopping behaviors when shopping for clothing for the self. The concept of time-related shopping behaviors has not been the focus of any study of the American market.

Data (N = 550) were collected via a questionnaire with an online survey company. Through analysis of chi square statistics, ANOVA, Pearson product-moment correlation, and factor analysis, it was found that psychographics and demographics affected time-related and other shopping behaviors. Geographics was found to affect shopping behavior, but not specifically the time-related shopping behaviors studied.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Traditional Monday through Saturday daytime shopping hours no longer fit today's consumer. Prior to the 1970s, one-income families were common and there was time to shop during the day. Things have changed. Many retailers recognize that their stores need to be open later to meet the needs of their customers who are working later hours and are often in dual-income households (Rubel, 1995). People have also moved away from the central city resulting in longer commutes to work and less time for shopping (Blumenthal, 1994). Accordingly, the world's largest retailer, Wal-Mart, is open around the clock. Further, stores have increasingly started to have "holiday hours," where they open earlier and close later during the holidays to be more convenient for gift shopping around December. Is all this convenience really necessary? Is this cost efficient?

On the other hand, some retail businesses are continuing to follow more traditional shopping hours, closing at 6 pm and/or on Sundays. For example, the craft retailer, Hobby Lobby, and most local clothing boutiques are closed on Sundays. Are these retailers missing sales?

In Europe, shopping hours are more limited. In many European countries, there are laws that limit store hours of operation. Germany's shopping hours are the most restricted. In one German study, researchers found that after a law was passed in 1996 expanding Saturday shopping by two hours and week day shopping by one and a half hours, "consumers' perceptions of Saturday shopping changed from utilitarian to a hedonic orientation" (Grunhagen, Grove, & Gentry, 2003).

There are numerous ways to examine consumers and their shopping behaviors. Shopping orientation was first introduced by Stone in 1954 as a way of segmenting shoppers. Many researchers followed his lead exploring new shopping orientations and more targeted shopping orientations for specific products (Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Darden & Reynolds, 1971; Lumpkin, 1985; Lumpkin, Hawes, & Darden, 1986, Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993; Williams, Painter, & Nicholas, 1978). Lifestyle is another way to classify consumers based on their attitudes, values, activities and interests. Shim and Kotsiopulos (1993) combined the two psychographic concepts when they examined the relationship between shopping orientations and lifestyle in order to more fully understand their shopping orientations. Social class, demographics, and area of residence are additional variables that can contribute to creating a specific consumer profile. These approaches all help in understanding the consumer; through application of these methods of study, researchers can get a unique profile of shoppers.

Given the economic climate, it is important for retailers to invest their money wisely. Marketing consultants argue whether the current recession will change buying behaviors and Americans will continue to consume less or if Americans will forget about the recession and go back to buying as they did before the recession (Samuelson, 2009). Either way, it is best that retailers are prepared to make some changes to encourage consumer spending. Yet they too need to efficiently manage limited resources. Through understanding their unique consumer and when they like to shop, retailers can better target their operational costs and marketing dollars.

Purpose

Previous research on shopping orientation has focused on consumer characteristics. Future research is needed linking personal characteristics to market-related behaviors (Viser & du Preez, 2001), such as time-related shopping behaviors and general preference for shopping channels as it relates to time issues, as these variables have not been examined extensively in previous research. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to determine the effects of psychographic (shopping orientation, lifestyle, and social class), demographic (gender, ethnicity, age), and geographic (area of residence) variables on the following shopping behaviors when shopping for clothing for the self:

a. Day of week in which most shopping takes place
b. Time of day in which most shopping takes place
c. Average length of time spent shopping
d. Amount of money spent per month
e. General preference for shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores.

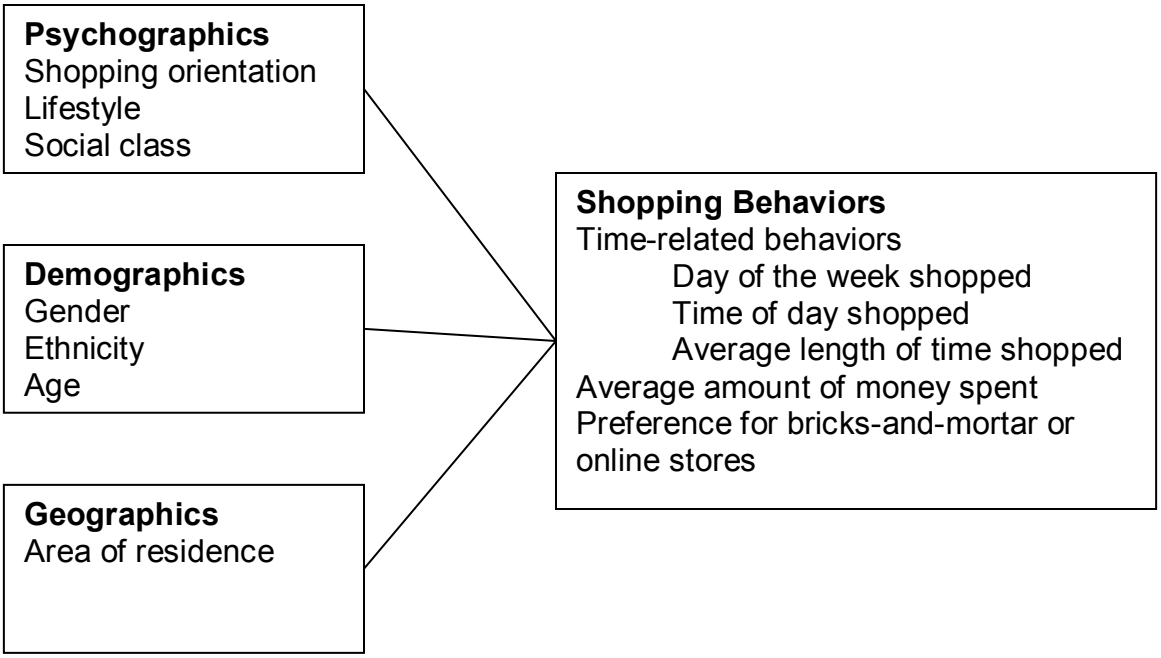

Figure 1. The effect of psychographics, demographics, and geographics on shopping behaviors.

Rationale

There is a lack of research in the area of time-related shopping behaviors. The most closely related research has been in shopping hour restrictions in Europe (Grunhagen, Grove, & Gentry, 2003) and deregulation of shopping hours and the effect on retail prices (Inderest & Irmen, 2003; Tanguay, Vallee, & Lanoie, 1995). While the United States has not had regulated shopping hours since the mid 1950s (Grunhagen et al., 2003), shopping hour restrictions are the norm for many Canadians and Europeans. Although there are some similarities in the markets and consumers, there are more differences. Research is needed on the American retail market regarding who shops, when, and for how long.

Some shopping orientation research has touched on time-related shopping behaviors in examining the variables of time spent shopping and shopping frequency (Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Darden & Reynolds, 1971; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993). However, these variables were small factors in their research that was ultimately focused on achieving other goals. Therefore it is necessary to study specifically these time-related shopping behaviors in greater depth.

Through understanding their consumers and their time-related shopping behaviors, retailers can better schedule hours of operation and employee shifts. In early 2007, Wal-Mart began using a computerized scheduling system which scheduled employee shifts based on the number of customers in the stores at any given time (Maher, 2007). Retailers can enjoy greater profitability and productivity through time-related shopping behavior research.

Hypotheses

Although there is little research regarding time-related shopping behavior, based on previous shopping behavior research, the literature indicated that there would be a relationship between the following variables. Therefore, the following hypotheses were formulated:

Psychographic Variables

H1 Shopping orientation will affect the following shopping behaviors:

a. Day of week in which most shopping takes place
b. Time of day in which most shopping takes place
c. Average length of time spent shopping
d. Amount of money spent per month

e. General preference for shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores.

H2 Lifestyle will affect the following shopping behaviors:

a. Day of week in which most shopping takes place
b. Time of day in which most shopping takes place
c. Average length of time spent shopping
d. Amount of money spent per month
e. General preference for shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores.

H3 Social class will affect the following shopping behaviors:

a. Day of week in which most shopping takes place
b. Time of day in which most shopping takes place
c. Average length of time spent shopping
d. Amount of money spent per month
e. General preference for shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores.

Demographic Variables

H4 Gender will affect the following shopping behaviors:

a. Day of the week in which most shopping takes place
b. Time of day in which most shopping takes place
c. Average length of time spent shopping
d. Amount of money spent per month

e. General preference for shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores.

H5 Ethnicity will affect the following shopping behaviors:

a. Day of the week in which most shopping takes place
b. Time of day in which most shopping takes place
c. Average length of time spent shopping
d. Amount of money spent per month
e. General preference for shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores.

H6 Age will affect the following shopping behaviors:

a. Day of the week in which most shopping takes place
b. Time of day in which most shopping takes place
c. Average length of time spent shopping
d. Amount of money spent per month
e. General preference for shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores.

Geographic Variables

H7 Area of residence (rural vs. urban) will affect the following shopping behaviors:

a. Day of the week in which most shopping takes place
b. Time of day in which most shopping takes place
c. Average length of time spent shopping
d. Amount of money spent per month

e. General preference for shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores.

Definition of Terms

Time-related shopping behaviors refer to how people shop with regard to time, including time of day and time of week shopped.

Shopping orientation as defined by Visser and du Preez (2001) consists of "a personal dimension (e.g. activities, interests, opinions, motives, needs and preferences) and a market behaviour dimension or general approach to acquiring goods and services" (p. 73).

Lifestyle is "a pattern of consumption that reflects a person's choices on how to spend time and money" (Solomon, 2009, p. 229).

Social class is defined as "a hierarchical division of a society into relatively distinct and homogeneous groups with respect to attitudes, values, and lifestyles" (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010, p. 136). Specifically, this study used the Hollingshead Index of Social Position (Hollingshead & Redlich, 1958) which uses occupation and education to classify people into social classes, giving occupation a higher weight. This method is consistent with the way Americans understand social class.

Area of residence refers to the population density where one lives (i.e. urban, suburban, mid-size city, and rural or small town).

Involvement is defined as "a motivational state caused by consumer perceptions that a product, brand, or advertisement is relevant or interesting" (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010, p. 369).

Assumptions

This study was conducted under the following assumptions: 1) Participants had the knowledge to accurately comprehend the survey questions; and 2) Participants provided their honest opinions.

Limitations

The sample is non-random comprised of a national panel of online survey participants. Although the sample is composed of a representation of the United States population as reported in the 2001 Census, these survey participants have access to a computer and are enrolled in a national panel of survey participants.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of psychographic (shopping orientation, lifestyle, and social class), demographic (gender, ethnicity, age), and geographic (area of residence) variables on time-related shopping behaviors when shopping for clothing for the self. The time-related shopping behaviors explored were: day of the week and time of day in which most shopping takes place, average length of time spent shopping, amount of money spent shopping per month, and preference for shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores.

Shopping Orientation

Shopping orientation as defined by Visser and du Preez (2001) consists of "a personal dimension (e.g. activities, interests, opinions, motives, needs and preferences) and a market behaviour dimension or general approach to acquiring goods and services" (p. 73). It is important to understand the definition of shopping orientation as some researchers in the past have used it broadly to represent perceptions of fashion and apparel shopping (Summers, Bealleau, & Wozniak, 1992). The following paragraphs will describe the chronological development of the shopping orientation variable. See Table 1 for a chronological outline.

Table 1

Shopping Orientation Categories (1954 - 1993)

Researchers	Shopper orientations	Product category
Stone (1954)	Economic Personalizing Ethical Apathetic	General products
Darden & Reynolds (1971)	Economic Personalizing Ethical Apathetic	Health & personal care products
Williams, Painter, & Nicholas (1978)	Apathetic Convenience Price Involved	Groceries
Bellenger & Korgaonkar (1980)	Recreational Economic	General products
Lumpkin (1985)	Active Economic Apathetic	General products
Lumpkin, Hawes, & Darden (1986)	Inactive inshopper Active outshopper Thrify innovators	General products
Shim & Kotsiopulos (1993)	Highly involved Apathetic Convenience-oriented	Apparel

The concept of shopping orientation was first explored by Stone in 1954. He classified 119 Chicago women into four categories: economic, personalizing, ethical, and apathetic shoppers. Economic shoppers were most concerned with price, quality and variety. Personalizing shoppers were more interested in a warm and friendly shopping environment. Ethical shoppers were most concerned with shopping at local stores, rather than price and friendliness of the sales associates. Apathetic shoppers had very little interest in shopping.

The next study was conducted by Darden and Reynolds (1971) who classified 167 female health and personal care product shoppers into the same four categories as Stone: economic, personalizing, ethical and apathetic. They had similar findings to Stone. The economic shopper was found to be “concerned with price, quality, and convenience” (p. 507). The personalizing shopper was found to shop most often for products relating to hygiene and appearance. Overall they did not shop as often for the more outwardly visible products. The ethical consumer chose to shop at local stores rather than chain stores and had “high social status and long residence in the community” (p. 508). The apathetic shopper was the most unique of the shopping categories, in that they did not enjoy shopping.

While the first two studies captured four distinct shopping orientations, they had small samples of just 119 and 167 subjects. Retrospectively Darden and Reynolds (1971) took it a step farther than Stone (1954) by narrowing the product category to health and personal care products and increasing the sample size. Williams, Painter and Nicholas (1978) followed with a study and increased the sample size to 298 subjects and focused solely on groceries. They classified grocery shoppers into four new shopping orientation categories: apathetic, convenience, price, and involved shoppers. Apathetic shoppers were much like the apathetic shopper in the first two studies; they had a general dislike for shopping. They found that the economic shopper in the first two studies needed to be split into a convenience shopper and a price shopper, as not all convenience shoppers valued price and not all price shoppers valued convenience. Of all their categories, their involved shopper was the most involved with grocery shopping.

In 1980, Bellenger and Korgaonkar explored shopping orientation as well, but they limited their sample to two shopping orientations in order to take a deeper look into the characteristics of these shopping orientations. They profiled the female recreational shopper in comparison to the economic shopper. Their recreational shopper would probably be most closely linked to the involved shopper in Williams et al. (1978) study. They found that the recreational shopper is "an active woman who [was] looking for a pleasant atmosphere with a large variety of high-quality merchandise" (p. 84) and was more likely to buy something impulsively. The economic shopper spent less time shopping than the recreational shopper.

While Bellenger and Korgaonkar limited their research to two different shopping orientations, Lumpkin (1985) limited his research to a specific population, the elderly. His research classified elderly apparel shoppers into three groups: active, economic, and apathetic shoppers. Active shoppers were those who enjoyed shopping, were socially active, and considered to be opinion leaders. Economic shoppers were very price conscious but did not shop around for the best price. This finding suggested that they were less involved in shopping and did not want to spend the time seeking the best price. Apathetic shoppers were the least interested in shopping.

It is beneficial to marketers to narrow populations to understand more specific segments in order to meet more specific consumer needs. Marketers and retailers will be able to profit from tailoring their products and stores to the needs of their specific consumer. Lumpkin, Hawes, and Darden (1986) followed Bellenger and Korgaonkar, narrowing their population to only rural shoppers as they were not explored in previous research. They classified rural shoppers into three groups: inactive inshoppers, active

outshoppers, and thrifty innovators. Inactive inshoppers were the least interested in shopping and tended to shop with local stores. Active outshoppers “exhibit[ed] high levels of generalized/shopping opinion leadership [and were] somewhat innovative and self-confident” (p. 70). Specifically, the other groups looked to active outshopppers for their opinions on products. They were unlikely to comparison shop for the best price, as they were confident in their shopping choices. Thrifty innovators had the most self-confidence and were likely to shop from home.

The previous research had not focused on a major product category, apparel, so Shim and Kotsiopulos (1993) took the opportunity to focus on apparel as it was a volume driver for many retailers. They also sampled a female population to take advantage of the opportunity to understand in more detail the female shopper who is the more frequent shopper in their households. They segmented female participants into three unique profiles: highly involved apparel shoppers, apathetic apparel shoppers, and convenience-oriented catalog shoppers. Highly involved apparel shoppers were highly confident and highly concerned with appearance. Shim and Kotsiopulos identified these women as fashion leaders who enjoyed spending their time shopping. The second group, apathetic apparel shoppers, was not interested or concerned with apparel shopping. The last group, convenience-oriented catalog shoppers, was “most concerned with convenience of and time required for clothing shopping” (p. 81).

In summary, most studies had an apathetic shopper who does not have take an active interest in or enjoy shopping (Darden & Reynolds, 1971; Lumpkin, 1985; Shim & Kotsiopulos; Stone, 1954; Williams, Painter, & Nicholas, 1978). These studies also found a highly involved shopper who generally enjoyed shopping and spent more time

shopping. This highly involved shopper was referred to as “involved,” “recreational,” “active,” and “active outshopper.” While they had some differences, overall they exhibited high involvement in shopping. Another common shopper was the economic or convenience shopper (Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Darden & Reynolds, 1971; Lumpkin, 1985; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993; Williams, Painter, & Nicholas, 1978). This shopper tended to be the most interested in time and/or price.

With the growth of multi-channel retailing, it is important to not only understand bricks-and-mortar shoppers, but also online shoppers. Girard, Korgaonkar, and Silverblatt (2003) examined the influence of shopping orientation and demographics on preference for shopping on the Internet. They found a significant relationship between shopping orientations and consumer’s online purchase preference. Specifically, the convenience shopping orientation was a strong predictor for preference to shop online for clothing. “The convenience-oriented shoppers are oriented towards time and effort saving; therefore, they do not like to spend time searching for or trying to understand complex product information; yet, they enjoy the convenience of in-home shopping” (p. 115). The recreational shopper was also a strong predictor for preference to shop online, however this shopper preferred to shop online for products such as cell phones and televisions. The researchers found the shopping orientations of price-consciousness, variety-seeking, and impulsiveness to not be significant predictors of preferences to shop online.

As many studies have been conducted to classify shoppers into categories, shopping orientation results may vary but they all have similar overreaching shopper profiles. Shopping orientation is a measure that is useful to marketers and retailers in

understanding their consumer because through examining time related shopping behaviors of these different shopping orientations, marketers and retailers will have a better picture of their customers.

Lifestyle

"Lifestyle defines a pattern of consumption that reflects a person's choices on how to spend time and money" (Solomon, 2009, p. 229). A number of studies have segmented consumers using lifestyle and shopping orientation (Gutman & Mills, 1982; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993). As lifestyle relates to how consumers choose to spend their money, it closely relates to shopping behavior.

Gutman and Mills (1982) used lifestyle to classify clothing-fashion lifestyle segments. "Lifestyle, as defined in the study, referred to attitudes, interests, opinions, and behaviors of consumers as they relate to the acquisition of fashion merchandise" (p. 67). Thus fashion lifestyle in this study was specifically grounded in shopping characteristics. Through factor analysis, two categories were established: fashion orientation (fashion leadership, fashion interest, importance of being well-dressed, and antifashion attitude) and shopping orientation (shopping enjoyment, cost consciousness, traditionalism, practicality, planning, and following) factors. Gutman and Mills identified seven segments based on the lifestyle statements which comprised the fashion-orientation factors: leaders, followers, independents, neutrals, uninvolveds, negatives, and rejectors. Leaders not only found fashion interesting, but also important; they also scored high in fashion leadership specifically. Followers were very similar to the leaders, but did not score as high on the fashion leadership scale. Independents were different from the first two groups due to their strong antifashion attitude, however they did not

demonstrate a lack of fashion awareness. Neutrals scored neutral on all fashion-orientation factors demonstrating that they consider fashion unimportant. Uninvolveds scored lower than the neutrals and “showed low desire for leadership, low interest in fashion, low importance given to fashion, and low antifashion attitudes” (p. 75). The negatives demonstrated a complete lack of interest and leadership in fashion. The rejectors were much like the negatives, however they had no concern for what they wore.

Lifestyle is often studied with shopping orientation. One’s shopping style can be a reflection of one’s lifestyle. Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2010) define lifestyle as “how one lives, including the products one buys, how one uses them, what one thinks about them, and how one feels about them” (p. 29). Shim and Kotsiopulos (1993) also looked at lifestyle as it related to shopping orientation in their study. They included eight lifestyle items in their instrument. These items were factor analyzed into three categories: cultural, community, and grooming factors. The use of lifestyle in the Shim and Kotsiopulos study was limited; however they found a relationship between their shopping orientation segments and lifestyle variables. They found that lifestyle responses were similar between the convenience-oriented catalog shopper and the highly involved apparel shopper, however the apathetic apparel shopper’s responses were different. Highly involved apparel shoppers frequently engaged in cultural activities, such as visiting art galleries, attending concerts or plays, and going to the movies. They were also heavy users of grooming products. The convenience-oriented catalog shoppers were similar, but they were not as extreme; they moderately engaged in cultural and grooming activities. This is in contrast with the apathetic apparel shopper

who was not concerned with these lifestyle activities. Through understanding various lifestyle activities, retailers and marketers can more efficiently plan the shopping experience.

While shopping orientations were found to be predictors of online shopping, lifestyle was used in another study to segment consumers. Using online shopping lifestyle measures, Allred, Smith, and Swinyard (2006) developed three online shopper segments (socializers, e-shopping lovers, and e-value leaders) and three online non-shopper segments (fearful conservatives, shopping averters, and technology muddlers). Socializers were opinion leaders who shopped more frequently at bricks-and-mortar stores, but they actively spent money online. E-shopping lovers spent more money online than in bricks-and-mortar stores and represented a significant share of online shoppers. E-value leaders were the greatest opinion leaders of online shopping, spent the most time online, and were the most competent with computers. While online shoppers made up 63 percent of online households, online non-shoppers made up 37 percent. Fearful conservatives lacked computer competency and were insecure online. Shopping averters simply chose to shop at bricks-and-mortar stores over online, however they could be persuaded to shop online. Tech muddlers were not computer competent or able to influence others. Overall, online shoppers were "younger, wealthier, better educated, have higher computer literacy, and are bigger retail spenders" compared with online non-shoppers (Allred, Smith, & Swinyard, 2006, p. 328; Swinyard & Smith, 2003). Also, online shoppers were more comfortable using a computer and less fearful in making online purchases.

Social Class

Consumer research in social class has been minimal since the early 1980s (Williams, 2002), though earlier research supported the idea that social class is a significant factor in market segmentation (Coleman, 1983). Williams suggested that there could be a number of reasons why there has been so little research since Coleman, such as political correctness or lack of interest. Nonetheless, “social inequality is a fact of life in virtually all cultures, and this inequality is likely to give rise to an array of differentiated attitudes, values, and behaviors in buying and consumption” (Williams, 2002, p. 250).

There are many ways to measure social class. Researchers can use education, income, or occupation, which would result in a single-item index. This is less accurate measurement because status is often determined by a combination of those dimensions. The Hollingshead Index of Social Position (Hollingshead & Redlich, 1958) is a multi-item index as it uses occupation and education to classify social class. Although there is limited application in the academic literature, recent research suggests “that social class is still an important determinant of various consumer behaviors in the United States” (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010, p. 145).

An early study (Rich & Jain, 1968) examined the relationship between social class and shopping behavior among women. They found no significant differences in sources of shopper information, interpersonal influences in shopping, and shopping enjoyment. However, shopping frequency was significantly associated with social class. They found that women in the upper class and middle class shopped more frequently than women in the lower class. Another difference they found was the importance of

shopping quickly; women in the upper class were most likely to find it important to shop quickly. Again, the middle class followed behind the upper class, and the lower class found it least important to shop quickly.

More recently, Williams (2002) examined the importance of purchase evaluative criteria across social class and income strata for a variety of products. He found that "social class predicted a greater number of utilitarian criteria than subjective criteria" (p. 262). Tested utilitarian evaluative criteria were durability, reliability, performance, warranty, low price, and well-known brand name. Subjective criteria tested included value, style/appearance, referent quality, uniqueness, and prestigious brand. "The utilitarian evaluative criteria were related to social class for all products studied" (p. 270). In this study, product studied included: dress clothing, children's play clothing, garden tools, automobiles, wedding gifts, casual clothing, living room furniture, kitchen appliances, and stereos. While the research found that social class had some relationship with evaluative purchase criteria, gender was also a factor. Similarly, Henry (2002) found that the lower social classes "exhibit a greater functional purchase orientation compared to professionals" (p. 426). His research was in agreement with the research of Williams, being that gender is also a significant factor along with social class. Although there are significant differences between social classes, there is also a difference within the social class between males and females, being that males scored higher on the image and appearance aspect of purchases.

Demographic Variables

One study (Gutman & Mills, 1982) found demographic differences to be "unimportant" in segmenting clothing-fashion lifestyle segments. Another study (Moye &

Kincade, 2003) looked at age, education, occupation and household incomes across their shopper segments and found that only household income had significant differences between the segments. Those with higher incomes preferred to shop at department stores, whereas those with lower incomes preferred to shop at discount stores. Shim and Kotsiopulos (1993) found a relationship between shopping orientation segments and demographics, but it was strictly between the apathetic shopper and other shopper segments. This suggests that demographics may be useful in determining who is not involved in shopping for apparel, but not specifically classifying those who are highly involved in shopping for apparel.

Gender

Traditionally, women are responsible for household shopping. Valian (2000) found that:

> Men have tended to occupy positions that, for competent performance, require characteristics like agency, independence, instrumentality, and task orientation, we transfer the requirements of the roles to the personalities of the people who occupy them. We therefore see men as independent agents, task-oriented, and so on. Similarly, because women have tended to occupy positions that require nurturance and expressiveness, we have come to think of them as possessing the characteristics required to be a parent and homemaker." (p. 113)

The role of women has changed along with their shopping behavior. Underhill found through strictly observational research that women remain the primary buyer in the American household, but they are beginning to have more similarities with men in their shopping behaviors (Underhill, 2009). For example, now that women are more likely to

be working outside the home, they have to shop around work schedules and have less time to spend shopping.

It is not surprising that many shopping behavior studies focus on women, as they tend to be more involved in shopping (Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993). “Men are all but absent in studies of shopping behavior. The few studies that have included men typically focus on the purchase of ‘men’s’ items such as alcoholic beverages, cars and electronics, or men’s clothing” (Otnes & McGrath, 2001, p. 112). There have been a limited number of studies that focused on the specific differences between the ways that men and women shop for the same goods.

Otnes and McGrath (2001) explored male shopping behavior in their study through observation and interviews. They found that the typical male stereotypes of “grab and go,” “whine and/or wait,” and “fear of the feminine,” do not represent the reality of male shopping behavior. In fact when shopping for themselves, men were found to evaluate their alternatives. They also found that men often preselect merchandise using the internet and/or catalogs before visiting a store. Men also bargain and browse, although the stereotypes suggest otherwise.

Through qualitative research, Otnes and McGrath (2001) disproved male shopping behavior stereotypes. Otnes and McGrath’s theory has two components: transcendence of masculine gender role and achievement orientation. The first, transcendence of masculine gender role, means that “an individual has developed the sophistication to apply gender-related rules with flexibility, permitting the adaptation to a world that demands ‘feminine’ behavior for success in some situations and ‘masculine’ behavior for success in others” (Davidson & Gordon, 1979, p. 16). The gender schema

for males is more rigid than the gender schema for females (Valian, 2000). American culture values masculine interests more than feminine interests, making it easier for girls to develop “masculine” interests than boys to develop “feminine” interests (Valian, 2000). “So, in order for shopping to have meaning beyond just the acquisition of goods, a man must rise above culturally entrenched notions of masculinity and acknowledge that shopping is an acceptable activity” (Otnes & McGrath, 2001, p. 128).

The second component, achievement orientation, explains men’s motivations for shopping. Men who have transcended their gender schema shop for achievement, which is an example of an important masculine ideal (Otnes & McGrath, 2001). Otnes and McGrath theorize that “the Internet may play a special role in men’s goal of shopping to win. This shopping outlet means that men are able to distance themselves from the more feminine sphere of the marketplace and use technology as a tool for achievement. And men can also use this information to demonstrate expertise among their peers” (2001, p. 129).

When men are shopping for certain categories, they spend more time shopping than women (Underhill, 2009). In a study for a computer store, Underhill found that “17 percent of the male customers interviewed said they visited the place more than once a week” (p. 106). In a study reviewing a different product category, he examined average shopping time at a national housewares chain and found “women shopping with a female companion: 8 minutes, 15 seconds; woman with children: 7 minutes, 19 seconds; woman alone: 5 minutes, 2 seconds; woman with man: 4 minutes, 41 seconds” (p. 109). Overall, he found that men move faster through stores than women do and spend less time looking.

Men and women also have different preferences for shopping online (Girard, Korgaonkar, & Silverblatt, 2003). Men preferred to shop online for books and electronics, while women preferred to shop online for clothing and perfume. The researchers found that of the demographics tested, gender, education, and household income, gender was the most significant demographic predictor for preference for shopping online. Hashim, Ghani, and Said (2009) found that gender plays a bigger role in predicting online shopping. They found that men are more likely than women to shop online. They suggest that "male shoppers tend to be convenience shoppers due to high commitment on work and study. On the other hand, female shoppers tend to be recreational shoppers and would prefer to do their shopping using the conventional way" (p. 26).

Ethnicity

Angelo (2010) compared shopping behaviors between African-American and Caucasian-American Generation Y consumers. The study found that African-Americans were more comfortable making their own clothing purchase decisions, make purchases for themselves more frequently, and spend more time on their shopping trips than Caucasian-American consumers. This is consistent with Angelo's final finding that African-Americans spend significantly more money on their shopping trips, nearly twice as much as Caucasian-Americans.

Hispanics, like African-Americans, have a limited amount of research on their shopping behaviors. Seock and Sauls (2008) examined Hispanic consumers' shopping orientations and store evaluation criteria. They found that for both males and females and for all age groups, "Hispanic consumers tend to enjoy shopping, and are confident in their ability to shop for the right clothes. They were also concerned a great deal with

price, brand names, and fashion" (p. 480). These findings were consistent with Shim and Gehrt's (1996) findings that Hispanic adolescents have a great awareness of fashion and brand and approach shopping as a recreational activity. Hispanic consumers are convenience shoppers, shopping for clothes when it saves time (Seock & Sauls, 2008). As far as store evaluation criteria, merchandise/convenience was the most important to Hispanics compared to the other options of customer service and physical appearance (Seock & Sauls, 2008).

Native Americans are very different from Hispanic and White shoppers. Shim and Gehrt (1996) found that Native American adolescents scored the lowest on all shopping orientations except for confusion by overchoice and impulsiveness. "The diverse array of products, brands, and stores available to them appears to overwhelm them and may lure them into careless and random shopping patterns" (p. 319). The researchers suggest that this might be a result of their geographics as many Native Americans live in rural areas, therefore they are not exposed to as much retail as their Hispanic and White counterparts.

White adolescents are price conscious and have a low level of brand consciousness (Shim & Gehrt, 1996). This is consistent with Angelo's finding that Caucasian-Americans spend less on their shopping trips than African-Americans. Not only do White adolescents pay attention to price, but they also pay attention to quality (Shim & Gehrt, 1996).

Age

When examining age and shopping behavior, life cycle can be a factor. Through comparing age and life cycle, researchers can more fully understand age or life cycle

and its importance on shopping behaviors. An early shopping behavior study found that "life cycle did not have any effect on the enjoyment of shopping for clothing and household items" (Rich & Jain, 1968, p. 44). When looking strictly at age, shopping frequency was higher in younger women than older women. Life cycle was not a factor in shopping frequency as there was not a significant difference in shopping frequency between women with children and women without children. Rich and Jain also found that age had no influence on the importance of shopping quickly, as the women above and below 40 had no significant differences. However, women with children put more importance on shopping quickly than women without children. When looking at browsing behavior, they found that women under the age of 40 browsed more than women over the age of 40.

Older consumers (over the age of 55), generally feel younger than they are (Myers & Lumbers, 2008). They also view shopping as a form of socialization and entertainment. While there are these general similarities, older consumers can be separated into four categories: targeted shoppers, shopaholics, occasional leisure shoppers, and reluctant shoppers. Targeted shoppers shop alone and are mostly men. Shopaholics enjoy shopping and shop frequently. They like to browse and buy. Occasional leisure shoppers most frequently shop with a purpose, but every once in a while they will shop as a leisure activity with friends. Reluctant shoppers shop only when they have to and are mostly male. They tend to use the internet or catalog to shop.

Geographic Variables

Much of the shopping behavior research has used samples coming mostly from urban and suburban areas. "Seldom have researchers investigated shopping

orientations of rural consumers and the relationship of these orientations to other aspects of shopping behavior" (Lumpkin, Hawes, & Darden, 1986, p.63). During their shopping orientation research, Shim and Kotsiopulos (1993) found that suburban residents were more likely to be highly involved apparel shoppers or convenience-oriented catalog shoppers. Rural residents were more likely to be apathetic apparel shoppers.

Lumpkin, Hawes, and Darden (1986) studied shopping orientations of the rural consumer. They found three segments: inactive inshoppers, active outshoppers, and thrifty innovators, as described earlier in the literature review. They also found that rural consumers, regardless of their shopping orientation, have similar shopping area attribute preferences. Cleanliness is the most important attribute, followed by convenience-related attributes, then attractive décor and entertainment facilities. Rural shoppers were also found to be interested in shopping at their local retailers when "retailers are perceived as adhering to community social norms" (Kim and Stoel, 2010, p. 79).

Summary

Through understanding American consumers and their time-related shopping behaviors, retailers can better serve their customer while being cost effective. This chapter discussed previous research that is useful in building a consumer profile, specifically psychographic (shopping orientation, lifestyle, and social class), demographic variables (gender, ethnicity, age), and geographic (area of residence) variables. While many of these variables have been studied extensively in the past, they have not been used in conjunction with time-related shopping behaviors. This study

attempts to understand the American retail market better through understanding who shops, when and for how long.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study examined the effects of psychographic, demographic, and geographic variables on time-related shopping behaviors when shopping for clothing for the self. The specific psychographic variables that were studied were: shopping orientation, lifestyle, and social class. The time-related shopping behaviors explored were: day of the week and time of day in which most shopping takes place, and average length of time spent shopping. Additional shopping behaviors examined were: amount of money spent shopping per month and preference for shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores.

There has been extensive research on shopping orientation (Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Darden & Reynolds, 1971; Lumpkin, 1985; Lumpkin et al, 1986; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993; Stone, 1954; Williams et al, 1978) and lifestyle (Allred et al, 2006; Gutman & Mills, 1982; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993). Shopping orientation originated in 1954 when Stone studied urban housewives and their shopping habits. The most frequently found shopping orientations have been: apathetic, involved, and convenience shoppers.

Researchers have also examined, more specifically, how shopping orientation and lifestyle relate to shopping behavior (Gutman & Mills, 1982; Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993). More recently lifestyle has been used to examine shopping behavior and use of the Internet; Allred et al (2006) found online shopper segments based on online lifestyles. However, the concept of time-related shopping behaviors has not been the focus of any study of the American market. In order to more fully understand who shops,

when, and how long, in addition to shopping orientation and lifestyle, social class, demographics (gender, ethnicity, and age), and geographics (area of residence) were examined in this study.

Sample

The sample was a national consumer panel consisting of American male and female apparel consumers over the age of 18. I used an online survey resource, Zoomerang, to collect data. The sample consisted of members of Zoomerang's database of over 2 million survey takers (Survey respondents, 2009). Zoomerang validates each prospective survey participant to confirm their background information. They also make sure that no panelist can take a survey more than once. I instructed Zoomerang to survey "general population panelists" which means that survey takers represent the United States population according to the 2001 Census. Zoomerang's customers include people from businesses, educational institutions, and non-profit organizations.

Research Instrument

The questionnaire was developed using the review of literature and input from my thesis committee members. The questionnaire was then presented during my thesis proposal presentation. Committee members gave recommendations for the questionnaire and the researcher made the suggested additions and changes following the proposal presentation. For example, an open ended question was added to give participants the opportunity to explain a time when they were interested in shopping, but the store was closed. Occupation was also changed from a categorical question to an open-ended question.

Final Instrument

I submitted the final instrument to the University of North Texas IRB for approval. The IRB gave their approval for the study (Appendix A). I then created the survey in the Zoomerang database for distribution online. The questionnaire contained 43 shopping orientation and lifestyle statements that participants rated from 1 = *strongly agree* to 5 = *strong disagree* and 16 additional categorical and open-ended questions regarding shopping behaviors and demographics (Appendix B).

Instrument Variables

Shopping Orientation

Shopping orientations were determined using 27 statements on a five point scale from a previous study (Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993). Five statements regarding importance of apparel being made in the United States and credit card usage were eliminated from the questionnaire as they were not pertinent to the study. Two catalog-oriented statements were edited to apply to not only catalog shopping, but also Internet shopping. Respondents were asked to respond to the statements on a scale ranging from 1 = *strongly agree* to 5 = *strongly disagree*.

Lifestyle

In order to keep the length of the final survey reasonable, a non-random snowball sample of 79 subjects was used to test 30 statements about the respondent's lifestyle activities from a previous study (Sun, Horn, & Merritt, 2004). Respondents were asked to respond using a 5-point scale ranging from 1 = *strongly agree* to 5 = *strongly disagree*. Factor analysis was computed to determine the most usable statements for the questionnaire, resulting in ten factors. Cronbach's test of reliability was then

computed for all ten factors. If reliability was less than .7, items were examined to see if dropping an item would increase the reliability. The item, "I am very satisfied with the way things are going in my life these days" was dropped from Factor 2 in order to increase the reliability from .460 to .698. All items in Factors 5, 6, 7, 8 and 10 were eliminated because the reliability was less than .690. Also, the item, "my home life is chaotic" was recoded to "my home life is not chaotic" which increased the reliability of Factor 9 from .458 to .845, making it usable. These adjustments reduced the original 30 lifestyle items to 16 items for the final survey.

Social Class

The Hollingshead Index of Social Position (Hollingshead & Redlich, 1958) was used to calculate social class. It is a multi-item index using occupation (weight of 7) plus education (weight of 4) to determine social class. Occupation and education were both included in the demographics section of the questionnaire.

Demographics and Geographics

Respondents were asked to respond to the following demographic questions in order to create a demographic profile of the participants: gender, ethnicity, age, and income. They were also asked to select where they live using categories ranging from "urban – large city" to "rural or small town."

Time-Related Shopping Behaviors

Respondents were asked when they do most of their apparel shopping for themselves, specifically day of the week (Monday – Sunday) and time of day (morning - before 10 am, late morning - 10 am-noon, early afternoon – noon-2 pm, afternoon – 2 pm-4 pm, early evening – 4 pm-6 pm, evening – after 6 pm). They were also asked how

long they typically shop for themselves (less than 1 hour, 1 – 2 hours, 2 – 3 hours, 3 – 4 hours, 4 – 5 hours, over 5 hours).

Other Shopping Behaviors

Respondents were asked how much money they spend on clothing per month (less than $50, $50 - $100, $101 - $150, $151 - $200, $201 - $250, over $250) and about their shopping habits with brick-and-mortar stores versus online stores ("where do you shop more frequently" and "which do you prefer"). They were also asked about shopping during holiday hours (if they shop during them and when they used them either early morning or late evening). Respondents were also asked an open-ended question about a time when they were unable to shop because a store was closed.

Procedure for Collecting Data

The researcher contracted with Zoomerang to collect 500 general population responses online using their database. Zoomerang offered survey takers points for taking the survey that eventually accumulate to allow participants to redeem them for prizes such as MP3 players and cds.

Data Analysis

The researcher retrieved 551 questionnaire responses from the Zoomerang website and uploaded them into an SPSS file. SPSS was used to analyze the data (Tables 2 and 3).

Table 2

Treatment of Hypotheses

	Hypothesis	Variables	Statistical analysis plan
H1	Shopping orientation will affect the following shopping behaviors:	Day of the week in which most shopping takes place	ANOVA
		Time of day in which most shopping takes place	ANOVA
		Average length of time spent shopping	Correlation
		Amount of money spent per shopping trip	Correlation
		General preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores	ANOVA
H2	Lifestyle will affect the following shopping behaviors:	Day of the week in which most shopping takes place	ANOVA
		Time of day in which most shopping takes place	ANOVA
		Average length of time spent shopping	Correlation
		Amount of money spent per shopping trip	Correlation
		General preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores	ANOVA
H3	Social class will affect the following shopping behaviors:	Day of the week in which most shopping takes place	Crosstabs
		Time of day in which most shopping takes place	Crosstabs

(table continues)

Table 2 *(continued)*.

	Hypothesis	Variables	Statistical analysis plan
		Average length of time spent shopping	ANOVA
		Amount of money spent per shopping trip	ANOVA
		General preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores	Crosstabs
H4	Gender will affect the following shopping behaviors:	Day of the week in which most shopping takes place	Crosstabs
		Time of day in which most shopping takes place	Crosstabs
		Average length of time spent shopping	ANOVA
		Amount of money spent per shopping trip	ANOVA
		General preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores	Crosstabs
H5	Ethnicity will affect the following shopping behaviors:	Day of the week in which most shopping takes place	Crosstabs
		Time of day in which most shopping takes place	Crosstabs
		Average length of time spent shopping	ANOVA
		Amount of money spent per shopping trip	ANOVA
		General preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores	Crosstabs

(table continues)

Table 2 *(continued)*.

	Hypothesis	Variables	Statistical analysis plan
H6	Age will affect the following shopping behaviors:	Day of the week in which most shopping takes place	ANOVA
		Time of day in which most shopping takes place	ANOVA
		Average length of time spent shopping	Correlation
		Amount of money spent per shopping trip	Correlation
		General preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores	ANOVA
H7	Area of residence will affect the following shopping behaviors:	Day of the week in which most shopping takes place	Crosstabs
		Time of day in which most shopping takes place	Crosstabs
		Average length of time spent shopping	ANOVA
		Amount of money spent per shopping trip	ANOVA
		General preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores	Crosstabs

Table 3

Treatment of Multi-Item Variables

Variable	Statistical analysis plan
Shopping orientation	Factor analysis; reliability of factors
Lifestyle	Factor analysis; reliability of factors
Social class	Occupations are scored from 1 "higher executives" to 7 "unskilled employees"; Education is scored from 1 "professional degrees" to 7 "less than 7 years of school. Occupations have a weight of 7 and educations have a weight of 4 to calculate social strata

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of psychographic (shopping orientation, lifestyle, and social class), demographic (gender, ethnicity, age), and geographic (area of residence) variables on time-related shopping behaviors when shopping for clothing for the self. The time-related shopping behaviors explored were: day of the week and time of day in which most shopping takes place, average length of time spent shopping, amount of money spent shopping per month, and preference for shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores.

The concept of time-related shopping behaviors has not been the focus of any study of the American market. While there has been research on the other major variables of shopping orientation and lifestyle, there has not been research regarding their relationships with time-related shopping behaviors.

In order to address the hypotheses, 550 questionnaires were collected with an online survey company. The database of participants consisted of an American consumer panel database representing the United States population according to the 2001 Census. The questionnaire contained 43 shopping orientation and lifestyle statements that participants rated from strongly disagree to strong agree and 16 additional categorical and open-ended questions regarding shopping behaviors and demographics.

Description of Sample

The participants were split pretty evenly between male and female, with 299 female (54.4%) and 251 male (45.6%) participants. Age of participants was between 18

and 87 with a mean age of 43; 77% percent of the sample was between the ages of 18 and 55. Thirty-seven percent of participants had at least a four year college degree. Table 4 summarizes the characteristics of the sample.

Table 4

Sample Characteristics

Characteristic	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Female	299	54.4
Male	251	45.6
Education		
High school or less	108	19.6
Some college	173	31.5
2 year college degree	67	12.2
4 year college degree	154	28.0
Graduate degree	48	8.7
Ethnicity		
African American	51	9.3
White	444	81.0
Hispanic	42	7.7
Asian or Pacific Islander	4	0.7
Other	7	1.3
Social Class*		
Upper	7	2.2
Upper-middle	93	29.3
Middle	181	57.1
Lower-middle	35	11.0
Lower	1	0.3
Area of Residence		
Urban - large city	106	19.3
Suburban - suburb of a large city	178	32.4
Mid-size city	93	16.9
Rural or small town	171	31.1
Other	2	0.4

Note. N = 550; *n = 317. Social class was determined using occupation and education. Not all participants gave an occupation that could be classified.

Reliability of Instrument

Shopping orientation (Shim & Kotsiopulos, 1993) and lifestyle (Sun et al., 2004) scales were used in this study. Cronbach's alpha was computed in order to determine the internal consistency of the scales. An alpha of .767 was computed for the shopping orientation scale and .730 for the lifestyle scale. Both reliability scales were acceptable, as both exceeded the threshold of .70 (Nunnally, 1978).

Analysis of Hypotheses

Seven hypotheses were developed for this study based on the review of literature. The data collected from the instrument were statistically analyzed to apply to the designated hypotheses within the study.

H1: Shopping Orientation

Hypothesis 1 stated that shopping orientation would affect the following shopping behaviors: day of the week in which most shopping takes place, time of day in which most shopping takes place, average length of time spent shopping, amount of money spent per month, and general preference for shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores. To assess this hypothesis, a factor analysis was computed to reduce the number of shopping orientation statements to a manageable number of variables. Two methods were used for deciding which items would be used: (1) those items loading more than .50 on a single factor; and (2) a reliability test performed scoring better than .70 (Nunnally, 1973). One factor containing three items scored .636, however once one item was removed the score improved to a .683. This factor was accepted with a reliability of .683, as it was very close to the threshold of .70. Statements in each of the factors were examined, and the following names were applied:

brand loyal shopper, showy shopper, confident shopper, and convenience shopper. See Table 5 for factor details.

Table 5

Factor Analysis and Reliability of Shopping Orientations

Factor labels	Statements	Factor loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
Brand loyal shopper	A well-known brand means good quality	0.729	0.771
	I try to stick to certain brands and stores	0.711	
	It is important to buy well-known brands for clothing	0.705	
	Once I find a brand I like, I stick with it	0.648	
Showy shopper	I try to keep my wardrobe up-to-date with fashion trends	0.734	0.750
	Dressing well is an important part of my life	0.712	
	I like to be considered well groomed	0.543	
	A person's reputation is affected by how he/she dresses	0.506	
Confident shopper	I have the ability to choose the right clothes for myself	0.868	0.854
	I feel very confident in my ability to shop for clothing	0.852	
	I think I am a good clothing shopper	0.757	
Convenience shopper	I usually buy at the most convenient store	0.799	0.683
	I shop where it saves me time	0.758	

ANOVA was computed to determine whether there was a relationship between the shopping orientation factors and day of the week shopped, time of day shopped, and preference for bricks-and-mortar or online stores. Only one significant relationship was found ($F = 2.448$, $df = 544$, $p < .05$); confident shoppers shopped most frequently in the evening (after 6:00 pm) and least frequently in the early afternoon (between noon and 2:00 pm). See Table 6 for ANOVA shopping orientation results.

Table 6

The Relationship between Shopping Orientation and Time of Day Shopped

Shopping orientation	Morning (before 10 am) mean	Late morning (10 am - noon) mean	Early afternoon (noon - 2 pm) mean	Afternoon (2 pm - 4 pm) mean	Early evening (4 pm - 6 pm) mean	Evening (After 6 pm) mean	F	p<
Brand loyal	2.72	2.91	2.73	2.97	2.90	2.92	1.980	0.0800
Showy	2.28	2.51	2.47	2.52	2.39	2.63	1.296	0.2640
Confident	1.86	1.98	1.79	2.02	1.86	2.10	2.448	0.0330
Convenience	2.55	2.58	2.61	2.74	2.61	2.70	0.701	0.6230

Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was computed to determine the relationship between the shopping orientation factors, average amount of time spent shopping and average amount of money spent per month. A negative relationship was indicated between the shopping orientation factors, brand loyal shopper (r = -.160; p < .001), showy shopper (r = -.321; p < .001), and confident shopper (r = -.087; p <. 05) and average amount of time spent shopping. Brand loyal, showy, and confident shoppers did not want to spend much time shopping. Additional negative correlations were computed between brand loyal shopper (r = -.258; p < .0001), showy shopper (r = -.348; p < .0001), and confident shopper (r = -.162; p < .0001) and average amount of money spent on apparel for the self each month. Brand loyal, showy, and confident shoppers did not spend much money shopping. See Table 7 for correlation details.

Table 7

Correlations with Average Amount of Time and Money Spent

	Average amount of time spent shopping		Average amount of money spent shopping	
Shopping orientation factor	Pearson Correlation	Sig.	Pearson Correlation	Sig.
Brand loyal shopper	-0.160	0.0001	-0.258	0.0001
Showy shopper	-0.321	0.0001	-0.348	0.0001
Confident shopper	-0.087	0.0410	-0.162	0.0001
Convenience shopper	0.176	0.0001	0.062	0.1460
Lifestyle factor				
Traditional	-0.016	0.7010	-0.076	0.0770
Instant gratification	-0.112	0.0080	-0.082	0.0550
Pessimistic	-0.058	0.1780	-0.056	0.1910
Age	-0.096	0.0240	-0.057	0.1820

In summary, shopping orientation was found to influence some shopping behaviors, but not all proposed variables. Therefore Hypothesis 1 was accepted for shopping orientation affecting time of day in which most shopping takes place, average length of time spent shopping, and amount of money spent per month. It was rejected for shopping orientation affecting day of the week in which most shopping takes place and general preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores.

H2: Lifestyle

Hypothesis 2 stated that lifestyle would affect the following shopper behaviors: day of the week in which most shopping takes place, time of day in which most shopping takes place, average length of time spent shopping, amount of money spent per month, and general preference for shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores. To assess this hypothesis, another factor analysis was computed to reduce the 16 lifestyle statements into a usable number of variables. Two methods were

used for deciding which items would be used: (1) those items loading more than .50 on a single factor; and (2) a reliability test performed scoring better than .70. One factor was accepted with a reliability of .643, as it was close to the threshold of .70 (Nunnally, 1973). Another factor loaded at .323, however once one item was removed, the reliability improved to .635. This factor was accepted as it was also close to the threshold of .70. This resulted in 3 lifestyle variables: traditional, instant gratification, and pessimistic (see Table 8 for factor details). ANOVA and Pearson product-moment correlation were conducted on these factors to test the specific variables in the hypothesis.

Table 8

Factor Analysis and Reliability of Lifestyle Categories

Factor labels	Statements	Factor loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
Traditional	Men are naturally better leaders than women	0.842	0.821
	Men are smarter than women	0.813	
	The father should be the boss in the house	0.788	
	A woman's place is in the home	0.716	
Instant gratification	I am not very good at saving money	0.787	0.672
	I pretty much spend for today and let tomorrow bring what it will	0.688	
	I don't know much about investing money	0.662	
	I am an impulse buyer	0.603	
Pessimistic	I wish I knew how to relax	0.710	0.635
	I wish I could leave my present life and do something entirely different	0.680	
	I dread the future	0.625	

ANOVA was computed to determine whether there was a relationship between the lifestyle factors and day of the week shopped, time of day shopped, and preference

for bricks-and-mortar stores or online stores. No significant relationships were found for any of the shopping variables.

Pearson product-moment correlation was also computed to determine whether there was a relationship between the lifestyle factors and average amount of time spent shopping and average amount of money spent per month (Table 7). There was only one significant relationship found, between the instant gratification lifestyle factor and the average amount of time spent shopping (r = -.112, p < .01). As the value of instant gratification increased, the average amount of time spent shopping decreased.

In summary, lifestyle was found to only affect the average length of time spent shopping. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was accepted for lifestyle affecting the length of time spent shopping, but not for lifestyle affecting day of the week in which most shopping takes place, time of day in which most shopping takes place, amount of money spent per month, and general preference for bricks-and-mortar versus online stores.

H3: Social Class

Hypothesis 3 stated that social class would affect the following shopping behaviors: day of the week in which most shopping takes place, time of day in which most shopping takes place, average length of time spent shopping, amount of money spent per month, and general preference for shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores. Social class was calculated using the Hollingshead Index of Social Position. It should be noted that only 220 out of 550 respondents were able to be categorized into social classes as a large number of respondents did not list an occupation that could be classified, for example, unemployed or retired. This is acknowledged as a limitation of this study.

In order to assess this hypothesis, chi square statistics and ANOVA were used. Chi square indicated a significant relationship between social class and day of the week in which most shopping takes place ($\chi^2 = 37.767$, $p < .05$). While all social classes are most likely to shop on Saturdays, the upper, upper-middle, and middle classes were unlikely to shop on Mondays, and the lower-middle class was unlikely to shop mid-week (Tuesday through Thursday). There were no significant relationships found between social class and time of day shopped and preference for bricks-and-mortar or online stores.

Table 9

Frequencies for Social Class and Day of the Week Shopped

		Day of the week shopped						
Social Class		Mon	Tues	Wed	Thurs	Fri	Sat	Sun
Upper	*n*	0	2	0	0	1	4	0
	%	0.0	28.6	0.0	0.0	14.3	57.1	0.0
Upper-Middle	*n*	2	7	10	5	11	52	6
	%	2.2	7.5	10.8	5.4	11.8	55.9	6.5
Middle	*n*	10	17	22	10	17	86	19
	%	5.5	9.4	12.2	5.5	9.4	47.5	10.5
Lower-Middle	*n*	3	1	0	1	5	23	2
	%	8.6	2.9	0.0	2.9	14.3	65.7	5.7
Lower	*n*	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	%	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	*N*	16	27	32	16	34	165	27

ANOVA and chi square statistics also were computed to determine whether there was a relationship between social class and amount of time shopped and amount of money spent. Chi square statistics indicated a significant relationship between social class and average amount of time spent shopping ($\chi^2 = 50.338$, $p < .0001$). ANOVA indicated a significant relationship between social class and average amount of money

spent (F = 3.443, df = 312, p < .05). All social classes shopped most frequently from one to two hours at a time for clothing. For the lower-middle class, less than 3 percent shopped longer than three hours at a time. The majority of all social classes spent less than $50 per month on clothing for themselves. No one in the lower middle class spent more than $100 per month on clothing for themselves.

Table 10

Characteristics of Amount of Time and Money Spent Shopping

Variable	Amount of time spent shopping mean	F	p<	Amount of money spent shopping mean	F	p<
Social Class						
Upper	2.43	0.846	0.497	2.00	3.443	0.009
Upper-middle	2.16			1.90		
Middle	2.09			1.68		
Lower-middle	1.89			1.37		
Lower	2.00			4.00		
Gender						
Female	2.27	20.707	0.0001	1.67	0.021	0.886
Male	1.90			1.65		
Ethnicity						
African American	2.25	6.022	0.0001	1.94	4.105	0.003
White	2.02			1.57		
Hispanic	2.67			2.00		
Asian or Pacific Islander	3.00			2.00		
Other	2.00			2.29		

Table 11

Frequencies for Social Class and Average Amount of Time

		Average hours spent shopping					
Social Class		Less than 1	1-2	2-3	3-4	4-5	Over 5
Upper	*n*	2	3	1	0	0	1
	%	28.6	42.9	14.3	0.0	0.0	14.3
Upper-Middle	*n*	22	44	18	8	1	0
	%	23.7	47.3	19.4	8.6	1.1	0.0
Middle	*n*	48	81	41	10	1	0
	%	26.5	44.8	22.7	5.5	0.6	0.0
Lower-Middle	*n*	11	18	5	1	0	0
	%	31.4	51.4	14.3	2.9	0.0	0.0
Lower	*n*	0	1	0	0	0	0
	%	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	*N*	83	147	65	19	2	1

Social class was found to affect some shopping behaviors. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was accepted for social class affecting day of the week in which most shopping takes place, average length of time spent shopping, and amount of money spent per month; however it was not accepted for lifestyle affecting time of day in which most shopping takes place and general preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores.

H4: Gender

Hypothesis 4 stated that gender would affect the following shopping behaviors: day of the week in which most shopping takes place, time of day in which most shopping takes place, average length of time spent shopping, amount of money spent per month, and general preference for shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores. In order to assess this hypothesis, chi square statistics and ANOVA were

used. Chi square indicated that there was a significant relationship found between gender and day of the week in which most shopping takes place ($\chi^2 = 50.338$, $p < .05$). While both men and women shopped most frequently on Saturday, men do more shopping on Saturday and Sunday when compared to women. By contrast, women's shopping was spread throughout the week with Monday being the least likely day for shopping. There were no significant relationships found between gender and time of day shopped and preference for bricks-and-mortar and online stores.

Table 12

Frequencies for Gender and Day of the Week Shopped

		Day of the week shopped						
Social Class		Mon	Tues	Wed	Thurs	Fri	Sat	Sun
Female	*n*	15	30	40	25	46	121	22
	%	5.0	10.0	13.4	8.4	15.4	40.5	7.4
Male	*n*	12	17	32	10	23	132	25
	%	4.8	6.8	12.7	4.0	9.2	52.6	10.0
Total	*N*	27	47	72	35	69	253	47

ANOVA indicated a significant relationship between gender and average length of time spent shopping ($F = 20.707$, $df = 548$, $p < .0001$). Women had a higher mean score, signifying they shop between one to three hours (on average) on a single shopping trip. Men had a lower mean score, signifying that their shopping trips are shorter than women's. There was no significant relationship found between gender and amount of money spent per month.

In summary, gender was found to influence some shopping behaviors. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was accepted for gender affecting day of the week in which shopping takes place and average length of time spent shopping, but not for gender affecting time

of day in which most shopping takes place, amount of money spent per month, and general preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores.

H5: Ethnicity

Hypothesis 5 stated that ethnicity would affect the following shopping behaviors: day of the week in which most shopping takes place, time of day in which most shopping takes place, average length of time spent shopping, amount of money spent per month, and general preference for shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores. In order to assess this hypothesis, chi square statistics and ANOVA were computed. No significant relationship was found between ethnicity and day of the week shopped, time of day shopped, or preference for bricks-and-mortar or online stores using chi square statistics.

ANOVA indicated significant relationships between ethnicity and average length of time spent shopping ($F = 6.022$, $df = 543$, $p < .01$) and between ethnicity and amount of money spent per month ($F = 4.105$, $df = 543$, $p < .01$). Hispanics spent the most time shopping, followed by African Americans, then Whites. Hispanics spent the most money on clothing on average per month, while Whites spent the least on clothing per month.

Ethnicity was found to influence some shopping behaviors. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was accepted for ethnicity affecting length of time spent shopping and amount of money spent per month, but not for ethnicity affecting day of the week in which most shopping takes place, time of day in which most shopping takes place, and general preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores.

H6: Age

Hypothesis 6 stated that age would affect the following shopping behaviors: day of the week in which most shopping takes place, time of day in which most shopping takes place, average length of time spent shopping, amount of money spent per month, and general preference for shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores. ANOVA and Pearson product-moment correlation analysis were used to assess this hypothesis. Using ANOVA, a significant relationship was found between age and day of the week shopped ($F = 4.118$, $df = 543$, $p < .001$). Wednesday had the highest mean age whereas Saturday had the lowest mean age. There was also a significant relationship found between age and time of day shopped ($F = 4.030$, $df = 249.6$, $p < .001$). Morning (before 10 am) and late morning (10 am - noon) had the highest mean ages; early evening (4 pm – 6 pm) had the lowest mean age.

Table 13

The Relationship between Age and Time-Related Shopping Behaviors

Time-related shopping behavior	Age mean	*F*	*p*<
Day of the week shopped			
Monday	41.81	4.118	0.0001
Tuesday	45.57		
Wednesday	50.19		
Thursday	45.60		
Friday	42.13		
Saturday	40.40		
Sunday	44.02		
Time of day shopped			
Morning (before 10 am)	47.64	4.030	0.001
Late morning (10 am - noon)	47.85		
Early afternoon (noon - 2 pm)	41.12		
Afternoon (2 pm - 4 pm)	41.70		
Early evening (4 pm - 6 pm)	39.44		
Evening (after 6 pm)	43.92		

There was a significant relationship found between age and shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores ($F = 5.712$, $df = 548$, $p < .05$). The mean age for shopping in online stores was higher than the age for shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores. While there was a significant relationship found between age and shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online, there was not a significant relationship found between age and preference for shopping in either channel.

Correlation was computed to determine the relationship between age and average amount of time spent shopping and average amount of money spent per month (Table 7). A negative relationship was indicated between age and the average amount of time spent shopping ($r = -.096$, $p < .05$). As age increased, the average amount of

time spent shopping decreased. The relationship between age and average amount of money spent shopping was not significant.

In summary, age was found to affect many shopping behaviors. Therefore, Hypothesis 6 was accepted for age affecting day of the week in which most shopping takes place, time of day in which most shopping takes place, length of time spent shopping, and general preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores, but not for amount of money spent per month.

H7: Area of Residence

Hypothesis 7 stated that area of residence would affect the following shopping behaviors: day of the week in which most shopping takes place, time of day in which most shopping takes place, average length of time spent shopping, amount of money spent per month, and general preference for shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores. The researcher used chi square statistics and ANOVA to assess this hypothesis. There was only one significant relationship found. Using chi-square statistics, a relationship between area of residence and preference for shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores was significant ($\chi^2 = 9.579$, $p < .05$). Every area of residence category preferred to shop in bricks-and-mortar stores over online. Interestingly, those living in large cities preferred to shop in bricks-and-mortar stores, however they had the largest percent of people preferring to shop online (29.2%). See Table 14.

In summary, area of residence was not found to be a predictor of time-related shopping behaviors, but it did affect preference for bricks-and-mortar versus online stores. Therefore, Hypothesis 7 was accepted for area of residence affecting general

preference for bricks-and-mortar versus online stores, but not for area of residence affecting day of the week in which most shopping takes place, time of day in which most shopping takes place, length of time spent shopping, and amount of money spent shopping. See Table 15 for summary of hypotheses accepted or rejected.

Table 14

Frequencies for Area of Residence and Preferred Retail Channel

	Retail Channel			
	Bricks-and-mortar stores		Online stores	
Area of residence	n	%	n	%
Urban	75	70.8	31	29.2
Suburban	145	81.5	33	18.5
Mid-size city	80	86.0	13	14.0
Rural or small town	142	83.0	29	17.0
Other	2	100.0	0	0.0
Total	444	80.7	106	19.3

Table 15

Hypotheses Results Summary

Hypothesis		Variables	Results
H1	Shopping orientation will affect the following shopping behaviors:	Day of the week in which most shopping takes place	Rejected
		Time of day in which most shopping takes place	Accepted
		Average length of time spent shopping	Accepted
		Amount of money spent per shopping trip	Accepted

(table continues)

Table 15 (*continued*).

	Hypothesis	Variables	Results
		General preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores	Rejected
H2	Lifestyle will affect the following shopping behaviors:	Day of the week in which most shopping takes place	Rejected
		Time of day in which most shopping takes place	Rejected
		Average length of time spent shopping	Accepted
		Amount of money spent per shopping trip	Rejected
		General preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores	Rejected
H3	Social class will affect the following shopping behaviors:	Day of the week in which most shopping takes place	Accepted
		Time of day in which most shopping takes place	Rejected
		Average length of time spent shopping	Accepted
		Amount of money spent per shopping trip	Accepted
		General preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores	Rejected
H4	Gender will affect the following shopping behaviors:	Day of the week in which most shopping takes place	Accepted
		Time of day in which most shopping takes place	Rejected
		Average length of time spent shopping	Accepted

(table continues)

Table 15 (*continued*).

	Hypothesis	Variables	Results
		Amount of money spent per shopping trip	Rejected
		General preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores	Rejected
H5	Ethnicity will affect the following shopping behaviors:	Day of the week in which most shopping takes place	Rejected
		Time of day in which most shopping takes place	Rejected
		Average length of time spent shopping	Accepted
		Amount of money spent per shopping trip	Accepted
		General preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores	Rejected
H6	Age will affect the following shopping behaviors:	Day of the week in which most shopping takes place	Accepted
		Time of day in which most shopping takes place	Accepted
		Average length of time spent shopping	Accepted
		Amount of money spent per shopping trip	Rejected
		General preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores	Accepted
H7	Area of residence will affect the following shopping behaviors:	Day of the week in which most shopping takes place	Rejected

(table continues)

Table 15 (*continued*).

Hypothesis	Variables	Results
	Time of day in which most shopping takes place	Rejected
	Average length of time spent shopping	Rejected
	Amount of money spent per shopping trip	Rejected
	General preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores	Accepted

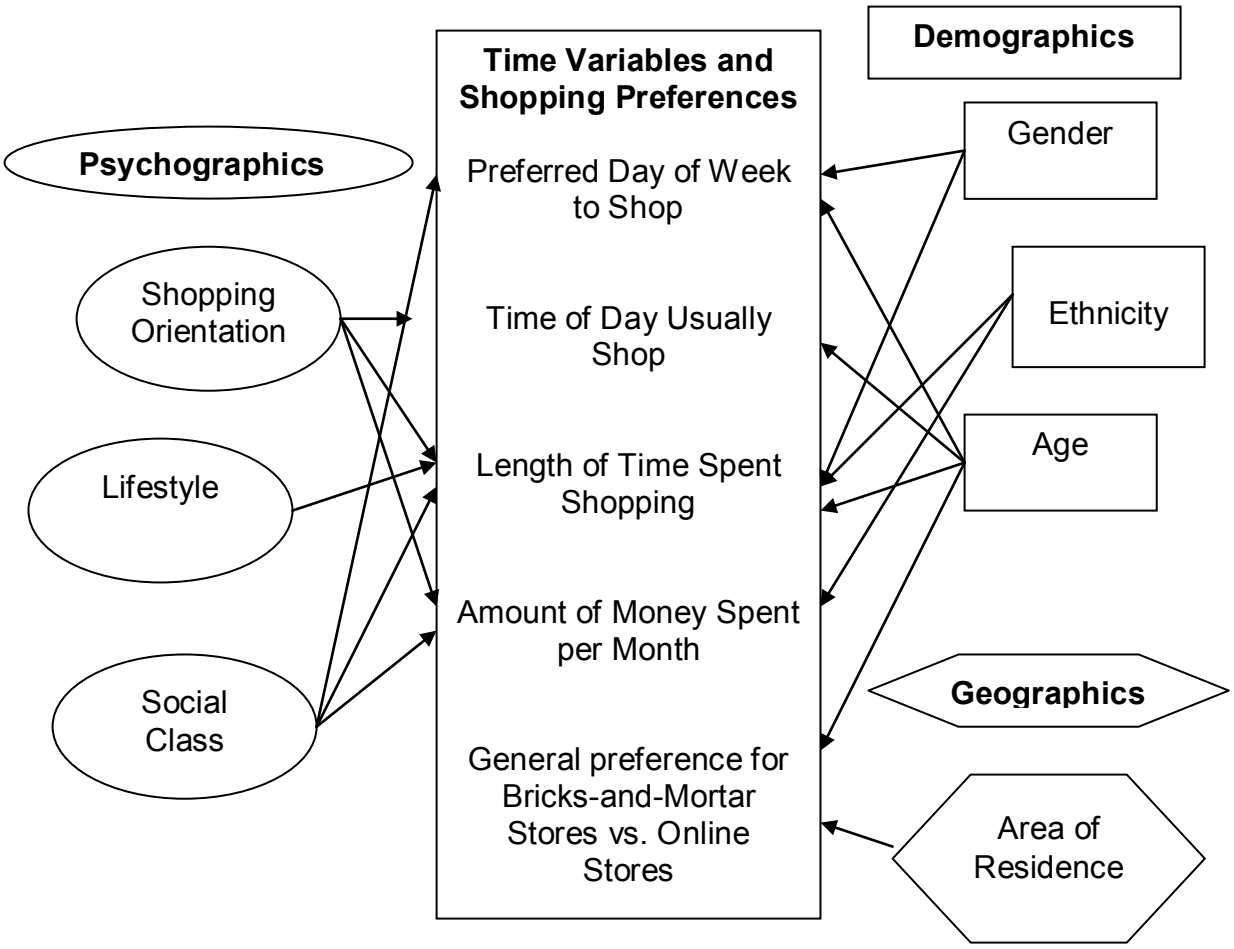

Figure 2. Final research model: The effects of psychographics, demographics, and geographics on shopping behaviors.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of psychographic (shopping orientation, lifestyle, and social class), demographic (gender, ethnicity, age), and geographic variables (area of residence) on time-related shopping behaviors when shopping for clothing for the self. The time-related shopping behaviors explored were: day of the week and time of day in which most shopping takes place, and average length of time spent shopping. Amount of money spent shopping per month and preference for shopping in bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores were other shopping behaviors examined.

In order to address the hypotheses, 550 questionnaires were collected with an online survey company. The database of participants consisted of an American consumer panel database representing the United States population according to the 2001 Census. The questionnaire contained 43 shopping orientation and lifestyle statements that participants rated from strongly disagree to strong agree and 16 additional categorical and open-ended questions regarding shopping behaviors and demographics.

Shopping Orientation

Four shopping orientations were found as a result of this study: brand loyal shopper, showy shopper, confident shopper, and convenience shopper. Similar to Shim and Kotsiopulos's (1993) brand conscious/loyal shopper, brand loyal shoppers believed that brand names represented quality and were loyal to brand names and stores selling those brand names. Showy shoppers, like the confident/appearance, fashion conscious

shopper found by Shim and Kotsiopulos, put an emphasis on dressing well, followed clothing trends, and believed that a person's reputation was affected by how they dressed. Confident shoppers thought they were good at shopping and selecting clothing for themselves. Convenience shoppers, like Shim and Kotsiopulos's convenience/time conscious shopper, shopped where it saved time and stores that were most convenient. Confident shoppers shopped most frequently in the evening and least in the early afternoon. This may suggest that confident shoppers work during the day and are only free to shop in the evenings. This may also suggest their confidence extends beyond their shopping habits and into their careers.

Shoppers that most identified with the brand loyal shopper, showy shopper or confident shopper spent less time and less money per shopping trip shopping for apparel. Brand loyal shoppers may spend less time shopping because they shop for apparel with a specific brand in mind and that narrows their choices. Showy shoppers were most interested in buying clothing that was considered fashionable or trendy, so they may spend less time shopping because they have a plan in mind before they do their apparel shopping or they might focus on the new items on display. Confident shoppers were confident in their ability to choose apparel for themselves, so they may spend less time making decisions about what apparel best suits them when they shop. A positive correlation was found with money and time spent shopping for apparel suggesting that as these shoppers spent less time shopping, they spent less money.

Marketers can use psychographics, like shopping orientations, to more thoroughly understand their customers and better develop their messages to appeal to the right market. Retailers can also use these findings to design their stores and

operations to suit their specific consumer needs through visual merchandising and customer service policies.

Shopping orientation influenced the time-related shopping behaviors of time of day shopped and length of time shopped, but not day of the week shopped. This could be due to the majority of respondents shopping on Saturdays. Shopping orientation was also not found to influence shoppers preference for bricks-and-mortar and online stores. This could because shoppers with different shopping orientations have different online access or are equal opportunity shoppers and do not prefer one channel over the other.

Lifestyle

Three lifestyle profiles were identified in the study: traditional, instant gratification, and pessimistic. Traditional lifestyle individuals believed that men were better leaders and smarter than women, and that women should stay in the home with men being the boss of the household. Those who were identified with the instant gratification lifestyle lived for today, not having an interest in saving or investing money and were impulse buyers. Those living a pessimistic lifestyle were unhappy with their current lives, dreaded the future and were unable to relax.

The instant gratification lifestyle was found to affect the average length of time spent shopping. The more associated with instant gratification, less time was spent shopping for apparel. This suggests that those individuals who live an instant gratification lifestyle want instant gratification in their clothing purchases as well so they do not spend time looking and browsing but rather they buy their apparel instantly. There was no relationship found between the traditional and pessimistic lifestyles and time spent shopping. This is probably because these lifestyles are more associated with

an overall personal ideology that is not related with the length of time they spend shopping for apparel.

The lifestyle profiles found did not affect day of the week shopped, time of day shopped, amount of money spent per month, or general preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores. As found with length of time spent shopping, the lifestyles of traditional and pessimistic are personal beliefs that do not seem to relate to the examined shopping behaviors. Individuals identified with an instant gratification lifestyle may not be good with money, but their instant gratification lifestyle did not affect the amount of money spent per month. This may suggest that these individuals do not get instant gratification from spending money.

Social Class

Social class was found to affect the day of the week that people shop for clothing for themselves. The upper, upper-middle, and middle classes all were very unlikely to shop on Mondays. This could be a result of these classes working regular Monday through Friday jobs with Mondays being a very hectic day in their profession. It is unlikely that a person working a Monday through Friday job would choose to shop on a Monday when they just returned to the office after the weekend.

All social classes shop for clothing most frequently on Saturdays. This finding is not surprising as mall traffic is the highest on the weekends. Social class does not dictate what time of day people choose to shop for clothing for themselves. Time of day may be significant when looking at traditional work days of Monday through Friday, but the question was not specific and this may explain why there was no significance in the findings.

As expected, social class affects the amount of money spent on clothing per month. No one in the lower middle classes spent more than $100 per month on clothing. It could be expected that lower classes do not have as much money to spend. As there was a positive correlation between money spent and time spent shopping found, it was also unlikely for those in the lower middle class to shop longer than three hours at a time for clothing. This could be due to working longer hours and possibly more than one job. This finding is contrary to Rich & Jain's (1968) that the upper and middle class shop more quickly than those in the lower class. Those in the lower social classes shop for utilitarian rather than subjective goods (Henry, 2002; Williams, 2002). This may suggest that shopping for functional apparel may not require as much time. The finding may also suggest that those in the lower social classes may visit fewer stores to manage time available for shopping.

Social class influenced the time-related shopping behaviors of day of the week shopped and length of time shopped, but not time of day shopped. Social class was also not found to influence shoppers preference for bricks-and-mortar and online stores. This may be due to social classes having different internet access and if lower classes do not have it, they do not prefer one channel over the other.

Gender

Men and women both shop most frequently on the weekends. Men shop more than women on the weekends and women are more likely to shop throughout the week. This could point to women enjoying shopping and possibly using it as a social interaction so they are more likely to spread it out throughout the week than men. Underhill (2009) found that women shop the longest with shopping with a female

companion. The study also found that women shopped longer than men, when shopping for clothing for themselves. This may be due to men pre-selecting merchandise before their shopping trips as found by Otnes and McGrath (2001). Men's apparel shopping trips may also be shorter than women's because they spent less time looking and move faster through stores (Underhill, 2009) and have fewer choices. Although women shopped for longer periods of time than did men, they did not spend more money. Women are more likely than men to enjoy shopping, therefore spend more time doing it. Women enjoy the act of shopping, but it did not mean that they had to spend money. Men do not enjoy shopping so they do not spend as much time involved in the activity, however they may spend more than women.

Gender was found to influence the time-related shopping behaviors of day of the week shopped and length of time shopped, but not time of day shopped. Gender was also not found to influence shoppers preference for bricks-and-mortar and online stores. One may think that men would have a preference for online shopping over bricks-and-mortar shopping, but this was not found. This may be due men's lack of interest in shopping overall.

Ethnicity

Hispanics were found to shop for a longer length of time than the other ethnicities; they were followed by African-Americans and then Whites. This could be due to more Hispanic women staying at home with their children allowing Hispanic women more free time to spend time shopping. Many Hispanic families follow more traditional roles of the fathers working outside the home while women stay at home to take care of their children. Seock and Sauls (2008) found that Hispanics enjoy shopping; similarly Shim

and Gehrt (1996) found that young Hispanics view shopping as a recreational activity. These findings both support Hispanics spending more time shopping.

Hispanics also spent the most on clothing for themselves, followed by African-Americans and Whites. This could suggest that the longer they shopped, the more money they spent, which is supported by a positive correlation found in the results of this study. Similarly, Angelo (2010) also found that African-Americans spend more money shopping than Whites.

Ethnicity was not found to affect the time-related shopping behaviors of day of the week or time of day shopped. This may be due to most respondents shopping most frequently on Saturdays. It could also be due to the limited number of respondents from ethnicities other than White. Ethnicity was also found not to influence shopper preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores. Again, this may have been due to the limited number of survey respondents who were not White.

Age

Age was found to affect all time-related shopping behaviors: day of the week shopped, time of day shopped, and length of time shopped. Young shoppers (mean age of 40) were most likely to shop on Saturdays, while older shoppers (mean age of 50) were most likely to shop on Wednesdays. This may be due to the younger respondents being newer to their careers and having less flexibility in their work schedules. Older shoppers may have established themselves in their careers and have earned more flexibility. The oldest shoppers are most likely retired and likely to shop during the week because they have the option available to them to avoid the crowds and shop mid-week. The findings on the effect of age on time of day could be similarly explained. The older

shoppers shopped most frequently earlier in the day, whereas younger shoppers were more likely to shop in the evenings. Again, this could be due to younger respondents having less flexibility in their work days. Younger respondents could also have less flexibility as they may have young children who require care, as younger shoppers are more likely to have younger children than the older shoppers.

The study also found that as age increases, the length of time shopped decreases. Rich and Jain (1968) found that shoppers under the age of 40 browsed more than women over the age of 40. This could explain why younger women shop longer, browsing suggests a more leisurely shopping trip, which in turn, adds length to the shopping trip.

Age was also found to affect shopper preference for bricks-and-mortar versus online stores. Those who shopped more frequently online were older than those who shopped more frequently in bricks-and-mortar stores. This could suggest the oldest respondents shopped online because they were more likely to pay for the convenience of online shopping.

Age was not found to influence the amount of money spent per month. This could be due to respondents having different budgets for spending on clothing. People put different emphasis on their wardrobes and this is not determined by age.

Area of Residence

Area of residence was found to affect only one variable, general preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores. All respondents in all areas of residence preferred to shop in bricks-and-mortar stores. This could be due to the need to try things on before you buy apparel for oneself. Those living in large cities were found to have

the largest percentage of people who preferred to shop online. This could be explained by those living in large cities have more options available to them on how to spend their time and it might be more convenient for them to shop online.

All time-related shopping variables, day of the week shopped, time of day shopped, and length of time shopped, were found to not be affected by area of residence. No matter the size of the area where one lives, all respondents preferred to shop on Saturdays which is not surprising. Area of residence was also found to not affect the amount of money spent per month.

Implications for Retail

The study focused on the affects of demographics, psychographics and geographics on time-related shopping behaviors. While time-related shopping behaviors have not been the focus of previous research, the study found that time-related shopping behaviors are worthy of study. The psychographic variables of shopping orientation, lifestyle and social class were also found to affect time-related shopping behaviors and shopping preferences. The study also found that the demographic variables of gender, ethnicity, and age affected time-related shopping behaviors and shopping preferences. Area of residence was found to only affect general preference for bricks-and-mortar stores versus online stores. Age was the only other variable in the study found to affect this preference. Area of residence seems to be less interconnected to the psychographics and demographics examined in this study.

The findings of this research can teach retailers and marketers the importance of these time-related shopping behaviors and better understand their market. Through analyzing their customer base, they can better tailor their store hours and offerings to

suit the customer's schedule and out perform their competitors. Retailers can use the shopping orientation and lifestyle findings to tailor in store events and customer service to these specific profiles. For example, retailers could focus on the showy shopper and brand loyal shopper and bring in designer trunk shows. As showy and brand loyal shoppers do not want to spend much time shopping, the trunk show should be designed for shopper flexibility to come and go as they pleased. The trunk show could also be used to encourage these shoppers to spend more money as they typically do not like to spend much money shopping for apparel. Retailers should try and find ways to increase the length of time spent shopping by men and older consumers, as men and older consumers shop quickly for apparel. Retailers could cross promote other merchandise that appeals to these markets to get these consumers in their stores for longer periods of time.

Limitations and Future Research

Although respondents in this study represented the United States population according to the 2001 Census, the sample came from an online survey company database which may have caused bias in the results. In addition, the respondents were 80.7% White. Less than one percent of the sample was Asian which did not allow for any findings to be examined for this ethnicity.

Another limitation of this study was the number of respondents categorized into social classes. Only 220 out of 550 respondents were able to be categorized into social classes using the Hollingshead Index of Social Position. This was due to the large number of respondents listing occupations of "unemployed," "retired," "stay at home parent" or "student." The questionnaire left occupation as an open-ended field allowing

the researcher the opportunity to classify occupations consistently; however the high percentage of people with unclassifiable responses was unforeseen. Future study is recommended for the variable of social class.

Also, the lifestyle instrument may not have been a good fit for the study. Only three factors were identified and only one significant relationship was found. Future research is needed with a more meaningful lifestyle instrument in order to determine the effects of lifestyle on time-related shopping behaviors.

Through examination of the time-related shopping behavior findings, it would have been worthwhile to separate the time of day question between the regular Monday through Friday work week and weekends. Having one all inclusive question about time of day may have limited the findings for this variable. Also, frequency of apparel shopping trips may have been a valuable time-related shopping variable to add. For example, Hispanics spent more time on shopping trips and spent more money than other ethnicities; did they shop at the same frequency as other ethnicities? Another suggestion for future research would be to examine religion and its impact on time-related shopping behaviors as religious affiliation may influence when people choose to shop for apparel. Future research is needed on other product categories as time-related shopping behaviors may change with product category.

APPENDIX A

LETTER FROM UNIVERSITY OF NORTH TEXAS

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

UNT
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Discover the power of ideas.

OFFICE OF THE VICE PRESIDENT FOR RESEARCH AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT
Research Services

March 18, 2010

Dr. Tammy Kinley
School of Merchandising and Hospitality Management
University of North Texas

RE: Human Subjects Application No. 10-116

Dear Dr. Kinley:

In accordance with 45 CFR Part 46 Section 46.101, your study titled "Examining the Effects of Psychographics, Demographics, and Geographics on Time-Related Shopping Behaviors" has been determined to qualify for an exemption from further review by the UNT Institutional Review Board (IRB).

No changes may be made to your study's procedures or forms without prior written approval from the UNT IRB. Please contact Jordan Smith, Research Compliance Analyst, ext. 3940, if you wish to make any such changes. Any changes to your procedures or forms after 3 years will require completion of a new IRB application.

We wish you success with your study.

Sincerely,

[redacted]

Patricia L. Kaminski, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Chair, Institutional Review Board

PK:js

1155 Union Circle #305250 | Denton, Texas 76203-5017 | TEL 940.565.3940 | FAX 940.565.4277

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

Shopping Behavior Questionnaire

Dear Participant,

The purpose of this research study is to investigate time-related shopping behavior. Your participation is entirely voluntary. Please be assured that all of your responses are anonymous, and they will be reported in the aggregate for research purposes only.

You must be 18 years of age to participate in this study. If you choose to participate, please do not provide your name or contact information because responses are anonymous. There are no foreseeable risks or discomforts in completing this survey; no questions are asked that would pose any physical, psychological, or social risks. It should take you approximately 15 minutes to complete the survey. Your completion of the survey serves as your consent to participate in the study. However, if at any time during your participation in this study you wish to stop, please feel free to do so. There are no penalties for not participating.

This project is expected to help better understand clothing consumers and their time-related shopping behaviors enabling retailers to serve your shopping desires and needs. If you have any questions or concerns about the survey, please contact the Principal Investigator, Dr. Tammy Kinley at TKinley@unt.edu or by telephone at (940) 565-4842. Thank you.

Sincerely
Tammy Kinley, Ph.D.
School of Merchandising and Hospitality Management

This research project has been reviewed and approved by the UNT Institutional Review Board. You may contact the UNT IRB at (940) 565-3940 with any questions regarding your rights as a research subject.

Please answer the questions contained in this survey based on how you feel. There are no right or wrong answers.

PART I. The questions contained in this section are to get an idea about how you like to shop. (*5-point scale strongly agree to strongly disagree. Survey was created in Zoomerang with options next to each statement*)

I feel very confident in my ability to shop for clothing
A person's reputation is affected by how she dresses
I don't like to spend too much time planning my clothing shopping
A well-known brand means good quality
Ordering of clothing at home is more convenient than going to the store
I have the ability to choose the right clothes for myself
Local clothing stores just do not meet my shopping needs
I prefer to shop at smaller strip malls and independent stores rather than malls
I think I am a good clothing shopper
I usually buy at the most convenient store
I like to be considered well-groomed
I try to stick to certain brands and stores
Dressing well is an important part of my life
Local stores offer me good quality for the price
I pay a lot more attention to clothing prices now than I ever did before
When I find what I like I usually buy it without hesitation
Local clothing stores are attractive places to shop
A person can save a lot of money by shopping around for bargains
I try to keep my wardrobe up-to-date with fashion trends
It is important to buy well-known brands for clothing

I shop where it saves me time
I enjoy shopping and walking through malls
Once I find a brand I like, I stick with it
I usually read the advertisements for announcements of sales
I don't like to shop for clothing at home through catalogs/Internet
I don't pay much attention to brand names
Shopping malls are the best place to shop

PART II. The questions contained in this section are to get an idea of your feelings and interests. (*5-point scale strongly agree to strongly disagree. Survey was created in Zoomerang with options next to each statement*)

I would be content to live in the same town the rest of my life
Men are smarter than women
I dread the future
I am an impulse buyer
The father should be the boss in the house
I wish I knew how to relax
I wish I could leave my present life and do something entirely different
A woman's place is in the home
I like to be sure to see the movies everybody is talking about
I am not very good at saving money
Children are the most important thing in a marriage
My opinions on things do not count very much
My home life is NOT chaotic
I don't know much about investing money
Men are naturally better leaders than women
I pretty much spend for today and let tomorrow bring what it will

PART III. The questions contained in this section are to get an idea of your shopping habits.

When shopping for clothing for oneself, what is the average amount of money spent per month?

_____ Less than $50
_____ $50 - $100
_____ $101 - $150
_____ $151 - $200
_____ $201 - $250
_____ $250 +

When shopping for clothing for oneself, where do you shop more frequently?

_____ Bricks-and-mortar stores
_____ Online

When shopping for clothing for oneself, where would you **prefer** to shop?

_____ Bricks-and-mortar stores
_____ Online

When shopping for clothing for oneself, when does most of your shopping take place?

_____ Monday
_____ Tuesday
_____ Wednesday
_____ Thursday
_____ Friday
_____ Saturday
_____ Sunday

When shopping for clothing for oneself, what time of day does most of your shopping take place?

_____ Morning (before 10 am)
_____ Late morning (10 am – noon)
_____ Early afternoon (noon – 2 pm)
_____ Afternoon (2 pm – 4 pm)
_____ Early evening (4 pm – 6 pm)
_____ Evening (After 6 pm)

When shopping for clothing for oneself, what is the average amount of time spent shopping?

_____ Less than 1 hour
_____ 1 – 2 hours
_____ 2 – 3 hours
_____ 4 – 5 hours

During the holidays, do you shop during "holiday hours" (extended hours- stores open earlier and/or close later)?

Yes / No

When you shop during "holiday hours," when are you most likely to shop?

_____Early hours (before the store normally opens)
_____Late hours (after the store normally closes)
_____N/A (I don't normally shop during "holiday hours")

Please explain a time where you were interested in shopping, but were unable to because the store was closed. Please address how much you were willing to spend and if you were looking for a particular item.

_____
_____
_____

PART IV. The remaining questions are asked in order to create a demographic profile of the clothing consumer.

Gender: _____Female _____Male

What is your age? _____

What is the highest level of education you have completed?

_____ High School or less
_____ Some college
_____ 2 year college degree
_____ 4 year college degree
_____ Graduate degree

What is your occupation? _____

What was your household income last year, before taxes?

_____ Less than $20,000
_____ $20,001 - $40,000
_____ $40,001 - $60,000
_____ $60,001 - $80,000
_____ $80,001 - $100,000
_____ $100,001 - $120,000
_____ $120,000+

What ethnicity best describes you?

_____ African-American
_____ White

_____ Hispanic
_____ Asian or Pacific Islander
_____ Other (specify _____)

How would you describe the area in which you live?

_____ Urban – large city
_____ Suburban – suburb of a large city
_____ Mid-size city
_____ Rural or small town
_____ Other (specify _____)

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