

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

Cheryl Cruzan Johnson for the degree of Master of Science  
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Title: Relationship Between Fashion Leadership and Apparel  
Buying Behavior Among Oregon Women

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Researchers have investigated the behavioral and demographic characteristics of fashion innovators, opinion leaders, and innovative communicators in samples drawn from populations residing outside of Oregon. Therefore, the purpose of the present study was to examine differences between innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators in a sample of Oregon women in their shopping behavior and demographic characteristics. This study was conducted in order to compare these two segments of Oregon women with samples drawn from other populations. The first objective of the study was to examine what retail outlets were patronized for apparel purchases, what form of payment was used for clothing purchases, and how much money was spent annually on these purchases by Oregon women. A second objective was to develop shopping behavior profiles

of Oregon women who were categorized as innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators.

Diffusion theory was used to explain the adoption process by consumers when adopting innovations. On the basis of their level of innovativeness, Rogers (1983) categorized individuals into one of five adopter categories: innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority, and laggards. Innovators were found to be the first in a social group to adopt an innovation, whereas early adopters were opinion leaders of innovations. Although functionally different, similarities were found in the demographic and life-style characteristics of innovators and opinion leaders. The term "innovative communicator" was used to identify individuals who simultaneously performed the role of innovator and opinion leader (Baumgarten, 1975). Life-style research examined consumer characteristics of innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators in relation to their shopping behavior.

Based on diffusion and life-style literature, a number of hypotheses were developed that examined store patronage, form of payment, annual amount spent on apparel purchases, and demographic characteristics in relation to level of fashion leadership.

Data used for this study were taken from a larger study, Agriculture Experiment Station Western Region Project W-175, that was conducted in 1987. From this questionnaire,

items that asked about retail store patronage, clothing expenditures, fashion leadership, and demographic characteristics were used for the present study. The sample consisted of 234 adult Oregon women. Subjects were classified as innovative-communicators, medium innovative communicators, or non-innovative communicators based on summed scores from the fashion innovativeness and fashion opinion leadership items from the questionnaire.

For statistical analysis, one-way analysis of variance, post-hoc analysis using the Tukey HSD test, and chi-square were performed. The .05 confidence level was selected for claims of statistical significance.

Profiles of Oregon women classified as innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators emerged relating to their shopping behavior and demographic characteristics. Women in Oregon who categorized themselves as innovative communicators had a higher household income, spent more money on apparel, always or often purchased their apparel at specialty stores, and sometimes purchased apparel at department stores. Oregon women who categorized themselves as non-innovative communicators had lower household incomes, spent less money on apparel, always or often purchased their apparel at discount stores, and sometimes purchased apparel at department stores.

In terms of shopping behavior and demographic characteristics, similarities were found between this sample of innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators and samples previously studied. Innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators among Oregon women were found to be similar to samples previously studied with regard to store patronage, clothing expenditures, and level of income. Innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators in the present sample were also similar to samples previously studied in their use of store credit cards for apparel purchases. Because of these similarities, results on profiles of innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators can be used by retailers in developing marketing strategies to fit their retail establishments.

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**Relationship Between  
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Among Oregon Women**

**By**

**Cheryl Cruzan Johnson**

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RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN  
FASHION LEADERSHIP AND APPAREL BUYING BEHAVIOR  
AMONG OREGON WOMEN

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

According to Sproles (1974, p.33), "...the more you know and understand about your customers the more effectively you can communicate and market to them." The present study investigated the differences in demographic characteristics and shopping behavior between innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators within a sample of Oregon women. The first objective of the study was to examine what retail outlets were patronized for apparel purchases, what form of payment was used for clothing purchases, and how much money was spent annually on these purchases by this sample. By examining a sample of Oregon women, the present study utilized a sample not previously investigated. Thus, this study furthers the research on characteristics and behavior of innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators.

A second objective was to develop shopping behavior profiles of Oregon women who were categorized as innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators. These profiles can be compared to profiles of innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators from other samples. In addition, these profiles may be used by retailers in Oregon for understanding these market segments.

The term "innovative communicator" stems from research testing diffusion theory. Diffusion theory has been used to explain the adoption process of new products by consumers. The fashion adoption process involves the adoption of innovative clothing items by an individual over time. Individuals proceed through the following stages when adopting a new fashion item: awareness of the innovation, interest in the innovation, evaluation of the innovation, trial, and adoption (Rogers, 1983).

Diffusion theory has also been used to explain and predict characteristics of consumers based on their level of innovativeness. Rogers (1983) categorized individuals based on their level of innovativeness. The adopter categories included innovators who were venturesome, early adopters who were respectable, early majority who were deliberate, late majority who were skeptical, and laggards who were traditional.

According to Rogers (1983), innovators were found to be the first to adopt an innovation in their peer group, whereas early adopters were opinion leaders who influenced others around them to adopt an innovation. Although innovators and early adopters apparently served distinct functions in the diffusion process, past research has shown that they possess similar life-style and demographic characteristics. Therefore, Baumgarten (1975) developed the term "innovative communicator" to describe this segment of the population who simultaneously performed the role of opinion leader and innovator. Similar to Rogers' (1962, 1983) definitions, Baumgarten (1975) and Summers (1971) considered innovators to be first adopters of an innovation, therefore serving as legitimizers of the new idea or product. Opinion leaders were considered early adopters who influenced their peer group as to whether or not to adopt an innovation.

Much of the market research conducted in the past has focused on the attitudes and behaviors of innovators (Darden & Reynolds, 1974; Mason & Bellenger, 1973-1974) and opinion leaders (Summers, 1970; Darden & Reynolds, 1972). However, Summers (1971), and Baumgarten (1975) investigated both groups together because of their overlapping characteristics. On the whole, they found that innovative communicators tended to spend more on clothing, knew more about clothing styles and brands, and owned a greater

variety of styles than did non-innovative communicators (Summers, 1971; Baumgarten, 1975).

The present study examined life-style variables that dealt with the shopping behavior of innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators. How people shop and where they shop are components of life-style because shopping for clothes is a type of behavior that is part of an overall life-style pattern. Shopping behavior also reflects attitudes toward stores and fashion as well as broader values and interests (Tatzel, 1982). When shopping for clothes, people make decisions that affect their appearance, which in turn, becomes a means for communicating their personality, attractiveness, and social roles to society (Tatzel, 1982). The shopping behavior variables included in the present study were store patronage, form of payment, and annual amount spent on apparel purchases.

The first shopping variable investigated was store patronage. Past research has concentrated on categorizing shoppers according to shopping orientations and life-style characteristics (Darden & Ashton, 1974-1975; Moschis, 1976). For example Moschis (1976) grouped consumers according to the store and product attributes they preferred. The researchers then examined the type of media used by each group. While potentially useful to general

merchandise retailers, this past research failed to measure fashion related variables.

Gutman and Mills (1982), however, examined the relationships among fashion orientation, shopping behavior, store patronage, and traditional demographic information. Their research revealed seven profiles of shoppers that could be used by retailers. The profiles included: 1) leaders who demonstrated a strong involvement with mainstream fashion looks that designers produce making them a target for clothing stores; 2) followers who emulated the leaders making them also valuable to clothing stores; 3) independents who resented having the fashion experts dictating tastes in fashion, although they were fashion aware; and 4) neutrals who neither regarded fashion as particularly important nor unimportant. The last three shopper profiles, uninvolveds, negatives, and rejectors; included individuals who had no interest in any type of fashion.

In terms of types of stores shopped in relation to level of fashion leadership, Gutman and Mills (1982) found that both leaders and followers shopped at department stores and that discount stores were patronized primarily by those who were less involved in fashion. Results of past studies also indicated that the average consumer of both department stores and off-price stores had an average to higher income and wanted the best value for their money

(Bearden, Teel, & Durand, 1978; King & Ring, 1980; Primo & Green, 1988). It appears that fashion leadership is related to store patronage. Therefore, it was predicted that there would be differences between innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators in their store patronage for purchases of clothing items. More specifically the following predictions were made: innovative communicators would purchase apparel from specialty stores more often than would non-innovative communicators, innovative communicators would not differ from non-innovative communicators in how often they purchase apparel from department stores, innovative communicators would purchase apparel from discount stores less often than would non-innovative communicators, and innovative communicators would not differ from non-innovative communicators in how often they purchase apparel from off-price stores.

The second shopping behavior variable investigated was form of payment. As of 1987, approximately 700 million consumers held credit cards issued by banks and retail establishments (Shelton, 1987). Hirschman and Goldstucker (1978) conducted a study in which they developed profiles of bank credit card holders and non-holders. The researchers found that bank card holders, both users and non-users, preferred to shop at stores which offered a large variety of merchandise. In addition, the bank card

holder/user group members were more likely to belong to a higher social status than were non-holders. The holder/non-user group members were more likely to be young, single, belong to social and recreational organizations, and possess credit cards issued by department stores.

Plummer (1971), using life-style patterns also studied bank card users and non-users. He found that credit card usage was higher among people with higher incomes, who were middle aged, were better educated, and were professionals. Because these characteristics were also found to be related to fashion leadership (Rogers, 1983), it was predicted that innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators would differ in their credit card usage. More specifically it was predicted that: innovative communicators would use store credit cards for apparel purchases more often than would non-innovative communicators, innovative communicators would use national credit cards for apparel purchases more often than would non-innovative communicators, innovative communicators would use cash for apparel purchases less often than would non-innovative communicators, and innovative communicators would use checks for apparel purchases less often than would non-innovative communicators.

The third variable investigated was the annual amount spent on clothing. Sproles (1979), found that innovative communicators (innovators and opinion leaders) were trend

setters and the first to purchase the latest styles. High annual incomes and knowledge of current fashion trends were part of the profile of fashion innovators and opinion leaders in various studies (Summers, 1970 & 1971; Mason & Bellinger, 1973-1974). Baumgarten (1975) found that, on the whole, innovative communicators spent more on clothing, and knew more about clothing styles and brands. Therefore, it was predicted that innovative communicators in this sample would also spend, on a yearly basis, more money on apparel purchases than would non-innovative communicators.

With regards to demographic variables (i.e., age, education, employment, income, and area of residence) past research has shown that innovative communicators, when compared to non-innovative communicators, were younger (Summers, 1970; Darden & Reynolds, 1974; Mason & Bellinger, 1973-1974; Baumgarten, 1975), had a higher level of education (Rogers, 1983), were employed (Rogers, 1983), had higher incomes (Rogers, 1983; Summers, 1970; Mason & Bellinger, 1973-1974), and lived in metropolitan areas (Primo & Green, 1988). For these reasons, the following predictions were made with regard to the sample of Oregon women: innovative communicators would be younger than would non-innovative communicators, innovative communicators would have a higher level of education than would non-innovative communicators, innovative communicators would be employed more often than would non-innovative

communicators, innovative communicators would have a higher level of income than would non-innovative communicators, and innovative communicators would live in metropolitan areas more often than would non-innovative communicators.

According to Sproles (1981), research on market segmentation has focused on profiling the characteristics of consumers who fall into distinct subgroups of the population. Past market segmentation studies have focused on the demographic and behavioral characteristics of fashion innovators and opinion leaders in samples drawn from areas other than Oregon. Sproles (1981), also stated that a more comprehensive profile of each segment should be developed by adding variables that relate to shopping behavior. Following what Sproles has suggested, the present study examined selected shopping behavior variables and demographic characteristics of Oregon women to determine differences between innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators in this sample. This was accomplished by investigating the types of stores Oregon women patronized, what form of payment they used to purchase clothing, and the amount of income they spent annually on apparel purchases.

### Statement of the Problem

Past research has investigated the behavioral and demographic characteristics of fashion innovators, opinion leaders, and innovative communicators in samples drawn from populations residing in areas other than Oregon. The focus of this investigation was to determine if the behavioral and demographic characteristics of innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators in a sample drawn from Oregon women were similar to those of samples drawn from other populations.

### Purpose and Research Objectives

The purpose of the present study was to examine differences between innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators in a sample of Oregon women in their shopping behavior and demographic characteristics. This was achieved in order to compare these two segments of Oregon women with samples drawn from other populations.

Therefore, the objectives of the research were:

1. To examine the types of retail outlets patronized for apparel purchases, the form of payment used for clothing purchases and the amount of money spent annually on clothing by women categorized as innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators.

2. To develop shopping behavior profiles of Oregon women who were categorized as innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators.

### Hypotheses

#### Store Patronage:

- H1 Innovative communicators will purchase apparel from specialty stores more often than will non-innovative communicators.
- H2 Innovative communicators will not differ from non-innovative communicators in how often they purchase apparel from department stores.
- H3 Innovative communicators will purchase apparel from discount stores less often than will non-innovative communicators.
- H4 Innovative communicators will not differ from non-innovative communicators in how often they purchase apparel from off-price stores.

**Form of Payment:**

H5 Innovative communicators will use store credit cards for apparel purchases more often than will non-innovative communicators.

H6 Innovative communicators will use national credit cards for apparel purchases more often than will non-innovative communicators.

H7 Innovative communicators will use cash for apparel purchases less often than will non-innovative communicators.

H8 Innovative communicators will use checks for apparel purchases less often than will non-innovative communicators.

**Annual Amount Spent on Clothing:**

H9 Innovative communicators will spend larger proportions of their annual income on apparel purchases than will non-innovative communicators.

**Demographic Characteristics:**

- H10 Innovative communicators will be younger than will non-innovative communicators.
- H11 Innovative communicators will have a higher level of education than will non-innovative communicators.
- H12 Innovative communicators will be employed more often than will non-innovative communicators.
- H13 Innovative communicators will have a higher level of income than will non-innovative communicators.
- H14 Innovative communicators will live in metropolitan areas more often than will non-innovative communicators.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The present research investigated differences in demographic characteristics and shopping behavior between innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators within a sample of Oregon women. The review of literature is organized according to the following topics: diffusion theory, characteristics of innovative communicators, and apparel shopping variables examined in the present study.

#### Diffusion Theory

##### Overview of Diffusion Theory

Diffusion theory explains the adoption of innovations or new ideas and how they are communicated to members of society. The term, "innovativeness" refers to the degree to which an individual is relatively early in adopting new ideas or products than the other members of the social system (Rogers, 1983). An individual moves from having knowledge of an innovation to forming an attitude or opinion toward the innovation and then comes to a decision of whether or not to adopt the innovation (Rogers, 1983).

Diffusion theory has been used to explain the fashion adoption process. The process of fashion adoption involves the adoption of innovative clothing items by an individual over time. Stages in the fashion adoption process include awareness of the innovation, interest in the innovation, evaluation of the innovation, trial, and adoption (Rogers, 1983). An individual first gains knowledge of an innovation, then forms an attitude or opinion toward the innovation and then comes to a decision of whether or not to adopt the innovation.

Knowledge occurs when the individual first becomes aware of the innovation. Rogers (1983) suggested several generalizations about early knowers of an innovation compared to late knowers of an innovation. Early knowers had more education, a higher social status, more exposure to both mass media and interpersonal channels of communication, and were more cosmopolitan than late knowers of an innovation. More information was obtained by the individual if (s)he was interested in the innovation. Based on the information received, the individual evaluated the innovation and formed an opinion. If possible, the individual preferred to test the innovation and then would either adopt or reject the item. For example, an individual may try on a garment before buying it.

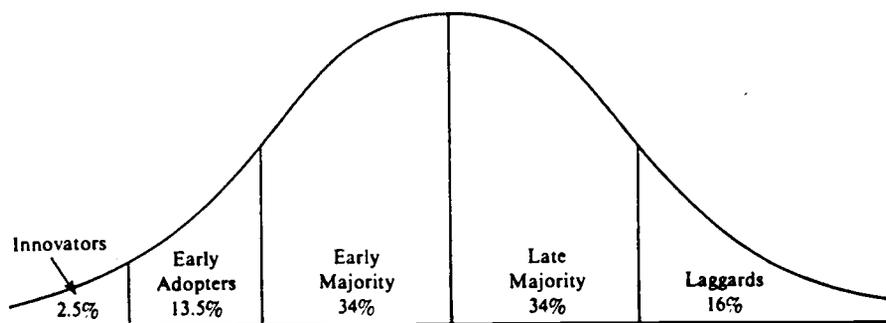
It should not be assumed that all innovations are adopted by every individual (Rogers, 1983). An individual may be aware of a recent innovation, but does not necessarily develop a positive attitude towards the new idea or product. Another reason for non-adoption may be that the individual does not regard the innovation as relevant, or potentially useful to his or her situation. Innovations that are perceived by individuals as having a greater relative advantage, compatibility, trialability, observability, and less complexity will be adopted more rapidly than other innovations (Rogers, 1983). For example, it usually takes an individual less time to adopt a new clothing trend than it takes for them to adopt a new method of measurement, such as the metric system.

Diffusion theory has also been used to predict and explain differences in individuals' characteristics based upon their rate of adoption of new ideas or trends. For example, Rogers (1983) identified five adopter categories that classify members of a social system based on their level of innovativeness: innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority, and laggards. These adopter categories are "ideal types" based on observations and Rogers (1983) suggested that these adopter categories be used for comparisons in research.

According to Rogers (1983), distribution of individuals into adopter categories follows a bell shaped curve. Within the bell curve lie five adopter categories and the percentage of adopters in each category. Rogers (1983) estimated that 2.5 percent of the population were innovators, early adopters made up 13.5 percent of the population, early majority and late majority each accounted for 34 percent of the population, and laggards made up the remaining 16 percent of the population (see Figure 1). As suggested by Rogers (1983), by combining innovators (2.5 percent) and early adopters (13.5 percent) into one group, the distribution of the population became more symmetrical for analysis purposes.

In summary, diffusion theory explains the process of adoption of innovations by different people over time. Innovativeness refers to an individual's relative speed in adopting innovations compared to other members of a social system. The present study investigated innovativeness and opinion leadership of adult Oregon women with regard to apparel fashion. In addition, the distribution curve developed by Rogers (1983) for the adopter categories was used to divide the sample used in the present study based on the subjects' levels of innovativeness and opinion leadership.

Figure 1

Distribution of Adopter Categories

Source: Rogers (1983), p.247.

Characteristics of Innovators, Opinion Leaders, and  
Innovative Communicators

Rogers (1983) was one of the original researchers of diffusion theory. He placed individuals into one of the five adopter categories based on how relatively early they adopted innovations compared to others. According to Rogers (1983), members of each category possessed specific characteristics. For example, innovators were venturesome, early adopters were respectable, early majority were deliberate, late majority were skeptical, and laggards were traditional. His research showed that level of innovativeness was positively related to level of education, cosmopolitanism, and socioeconomic status (Rogers, 1983). Innovators and early adopters also were found to have a favorable attitude towards credit and have a commercial-economic orientation. Dogmatism and fatalism were found to be negatively related to innovativeness.

Early adopters were found to function as opinion leaders for innovations. They were seen by others as competent in the area of innovations (Rogers, 1983). In addition they were a more integrated part of the local social system than innovators. Therefore potential adopters were more likely to respect early adopters' advice and information about an innovation. Because early adopters were respected by their peers, they served as agents who diffused or spread innovations among their own

social system. Thus early adopters served the function of opinion leadership within a social system.

Researchers have expanded the definitions of the innovator and the opinion leader categories from diffusion theory. Baumgarten (1975) and Summers (1971) used Rogers' adopter categories as a base for their studies. Similar to Rogers' (1962, 1983) definition, these researchers considered innovators to be the first adopters of an innovation and served as legitimizers of the new idea or product. Opinion leaders were considered early adopters who affected other individuals' decision process of whether or not to adopt an innovation.

In the area of fashion, fashion innovators and opinion leaders play a crucial role in the fashion diffusion process, the process by which fashions spread through a social system. The term "innovative communicator" was developed by Baumgarten (1975) to describe individuals who simultaneously performed the role of innovator and opinion leader.

Innovative communicators are often fashion retailers' target market. Market research has focused on understanding the attitudes and behaviors of innovative communicators by investigating the two key consumer groups that make up innovative communicators: innovators (Darden & Reynolds, 1974; Mason & Bellenger, 1973-1974) and opinion leaders (Summers, 1970; Darden & Reynolds, 1972). Because

of the overlapping characteristics of these two consumer groups, Summers (1971) and Baumgarten (1975) studied both groups.

The innovator has been recognized as one of the key actors in the diffusion process. Innovators are the first individuals in the diffusion process and set an example for others to follow. Several researchers have investigated the characteristics of innovators of various product categories. For example, Darden and Reynolds (1974) conducted a study on the diffusion process by examining multi-dimensional characteristics of male innovators, thus offering new insights into the diffusion of new products by suburban males. Interviews of 154 male heads-of-household identified selected demographic, socioeconomic, activity, and interest variables. Based upon their consumer profiles, males were categorized into four innovator groups: "suburban swinger", "established isolates", "suburban conservatives", and "established suburbans".

The "suburban swinger" scored above average on apparel innovativeness and personal grooming innovativeness while scoring below average on home care innovativeness. The consumer characteristics and media habits reinforced the image of the "suburban swinger". They were mobile, had few children, and tended to be less educated. Income was not a relevant factor, possibly because of small family size. The "suburban swinger" was also an influential member of

the community and was an above average consumer of media considered to be sources of new ideas for apparel and grooming.

"Established isolates" were the lowest of the innovator groups. Males in this group were high on home care innovativeness, but low on apparel and grooming innovativeness. They were characterized by low mobility and income, tended to be older, were above average in education, and had a number of children. They sought media offering home care information. The consumer characteristics of the "suburban conservatives" were very similar to that of the "established isolate". However, compared to the "established isolates", the "suburban consumer" had higher incomes, had increased mobility, and did not seek informational media.

The "established suburbanites" appeared to be heavy innovators for home care products. Compared to the other consumer groups they were somewhat older, less mobile, had more children, had a higher income, and looked for informational media in the area of home care. They were also considered to be opinion leaders. The data suggested that by looking at the different media habits of these consumer groups, promotion of a particular product could be placed in the proper media vehicle (Darden & Reynolds, 1974).

Mason and Bellenger (1973-1974) investigated innovators of the midi-dress style in order to broaden the knowledge of the fashion adoption process. Because of the fashion industry's promotional effort to assure the adoption of this radically different style, the midi provided the researchers an opportunity to test past generalizations relating to fashion adoption. The midi-dress style was considered radical because the length of the skirt came to a female's mid-calf whereas the accepted mini-dress style came to a female's mid-thigh. Their research was conducted to develop a socioeconomic and behavioral profile of a sample of university coeds in terms of their rate of acceptance of the midi-dress during the fall of 1970. College students were used as the sample in this study because it was felt that they portrayed changing values in the younger population.

Mason and Bellinger (1973-1974) administered random telephone surveys to 313 university coeds at a Southern college. The key dependent variable in this study was ownership or willingness to purchase a midi-dress. Independent variables consisted of demographic characteristics, mass media exposure, and involvement in women's clothing fashions.

Results of the study revealed that the highest degree of acceptance was shown by younger, unmarried, sorority members whose parents had high annual household incomes.

Not only did those who accepted the midi-dress attend fewer movies, but they also attended more fashion shows than the non-accepters (Mason & Bellenger, 1973-1974).

Researchers have also investigated the characteristics of opinion leaders. Through interpersonal communication, opinion leaders influence the behavior of their peer groups. Summers' (1970) research was designed to identify and develop a profile of womens' clothing fashion opinion leaders. A personal interview questionnaire and four seperate questionnaires were administered to a random sample to measure new product adoption behavior. Summers' research showed that opinion leaders were more self-confident, outgoing, younger, better educated, had a higher income, and were more socially active than non-leaders. They also had more exposure to media, and viewed themselves as having more knowledge of current fashion trends than their peer group (Summers, 1970).

The influence of interpersonal communication has been researched across various disciplines in relation to the adoption of new ideas. Darden and Reynolds (1972) expanded this body of knowledge by examining male clothing fashion opinion leadership. A survey was administered to 115 upper-middle class suburban males, 76 fraternity males, and 102 non-fraternity college males from the University of Georgia. The variables of fashion interest and fashion venturesomeness appeared in the regression analyses for

each sample indicating that these characteristics were evident for all groups in terms of predicting male fashion opinion leadership (Darden & Reynolds, 1972).

Although innovators and opinion leaders serve two distinct functions in the diffusion process, they possess similar demographic and behavioral characteristics.

Innovators and opinion leaders have both been shown to know more about fashion, own a greater variety of styles, spend more on clothing, be exposed to fashion related media more often, and be more aware of their appearance than non-innovators and non-opinion leaders (Darden & Reynolds, 1972 & 1974; Mason & Bellinger, 1973-1974; Summers, 1970; Baumgarten, 1975).

Because innovators and opinion leaders have similar characteristics, often they have been compared or studied as a single category. For example, Summers (1971) conducted a survey of 972 housewives, in Marion County, Indiana, to measure the number of innovative products owned by each individual and her levels of opinion leadership for these products. The products ranged from small appliances to packaged food products, and included women's clothing fashions.

The results suggested that the relationship between innovators and opinion leaders varied with different product categories. Positive relationships between innovativeness and opinion leadership were recorded for

each product category. The largest overlaps between innovators and opinion leaders occurred in product categories such as womens' clothing fashions. The lowest overlaps occurred between small and large appliances. These smaller overlaps were attributed to income constraints. Small and large appliance innovators had higher average incomes than the non-innovators.

Therefore, Summers' (1971) suggested that innovativeness may be a function of both situational variables, such as income, product involvement, and behavioral considerations. According to Summers' (1971), it may be that an individual's level of income constrained his/her ability to be innovative while his/her behavioral make-up influenced his/her tendency to be innovative.

Baumgarten (1975) further explored the overlap of innovators' and opinion leaders' characteristics by investigating the process by which men's clothing fashions were adopted and then diffused throughout the campus sub-culture. A questionnaire was administered to a random sample of 389 unmarried, male, undergraduate students at Purdue University. According to Baumgarten (1975), the innovator and early adopter were defined as those who gave the new concept or product its initial visibility and functional application. The group who presented a "peer group legitimate" evaluation of the new concept, and transmitted product information and usage experience to the

peer group culture, were referred to as opinion leaders. Because Baumgarten (1975) found an overlap between the innovators' and opinion leaders' characteristics, he developed the term "innovative communicator" to describe those who were both innovators and opinion leaders.

Fashion-oriented variables tended to be the most significant discriminators between innovative communicators and others in Baumgarten's (1975) study. On the whole, innovative communicators tended to spend more on clothing, knew more about clothing styles and brands, and owned a greater variety of styles than did non-innovative communicators. Baumgarten (1975) found these results to be consistent with Summers' (1970) research findings.

Robertson and Myers (1969) correlated personality variables with opinion leadership and innovative behavior of California housewives. Three variables were used in this study. Innovative behavior measured new product purchases, opinion leadership measured the influence opinion leaders have on purchase decisions made by others, and personality characteristics were measured with the California Psychological Inventory to measure items such as leadership, capacity for status, socialability, and self-acceptance.

Overall, correlations of personality variables with innovative behavior were low. Innovativeness in clothing did correlate somewhat with socialability. However, no

correlations were found between personality and opinion leadership. Although some relationships were found, the relationships that emerged may have questionable statistical significance (Robertson & Myers, 1969).

Therefore, the researchers suggested that a marketer who is trying to reach the innovators or influential individuals (innovative communicators), should not use basic personality variables alone to determine their market segment. It should be noted that Robertson and Myers (1969) admitted that the lack of positive relationships in this study may have resulted from the sample being drawn entirely from a middle-class neighborhood in one suburban location. This may have restricted the range of the variables, resulting in lower correlations.

However, Bruce and Witt (1970) replicated Robertson and Myers' (1969) study, except for using different questions to determine if personality could be used to categorize a housewife as an innovator or non-innovator. A positive correlation was found between basic personality variables and the degree of innovativeness.

In summary, it appears that innovators, by being the first to adopt an innovation, legitimize the innovation within a social group. Opinion leaders, or early adopters, communicate innovations to their peer group and therefore facilitate the acceptance of innovations by others.

Although these two groups serve separate functions within the fashion diffusion process, they possess similar behavioral and demographic characteristics. It has been shown that both groups tend to be interested and knowledgeable about fashion, like to view fashion-related media, are very conscious of their appearance, spend more money on clothing, have a higher income, have more education, and are younger (Baumgarten, 1975; Darden & Reynolds, 1972, 1974; Mason & Bellinger, 1973-1974; Summers, 1970, 1971; Rogers, 1962, 1983).

Because of this overlap, the term "innovative communicator" was used to describe those individuals who were both innovators and opinion leaders. This study investigated adult women in Oregon who categorized themselves as both fashion innovators and fashion opinion leaders within their social group.

#### Variables Examined

This study investigated the differences in shopping behavior and demographic variables of two market segments: innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators. The shopping behavior variables included store patronage, form of payment, and annual amount spent on clothing. The demographic variables examined included age, household

income, employment, level of education, marital status, and area of residence.

### Store Patronage and Shopping Behavior

According to Tatzel (1982), how and where people shop are components of a person's life-style. Life-style is an important concept for marketers because it helps them to understand, explain, and predict a consumer's purchasing behavior.

Life-styles are affected by culture, values, resources, and symbols which can affect purchase behavior. Marketing researchers have been interested in consumer life-styles in terms of how people identify themselves as being a part of different groups and their pattern of living. Demographic characteristics also assist retailers in predicting different dimensions of purchase behavior including form of payment, amount spent, and choice of retail establishment (Lazar, 1963).

Moschis (1976) suggested that life-style characteristics could be used to categorize shoppers by their different shopping orientations. Shoppers were categorized as: 1) "special shopper"; 2) "brand-loyal shopper"; 3) "store-loyal shopper"; 4) "problem-solver shopper", shoppers who evaluate products during the purchasing process; 5) "psycho-socializing shopper", those who tend to emulate the consumption behaviors of others;

and 6) "name-conscious shopper". It was assumed that shoppers used information differently, depending on their shopping orientations, to find out about new cosmetic products.

Results showed that there was a positive correlation between the type of media read and the type of shopper. Special and problem-solver shoppers tended to read home magazines. Brand-loyal and name-conscious shoppers preferred fashion, business, and news magazines. Both store-loyal and psycho-socializing shoppers scored low on all types of media read (Moschis, 1976).

Darden and Ashton (1974-1975) investigated two questions: 1) "are there groups of shoppers with distinctly different supermarket attribute preference profiles?"; 2) if so, "do supermarket attribute preference groups have different shopping orientations?" (Darden & Ashton, 1974-1975, p.100). To answer the above questions, information was acquired by personally interviewing 116 middle-class suburban housewives and also asking them to complete a questionnaire. The interview and questionnaire covered the following areas: 1) supermarket attributes, 2) demographic characteristics of the respondent, 3) socioeconomic attributes, and 4) shopping orientation. To develop store preference segments, supermarket preference groups status were cross-classified with each of the shopping orientations and demographic characteristics of the

respondents. Preference group status was then tested for independence with each of the life-style variables.

Their data supported the hypothesis that groups of shoppers existed with distinctly different supermarket attribute preference profiles, and that supermarket attribute preference groups had different shopping orientations. First, a hierarchal cluster analysis of the respondents in the supermarket attribute preference space revealed seven groups. Each store patronage segment was given a name to emphasize the characteristics of the customers. The seven segments with their characteristics were: 1) the "apathetic shopper" who did not express a preference for any particular store attribute; 2) the "demanding shopper" who demanded excellence on all dimensions such as competitive prices, quality products, fresh produce, convenient locations, clean facilities, and friendly personnel; 3) the "quality shopper" who demanded fresh produce and quality meat cuts; 4) the "fastidious shopper" who preferred clean facilities and a wide assortment of brands; 5) the "stamp preferrer" who not only preferred stores that offered trading stamps, but also expected quality products, competitive prices, brand variety, friendly personnel, and cleanliness; 6) the "convenient location shopper" who preferred to shop at conveniently located stores; and 7) the "stamp haters" who

actually preferred supermarkets not offering trading stamps (Darden & Ashton, 1974-1975).

In terms of shopping orientations of each segment, supermarket attribute preference groups differed more on the degree to which they shopped for specials than on any other characteristic. It should be noted that "special shoppers" sought specials at all types of retail outlets and they also preferred trading stamps. The "fastidious shopper" was found to have a higher level of self-confidence than the other segments. This trait was believed to be for the purpose of being able to perceive quality and cleanliness and to make judgments based on these perceptions (Darden & Ashton, 1974-1975). "Stamp haters" were found to be lower on opinion leadership for furniture, cake mixes, and gifts, and they tended to be less mobile than any of the other segments. Darden and Ashton (1974-1975) concluded that retail research should continue to investigate the possible existence of retail shopping segments and the dimensions of retail preferences that can be used by the retail industry in general.

A more integrative approach was suggested by Gutman and Mills (1982). They further explained the relationships among generalized fashion orientation, shopping behavior, store patronage, and traditional demographic information. Their research involved an integrative analysis of the relationships among fashion life-style, self-concept, and

demographic characteristics as they related to store patronage and shopping behavior. Seven life-style dimensions (variety, frequency, space, priority, time frame, initiative and organization) were associated with a person's shopping behavior and fashion orientation. By using this integrative approach, seven segments were revealed: 1) "leaders" who scored high on the factors of fashion leadership, interest, and importance, and low on anti-fashion attitudes; 2) "followers" who were similar to leaders except they scored lower on fashion leadership; 3) "independents" who were fashion-aware, but exhibited strong anti-fashion attitudes; 4) "neutrals" who scored average on all the fashion oriented factors; 5) "uninvolveds" who showed low desire for leadership, low interest in fashion, low importance given to fashion, and low anti-fashion attitudes; 6) "negatives" who had no desire for leadership nor interest in fashion; and 7) "rejectors" who scored the opposite of leaders showing the unimportance of fashion to them.

In terms of store patronage, the results revealed that both "leaders" and "followers" shopped at department stores. The specialty store catered to women who were more involved in fashion and were willing to spend the money needed to stay in fashion. In contrast, the discount stores were patronized primarily by those less involved in fashion.

A demographic breakdown of the fashion life-style segments was also performed. In general, the leaders were younger, had a higher level of education, had higher incomes, and were more likely to be employed than uninvolveds, negatives, and rejectors (Gutman & Mills, 1982).

The results from this survey provided the retailers from the survey area with an extensive profile of each segment. Gutman and Mills (1982) also found that retailers made use of credit card purchase information by monitoring purchases of promoted items that were charged. The researchers believed that this approach could be clarified by using life-style characteristics in addition to their regular data base.

Although the results of previous life-style research in retail settings have been interesting and promising, there are problems and some difficulties which have limited the effectiveness and managerial implementation of earlier efforts. These limitations include: definitional problems, lack of repeatability, and the lack of specificity of life-style concepts of general living patterns which are not usually directly related to specific retail buying situations (Gutman & Mills, 1982). However, life-style research has been applied to general retail studies very effectively (Moschis, 1976; Darden & Ashton, 1974-1975; Gutman & Mills, 1982).

Past research has shown that consumers have different shopping orientations based on their life-style characteristics (Moschis, 1976; Darden & Ashton, 1974-1975). Gutman and Mills (1982) further showed the types of retail stores consumers preferred for apparel purchases are based on their fashion involvement. The present study investigated where women in Oregon frequently obtained their apparel in relation to their level of fashion leadership.

#### Form of Payment

Past studies researching spending behavior primarily focused on the use of credit cards. Therefore, the following studies focus on credit card usage as a form of payment.

The "buy now - pay later" attitude has affected the American way of life. At first, credit cards were primarily used for commerce. Today they are extremely important to business, banking, and personal money management (Savage, 1970). Approximately 700 million credit cards from banks and retail establishments are held by consumers (Shelton, 1987). Feinberg (1986) found that when consumers used credit cards for purchases, they appeared to spend more and took less time to decide on the actual purchase.

Because of the increased mobility of the United States' population, regional department stores have begun to accept a variety of national credit cards, as well as, their own-issued cards. According to a study conducted by Grottke (1986), customers used credit cards as a form of payment 70 percent of the time at department stores, and 40 percent of the time at specialty stores. Customers wrote checks only 10 percent of the time at department stores and 30 percent of the time at specialty stores. The remaining form of payment used was cash. Customers used cash 20 percent of the time at department stores and 30 percent of the time at specialty stores.

Hirschman and Goldstucker (1978) conducted a study in which they developed profiles of bank credit card holders and non-holders. A third group was created by dividing the credit card holders into users and non-users. Data for the research were gathered from 504 usable questionnaires out of a total of 594 telephone interviews. Two methods of statistical analysis were used in this study. First, univariate F-tests were conducted to search for differences among the means of the three groups on each descriptive variable. Second, a discriminate analysis was used to differentiate the groups according to the descriptive variables.

Results showed that bank credit card holders/users and holders/non-users were found to carry more credit cards and to establish credit at more retail outlets than were non-holders. Further, they seemed to be from a higher social class, have higher incomes, and more years of education. With respect to the intrapersonal variables, bank card holders, both users and non-users, participated in gardening, tennis playing, play attendance, and home entertainment to a greater extent than did bank card non-holders.

In terms of interpersonal variables, the bank card holders, both users and non-users, preferred to shop at stores which offered a large variety of merchandise. Also, they showed a greater interest in credit plans available at the store than those who were bank card non-holders. In addition, the holder/user group were more likely to belong to community organizations, earn higher incomes, and belong to a higher social status than were non-holders. The holder/non-user group were more likely to be young, single, belong to social and recreational organizations, and possess credit cards issued by department stores.

Thus the holder/user group compared to the holder/non-user group apparently played an important role in disseminating fashion information to the surrounding community (Hirschman & Goldstucker, 1978). Not only did they represent an affluent market, but because of their

position in society, they were also able to spread favorable comments about the store.

Plummer (1971) used life-style patterns to study commercial bank card-users and non-users. Data for the study consisted of a nationwide survey of activities, interests, and opinions (AIO) of female and male heads of households. The study was designed to indicate the differences between heavy users and non-users of a product in terms of their life styles or their activities. Three types of information were collected in order to determine these differences. First, each respondent indicated their level of agreement along a six-point scale for each of the 300 AIO statements. Second, each person specified their "average usage" of bank charge cards. Finally, demographic characteristics from the respondents were identified. From these three sets of data, a portrait of the heavy users of credit cards was constructed using a Pearson Product Moment correlation analysis.

Findings of Plummer's (1971) study revealed that 17 percent of the life style sample were users of bank charge cards. Ten percent used their charge card less than three times in an average month, and seven percent used their card three or more times in an average month. When Plummer (1971) related credit card usage to the demographic characteristics, he found that card usage was higher among people with higher incomes and better education. The data

showed that credit card users were those who had higher incomes, were of middle age, were better educated, and were professionals. The life style data also suggested that the consumers' primary orientation towards credit cards was convenience or as a substitute for cash.

The present study investigated differences in form of payment of Oregon women based on their level of fashion leadership. Hirschman and Goldstucker's (1978) study revealed life-style and demographic profiles for bank credit card holders and non-holders. In addition, life-style patterns of commercial bank card-users and non-users were also revealed by Plummer (1971). Common demographic and behavioral characteristics revealed in both these studies were that credit card users had higher incomes, were better educated, were higher in social class, and belonged to social organizations more often than the non-users (Hirschman & Goldstucker, 1978; Plummer, 1971).

#### Annual Clothing Expenditure

Innovative communicators were defined as individuals who simultaneously performed the role of innovator and opinion leader (Baumgarten, 1975). High annual incomes and knowledge of current fashion trends were part of the profile for fashion innovators and opinion leaders in various studies (Summers, 1970, 1971; Mason & Bellinger, 1973-1974). Baumgarten (1975) found that on the whole,

innovative communicators spent more on clothing, and knew more about clothing styles and brands.

Because of these traits, they tend to be the target of many fashion retailers. According to Kron (1988), women's apparel is the biggest segment of the apparel business compared to girls', mens', and boys'. Women tend to spend more per capita on apparel than any other consumer segment and women's apparel purchases have actually increased 35 percent since 1980 (Kron, 1988). Women spent, per capita, \$699 on apparel in 1987 (U.S. Department of Commerce/Bureau of Economic Analysis, 1987).

The previous studies showed that innovators, opinion leaders, and innovative communicators were knowledgeable about fashion and did not mind spending their income on clothing purchases to maintain a fashionable image (Summers, 1970, 1971; Mason & Bellinger, 1973-1974; Baumgarten, 1975). This study examined the relationship between annual amount spent on apparel purchases by Oregon women and their level of fashion leadership.

### Summary

Diffusion theory provides an explanation of the adoption process individuals go through when adopting an innovation. An innovation is an idea, practice, or object that is perceived by an individual as new. The term

"innovativeness" refers to the degree to which individuals are relatively early in adopting new ideas or products than are others around them.

Rogers (1962, 1983) categorized individuals into one of five adopter categories based on the measure of innovativeness. The adopter categories were innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority, and laggards. Past research revealed that innovators were more cosmopolitan, possessed a higher level of income, and were risk takers. Because innovators were the first to adopt, they legitimized the innovation within their social group. Opinion leaders, or early adopters, facilitated the acceptance of an innovation within their local social system by communicating the innovation to their peer group.

Based on the fashion diffusion process, these two groups serve separate functions. However, past research has shown these groups possessed similar characteristics such as interest and knowledge about fashion, tendency to view fashion-related media, consciousness of appearance, and amount of money spent on clothing (Darden & Reynolds, 1972, 1974; Mason & Bellinger, 1973-1974; Summers, 1970; Baumgarten, 1975). Because of this overlap, Baumgarten (1975) developed the term "innovative communicators" to describe individuals who performed the role of innovator and opinion leader simultaneously.

Past market segmentation studies have focused mainly on the demographic and behavioral characteristics of fashion innovators and opinion leaders and their level of fashion involvement. This study examined the following shopping variables: store patronage, form of payment, and annual expenditures on apparel.

According to Tatzel (1982), how and where people shop are components of a person's life-style. Research that examined consumers' life-styles has found that different consumer segments exist and that they each have different shopping orientations (Moschis, 1976; Darden & Reynolds, 1974-1975; Gutman & Mills, 1982). Gutman and Mills (1982) showed a connection between types of stores patronized and level of fashion leadership. Results indicated that fashion leaders patronized specialty stores and department stores, and that uninvolveds and rejectors of fashion patronized discount stores.

Because credit cards are used frequently for purchases, the present study examined credit card usage for apparel purchases in relation to Oregon women's level of fashion leadership. Life-style research was examined to develop a profile of credit card users for the purpose of making comparisons. Similar characteristics of the credit card user were identified by Hirshman and Goldstucker (1978), and Plummer (1971); in both studies life-style research was used to develop profiles of credit card

users. Credit card users were found to have a higher level of education, higher annual incomes, higher social status, and more involvement with the community than non-users.

In terms of expenditures, innovative communicators have been found to be the first purchasers of the latest styles, have higher incomes, and spend more on apparel items than non-innovative communicators (Baumgarten, 1975; Summers, 1970; Mason & Bellinger, 1973-1974). Women tend to spend more per capita on apparel for themselves than on men, boy's, or girl's apparel (Kron, 1988). In 1987, women spent \$699 on apparel purchases (U.S. Department of Commerce/ Bureau of Economic Analysis, 1987). This study examined the annual amount spent by Oregon women on apparel in relation to their level of fashion leadership.

## CHAPTER III

### METHOD

The following discussion describes the research method used in the present study including sample selection, questionnaire development and implementation, and statistical analysis.

#### Sampling Procedure

##### Sample Selection

Data used for the study were taken from a larger study, Agriculture Experiment Station Western Region Project W-175, that was conducted in 1987 in five states (Oregon, Washington, Nevada, Colorado, and Hawaii). A systematic random sample of 750 households per state (total = 3,750) was purchased from Metromail corporation in Lincoln, Nebraska. Usable questionnaires were received from 390 men and women in Oregon. From these usable returns, a sample of 234 questionnaires that were completed by Oregon adult women was used for the study.

### Questionnaire Development

The Total Design Method (Dillman, 1978) of questionnaire construction and implementation was used for the mail questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of seven pages: a cover page and six pages of questions including questions on clothing problems, retail store patronage, clothing expenditures, fashion leadership, clothing disposal practices, and demographic characteristics. The questions that asked about retail store patronage, clothing expenditures, fashion leadership, and demographic characteristics were used for this study.

In the first question, respondents were given a list of places where they could obtain clothing (i.e., department stores, specialty stores, discount stores, off-price stores, mail-order catalogs, rummage sales, make their own, and gifts) and were asked to indicate how often they obtained their clothing from each of these places: always, often, sometimes, or never.

The next question asked the respondent to indicate how often (always, often, sometimes, or never) they used each of the following forms of payment: cash, check, national credit card, and store credit card.

The third question was used to categorize the respondent as either an innovative communicator or non-innovative communicator. The subject was asked to answer how often (always, often, sometimes or never) each of the

following items were true of them: a) "I am usually the first among my friends to try new clothing fashions", and b) "My friends regard me as a good source of advice about clothing fashions". For each item, the subject was given a score of 1 (always) through 4 (never). The subject's scores on these two items were summed together as the subject's overall fashion leadership score. The range of possible scores was 2 through 8, with 2 indicating high fashion leadership to 8 indicating low fashion leadership. Based upon a subject's summed score, each subject was categorized as an innovative communicator, medium innovative communicator, or a non-innovative communicator.

In the fourth question, "Approximately how much money did you spend on purchases of clothing and accessories for yourself last year?", respondents filled in the dollar figure of their estimated annual amount spent on clothing.

The next series of questions, used for this study, asked about demographic characteristics of the respondent including employment status, marital status, education level, household income, age, and residence. Categorical data were obtained from respondents on the following questions. "Are you currently employed full time or part time for pay?" The respondent was asked to circle either no, full time, or part time employment; and if employed, to indicate their job title and industry. "What is your

present marital status?" The respondent was asked to circle either single (never married), divorced/separated, widowed, living with a partner, or married. If living with a partner or married, the respondent was asked to circle whether his/her partner was employed full time or part time for pay. "Which of the following best describes the highest grade you have completed in school?" The respondent was asked to circle the grade completed which was on a scale from eighth grade or less through graduate school or a professional degree. "Before taxes, what was your estimate of the total combined income of your household in 1986?" The scale, which the respondents were asked to circle, started at \$10,000 or less and ended at \$70,000 or more. Respondents were asked to indicate their age on the first page of the questionnaire. A space was left blank for each respondent to fill in their age (see Appendix A).

Subjects' residences were recorded by their zip codes. Subjects were categorized as living in either metropolitan or non-metropolitan areas based on U.S. Census Bureau population data. A metropolitan area was defined by the Census Bureau as, "one of a large population nucleus, together with adjacent communities which have a high degree of economic and social integration with the nucleus" (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1988, p.872). For a region to qualify as a metropolitan statistical area (MSA), one city

or urbanized area must have a population of at least 50,000. In 1986, Oregon contained three MSA's: Salem, Eugene-Springfield, and Medford. Portland was considered a PMSA (primary metropolitan statistical area) because its population exceeded 1 million (see Table 1; U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1988). Subjects with zip codes located in a MSA or PMSA were categorized as living in a metropolitan area. All others were categorized as living in a non-metropolitan area.

The mail questionnaire was pretested by researchers in Oregon. The pretesting procedure was designed to identify any defects in the construction of the questionnaire. A pilot study (small scale survey), was conducted by researchers in Oregon. The purpose of the pilot study was to identify any problems in the sampling, implementation, coding, and data analysis procedures. Following the pretest and pilot studies, revisions were made in the questionnaire.

#### Questionnaire Implementation

The initial mailing of the questionnaire was sent to 750 potential respondents on September 14, 1987. Mailings to non-respondents one week, three weeks, and five weeks after the initial mailing comprised the follow-up sequence. The formula used to calculate the response rate was the number of questionnaires returned divided by the

Table 1

Oregon Metropolitan Data Summary for Population

<u>City / County</u>	<u>1986 Population (1,000)</u>
<b>Portland PMSA</b>	<b>1,153</b>
Clackamas County	275
Multnomah County	567
Washington County	271
Yamhill County	57
<b>Salem MSA</b>	<b>262</b>
Marion County	215
Polk County	47
<b>Eugene-Springfield MSA</b>	<b>263</b>
Lane County	263
<b>Medford MSA</b>	<b>140</b>
Jackson County	140

Note. The data are from Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1988 (108th Ed.) (pp.872-881) by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1988, Place of Publication: Washington, D.C..

number in the sample minus the non-eligible and the non-reachable subjects, multiplied by one hundred (Dillman, 1978, p.50). With this formula, the calculated response rate for Oregon was 58 percent; 390 usable questionnaires from a random sample of 750 households.

### Statistical Analysis

For analysis purposes, subjects were categorized into three groups. First, each subject's scores on the fashion innovativeness and fashion opinion leadership items were summed together creating her overall fashion leadership score. Scores ranged from 2 to 8. Based upon these scores, three levels of fashion leadership were determined by using a stem and leaf diagram. This diagram represented the bell curve used by Rogers (1983) for the categorization of individuals based upon their level of innovativeness (see Figure 1, p.18). Subjects whose fashion leadership scores were 2 through 5 were included in the "innovative communicator" category ( $n=37$ ). Subjects whose scores were 7 through 8 were included in the "non-innovative communicator" category ( $n=65$ ). Subjects whose fashion leadership score fell into the mid-range of 6, were included in the "medium innovative communicator" category ( $n=132$ ). The innovative communicator category contained 16 percent of the sample, the non-innovative communicator

category contained 28 percent of the sample, and the medium innovative communicator category contained 57 percent of the sample. Because the sample contained all three groups, they were included in the statistical analysis and the following tables. However, since past literature discussed fashion leaders and fashion followers, this study compared the innovative communicator and the non-innovative communicator categories.

Categorical data were collected for the store patronage, form of payment, education, employment, income, and area of residence variables, therefore chi square tests were used to compare the percentages between innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators for each variable. Because continuous data were collected for the variables age and amount spent on clothing, one-way analysis of variance tests were run in order to compare the means of the three groups. The .05 confidence level was selected for claims of statistical significance.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine differences between innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators in a sample of Oregon women in their shopping behavior and demographic characteristics. This study was conducted in order to compare these two segments of Oregon women with samples drawn from other populations. The study examined fashion leadership of Oregon women and its relationship to the following: where Oregon women shopped, what form of payment Oregon women used to purchase clothing, and how much Oregon women spent annually on clothing. Demographic characteristics of Oregon women were also examined to determine if items such as age, education, employment, income, and area of residence were related to their level of fashion leadership. The presentation of findings and hypothesis testing has been organized to address these objectives. The sections of this chapter include sample description, findings related to store patronage, findings related to form of payment used, findings related to amount spent on apparel purchases, and findings related to demographic characteristics.

### Sample Description

The sample for this study consisted of 234 adult women from Oregon. The sample respondents ranged in age from 18 to 89 years. The mean age of the respondents was 48.8 years old.

Thirty-two percent of the respondents had at least a high school education. The largest percentage of respondents had some college (35 percent). Respondents that held a college degree were the smallest group (31 percent; see Table 2).

Of the 234 respondents, 44 percent were not employed. Of those who were employed, 36 percent were employed full time and 19 percent were employed part time. The U.S. Department of Commerce occupational classifications were used to categorize the respondents based on their job titles. Twenty-seven percent of those employed full-time and 20 percent of those employed part-time were employed in professional and technical occupations (computer specialists, lawyers, teachers, physicians, health practitioners, writers). Twenty-one percent of those employed full-time and 7 percent of those employed part-time were employed as managers and administrators. Five percent of those employed full-time and 25 percent of those employed part-time were employed in sales positions

Table 2

Percentage Breakdown of Sample Demographic Characteristics  
as Compared to 1980 Census Data for Oregon

<u>Age</u>	<u>Sample</u>	<u>Census</u>
9 years and under	0%	14%
10-19 years	1%	15%
20-29 years	10%	18%
30-39 years	23%	15%
40-49 years	21%	10%
50-59 years	13%	10%
60-69 years	19%	9%
over 70 years	13%	9%
<u>Education</u>		
High School Degree	32%	41%
Some Higher Education	35%	29%
College Degree	31%	30%
No Response	2%	0%
<u>Employment</u>		
Not Employed	44%	50%
Employed <sup>a</sup>	55%	50%
No Response	1%	0%
<u>Household Income</u>		
\$19,999 and Under	36%	59%
\$20,000 to \$49,999	44%	37%
\$50,000 or More	12%	4%
No Response	8%	0%
<u>Marital Status</u>		
Married	65%	59%
Not Married	35%	41%
No Response	1%	0%
<u>Area of Residence</u>		
Metropolitan	54%	65%
Non-Metropolitan	46%	35%

Note.

a

Employed includes part and full-time.

(manufacturing, wholesale, retail). Twenty-four percent of those employed full-time and 20 percent of those employed part-time were employed in clerical positions (bank tellers, cashiers, office machine operators, secretary). Four percent of those employed full-time and 5 percent of those employed part-time were employed as craftspeople (carpenters, decorators, electricians, bakers). Two percent of those employed full-time and 5 percent of those employed part-time were employed as operatives (assemblers, mechanics, precision machine operatives, textile operatives). Two percent of those employed part-time were employed in transportation (bus drivers, truck drivers). Two percent of those employed full-time were employed as laborers (animal caretakers, groundskeepers, stockhandlers). Eight percent of those employed full-time and 7 percent of those employed part-time were employed as service workers (cleaning service, food service, health service, personal service, protective service). Five percent of those employed full-time and 5 percent of those employed part-time were employed as private household workers (child care, cooks, housekeepers, maids). Two percent of each group (i.e. full-time and part-time) did not list their occupation (see Table 2).

Thirty-six percent of the subjects were in the \$19,999 and under income bracket, while 12 percent of the respondents were in the \$50,000 or more income bracket.

Respondents in the \$20,000 to \$49,999 income bracket were the largest group at 44 percent (see Table 2).

In reference to marital status, which could have had an effect on their household income regardless of employment status, 65 percent of the respondents were married compared to 35 percent of the respondents who were either single, divorced/separated, or widowed. Forty-six percent of the subjects' partners were employed full-time, 3 percent part-time, and 23 percent were not employed. The no response category was 28 percent (see Table 2).

With the use of the respondents zip codes, the sample was split into two groups (i.e., metropolitan and non-metropolitan) based on U.S. Census Bureau population data (see Table 1, p.50). Fifty-four percent of the subjects lived in metropolitan regions and the remaining 46 percent lived in non-metropolitan regions (see Table 2).

The demographic characteristics of the sample were compared to the 1980 Census data for the state of Oregon. For comparison purposes, Table 2 shows the percentage breakdown of the sample and of Oregon for age, education, employment, household income, marital status, and area of residence. In general, the sample was very similar to the census data. However, compared to the census data the sample had a greater percentage of individuals 30 years and older, of individuals who had continued education beyond high school, of households that had incomes of \$20,000 and

greater, and of individuals who were married (see Table 2). These differences need to be taken into consideration when generalizing the results to residents of Oregon.

For analysis purposes, scores on fashion innovativeness, and fashion opinion leadership items were summed together creating the subject's overall fashion leadership score. Scores ranged from 2 to 8. Based on these self-descriptive scores, subjects were categorized into one of three groups: innovative communicators, medium innovative communicators, or non-innovative communicators. The purpose of this study was to compare the innovative communicator and the non-innovative communicator categories.

#### Findings Related to Store Patronage

The hypotheses relating to store patronage include: Hypothesis 1, innovative communicators would purchase apparel from specialty stores more often than would non-innovative communicators; Hypothesis 2, innovative communicators would not differ from non-innovative communicators in how often they purchased apparel from department stores; Hypothesis 3, innovative communicators would purchase apparel from discount stores less often than would non-innovative communicators; and Hypothesis 4, innovative communicators would not differ from non-

innovative communicators in how often they purchased apparel from off-price stores. Each of these hypotheses was confirmed.

Chi-square tests were performed on each store type to assess any significant differences between innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators in their choice of stores for the purchase of apparel items. Because cell counts were less than 5 in the "always" response column for each type of store, the "always" and "often" columns were collapsed into one column for each analysis.

The results of the chi-square test for the specialty store indicated that there were significant differences among the three fashion leadership groups ( $\chi^2(6, N = 234) = 28.77, p < .001$ ). Comparison of the percentages revealed that 51 percent of innovative communicators always or often purchased apparel at specialty stores compared to 31 percent of non-innovative communicators who always or often purchased apparel at specialty stores (see Table 3).

Results of the chi-square test for the department store category showed that there were no significant differences among the three fashion leadership groups, ( $\chi^2(6, N = 234) = 4.12, p > .05$ ). The proportion of responses by the subjects were similar for each type of response possible (i.e. always or often, sometimes, and never; see Table 4).

Table 3

Percentages of Respondents by Fashion  
Leadership for Specialty Store Patronage

<u>Fashion Leadership</u>	<u>Extent of Specialty Store Patronage</u>				<u>Row Total n</u>
	<u>Always<sup>d</sup> Row %</u>	<u>Sometimes Row %</u>	<u>Never Row %</u>	<u>No Response Row %</u>	
<sup>a</sup> IC	51	30	19	0	37
<sup>b</sup> NIC	31	40	20	9	65
<sup>c</sup> MIC	17	34	44	5	132

Note.<sup>a</sup>

IC = Innovative Communicator

<sup>b</sup>

NIC = Non-Innovative Communicator

<sup>c</sup>

MIC = Medium Innovative Communicators

<sup>d</sup>

Always category includes Always and Often responses.

$$\chi^2(6, N = 234) = 28.77, p < .001$$

Table 4

Percentages of Respondents by Fashion  
Leadership for Department Store Patronage

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<u>Fashion Leadership</u>	<u>Extent of Department Store Patronage</u>				<u>Row Total n</u>
	<u>Always<sup>d</sup> Row %</u>	<u>Sometimes Row %</u>	<u>Never Row %</u>	<u>No Response Row %</u>	
<sup>a</sup> IC	38	51	8	3	37
<sup>b</sup> NIC	37	52	5	6	65
<sup>c</sup> MIC	40	53	5	2	132

---

Note.<sup>a</sup>

IC = Innovative Communicator

<sup>b</sup>

NIC = Non-Innovative Communicator

<sup>c</sup>

MIC = Medium Innovative Communicator

<sup>d</sup>

Always category includes Always and Often responses.

 $\chi^2(6, N = 234) = 4.12, p > .05$

Results of the chi-square test for discount stores indicated that there were significant differences among the three fashion leadership groups ( $\chi^2(6, N = 234) = 13.48, p < .05$ ). Comparison of the percentages showed that 22 percent of innovative communicators always or often purchased apparel at discount stores compared to 26 percent of non-innovative communicators (see Table 5).

Finally, the results of the chi-square test for the off-price store revealed that there were no significant differences among the fashion leadership groups ( $\chi^2(6, N = 234) = 4.42, p > .05$ ). A comparison of percentages showed that 11 percent of the innovative communicators compared to 6 percent of the non-innovative communicators always or often purchased their apparel at off-price stores. The proportion of respondents for all three subject groups in the never column, meaning that they did not purchase apparel at off-price stores, was high. Forty-nine percent of the innovative communicators never purchased apparel at off-price stores compared to 45 percent of the non-innovative communicators and 58 percent of the medium innovative communicators who never purchased apparel at off-price stores (see Table 6).

Table 5

Percentages of Respondents by Fashion  
Leadership for Discount Store Patronage

<u>Fashion Leadership</u>	<u>Extent of Discount Store Patronage</u>				<u>Row Total n</u>
	<u>Always</u> <sup>d</sup> <u>Row %</u>	<u>Sometimes</u> <u>Row %</u>	<u>Never</u> <u>Row %</u>	<u>No Response</u> <u>Row %</u>	
<sup>a</sup> IC	22	38	35	5	37
<sup>b</sup> NIC	26	51	20	3	65
<sup>c</sup> MIC	41	41	16	2	132

Note.<sup>a</sup>

IC = Innovative Communicator

<sup>b</sup>

NIC = Non-Innovative Communicator

<sup>c</sup>

MIC = Medium Innovative Communicator

<sup>d</sup>

Always category includes Always and Often responses.

 $\chi^2(6, N = 234) = 13.48, p < .05$

Table 6

Percentage of Respondents by Fashion  
Leadership for Off-Price Store Patronage

<u>Fashion Leadership</u>	<u>Extent of Off-Price Store Patronage</u>				<u>Row Total n</u>
	<u>Always<sup>d</sup> Row %</u>	<u>Sometimes Row %</u>	<u>Never Row %</u>	<u>No Response Row %</u>	
<sup>a</sup> IC	11	32	49	8	37
<sup>b</sup> NIC	6	40	45	9	65
<sup>c</sup> MIC	6	30	58	6	132

Note.<sup>a</sup>

IC = Innovative Communicator

<sup>b</sup>

NIC = Non-Innovative Communicator

<sup>c</sup>

MIC = Medium Innovative Communicator

<sup>d</sup>

Always category includes Always and Often responses.

 $\chi^2(6, N = 234) = 4.42, p > .05$

### Findings Related to Form of Payment

The hypotheses relating to form of payment included: Hypothesis 5, innovative communicators would use store credit cards for apparel purchases more often than would non-innovative communicators; Hypothesis 6, innovative communicators would use national credit cards for apparel purchases more often than would non-innovative communicators; Hypothesis 7, innovative communicators would use cash for apparel purchases less often than would non-innovative communicators; and Hypothesis 8, innovative communicators would use checks for apparel purchases less often than would non-innovative communicators. Store credit card usage for apparel was the only hypothesis confirmed.

Chi-square tests were performed on each form of payment item (i.e., cash, check, national credit card, and store credit card) to assess any significant differences between innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators in the form of payment used to purchase apparel. Because the number of responses in the always column were less than five, the "always" and "often" columns were collapsed into one column for analysis of each item (i.e., cash, check, national credit, and store credit).

Results of the chi-square test for the use of cash to purchase apparel items showed that the groups did not differ significantly, ( $\chi^2(6, N = 234) = 9.10, p > .05$ ; see Table 7).

The results of the chi-square test for check usage indicated no significant differences among the three groups ( $\chi^2(6, N = 234) = 2.80, p > .05$ ). Comparison of the percentages showed that innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators were similar in their usage of checks as a form of payment for apparel (see Table 8).

The results of the chi-square test for national credit card usage for the purchase of apparel items found no significant differences between the groups, ( $\chi^2(6, N = 234) = 11.57, p > .05$ ). Comparison of percentages indicated that the the three fashion leadership groups were similar in their use of national credit cards for their purchases (see Table 9).

Results of the chi-square test for store credit card usage for purchasing items of apparel indicated significant differences existed between the groups ( $\chi^2(6, N = 234) = 12.25, p < .05$ ). Comparison of percentages indicated that 46 percent of innovative communicators always or often used store credit cards as compared to 28 percent of non-innovative communicators who used store credit cards for their purchases (see Table 10).

Table 7

Percentages of Respondents by Fashion  
Leadership for Using Cash as Form of Payment

<u>Fashion Leadership</u>	<u>Extent of Cash as Form of Payment</u>				<u>Row Total n</u>
	<u>Always<sup>d</sup> Row %</u>	<u>Sometimes Row %</u>	<u>Never Row %</u>	<u>No Response Row %</u>	
<sup>a</sup> IC	68	24	0	8	37
<sup>b</sup> NIC	49	35	8	8	65
<sup>c</sup> MIC	56	37	2	5	132

Note.<sup>a</sup>

IC = Innovative Communicator

<sup>b</sup>

NIC = Non-Innovative Communicator

<sup>c</sup>

MIC = Medium Innovative Communicator

<sup>d</sup>

Always category includes Always and Often responses.

 $\chi^2(6, N = 234) = 9.10, p > .05$

Table 8

Percentages of Respondents by Fashion  
Leadership for Using Check as Form of Payment

<u>Fashion Leadership</u>	<u>Extent of Check as Form of Payment</u>				<u>Row Total n</u>
	<u>Always<sup>d</sup> Row %</u>	<u>Sometimes Row %</u>	<u>Never Row %</u>	<u>No Response Row %</u>	
<sup>a</sup> IC	57	30	5	8	37
<sup>b</sup> NIC	61	32	3	4	65
<sup>c</sup> MIC	64	25	5	6	132

Note.<sup>a</sup>

IC = Innovative Communicator

<sup>b</sup>

NIC = Non-Innovative Communicator

<sup>c</sup>

MIC = Medium Innovative Communicator

<sup>d</sup>

Always category includes Always and Often responses.

 $\chi^2(6, N = 234) = 2.80, p > .05$

Table 9

Percentages of Respondents by Fashion Leadership  
for Using National Credit as Form of Payment

<u>Fashion Leadership</u>	<u>Extent of National Credit as Form of Payment</u>				<u>Row Total</u> <u>n</u>
	<u>Always</u> <sup>d</sup> <u>Row %</u>	<u>Sometimes</u> <u>Row %</u>	<u>Never</u> <u>Row %</u>	<u>No Response</u> <u>Row %</u>	
<sup>a</sup> IC	32	30	24	14	37
<sup>b</sup> NIC	19	35	37	9	65
<sup>c</sup> MIC	14	40	41	5	132

Note.<sup>a</sup>

IC = Innovative Communicator

<sup>b</sup>

NIC = Non-Innovative Communicator

<sup>c</sup>

MIC = Medium Innovative Communicator

<sup>d</sup>

Always category includes Always and Often responses.

 $\chi^2(6, N = 234) = 11.57, p > .05$

Table 10

Percentages of Respondents by Fashion Leadership  
for Using Store Credit as Form of Payment

<u>Fashion Leadership</u>	<u>Extent of Store Credit as Form of Payment</u>				<u>Row Total</u> <u>n</u>
	<u>Always</u> <sup>d</sup> <u>Row %</u>	<u>Sometimes</u> <u>Row %</u>	<u>Never</u> <u>Row %</u>	<u>No Response</u> <u>Row %</u>	
<sup>a</sup> IC	46	27	24	3	37
<sup>b</sup> NIC	28	28	35	9	65
<sup>c</sup> MIC	21	38	36	5	132

Note.

a

IC = Innovative Communicator

b

NIC = Non-Innovative Communicator

c

MIC = Medium Innovative Communicator

d

Always category includes Always and Often responses.

 $\chi^2(6, N = 234) = 12.25, p < .05$

### Findings Related to Annual Amount Spent

Hypothesis 9 stated that innovative communicators would spend more money on apparel purchases than would non-innovative communicators. This hypothesis was confirmed.

To test the relationship between fashion leadership and the amount of money spent on apparel purchases during the last year, a one-way analysis of variance test was performed.

Results of the one-way analysis of variance test indicated that the fashion leadership groups differed significantly on the amount spent on annual apparel purchases ( $F(2) = 6.83, p < .001$ ; see Table 11). Using the Tukey HSD test to compare groups means it was found that, as predicted, innovative communicators reported spending significantly more of their money on clothing ( $M = \$675.68$ ) than non-innovative communicators ( $M = \$463.33$ ; see Table 12).

### Findings Related to Demographic Characteristics

#### Age

Hypothesis 10 stated that innovative communicators would be younger than would non-innovative communicators. This hypothesis was not confirmed.

Table 11

Analysis of Variance for Yearly Expenditures of  
Apparel by Fashion Leadership

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F
Between Groups	2	3342722.00	1671361.1	6.83**
Within Groups	231	56532706.00	244730.3	

\*\*p<.001

Table 12

Mean Yearly Expenditures on Apparel by Fashion Leadership


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<u>Fashion Leadership</u>	<u>Yearly Expenditures</u>			
	<u>n</u>	<u>M\$</u>	<u>Sd</u>	<u>Range\$</u>
Innovative Communicator	37	676	648	0 - 3,000
Non-Innovative Communicator	65	463	508	0 - 4,000
Medium Innovative Communicator	132	341	428	0 - 2,000
<b>Total</b>	<b>234</b>	<b>428</b>	<b>506</b>	<b>0 - 4,000</b>

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p&lt;.001

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to determine differences among the fashion leadership groups in regard to age. Results of the one-way analysis of variance test indicated that innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators were not significantly different in age ( $F(2) = 1.51, p > .05$ ; see Table 13). The mean age for innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators were similar ( $M = 51.08$  and  $49.67$  respectively; see Table 14).

### Education

Hypothesis 11 stated that innovative communicators would have a higher level of education than would non-innovative communicators. This hypothesis was not confirmed.

To determine differences among fashion leadership groups in their level of education, a chi-square test was conducted. The results of the test showed that there were no significant differences among the three groups, ( $\chi^2(4, N = 234) = 1.37, p > .05$ ). Comparison of the percentages revealed that innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators were similar in their education levels. Comparison of the percentages showed that 35 percent of innovative communicators had some college compared to 37 percent of non-innovative communicators who had some college. For subjects who held a college degree, 38

Table 13

Analysis of Variance for Respondents' Age  
by Fashion Leadership

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F
Between Groups	2	840.81	420.41	1.51
Within Groups	231	64494.34	279.20	

$p > .05$

Table 14

Mean Age of Respondents by Fashion Leadership

<u>Fashion Leadership</u>	<u>Age</u>			
	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>Sd</u>	<u>Range</u>
Innovative Communicator	37	51	16	24 - 84
Non-Innovative Communicator	132	50	16	24 - 89
Medium Innovative Communicator	65	46	18	18 - 73
<b>Total</b>	<b>234</b>	<b>49</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>18 - 89</b>

p&gt;.05

percent of innovative communicators compared to 29 percent of non-innovative communicators held a degree (see Table 15).

### Employment

Hypothesis 12 stated that innovative communicators would more likely be employed than would non-innovative communicators. This hypothesis was not confirmed.

A chi-square test was conducted to assess the differences between innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators for their employment status (i.e. unemployed, part-time employment, or full-time employment). No significant differences were found among the three groups and their status of employment ( $\chi^2(6, N = 234) = 6.96, p > .05$ ). However, a lower percentage of innovative communicators were not employed (38 percent) compared to non-innovative communicators (45 percent). For part-time employment, innovative communicators made up 24 percent of this group while non-innovative communicators made up 20 percent. The full-time employment category contained 38 percent of the innovative communicators compared to 32 percent of the non-innovative communicators. (see Table 16).

Table 15

Percentage of Respondents by Fashion  
Leadership for Level of Education

<u>Fashion Leadership</u>	<u>Level of Education</u>				<u>Row Total n</u>
	<u>High School Row %</u>	<u>Some College Row %</u>	<u>Held Degree Row %</u>	<u>No Response Row %</u>	
a IC	27	35	38	0	37
b NIC	33	37	29	3	65
c MIC	36	34	30	2	132

Note.

a  
IC = Innovative Communicator

b  
NIC = Non-Innovative Communicator

c  
MIC = Medium Innovative Communicator

$\chi^2(4, N = 234) = 1.37, p > .05$

Table 16

Percentages of Respondents by Fashion  
Leadership for Level of Employment

<u>Fashion Leader- ship</u>	<u>Level of Employment</u>				<u>Row Total n</u>
	<u>Not Employed Row %</u>	<u>Full Time Row %</u>	<u>Part Time Row %</u>	<u>No Response Row %</u>	
<sup>a</sup> IC	38	38	24	0	37
<sup>b</sup> NIC	45	32	20	3	65
<sup>c</sup> MIC	45	36	17	2	132

Note.<sup>a</sup>

IC = Innovative Communicator

<sup>b</sup>

NIC = Non-Innovative Communicator

<sup>c</sup>

MIC = Medium Innovative Communicator

 $\chi^2(6, N = 234) = 6.96, p > .05$

### Income

Hypothesis 13 stated that innovative communicators would have a higher level of income than would non-innovative communicators. This hypothesis was confirmed.

To determine the significance of differences among the fashion leadership groups in their annual income, a chi-square test was performed. The result of the chi-square test indicated that the groups were significantly different ( $\chi^2(6, N = 234) = 18.64, p < .001$ ). Comparison of the percentages indicated that the majority of respondents fell in the \$20,000 to \$49,000 income bracket with 48 percent innovative communicators and 45 percent non-innovative communicators. In the \$50,000 or more income bracket, 22 percent of the respondents were innovative communicators and 12 percent were non-innovative communicators. The under \$19,999 income bracket showed that 11 percent of the innovative communicators were in this category compared to 35 percent of the non-innovative communicators who were also in this category (see Table 17).

### Area of Residence

Hypothesis 14 stated that innovative communicators would more likely live in metropolitan areas than would non-innovative communicators. This hypothesis was not confirmed.

Table 17

Percentage of Respondents by Fashion  
Leadership for Level of Income

<u>Fashion Leadership</u>	<u>Level of Income</u>				
	<u>Under 19,999 Row %</u>	<u>20,000 to 49,999 Row %</u>	<u>50,000 or More Row %</u>	<u>No Response Row %</u>	<u>Row Total n</u>
a IC	11	48	22	19	37
b NIC	35	45	12	8	65
c MIC	43	42	10	5	132

Note.

a  
IC = Innovative Communicator

b  
NIC = Non-Innovative Communicator

c  
MIC = Medium Innovative Communicator

$\chi^2(6, N = 234) = 18.64, p < .001$

Population divisions were based on U.S. Census Bureau population data. Respondents were placed into either the metropolitan category or non-metropolitan category based on their residential zip code. According to the Census Bureau (1988), a metropolitan region is one city that has a population exceeding 50,000 inhabitants or an urbanized area of at least 50,000 people. Three MSA's (metropolitan statistical area) were located in Oregon: Salem, Eugene-Springfield, and Medford. The Portland area was considered a PMSA (primary metropolitan statistical area) because the population exceeded 1 million (see Table 1, p.50).

A chi-square test was run to assess any significant differences among the fashion leadership groups in relation to where they lived in Oregon (i.e. metropolitan or non-metropolitan). No significant differences were found ( $\chi^2(2, N= 234) = 1.77, p>.05$ ). However, results did indicate that 62 percent of the innovative communicators lived in metropolitan areas compared to 57 percent of the non-innovative communicators (see Table 18).

Table 18

Percentages of Respondents by Fashion  
Leadership for Residence

<u>Fashion Leadership</u>	<u>Residence</u>		<u>Row Total n</u>
	<u>Metropolitan Row %</u>	<u>Non Metropolitan Row %</u>	
<sup>a</sup> IC	62	38	37
<sup>b</sup> NIC	57	43	65
<sup>c</sup> MIC	51	49	132

Note.

<sup>a</sup>  
IC = Innovative Communicator

<sup>b</sup>  
NIC = Non-Innovative Communicator

<sup>c</sup>  
MIC = Medium Innovative Communicators

$\chi^2(2, N = 234) = 1.77, p > .05$

## Chapter V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate differences between innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators in their shopping behavior and demographic characteristics. The first objective of the study was to examine what retail outlets were used for purchasing apparel, what form of payment was used for clothing purchases, and how much money was spent annually on these purchases by Oregon women categorized as innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators. The second objective was to develop shopping behavior profiles based on these results. The present study adds to past research on fashion leadership by examining a sample that has not been previously studied.

Data for the study were obtained through the use of a questionnaire developed as part of the Agriculture Experiment Station Western Region Project W-175 that was conducted in 1987 in five states (Oregon, Washington, Nevada, Colorado, and Hawaii). A systematic random sample of 750 households was drawn for this study. Oregon

received 390 usable returns from both men and women. Because this study was examining the shopping behavior and demographics of women only, 234 usable questionnaires completed by women were drawn from the larger sample to be included in this study.

For the present study, items from the questionnaire that pertained to the objectives were analyzed. First, each respondent was asked to indicate how often they frequented different types of stores for the purchase of clothing (department stores, specialty stores, discount stores, and/or off-price stores) by circling always, often, sometimes, or never.

Next, they were asked to indicate how often they used each of the following forms of payment by circling always, often, sometimes, or never: cash, check, national credit card, and/or store credit card. The next question asked the respondent to record the amount spent on clothing and accessories for themselves annually. Several questions were used to obtain demographic information regarding age, income, education, employment, and area of residence of respondents.

Two items were used for the purpose of placing the respondent into innovative communicator, medium innovative communicator, or non-innovative communicator categories. Scores on the fashion innovativeness and opinion leadership questions were summed together. Percentage distributions

from Rogers (1983) bell shaped curve were used to categorized the respondents into one of three fashion leadership groups (see Figure 1, p.18). Individuals with scores from 2 through 5 were considered "innovative communicators" ( $n=37$ ), and individuals with scores from 7 through 8 were considered "non-innovative communicators" ( $n=65$ ). The term "medium innovative communicator" was used for the majority of individuals who fell in the mid-range with a score of 6 ( $n=132$ ). Since this study was interested in differences between innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators, medium innovative communicators were not included in the discussion of the results.

The fashion leadership variable had three levels; innovative communicator, medium innovative communicator, and non-innovative communicator. The shopping behavior variables were store patronage, form of payment used for clothing purchases, and amount spent on clothing. Demographic variables were also examined. To analyze the data, one-way analysis of variance tests using the Tukey HSD post hoc test and chi-square tests were conducted. The .05 confidence level was selected for claims of statistical significance.

The first set of hypotheses pertaining to store patronage were confirmed. Gutman and Mills (1982) found that fashion leaders patronized specialty stores more often and discount stores less often than followers. Results

from the present study supported Gutman and Mills (1982) by finding more innovative communicators purchased clothing at specialty stores (i.e., Nordstrom or Jay Jacob) and less purchased clothing at discount stores (i.e., Fred Meyer or K-Mart) than did non-innovative communicators. The results also support King and Ring's (1980) research that indicated 34 percent of specialty store patrons were fashion and opinion leaders and 29 percent of discount store patrons were not at all interested in fashion.

There were no significant differences between the innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators in purchasing clothing at department stores (i.e., The Bon or J.C. Penney), or at off-price stores (i.e., Ross', Marshall's, or The Rack) stores. Past research indicated that the average consumer of both department stores and off-price stores has an average to higher income and wants the best value and quality for his/her money (Bearden, Teel, & Durand, 1978; Gutman & Mills, 1982; King & Ring, 1980; Primo & Green, 1988). Interestingly, 53 percent of the respondents recorded that they never purchase apparel at off-price outlets. It could have been that the respondents did not understand the term "off-price". It also could have been that since off-price stores are located in metropolitan areas, those that lived outside of metropolitan areas did not have access to these stores.

The second set of hypotheses relating to form of payment were only confirmed for store credit card usage. Results revealed significant differences between innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators for store credit card usage as a form of payment for apparel. Innovative communicators used store credit more often than non-innovative communicators. No differences were found between the groups for usage of cash, check, or national credit card to purchase apparel. These findings contradict, to some extent, those of previous studies. Past studies have found that fashion leaders tended to use both national and store credit cards more frequently for their purchases than fashion followers who used cash or check more often (Hirshman & Goldstucker, 1978; Plummer, 1971). Evidently, the use of cash and checks for clothing purchases is generally common within this sample of Oregon women (56 percent used cash and 62 percent used checks). Plummer's (1971) study did note that credit card usage was a convenient substitute for cash which might explain the similar use of national credit cards by the subject groups.

The results confirmed the ninth hypothesis. Differences did exist among the innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators in relation to how much they spent annually on apparel. According to this study, innovative communicators spent more ( $\bar{M}$  = \$675.68) on apparel purchases than did non-innovative communicators ( $\bar{M}$

= \$463.33). Baumgarten (1975) also stated that innovative communicators tended to spend more on clothing than non-innovative communicators. Overall, Oregon women in this sample spent less on apparel purchases than the national average. The national average expenditure for clothing per person is \$699 (U.S. Department of Commerce/ Bureau of Economic Analysis, 1987). It should be noted, however, that the data on amount spent may not have had a high degree of accuracy. Respondents were asked to recall how much money they had spent the past year on clothing and accessories. Some respondents may not have known exactly how much they had spent on clothing in the past year, and therefore reported estimated amounts.

The last set of hypotheses relating to demographic characteristics were only confirmed for income. Results revealed significant differences between innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators in relation to their incomes, but not in relation to their age, employment, education or area of residence. Past studies showed that differences existed between fashion leaders and fashion followers regarding these factors with the leaders being of a younger age (Summers, 1970; Darden & Reynolds, 1974; Mason & Bellinger, 1973; Baumgarten, 1975), having a higher income (Rogers, 1983; Summers, 1970; Mason & Bellinger, 1973), being employed (Rogers, 1983), having a higher education (Rogers, 1983), and residing in higher

populated areas (Rogers, 1983). Results from the present study showed that innovative communicators in this sample had a higher annual income than non-innovative communicators. Although not significant, a higher percentage (62 percent) of innovative communicators resided in metropolitan regions than did non-innovative communicators (38 percent). Because the other factors were not significant, it appears that women in Oregon who are fashion leaders have somewhat different demographic profiles than fashion leaders in other samples.

### Conclusions

Profiles of Oregon women who were innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators were developed for retailers' use. Previous studies have investigated buying behavior and demographic characteristics of subjects in a variety of geographic locations. For example, researchers have surveyed subjects that resided in college towns (Mason & Bellinger, 1973-1974; Feinberg, 1986; Baumgarten, 1975), in cities not located in Oregon (Hirschman & Goldstucker, 1978; Darden & Reynolds, 1974; Summers, 1971; Moschis, 1976; Darden & Ashton, 1974-1975), and in nation wide surveys (Plummer, 1971). This researcher replicated past studies on fashion leadership by examining subjects from the state of Oregon

to determine if this sample population was similar or different to those investigated in previous research.

In general, compared to Oregon Census data, the sample used in the present study had a greater percentage of women 30 years and older, of women who obtained higher levels of education, of women with household incomes of \$20,000 and more, and of women who were married (see Table 2, p.55). These differences need to be taken into consideration when generalizing the results to Oregon women.

Profiles of Oregon women emerged relating their shopping behavior and fashion leadership. It appears that women in this Oregon sample who categorized themselves as innovative communicators had a higher household income, spent more money on apparel, always or often purchased their apparel at specialty stores, and sometimes purchased apparel at department stores compared to non-innovative communicators. It also appears that women in this Oregon sample who categorized themselves as non-innovative communicators had lower household incomes, spent less money on apparel, always or often purchased their apparel at discount stores, and sometimes purchased apparel at department stores compared to innovative communicators.

In terms of shopping behavior, similarities were found between this sample of innovative communicators and previous samples of innovators, opinion leaders, and innovative communicators. Innovative communicators and non-

innovative communicators were similar to previous studies, in store patronage and clothing expenditures. In addition, based on the results, innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators in the present sample were similar to previous studies in the use of store credit cards for apparel purchases. However, unlike previous research, there were no differences among the groups in their use of national credit cards, checks or cash for apparel purchases. The widespread use of national credit cards as a form of payment may be the reason for the lack of differences among the subject groups.

Based on the results from this study and past studies, these profiles of Oregon women who were innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators can be used by retailers in developing marketing strategies to fit their retail establishment. Since there were many similarities between this sample and samples from previous research, Oregon retailers may also use other life-style studies that deal with shopping behavior for their marketing strategies.

#### Recommendations for Future Research

An implication from this research was that over half of the subjects responded that they never buy their apparel at off-price stores. It may be that they did not

understand what the term "off-price" meant or that they may actually not shop at off-price stores because of where they reside. Off-price stores tend to be located in metropolitan areas of Oregon. Forty six percent of the sample resided in non-metropolitan areas. Of the 54 percent who resided in metropolitan areas, some of them may not have lived close to an off-price outlet, and preferred not to travel far for their clothing purchases.

Another reason for the high percentage of respondents not shopping at off-price stores may be a lack of time to do so. Buff (1983) stated that shopping at off-price outlets is time consuming if the consumer is looking for the best buys. However, today's literature on demographic trends is telling the retailer that consumers have less time for shopping because of their demanding work schedules (Sheth, 1983; Smilgis, 1987). Therefore, further research needs to be conducted to study the profile of off-price store patrons.

It is suggested by this researcher that future studies use a different method for measuring amount spent on apparel purchases. The method used in this study asked the respondent to fill in a blank space with the amount of money they had spent on apparel purchases in the past year. Several of the respondents put question marks next to the amount or stated that their figure was a rough estimate. Future studies might try tracking methods of

expenditures where respondents receive a ledger from the researcher to record apparel purchases over a years' time.

To accurately compare innovative communicators and non-innovative communicators, questions dealing with social participation and media usage need to be examined for Oregon women. Past studies showed that fashion leaders were confident, outgoing, and participated in social and organizational activities (Rogers, 1983; Plummer, 1971; Hirshman & Goldstucker, 1978, Baumgarten, 1974; Darden & Reynolds, 1972, 1974; Summers, 1970). Opinion leaders, as part of the innovative communicator profile, played the role of disseminating information about new fashions to others within their peer group. To perform this function, they were found to be more active in social and community organizations than followers (Summers, 1969). Therefore, questions pertaining to social participation need to be added to future questionnaires on fashion leadership of Oregon women. With the addition of these questions, the relationship between social participation and level of fashion leadership among Oregon women could be examined for a more in-depth profile.

Past research also revealed that different types of media were read based on the subjects' level of fashion leadership and shopping orientation or life-style (Darden & Reynolds, 1972, 1974; Summers, 1970; Baumgarten, 1974; Moschis, 1976). Fashion leaders tended to be exposed to

more mass media, and viewed fashion related media more often than followers (Summers, 1970; Mason & Bellinger, 1973-1974; Baumgarten, 1974). Moschis (1976) study revealed that "special" and "problem-solver shoppers" tended to read home magazines, "brand-loyal" and "name-conscious shoppers" preferred fashion, business, and news magazines. Therefore, future studies should investigate media habits of Oregon women in relation to their level of fashion leadership. This would add another dimension to the profile of Oregon women and assist retailers in deciding which types of media to use for reaching their target market.

The results of this study have provided a profile of Oregon women regarding store patronage, form of payment, and amount spent annually on clothing purchases as well as demographic characteristics. A comparison of the shopping variables and demographic characteristics of this sample with previous studies reveals similarities that make this study a viable tool for retailers when developing marketing strategies for their own market segment.

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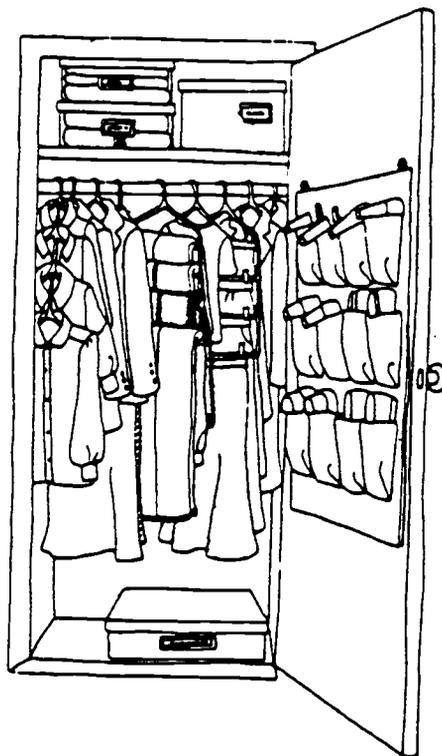
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## **APPENDICES**

**Appendix A**  
**Questionnaire**

# **Your Concerns With Clothing, Fabrics, and Laundry Products**



**Your help with this survey is greatly appreciated!**

**Department of Apparel, Interiors, and Merchandising  
College of Home Economics  
Oregon State University  
Corvallis, OR 97331**

1987

1. In the chart below is a list of problems you and/or members of your household may or may not have had with household fabrics (sheets, towels, carpets, and upholstery) or with the clothing you and/or members of your household wear or have worn.

YOU

YOUR AGE \_\_\_\_\_

YOUR SEX \_\_\_\_\_

Had a problem?
----------------

a. Laundry products that cause skin irritation .....	YES	NO	....
b. Fabric that sags or stretches out of shape .....	YES	NO	....
c. Fabric that shrinks during laundering and/or dry cleaning .....	YES	NO	....
d. Fabric that clings or builds up static electricity .....	YES	NO	....
e. Fabric that wrinkles easily and unwanted wrinkles are difficult to remove .....	YES	NO	....
f. Fabric that causes eye irritations .....	YES	NO	....
g. Fabric that causes head congestion (stuffynose, headache) .....	YES	NO	....
h. Fabric that should absorb moisture but does not .....	YES	NO	....
i. Fabric that causes skin irritation (rash, welts, itching) .....	YES	NO	....
j. Laundry products to which you are allergic .....	YES	NO	....
k. Fabric that retains an unpleasant odor after laundering or dry cleaning. ....	YES	NO	....
l. Clothing labels that cause skin irritation .....	YES	NO	....
m. Fabric that forms small balls on its surface. ....	YES	NO	....
n. Infant diapers that cause skin irritation (respond for child in appropriate column) .....	YES	NO	....
o. Fabric with dye that rubs off on the skin. ....	YES	NO	....
p. Applied design or trim that causes skin irritation .....	YES	NO	....
q. Diapers or similar products for adults that cause skin irritaiton .....	YES	NO	....
r. Other problems (please specify) _____			



2. Below are a list of additional problems you may have had with household fabrics or with the clothing you buy or make for yourself. For each potential problem please circle the 1 of NO, this has not been a problem for you and circle the 2 of YES this has been a problem for you. For those that have been a problem, please describe the fabric. Please respond to the following questions only for yourself. (Circle one number for each)

PROBLEM	Had a problem?			If YES, Describe the fabric
	NO	YES		
a. Fabric that makes you feel clammy .....	1	2	→	_____
b. Fabric that makes you feel damp .....	1	2	→	_____
c. Fabric that feels hard or stiff .....	1	2	→	_____
d. Fabric that feels rough ....	1	2	→	_____
e. Fabric that feels prickly ...	1	2	→	_____
f. Fabric that feels too warm .	1	2	→	_____

3. Below are a list of ways and places where people often obtain their clothing. Please indicate if you always, often, sometimes, or never buy or obtain your clothing from each of the following? (Circle one number for each)

	ALWAYS	OFTEN	SOME-TIMES	NEVER
a. Department store (e.g. The Bon, J.C. Penney) .....	1	2	3	4
b. Specialty store (e.g. Nordstrom, Jay Jacobs) .....	1	2	3	4
c. Discount store (e.g. Fred Meyer, K-Mart) .....	1	2	3	4
d. Off-price store (e.g. Ross', Marshall's, The Rack) .....	1	2	3	4
e. Through mail order catalogs .....	1	2	3	4
f. Garage or rummage sales .....	1	2	3	4
g. Used clothing store .....	1	2	3	4
h. I make the clothing I wear .....	1	2	3	4
i. The clothing I wear are gifts .....	1	2	3	4
j. In what other ways or places do you obtain the clothing you wear?				

(PLEASE GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE)

4. People do many things with the clothing they no longer wear. Please indicate for each of the following actions listed below whether you always, often, sometimes, or never do this with the clothing you no longer wear. (Circle one number for each)

ACTION	ALWAYS	OFTEN	SOME-TIMES	NEVER
a. Give to the Goodwill, Salvation Army or some other charity organization . . . .	1	2	3	4
b. Save the clothing for sentimental reasons or to be worn in years to come .	1	2	3	4
c. Give the clothing to friends or relatives.	1	2	3	4
d. Throw the clothing away in the trash . .	1	2	3	4
e. Sell your used clothing on consignment at a used clothing store . . . . .	1	2	3	4
f. Sell your used clothing at garage or rummage sales . . . . .	1	2	3	4
g. Use your used clothing for rags . . . . .	1	2	3	4
h. What other things do you do with the clothing you no longer wear?				

5. When you buy clothing, how often do you use each of the following forms of payment: always, often, sometimes, or never? (Circle one number for each)

FORM OF PAYMENT	ALWAYS	OFTEN	SOME-TIMES	NEVER
a. Cash . . . . .	1	2	3	4
b. Check . . . . .	1	2	3	4
c. National credit card (VISA, Mastercard) . . . . .	1	2	3	4
d. Store credit care . . . . .	1	2	3	4
e. Bank debit card . . . . .	1	2	3	4
f. What other forms of payment do you use?				

6. Approximately how much money did you spend on purchases of clothing and accessories for yourself last year?

\$ \_\_\_\_\_ TOTAL DOLLARS SPENT

(PLEASE GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE)

7. Please indicate if the following statements are always, often, sometimes, or never true of you. (Circle one number for each)

	ALWAYS	OFTEN	SOME-TIMES	NEVER
a. I am usually the first among my friends to try new clothing fashions . . . . .	1	2	3	4
b. When I buy clothing, I usually buy it on sale . . . . .	1	2	3	4
c. My friends regard me as a good source of advice about clothing fashions . . . .	1	2	3	4

The next series of questions is designed to help us interpret our results more accurately. We would very much appreciate your answers to these important questions about you. Your name will not be associated with your responses.

8. Which of the following best describes your racial or ethnic identification? (Circle one number)

- 1 BLACK (NEGRO)
- 2 HISPANIC (MEXICAN-AMERICAN)
- 3 NATIVE AMERICAN (AMERICAN INDIAN)
- 4 WHITE (CAUCASIAN)
- 5 ORIENTAL
- 6 OTHER (specify \_\_\_\_\_)

9. Are you currently employed full time or part time for pay? (Circle one number)

- 1 NO, I AM NOT EMPLOYED
  - 2 EMPLOYED FULL TIME
  - 3 EMPLOYED PART TIME
- \_\_\_\_\_ JOB TITLE  
 \_\_\_\_\_ INDUSTRY

10. What is your present marital status? (Circle one number)

- 1 SINGLE, NEVER MARRIED
  - 2 DIVORCED/SEPARATED
  - 3 WIDOWED
  - 4 LIVING WITH A PARTNER
  - 5 MARRIED
10. a. Is your spouse/partner employed full time or part time for pay? (Circle one number)

- 1 NO, NOT EMPLOYED
  - 2 EMPLOYED FULL TIME
  - 3 EMPLOYED PART TIME
- \_\_\_\_\_ JOB TITLE  
 \_\_\_\_\_ INDUSTRY

(PLEASE GO TO THE NEXT PAGE)

11. Which of the following best describes the highest grade you have completed in school?  
(Circle one number)

- 1 8TH GRADE OR LESS
- 2 GRADES 9 THROUGH 11
- 3 HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATE EQUIVALENT
- 4 TECHNICAL TRADE SCHOOL BEYOND HIGH SCHOOL
- 5 SOME COMMUNITY COLLEGE
- 6 COMMUNITY (TWO-YEAR) COLLEGE DEGREE OR CERTIFICATE
- 7 SOME FOUR-YEAR COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY
- 8 COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY DEGREE (BACHELORS)
- 9 SOME GRADUATE SCHOOL
- 10 GRADUATE OR PROFESSIONAL DEGREE
- 11 OTHER (specify \_\_\_\_\_)

12. Before taxes, what is your estimate of the total combined income of your household in 1986?  
(Circle one number)

- 1 UNDER \$10,000
- 2 \$10,000 TO \$14,999
- 3 \$15,000 TO \$19,999
- 4 \$20,000 TO \$29,999
- 5 \$30,000 TO \$39,999
- 6 \$40,000 TO \$49,999
- 7 \$50,000 TO \$59,999
- 8 \$60,000 TO \$69,999
- 9 \$70,000 OR MORE

13. Is there anything else you would like to tell us about problems you have encountered with household fabrics and/or clothing?

Please return this survey in the enclosed reply envelope (no postage is needed).

Or send to: Leslie L. Davis  
Department of Apparel, Interiors, and Merchandising  
College of Home Economics  
Oregon State University  
Corvallis, OR 97331

(THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION)

**Appendix B**  
**Cover Letter**

Department of  
Apparel, Interiors  
and Merchandising  
  
College of  
Home Economics



Corvallis, Oregon 97331

(503) 754-3796

September 14, 1987

^F1^

Every year consumers spend millions of dollars on clothing that is not worn for one reason or another. However, the full extent of problems encountered with clothing and household textiles is not known. Therefore, we as textiles researchers are asking you or any member of your household to share with us problems you may have had with your clothing.

Your household is one of a small number in which people are being asked about clothing problems. It was drawn in a random sample of all households in the entire state. In order that the results will truly represent the problems of the people of Oregon, it is important that each questionnaire be completed and returned.

The questionnaire has an identification number for mailing purposes only. This is so that we may check your name off of the mailing list when your questionnaire is returned. Your name will not be associated with your responses about the nature and cause of problems you have had. Please complete the questionnaire and return it in the enclosed postage-paid envelope as soon as possible.

The results of this research will be made available to fabric and apparel manufacturers in an effort to eliminate textile-related problems.

I would be happy to answer any questions you may have. Please write or call. The telephone number is (503) 754-3796.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Leslie L. Davis, Ph.D.  
Project Director

^N^P^P

**Appendix C**

**First Follow Up: Post Card**

Last week a questionnaire seeking information about problems you may have with clothing and laundry products was mailed to you. Your name was drawn in a random sample of adults in Oregon.

If you have already completed and returned it to us, please accept our sincere thanks. If not, please do so today. Because it has been sent to only a small, but representative, sample of Oregon residents it is extremely important that yours also be included in the study if the results are to accurately represent the problems of Oregon residents.

If by some chance you did not receive the questionnaire, or it got misplaced, please call me right now, collect (503-754-3796) and I will get another one in the mail to you today.

Sincerely,

Redacted for Privacy

Leslie L. Davis  
Project Director

**Appendix D**  
**Second Follow Up: Cover Letter**

Department of  
Apparel, Interiors  
and Merchandising  
College of  
Home Economics



Corvallis, Oregon 97331

.5031 754 3796

October 6, 1987

^F1^

About three weeks ago I wrote to you seeking your input on the full extent of problems encountered with clothing and household textiles. As of today we have not yet received your completed questionnaire.

My research unit has undertaken this study because of the belief that consumer opinions should be taken into account in the development and marketing of clothing, household textiles and laundry products used by the consumer. We are concerned that some problems may be serious enough to pose a health risk that will require further investigation.

I am writing to you again because of the significance each questionnaire has to the usefulness of this study. Your name was drawn through a scientific sampling process in which every household in Oregon had an equal chance of being selected. In order for the results of this study to be truly representative of the opinions of all Oregon residents it is essential that each person in the sample return their questionnaire. As mentioned in my last letter, the questionnaire from your household should be completed by you or any member of your household.

In the event that your questionnaire has been misplaced, a replacement is enclosed. Please take a few minutes to assist in this endeavor.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Cordially,

Leslie L. Davis, Ph.D.  
Project Director

**Appendix E**

**Third Follow Up: Cover Letter**

Department of  
Apparel, Interiors  
and Merchandising

College of  
Home Economics



Corvallis, Oregon 97331

503/754-3796

October 20, 1987

^F1^

I am writing to you about our study on problems encountered with clothing and household textiles and laundry products. We have not yet received your completed questionnaire.

The large number of questionnaires returned is very encouraging. But, whether we will be able to describe accurately how Oregonians feel about their health and comfort related to clothing and household textiles and laundry products depends upon you and the others who have not yet responded. This is because our past experiences suggest that those of you who have not yet sent in your questionnaire may have quite different problems than those who already have. Or you may have no problems, and we should know this too.

This is the first statewide study of this type that has ever been done. Therefore, the results are of particular importance to the many citizens and of course, manufacturers and retailers of clothing and related products. As researchers in the field of textiles and clothing, we are concerned that our results will reflect the needs and problems of persons like yourself.

In case our other correspondence did not reach you or you have misplaced it, a replacement questionnaire is enclosed. May I urge you or any member of your household to complete and return it as quickly as possible.

Your contribution to the success of this study will be appreciated greatly.

Most sincerely,

Leslie L. Davis, Ph.D.  
Project Director

**Appendix F**  
**Application For Exemption**

APPLICATION FOR EXEMPTION  
COMMITTEE FOR THE PROTECTION OF HUMAN SUBJECTS

Principal Investigator\* Leslie Davis Phone 754-3796  
 Student's Name (if any) Cheryl Cruzan Johnson Phone 752-6715  
 Department Apparel, Interiors and Merchandising  
 Source of Funding U.S.H. Agric. Exper. Station and Personal  
 Project Title Relationship Between Fashion Leadership and Buying Behavior Among  
Oregon Women

Certain categories of research are exempt from human subjects review. These categories are reproduced for your information on the back of this form. Feel free to call the Research Office, 754-3437, if you have questions.

The following information should be attached to this form and two copies of the complete Application for Exemption should be submitted to the Research Office, AdS A312:

1. A copy of any questionnaire, survey, testing instrument, etc. to be used in this project.
2. A copy of the informed consent document, survey cover letter, or other informed consent information, and a description of the methods by which informed consent will be obtained from the subjects.
3. A brief description of the methods and procedures to be used during this research project, including:
  - (a) A short paragraph describing the objectives of this research,
  - (b) A description of the methods by which anonymity of the subjects will be maintained,
  - (c) A description of the subject population, and
  - (d) Information regarding any other approvals which have been or will be obtained (e.g., school districts, hospitals, cooperating institutions).

Redacted for Privacy

Signed \_\_\_\_\_ Date 8/1/87  
 Principal Investigator\*

\*Note: Student projects should be submitted by the Major Professor as Principal Investigator.

**Appendix G**

**Declaration of Intent For Use of W-175 Data**

## DECLARATION OF INTENT FOR USE OF W-175 DATA

Date: 1/9/89To: Barbara Harger, W-175 Publications Chair,  
2515 Campus Road, University of Hawaii, Honolulu, HI 96822From: Cheryl C. Johnson (applicant)Oregon State University (station)Apparel, Interiors and Merchandising (address)Corvallis, Or. 97331

For graduate students only:

Leslie L. Davis (faculty advisor)

Request loan of W-175 data on the following basis:

 Individual project Joint project with \_\_\_\_\_

Objectives of the research: The objective of this study was to investigate differences between fashion leaders and non-fashion leaders in their shopping behavior and demographic characteristics.

Parts of data to be used:

The insert for Oregon subjects and their demographics.

\*List of questions used on next page.

Nature of use or publication:

journal article in \_\_\_\_\_

research bulletin on \_\_\_\_\_

extension publication on \_\_\_\_\_

doctoral dissertation on \_\_\_\_\_

master's thesis on Shopping Behavior of Oregon Adult Women

analytical purpose only, no manuscript anticipated

other (explain) \_\_\_\_\_

Proposed (working) title of research or publication:

Relationship Between Fashion Leadership and Apparel Buying  
Behavior Among Oregon WomenAnticipated date for completion of publication or research: Spring '89Attach a copy of the review procedure. (not applicable )